

Pheromones Stimulate Mating and Differentiation via Paracrine and Autocrine Signaling in *Cryptococcus neoformans*

Wei-Chiang Shen,^{1†} Robert C. Davidson,¹ Gary M. Cox,^{2,3} and Joseph Heitman^{1,2,3,4,5*}

Departments of Genetics,¹ Medicine,² Microbiology,³ and Pharmacology and Cancer Biology,⁴ and the Howard Hughes Medical Institute,⁵ Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina 27710

Received 14 December 2001/Accepted 1 March 2002

***Cryptococcus neoformans* is a pathogenic fungus with a defined sexual cycle involving haploid *MAT* α and *MAT* α cells. Interestingly, *MAT* α strains are more common, are more virulent than congenic *MAT* α strains, and undergo haploid fruiting in response to nitrogen limitation or *MAT* α cells. Three genes encoding the MF α pheromone were identified in the *MAT* α mating-type locus and shown to be transcriptionally induced by limiting nutrients and coculture with *MAT* α cells. The MF α 1, MF α 2, and MF α 3 genes were mutated, individually and in combination. *MAT* α strains lacking MF α pheromone failed to induce morphological changes in *MAT* α cells. Pheromoneless *MAT* α mutants were fusion and mating impaired but not sterile and mated at ~1% the wild-type level. The pheromoneless *MAT* α mutants were also partially defective in haploid fruiting, and overexpression of MF α pheromone enhanced haploid fruiting. Overexpression of MF α pheromone also enhanced haploid fruiting of *MAT* α cells and stimulated conjugation tube formation in *MAT* α cells. A conserved G-protein activated mitogen-activated protein kinase signaling pathway was found to be required for both induction and response to mating pheromones. The MF α pheromone was not essential for virulence of *C. neoformans* but does contribute to the overall virulence composite. These studies define paracrine and autocrine pheromone response pathways that signal mating and differentiation of this pathogenic fungus.**

Cryptococcus neoformans is an opportunistic human pathogenic fungus first identified more than 100 years ago (10, 55). The incidence of disease caused by *C. neoformans* has increased dramatically in the past two decades due to an increasing population of immunocompromised individuals. *C. neoformans* infection results from inhalation of spores or desiccated yeast cells, which then spread via the bloodstream to infect the central nervous system and cause life-threatening meningoencephalitis. Studies of the pathogenesis of *C. neoformans* have defined two important virulence factors: a large polysaccharide capsule that impairs phagocytosis and promotes intracellular survival, and melanin, a pigmented polymer that ensheathes the fungal cells and serves as an antioxidant to protect from oxidative and nitrosative challenge by macrophages (12, 22, 40, 41, 54).

C. neoformans is a heterothallic basidiomycete with a defined sexual cycle involving haploid cells of two mating types: *MAT* α and *MAT* α (2, 37). Mating occurs when two strains of opposite mating type are cocultured under certain nutritional conditions, such as nitrogen limitation, and is thought to be regulated by pheromones (18, 45). After cell fusion, a heterokaryotic filamentous mycelium develops. The tips of the filaments differentiate to form a rounded structure, the basidium, where nuclear fusion, meiosis, and sporulation occur. Interestingly, strains of the *MAT* α mating type differentiate by a process termed haploid or monokaryotic fruiting, which involves

filamentation, basidia formation, and sporulation as haploids (64). This process occurs to a limited extent in response to nitrogen limitation alone and is dramatically stimulated when *MAT* α cells are in close proximity (62).

The *MAT* α mating-type locus is also linked to prevalence and virulence of *C. neoformans*. *MAT* α strains are more common than *MAT* α strains in the environment (38), virtually all clinical isolates are of the *MAT* α mating type, and *MAT* α strains are more virulent than congenic *MAT* α strains in a murine tail vein injection model (39).

An ~40-kb region of the genome containing part of the *MAT* α locus was previously identified by a difference cloning method (45). One gene encoding a presumptive mating pheromone, MF α 1, was identified and found to stimulate conjugation tube formation when transformed into *MAT* α cells. The *C. neoformans* MF α 1 pheromone is similar to *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* a-factor and basidiomycetous fungal pheromones, which all have a characteristic CAAX prenylation motif at the carboxy terminus (7, 8, 14, 24, 44, 46, 48). Recent studies have revealed that farnesylation and carboxymethylation directed by the CAAX motif are necessary for the activity of expressed or synthetic MF α 1 pheromone (18).

Mating pheromones are known to be essential for the initial recognition and cell-cell fusion steps during mating in both budding and fission yeasts (17, 57, 65). In contrast, in the homobasidiomycetes *Coprinus cinereus* and *Schizophyllum commune*, cell fusion occurs promiscuously and is not regulated by pheromone. In these organisms, mating pheromones control nuclear migration and fusion of the hook or clamp cells that link the filament cells and function to ensure proper nuclear migration (11, 33, 34, 36, 59). In the hemibasidiomycetous plant fungal pathogen *Ustilago maydis*, mating pheromones play roles in both early and late stages of mating, controlling

* Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Genetics, 322 Carl Building, Box 3546, Duke University Medical Center, Research Dr., Durham, NC 27710. Phone: (919) 684-2824. Fax: (919) 684-5458. E-mail: heitman001@duke.edu.

† Present address: Department of Plant Pathology, National Taiwan University, 106 Taipei, Taiwan.

TABLE 1. *C. neoformans* strains

| Strain | Genotype ^a | Source (reference) |
|----------|---|---|
| JEC20 | <i>MATa</i> | Kwon-Chung et al. (39) |
| JEC21 | <i>MATα</i> | Kwon-Chung et al. (39) |
| JEC30 | <i>MATa lys1</i> | J. Edman |
| JEC34 | <i>MATa ura5</i> | Moore and Edman (45) |
| JEC43 | <i>MATα ura5</i> | Moore and Edman (45) |
| JEC50 | <i>MATα ade2</i> | Moore and Edman (45) |
| JEC53 | <i>MATa ura5 lys1</i> | J. Edman |
| JEC155 | <i>MATα ura5 ade2</i> | J. Edman |
| JEC169 | <i>MATa ura5 ade2 lys1</i> | J. Edman |
| JEC171 | <i>MATa ade2 lys2</i> | J. Edman |
| WSC1 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 ura5 ade2</i> | This study |
| WSC13 | <i>MATα mfa2,3::URA5 ura5</i> | This study |
| WSC18 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::URA5 ade2 ura5</i> | This study |
| WSC50 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::ura5 ade2 ura5 (FOA^r)</i> | This study |
| WSC51 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::ura5 ade2 ura5 (FOA^r)</i> | This study |
| WSC56 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::ura5 ade2 ura5 (FOA^r) MFα1-URA5</i> | This study |
| WSC129 | <i>MATα gpb1::URA5 ura5</i> | This study |
| WSC131 | <i>MATα gpb1::ura5 ura5 (FOA^r)</i> | This study |
| RDC21-14 | <i>MATα ste7::ADE2 ade2 ura5</i> | R. C. Davidson et al., unpublished data |
| RDC46-3 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::URA5 ade2 ura5</i> | This study |
| RDC46-4 | <i>MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::URA5 ade2 ura5</i> | This study |

^a FOA^r, resistant to 5-FOA.

conjugation tube formation and cell fusion and also the stability of the heterokaryotic filaments (5, 35, 56).

Here we took a molecular genetics approach to analyze roles of the pheromones in mating, differentiation, and virulence of *C. neoformans*. Our studies reveal that the mating pheromones play a paracrine signaling role, activating morphological changes in mating partner cells that promote cell fusion and conjugation, similar to the role of pheromones in *U. maydis*. Our studies also reveal that the MFα mating pheromone plays an autocrine signaling role, stimulating filamentation and sporulation of haploid *MATα* cells in response to nutrient limitation. Studies of cell growth and mating in the protozoan ciliate *Euplotes raikovi* have revealed an analogous role for secreted pheromones in regulating mitogenesis via autocrine signaling and mating via paracrine signaling between cells of opposite mating type (6, 49, 61). Taken together, these findings suggest that an ancient autocrine role for pheromones in self-signaling was coopted to play a paracrine signaling role in mating partner recognition in both uni- and multicellular eukaryotes. Alternatively, the unique ability of *MATα* cells to differentiate via haploid fruiting may have in part evolved via mutations that enable *MATα* cells to sense and respond to their own mating pheromone.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains. All studies were conducted with congenic serotype D strains derived from JEC20 (*MATa*) and JEC21 (*MATa*) and their auxotrophic derivatives (30, 39, 45). All strains used are listed in Table 1.

Transformations. Transformation by electroporation was performed by the method described by Edman and Kwon-Chung (20) by using a Bio-Rad gene pulser (480 mV, 25 μF, 800 Ω). This method was used for all pCnTel1-based plasmids, which were cleaved with the rare-cutting meganuclease enzyme I-SceI to reveal the telomeric ends prior to transformation. Biolistic transformations were performed by the method previously described by Toffaletti and Perfect (58) by using a Bio-Rad Model PDS-1000/He Biolistic Particle Delivery System. This method was used for all non-telomere-based plasmids.

Pheromone gene deletions. Deletion alleles were constructed by subcloning flanking DNA as PCR products or genomic subclones and replacing the coding regions with *C. neoformans ADE2* or *URA5* gene cassettes. The *mfa1* pheromone

gene deletion construct was made by overlap PCR (31). The *C. neoformans ADE2* gene was cloned in place of the *Mfa1* coding region. The deletion fragment was released from the vector and biologically transformed into the *MATα ura5* strain JEC155. Transformants were selected on synthetic medium lacking adenine and containing 1 M sorbitol. Ade⁺ transformants were colony purified, and deletion mutants were identified by PCR analysis. One deletion strain was backcrossed to the *MATa ade2 lys2* strain JEC171 and a *MATα* prototrophic *mfa1* deletion strain selected for phenotypic characterization. The *mfa2,3* pheromone gene deletion plasmid was made by inserting the *URA5* gene between a 1.4-kb *BamHI-XhoI* PCR fragment downstream of the *MFα3* gene and a 1-kb *XhoI-KpnI* PCR fragment downstream of the *MFα2* gene to replace the *MFα2,3* genomic region with the *URA5* marker. The *mfa2,3* deletion allele was released and biologically transformed into the *MATα ura5* strain JEC43 to create the *mfa2,3* deletion strain or into the *mfa1 ura5* deletion strain to create the *mfa1,2,3* deletion strain (WSC18). Transformants were selected on synthetic medium lacking uracil and containing 1 M sorbitol. Transformants were screened by PCR and confirmed by Southern blot. The *MFα1* gene linked to the *URA5* marker was reintroduced into a *ura5* derivative of the *mfa1,2,3* triple mutant strain (WSC50) (generated by selection on 5-fluoroorotic acid [5-FOA] medium) to yield the *mfa1,2,3 MFα1* strain (WSC56).

Northern blot analysis. *C. neoformans* serotype D wild-type *MATα* and *MATa* strains and pheromone deletion strains were grown in liquid yeast extract-peptone-dextrose (YPD) medium overnight at 30°C. The cells were harvested, washed with sterile water, and resuspended in sterile water at 1 × 10⁹ to 5 × 10⁹ cells/ml. Then, 200 μl or 50 μl of *MATα* wild-type and pheromone deletion strains were spread on V8 or YPD medium. Parallel experiments were performed by spreading the strains mentioned above with the same amount of wild-type *MATa* cells as mating mixtures. Plates were incubated at 24°C for 28 h, and the cells were collected and lyophilized. Total RNA was isolated by using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) and electrophoresed, transferred, and subjected to Northern hybridization by standard procedures. The *MFα* common open reading frame, the unique *MFα3* 3'-untranslated region, and the *C. neoformans* actin gene were used as probes.

Mating assays. Strains to be subjected to mating assays were first grown on YPD medium for 2 days at 30°C and then cocultured with the wild-type *MATa* strain JEC20 on V8 mating medium at 24°C. Matings were scored daily for filamentation by using a Nikon Eclipse E400 microscope. Photomicroscopy was on representative sectors of mating mixes.

Quantitative mating assay. 10⁷ cells of the *MATα* prototrophic wild-type, *mfa1,2,3* mutant, and *mfa1,2,3 MFα1* complemented strains were mixed with 2 × 10⁷ cells of the *MATa lys1 ura5* strain JEC53 in 100 μl of H₂O. Next, 10 μl of these mixtures was spotted in triplicate onto V8 agar medium, followed by incubation for 10 days. The agar plug containing the mating mixture was excised and completely resuspended in 1 ml of sterile water. The suspension was then serially diluted and plated on synthetic medium lacking lysine and containing

5-FOA, which is toxic to *URA5* strains of *C. neoformans*, to select for recombinant basidiospores. The colonies were counted to determine the mating efficiency.

Cell fusion assays. 10^7 cells of the *MAT α mfa1,2,3 ura5* auxotrophic mutant strains WSC50 and WSC51 and the wild-type *MAT α ura5* auxotrophic strain JEC43 were each incubated separately with the *MAT α ade2 lys2* auxotrophic strain JEC171 or the *MAT α lys1* strain JEC30 on V8 medium at room temperature ($\sim 24^\circ\text{C}$) for 1 to 4 days. An agar plug containing the entire spot of cells was cut out and vortexed vigorously in sterile H_2O . The agar was allowed to settle and dilutions of the liquid cell mixture were plated to yeast nitrogen base (YNB) minimal medium or SD-Ura-Lys medium to select for heterokaryons, diploids, or recombinants that are prototrophic as a result of cell fusion. The number of colonies that grew after 3 days was counted and recorded.

Haploid fruiting assays. Strains were cultured on YPD medium for 48 h, resuspended in sterile water, spotted onto filament agar, and incubated at 24°C for up to 4 weeks in the dark.

Plasmids. The *Mfa1* plasmid (pRCD101) was made by PCR amplification from *MAT α* genomic DNA with the primers JOHE6604 (5'-GAGCTCCGACA AGTCCGG GAA-3') and JOHE6605 (5'-TTTATATCTGACCCGGAAGC-3') based on the published sequences (13). The PCR product was cloned into the pCR2.1 vector by using the Topo TA Cloning Kit (Invitrogen), which contains flanking *EcoRI* restriction sites to create plasmid pRCD99. The insert was subcloned with *EcoRI* into the telomere containing *C. neoformans*/*Escherichia coli* shuttle vector pCnTel1 marked with *URA5* to create plasmid pRCD101. The *Mfa1* plasmid (pRCD17) was made by subcloning the 2.1-kb PCR-amplified *Mfa1* region from the pCR2.1-based plasmid pRCD1 (18) into the *C. neoformans*/*E. coli* *URA5* marked shuttle vector pJMM97-3.

β -Galactosidase assays. Samples were prepared by growing the indicated strains on solid medium, and cells were removed from the agar surface by scraping with a sterile glass rod and resuspending them in distilled water. Cells were then permeabilized by vortexing them for 5 min in 4% chloroform. Control experiments showed that the optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) measurement of cultures at different densities corresponded to protein determinations in *C. neoformans*. β -Galactosidase assays were then performed by standard *S. cerevisiae* protocols (9). The Miller units for a sample were calculated by the following standard formula: activity = $(1,000 \times X)/(\text{assay time} \times \text{volume assayed} \times Y)$ and represent units of activity per minute per milliliter per OD. Value X was calculated by performing the standard β -galactosidase assay and measuring the OD_{595} of the resulting samples. Y is the OD_{600} of the culture sample. The results shown are representative of several experiments in which similar results were obtained.

***GPB1* gene disruption.** The *gpb1* gene deletion plasmid was made by inserting the *URA5* gene between a 920-bp *Bam*HI-*Eco*RV PCR fragment upstream of the *GPB1* gene open reading frame and a 1,200-bp *Eco*RV-*Pst*I PCR product downstream of the *GPB1* gene to replace the *GPB1* genomic region with the *URA5* marker. This linear *gpb1::URA5* allele was introduced into the *MAT α ura5* strain JEC43 by biolistic transformation and then confirmed by PCR and Southern analysis. A *ura5* derivative of the resulting *gpb1* mutant strain was isolated after selection on 5-FOA medium.

Virulence tests. In vivo testing for virulence assays was conducted in 4- to 6-week-old female DBA mice (NCI/Charles River Laboratories) via tail vein injections. Ten mice were infected with 10^7 yeast cells of each strain in a volume of 100 μl via lateral tail vein injection as described previously (15, 25). The mice were fed ad libitum and monitored with twice-daily inspections. Mice that appeared moribund or in pain were sacrificed by using CO_2 inhalation. Survival data from the mouse experiments were analyzed by a Kruskal-Wallis test.

RESULTS

Identification of the *MF α 1*, *MF α 2*, and *MF α 3* pheromone genes. By sequence analysis of the cloned *MAT α* locus, two additional *MF α* pheromone genes were identified in the well-characterized serotype D strain JEC21 (B-4500) and its congenic derivatives. The *MF α 2* pheromone gene (GenBank accession number AF305782) is located 18.5 kb away from the *MF α 1* gene (GenBank accession number S56460), and the two genes are transcribed in opposite orientations (see also reference 18). A third pheromone gene, *MF α 3*, was also identified and is located immediately adjacent to and 613 bp upstream of the *MF α 2* gene; the closely linked *MF α 2* and *MF α 3* genes are divergently transcribed (GenBank accession number AF069982).

Similar mapping results have recently been reported by others (32). No other pheromone genes are apparent in the shotgun sequence coverage (12 times the size of the genome) obtained by the *C. neoformans* serotype D genome sequencing project.

Sequence comparison of the coding and flanking genomic regions of the three pheromone genes reveals that the *MF α 1* and *MF α 2* genes are highly related, whereas the *MF α 3* gene is more divergent. The coding regions of the *MF α 1* and *MF α 2* genes are identical. The *MF α 3* gene has three nucleotide changes in the coding region compared to the *MF α 1* and *MF α 2* genes; one alteration results in the replacement of threonine 9 of the pheromone precursor with alanine. The promoter regions (526 bp) of the *MF α 1* and *MF α 2* genes share 94.9% identity, compared with only 83.2 and 83.4% identity between the *MF α 3* gene and the *MF α 1* and *MF α 2* genes, respectively. The *MF α 1* and *MF α 2* genes differ by only one nucleotide in the 200-bp 3'-untranslated region, whereas this region of the *MF α 3* gene is completely divergent.

Mutation of the *MF α 1*, *MF α 2*, and *MF α 3* pheromone genes. To determine the roles of the three *MF α* pheromone genes in *C. neoformans* var. *neoformans*, the genes were mutated individually and in combination in congenic serotype D strains. The *MF α 1* gene was replaced with the *ADE2* gene, and the linked *MF α 2* and *MF α 3* genes were replaced with the *URA5* gene (see Materials and Methods). The resulting *mfa1 Δ ::ADE2* and *mfa2,3 Δ ::URA5* deletion alleles were introduced by biolistic transformation. *Ade*⁺, *Ura*⁺, and *Ade*⁺ *Ura*⁺ isolates were screened by PCR, and deletion strains were verified by Southern analysis (Fig. 1A). In the *mfa1*, *mfa2,3*, and *mfa1,2,3* deletion strains, the corresponding pheromone genes were deleted (Fig. 1A and Table 1). No additional pheromone genes that are homologous to *MF α 1-3* were detected in the *mfa1,2,3* triple mutant strain by Southern blot analysis of total genomic DNA. Genetic crosses and meiotic segregation analysis confirmed that the *mfa1 Δ ::ADE2* and *mfa2,3 Δ ::URA5* mutations were linked to each other, to the *MAT α* mating-type locus, and to a defect in mating and that no ectopic integrations of either marker gene had occurred (Table 2).

Induction of *MF α* pheromone gene expression by nutrient limitation and *MAT α* cells. Expression of the pheromone genes was examined by Northern blot to confirm that the pheromone genes had been functionally mutated and to examine conditions regulating pheromone gene expression. Mating of *C. neoformans* is routinely conducted on V8 medium and does not occur on rich medium such as YPD medium. Cells were grown on V8 and YPD medium with or without congenic *MAT α* mating partner cells. RNA was isolated and analyzed with probes to the open reading frame common to all three *MF α* genes, the unique 3' region of the *MF α 3* gene, or the actin gene as a control (Fig. 1B). The pheromone genes were expressed at a low level when the wild-type *MAT α* strain was grown on V8 medium alone (Fig. 1B). Pheromone gene expression was dramatically induced by the presence of *MAT α* mating partner cells on V8 medium (Fig. 1B, compare lanes 1 and 5). The *MF α 1* pheromone gene was induced in response to mating partner in the *mfa2,3* mutant strain (Fig. 1B, compare lanes 3 and 7), whereas pheromone gene expression was completely abolished in the *mfa1,2,3* triple mutant strain (Fig. 1B). Importantly, the fact that the *MF α 3* gene has a unique 3' sequence allowed us to show with an *MF α 3*-specific probe that

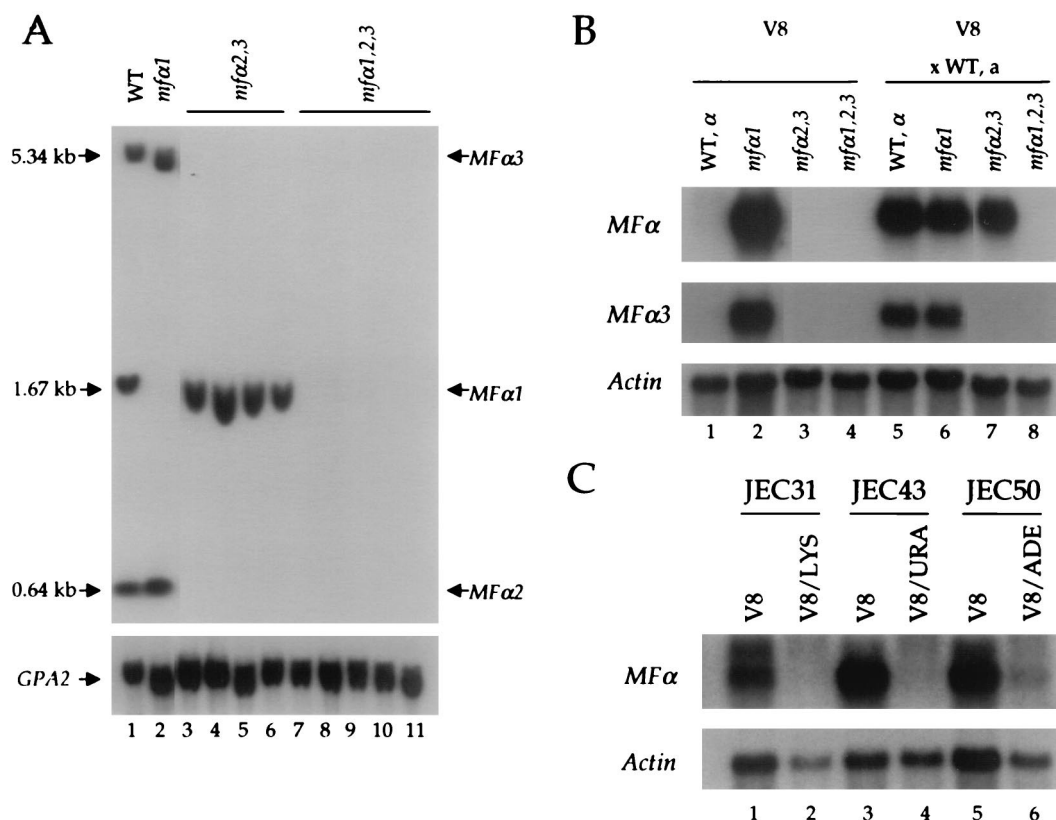


FIG. 1. Disruption and characterization of the *MFα* pheromone genes. (A) The disruption alleles of the *MFα1* and *MFα2,3* genes were constructed as described in Materials and Methods. Genomic DNA was isolated from the *MFα1,2,3* wild-type strain, one *mfa1Δ::ADE2* mutant strain, four *mfa2,3Δ::URA5* mutant strains, and five *mfa1Δ::ADE2 mfa2,3Δ::URA5* mutant strains; digested with *XhoI* and *HindIII*; electrophoresed; and analyzed by Southern hybridization with the common open reading frame of the *MFα* genes as a probe. The *GPA2* gene encoding a *C. neoformans* heterotrimeric G-protein α subunit was used as a control. (B) Total RNA was isolated from the *MATα* wild-type, *mfa1*, *mfa2,3*, and *mfa1,2,3* strains grown on V8 agar medium in the presence or absence of the wild-type *MATa* strain JEC20. Then, 10 μ g of total RNA was analyzed with the *MFα* common, *MFα3* specific, and actin gene probes. (C) Total RNA was isolated from *MATα lys1* (JEC31), *MATα ura5* (JEC43), and *MATα ade2* (JEC50) auxotrophic strains grown on V8 agar medium or V8 supplemented with 30 μ g of lysine, 20 μ g of uracil, or 20 μ g of adenine/ml, respectively. Next, 10 μ g of total RNA was analyzed with the *MFα* common and *actin* gene probes.

this pheromone gene is also induced by a mating partner (Fig. 1B, compare lanes 1 and 5). Furthermore, *MFα3* is not expressed in the *mfa2,3* and *mfa1,2,3* mutant strains (Fig. 1B). These findings reveal that at least the *MFα1* and *MFα3* genes are induced during coculture with mating partner cells, that the *MFα1-3* genes have been functionally deleted in the mutant strains, and that no other homologous pheromone genes are functionally expressed.

Pheromone gene expression was also found to be induced by nutritional limitation. First, a modest level of pheromone expression could be detected when *MATα* wild-type cells were cultured with *MATa* cells in YPD medium, but the level of expression was significantly lower than that observed on V8 medium (data not shown).

Second, surprisingly, expression of the *MFα2* and *MFα3* genes was readily detected when the *mfa1* mutant cells were cultured on V8 medium in the absence or presence of *MATa* mating partner cells. In contrast to the wild-type and *mfa2,3* and *mfa1,2,3* mutant strains, the *mfa1* mutant strain is a *ura5* auxotroph, and V8 medium is limiting for uracil and additional nutrients. Similar findings were obtained with *MATα lys1*, *MATα ura5*, and *MATα ade2* mutant strains: *MFα* expression was dramatically induced during culture on V8 medium alone,

TABLE 2. Segregation analysis of an *mfa1,2,3* triple mutant strain^a

| Segregant | Marker ^b | | | <i>MAT</i> | Mating efficiency ^c |
|-----------|---------------------|-----|-----|------------|--------------------------------|
| | Ade | Ura | Lys | | |
| 1 | - | - | - | a | Fertile |
| 2 | - | - | + | a | Fertile |
| 3 | - | - | + | a | Fertile |
| 4 | - | - | + | a | Fertile |
| 5 | + | + | - | α | Sterile |
| 6 | + | + | - | α | Sterile |
| 7 | - | - | + | a | Fertile |
| 8 | + | + | + | α | Sterile |
| 9 | + | + | + | α | Sterile |
| 10 | + | + | + | α | Sterile |
| 11 | + | + | - | α | Sterile |
| 12 | + | + | - | α | Sterile |
| 13 | + | + | - | α | Sterile |
| 14 | + | + | + | α | Sterile |
| WSC18 | + | + | + | α | Sterile |
| JEC169 | - | - | - | a | Fertile |

^a Parents: *MATα mfa1::ADE2 mfa2,3::URA5 ade2 ura5* (WSC18) × *MATa ade2 lys1 ura5* (JEC169).

^b Growth (+) or no growth (-) on culture medium lacking adenine (Ade), uracil (Ura), or lysine (Lys).

^c Fertile, wild-type mating; sterile, 1% mating equivalent to the *mfa1,2,3* mutant.

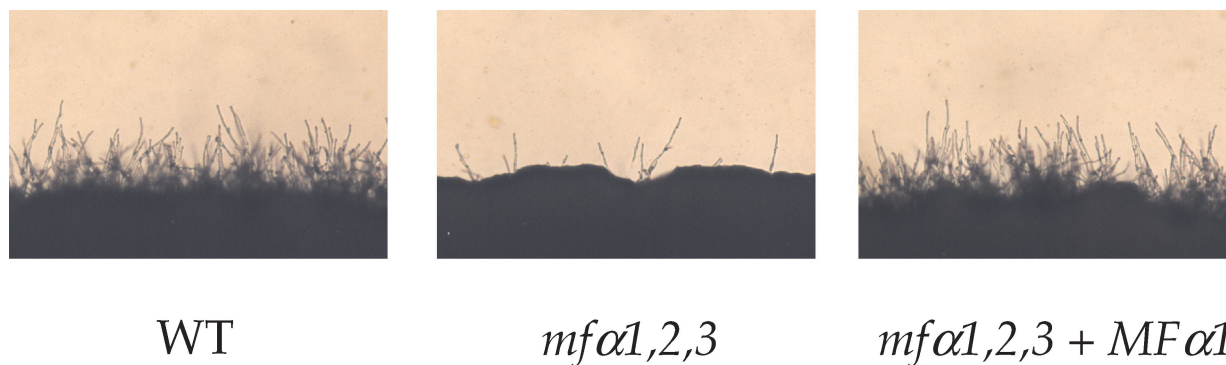


FIG. 2. MF α pheromone promotes but is not essential for mating. The isogenic wild-type (JEC21), *mfα1,2,3* (WSC18), and *mfα1,2,3* plus MF $\alpha1$ (WSC56) strains were coincubated with a MAT α wild-type strain (JEC20) on V8 agar mating medium in room light for 2 days at 24°C. The edges of the mating mixtures were photographed at $\times 100$ magnification.

whereas supplementation with lysine, uracil, or adenine repressed MF α expression (Fig. 1C). These findings may explain the finding that auxotrophic *C. neoformans* strains mate with enhanced proficiency compared to prototrophic strains. In summary, MF α pheromone gene expression is induced by both nutrient limiting conditions and factors secreted by mating partner cells, such as MF α pheromone. These findings are in accord with our recent studies on MF $\alpha1$ gene expression by using a reporter gene approach (18).

MF α pheromone promotes cell fusion and is important but not essential for mating. The pheromone triple gene deletion mutants exhibited defects in mating when crossed with congenic wild-type serotype D MAT α cells on V8 medium and the production of mating filaments was monitored by microscopy. In this assay, the *mfα1* and *mfα2,3* mutant strains mated with an efficiency similar to the wild-type MAT α strain (data not shown). By comparison, mating of the *mfα1,2,3* triple mutant strain was significantly reduced compared to the wild type, particularly at early time points (Fig. 2). Importantly, the pheromone triple mutant strain was not completely sterile, and some mating filaments, basidia, and basidiospores were still produced. When these filaments were stained with calcofluor white and ethidium bromide, both fused clamp connections and dikaryotic hyphal cells characteristic of mating were observed (data not shown). Because the microscopy-based assay used to monitor mating efficiency is qualitative, we employed a quantitative mating assay that monitors the production of *ura5* LYS⁺ recombinant basidiospores (see Materials and Methods). In this assay, the efficiency of mating of the *mfα1,2,3* pheromone mutant strain WSC18 with the MAT α *lys1 ura5* strain JEC53 was reduced ca. 100-fold compared to the congenic wild-type strain JEC21 (Table 3). Mating was restored to the wild-type level in both the filamentation and quantitative mating assays when the wild-type MF $\alpha1$ gene was reintroduced into the *mfα1,2,3* triple mutant by transformation (Table 3 and Fig. 2). Recombinant basidiospores that exhibited meiotic recombination for parental markers were also recovered from similar crosses (Table 2).

The role of the MF α pheromone in mating was analyzed in further detail by cell fusion and confrontation assays. The *mfα1,2,3 ura5* mutant strains WSC50 and WSC51 exhibited a defect in cell fusion, and the production of prototrophic het-

erokaryons was reduced 50- to 100-fold compared to the wild-type MAT α *ura5* strain JEC43 coincubated with the MAT α *lys1* strain JEC30 or the MAT α *lys2 ade2* strain JEC171 after incubation on V8 medium for 1 to 4 days (see Materials and Methods and data not shown). Thus, the MF α mating pheromone plays a role in the initial cell fusion event during mating. The role of pheromone was also examined in confrontation assays. When wild-type MAT α and MAT α cells are grown as lines of confronting cells on filamentation agar, MAT α cells produce conjugation tubes and haploid fruit (Fig. 3). In contrast, MAT α cells produce fewer conjugation tubes and instead a large number of enlarged, round, refractile cells are observed (2, 18, 62). The *mfα1,2,3* pheromone triple mutant strain failed to induce confronting MAT α cells to produce either conjugation tubes or enlarged round cells (Fig. 3). Thus, the MF α pheromone controls morphological responses of MAT α cells during mating. In addition, the *mfα1,2,3* mutant cells responded more poorly to MAT α cells and formed fewer conjugation tubes and haploid fruited to a more limited extent than did wild-type MAT α cells (Fig. 3). These findings suggest that MF α pheromone is required to induce production of the MF α pheromone that then acts on MAT α cells. Alternatively, as discussed further below, additional evidence indicates that the MF α pheromone also acts on MAT α cells by autocrine signaling.

MF α pheromone promotes haploid fruiting of MAT α cells. Surprisingly, the *mfα1,2,3* triple mutant strain was found to have a significant defect in haploid fruiting in response to nitrogen limitation. Wild-type MAT α and the isogenic *mfα1,2,3* mutant strain were cultured on filamentation agar for 10 days in the absence of light to enhance haploid fruiting. As shown in Fig. 4A, the wild-type MAT α strain haploid fruited under these conditions and produced filaments, basidia, and basidiospores. In comparison, the pheromone triple mutant strain largely failed to differentiate. Some haploid fruiting filaments were observed with the pheromoneless MAT α mutant strain upon prolonged incubation but were decreased compared to the wild-type strain. After genetic crosses and isolation of recombinant basidiospores by micromanipulation, the haploid fruiting defect was found to cosegregate with the *mfα1,2,3* mutations (data not shown). Finally, reintroduction of the wild-type

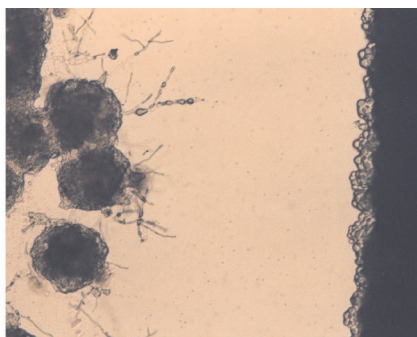
TABLE 3. Quantitative mating analysis

| Strain | Total no. of recombinants (dilution) | Calculated avg | % Wild-type mating |
|------------------------------|--|----------------|--------------------|
| Wild type (JEC21) | 38 (1:36 dilution) 56 (1:36 dilution) 80 (1:36 dilution) | 2,088 | 100 |
| <i>mfa1,2,3</i> (WSC18) | 16 (undiluted) 19 (undiluted) 21 (undiluted) | 19 | 0.9 |
| <i>mfa1,2,3 MFα1</i> (WSC56) | 40 (1:36 dilution) 72 (1:36 dilution) 39 (1:36 dilution) | 1,812 | 86.7 |

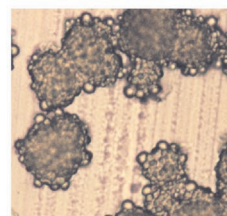
MFα1 gene into the *mfa1,2,3* mutant restored haploid fruiting (Fig. 4A).

Haploid fruiting was significantly enhanced in the *mfa1,2,3* plus *MFα1* reconstituted strain compared to the congenic wild-type strain (Fig. 4A). We considered two possible explanations. First, overexpression of the *MFα1* pheromone itself might enhance haploid fruiting of *MATα* cells. Alternatively, regulatory sequence elements in the promoter of the *MFα1* gene could titrate an inhibitory factor and enhance expression of other genes that control differentiation. To distinguish between these models, the *MFα1* gene promoter was replaced with the constitutive promoter from the GAPDH (glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase) gene (*GPD1*). When the resulting *P_{GPD1}-MFα1* gene fusion was introduced into the

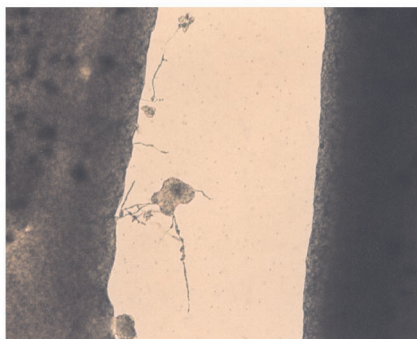
MFα1,2,3



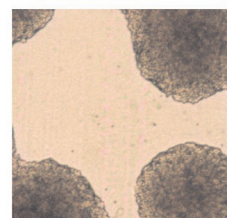
MATα



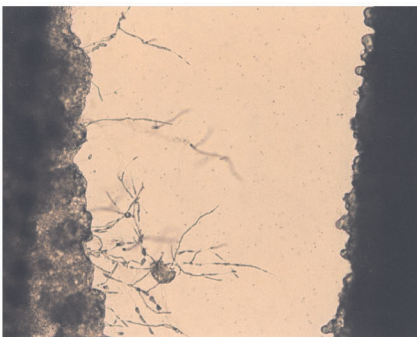
mfa1,2,3



MATα



mfa1,2,3
+ *MFα1*



MATα

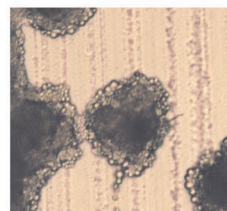


FIG. 3. *MFα* pheromone regulates morphogenesis of confronting *MATα* cells. The *MATα* wild-type (JEC21), *mfa1,2,3* (WSC18), and *MFα1,2,3 MFα1* (WSC56) strains were incubated in close proximity in confrontation assays with the *MATα* strain JEC20 on filament agar and photographed at $\times 100$ magnification (left panels) or at $\times 200$ magnification after 120 h incubation at 24°C (right panels).

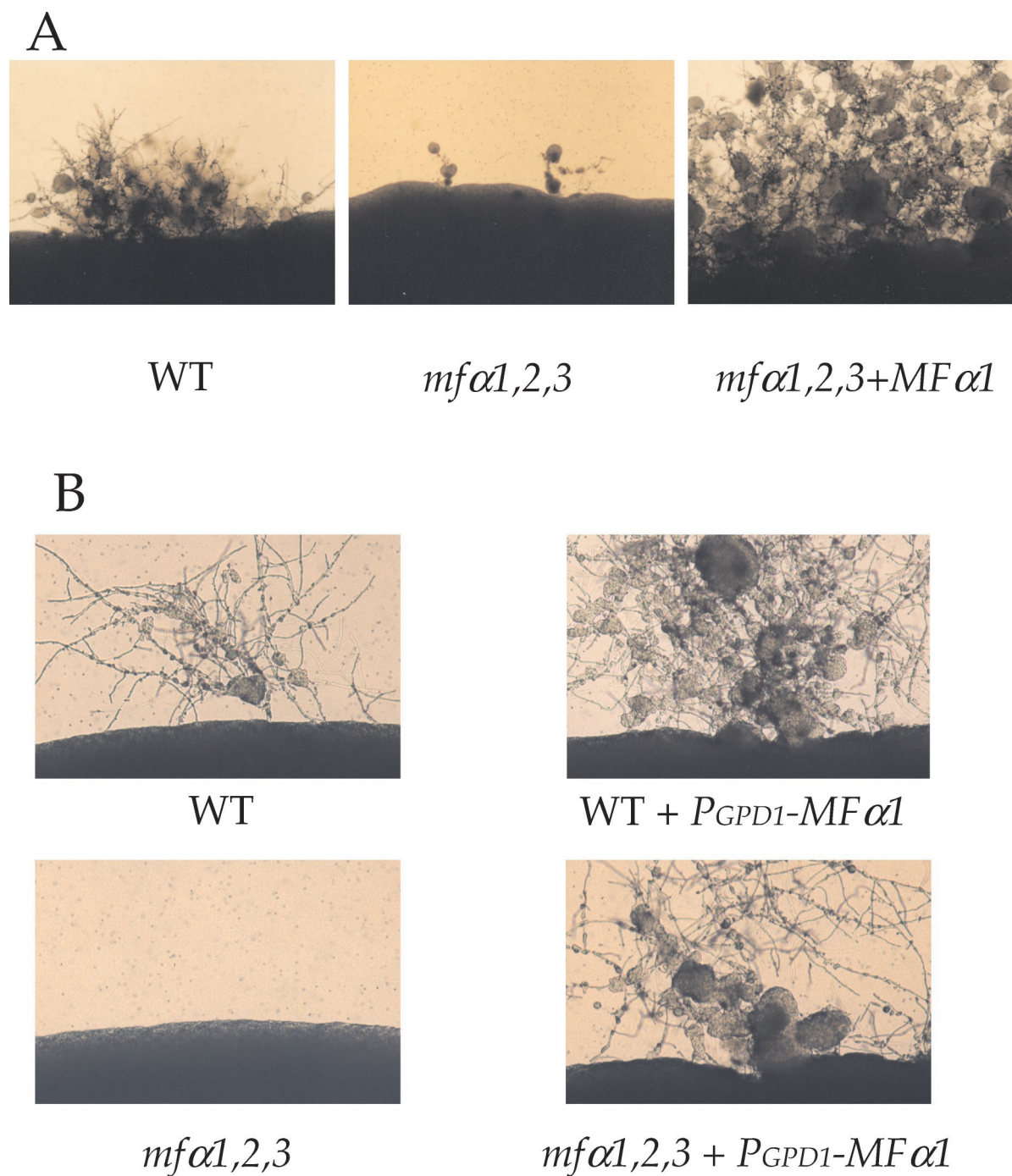


FIG. 4. MF α pheromone stimulates haploid fruiting of *C. neoformans*. (A) The isogenic wild-type (JEC21), *mfα1,2,3* (WSC18), and *mfα1,2,3* plus *MFα1* (WSC56) strains were incubated on filament agar for 10 days at 24°C in the dark. (B) The isogenic wild type (JEC21), the *mfα1,2,3* mutant strain (WSC17), the *MATα ura5* wild-type strain JEC43 transformed with the P_{GPD1} -*MFα1* gene fusion, and the *mfα1,2,3 ura5* mutant strain (WSC50) transformed with the P_{GPD1} -*MFα1* gene fusion (strain WSC57) were incubated on filament agar for 10 days at 24°C in the dark. The edges of the colony were photographed at $\times 100$ magnification.

wild-type and *mfα1,2,3* mutant strains, haploid fruiting was restored in the *mfα1,2,3* triple mutant and enhanced in wild-type cells by expression of the MF α 1 pheromone from a heterologous promoter (Fig. 4B). These observations support the conclusion that the MF α mating pheromone itself signals dif-

ferentiation of *MATα* cells in response to nitrogen-limiting conditions, possibly via an autocrine signaling pathway.

MF α pheromone directs mating and fruiting via a G-protein-mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase cascade. We tested whether overexpression of the MF α 1 pheromone en-

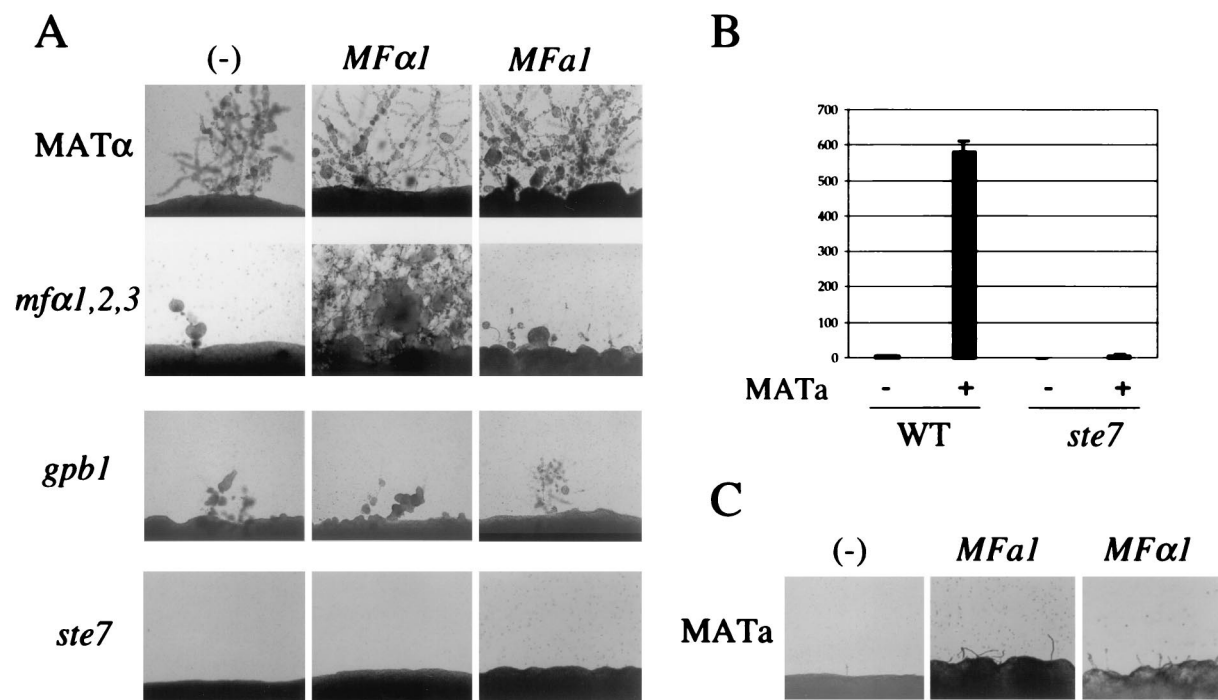


FIG. 5. Pheromone signal haploid fruiting and mating associated gene activation via a conserved G-protein-activated MAP kinase pathway. (A) MF α and MF α pheromones enhance haploid fruiting of wild-type cells but not *gpb1* or *ste7* mutant cells. The isogenic MAT α *ura5* wild-type strain (JEC43) and the *mfα1,2,3* (WSC50), *gpb1* (WSC131), and *ste7* (RDC21) mutant strains were biolistically transformed with the MF α 1 (pRCD17) or MF α 1 (pRCD101) expression plasmids as described in Materials and Methods. Transformants were incubated on filament agar for 5 days at room temperature and photographed at $\times 100$ magnification. (B) The Ste7 MAP kinase is required for activation of MF α pheromone gene expression by MAT α cells. The congenic MAT α wild-type strain JEC43 and the *ste7* mutant strain RDC21 were transformed with the MF α 1-*lacZ* reporter plasmid pRCD41 (18). Transformants were grown on V8 mating medium for 24 h, and the β -galactosidase activity was measured as described in Materials and Methods and plotted here in Miller units. (C) Both MF α 1 and MF α 1 pheromones stimulate conjugation tube formation by MAT α cells. The MAT α *ura5* strain JEC34 was transformed with the MF α 1 (pRCD101) or the MF α 1 (pRCD17) pheromone expression plasmid by biolistics as described in Materials and Methods, and Ura⁺ transformants were incubated on filament agar for 2 days at room temperature and photographed at $\times 100$ magnification.

hances haploid fruiting of MAT α cells via known components of the pheromone response pathway. To this end, the G-protein β -subunit Gpb1 implicated in regulating mating by pheromone (62) was identified from the congenic serotype D strains JEC21 and JEC20 and replaced with a *gpb1::URA5* mutant allele by biolistic transformation and homologous recombination in the MAT α *ura5* strain JEC43. Five transformants identified by PCR and confirmed by Southern blot contained the *gpb1* mutant allele and lacked the wild-type locus (not shown). The MAT α *gpb1* mutant strains were sterile when coincubated with the MAT α wild-type strain JEC20 on V8 mating medium (not shown). Haploid fruiting was reduced, but not completely abolished, in the MAT α *gpb1* mutant strains, similar to the *mfα1,2,3* pheromoneless mutant (Fig. 5A). When the MF α 1 pheromone was overexpressed from either the MF α 1 or the *GPD1* gene promoter in *ura5* derivatives of the *gpb1* mutant strains, the partial defect in haploid fruiting conferred by the *gpb1* mutation was not suppressed (Fig. 5A and data not shown).

Because haploid fruiting induced by overexpression of the MF α pheromone required the G protein β subunit Gpb1, we next tested whether signaling occurs via a MAP kinase pathway. Members of a putative pathway regulating mating and filamentation have been identified in *C. neoformans* (R. C. Davidson et al., unpublished data), including a homolog of the

gene encoding the MAP kinase kinase Ste7 that regulates mating and filamentation in *S. cerevisiae*. *C. neoformans* serotype D *ste7* mutant strains exhibit a severe defect in mating and haploid fruiting (Davidson et al., unpublished data). When the MF α 1 pheromone was overexpressed from either the MF α 1 or the heterologous *GPD1* gene promoter in *ste7* mutant strains, the defect in haploid fruiting was not suppressed (Fig. 5A and data not shown).

Induced expression of the MF α 1 pheromone gene in response to MF α pheromone or other factors produced by MAT α cells was found to require the Ste7 kinase. Expression was monitored with an MF α 1-*lacZ* reporter gene introduced into MAT α STE7 wild-type and *ste7* mutant cells that were cocultured with MAT α cells. MF α 1 gene expression was induced in wild-type MAT α cells by MAT α cells, but not in MAT α *ste7* mutant cells (Fig. 5B). We note that the basal level of MF α 1 pheromone expression in nutrient-limited cells did not require either Gpb1 or Ste7. Thus, MAT α *gpb1* and MAT α *ste7* mutant cells induced morphological changes in confronting MAT α cells, albeit not to the full extent of wild-type cells, indicating that a reduced level of MF α pheromone is expressed and secreted and is sufficient to mediate paracrine signaling responses in MAT α cells (data not shown). Taken together, these findings indicate that elements of a conserved MAP kinase pathway are required for both induced expression of mating

pheromone and the autocrine effects of the MF α 1 pheromone on *MAT* α cells.

MF α pheromone stimulates fruiting of *MAT* α cells and morphogenesis of *MAT* α cells. The MF α pheromone was also found to function in both paracrine and autocrine signaling fashions to regulate morphogenesis and development of both *MAT* α and *MAT* α cells. A 2.1-kb region spanning the *MF α 1* gene (13) was PCR amplified and cloned in the *E. coli/C. neoformans* *URA5* shuttle plasmid pCnTel1. When the resulting MF α 1 expression plasmid was introduced into the *MAT* α *ura5* strain JEC43, haploid fruiting was dramatically enhanced to a level comparable to *MAT* α cells grown in confrontation with *MAT* α cells (Fig. 5A). These findings provide further evidence that haploid fruiting of *MAT* α cells is enhanced in a paracrine fashion by MF α pheromone secreted by *MAT* α cells.

Most interestingly, when *MAT* α cells were transformed with the MF α 1 pheromone expression plasmid, the formation of conjugation tubes was stimulated (Fig. 5C). The autocrine response of *MAT* α cells to MF α pheromone was somewhat less marked than that observed when the MF α 1 pheromone gene was introduced into *MAT* α cells (Fig. 5C; see also references 18 and 45). In summary, while cells of each mating type respond more dramatically to the pheromone produced by the opposite cell type, overexpression of the self pheromone (i.e., MF α in *MAT* α or MF α in *MAT* α) stimulates an autocrine pheromone response in *C. neoformans*.

The MF α pheromone may in part regulate haploid fruiting of *MAT* α cells by inducing the MF α pheromone genes. When the MF α 1 pheromone gene was overexpressed in the *mf α 1,2,3* pheromone triple mutant, haploid fruiting was partially but not completely restored (Fig. 5A). The *mf α 1,2,3* strain expressing the MF α 1 plasmid formed abundant short filaments like the wild-type strain after 3 to 4 days (data not shown). However, after 10 days, the wild-type strain expressing the MF α 1 plasmid formed abundant filaments whereas the response of the *mf α 1,2,3* strain was more modest (Fig. 5A). Thus, the MF α pheromone appears to play a role in filamentation that is in part distinct from that of the MF α pheromone.

The MF α pheromone may regulate haploid fruiting of *MAT* α cells via elements of the conserved G-protein-activated MAP kinase cascade. When the MF α pheromone overexpression plasmid was introduced into the *MAT* α *gpb1* or *ste7* mutant strains, no restoration of haploid fruiting was observed, providing additional evidence that both Gpb1 and Ste7 participate in sensing either pheromone during mating and haploid fruiting.

MF α pheromone modestly contributes to but is not essential for virulence. In previous studies, the *MAT* α locus has been linked to virulence of *C. neoformans* (39). We therefore tested whether the MF α mating pheromones contribute to *C. neoformans* virulence in a murine tail vein injection model (Fig. 6). A total of 10^7 cells of the wild-type strain, the *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strain, the *mf α 1,2,3* MF α 1 reconstituted strain, and two independent *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strains obtained after a genetic cross were injected into groups of 10 mice each. DBA mice lacking the C5 component of complement and which are particularly susceptible to lethal infection by the congenic serotype D laboratory strains were used (15, 25, 50–52).

Virulence of the original *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strain was modestly attenuated compared to the wild-type *MAT* α strain

JEC21 ($P < 0.001$). Two independent *mf α 1,2,3* mutant f1 meiotic segregants were also modestly attenuated for virulence compared to the wild-type strain JEC21 ($P = 0.024$ and $P = 0.006$), although not to the same extent as the original *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strain. The two independent *mf α 1,2,3* mutant f1 segregants were equally virulent ($P = 0.24$), both were more virulent than the original *mf α 1,2,3* deletion strain ($P < 0.001$ and $P = 0.003$), and both were less virulent than the wild type. These observations suggest that the virulence defect of the original *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strain is attributable to the *mf α 1,2,3* mutations and other events that occurred during the construction of this strain. In accord with this interpretation, virulence was not fully restored in the *mf α 1,2,3* MF α 1 reconstituted strain (data not shown). In summary, we conclude that the MF α pheromone is not essential for virulence, since three independent triple pheromone gene deletion mutant strains were capable of causing 100% lethal infection. This said, infection by three *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strains resulted in slower progression to lethal infection compared to the wild type, providing evidence that the MF α pheromone makes a modest contribution to virulence.

DISCUSSION

C. neoformans has a bipolar mating-type system in which haploid *MAT* α and *MAT* α cells fuse to produce a filamentous heterokaryon. Like the model yeasts *S. cerevisiae* and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, the mating-type locus directs cells fusion in *C. neoformans* and cells with opposite mating type readily fuse, whereas cells with the same mating type rarely do so (C. Hull and J. Heitman, unpublished results). Our findings indicate that the MF α pheromone controls cell fusion in a way that is similar to the role of mating pheromones in the model yeasts. Our findings also reveal that *C. neoformans* mutants lacking the MF α pheromone exhibit a mating defect but are not absolutely sterile. This is in marked contrast to budding and fission yeasts, in which mating pheromones are absolutely required for cell fusion and mating. On the other hand, these findings are more similar to complex basidiomycetes with multiple sexes, such as *S. commune* and *C. cinereus*, in which cell fusion is completely promiscuous and the pheromones only function later in regulating nuclear migration and clamp cell fusion. In these organisms, because there are literally thousands of mating types, virtually every cell encounter is of two different mating types, and stringent regulation of fusion to prevent like pairings is unnecessary (11, 34, 59). Our findings in *C. neoformans* are most similar to previous studies in the basidiomycetous maize pathogen *U. maydis* in which pheromones function to promote conjugation tube formation and cell fusion during the earliest steps in mating (4, 56).

In all of these basidiomycetes, pheromones also likely function during later steps in mating to mediate clamp or hook cell fusion and ensure the stability of the dikaryon. We found no dramatic defect in filament morphology in matings involving an *mf α 1,2,3* mutant strain and wild-type *MAT* α cells. One possible explanation is that MF α pheromone produced locally by the *MAT* α nucleus may suffice to drive clamp cell fusion by signaling to the MF α pheromone receptor expressed by the *mf α 1,2,3* mutant.

A more surprising finding was that the MF α pheromone

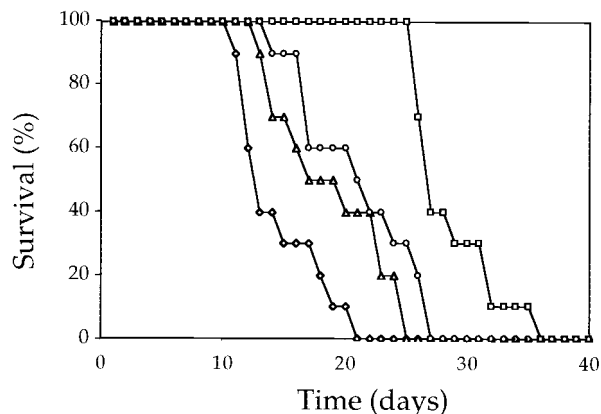


FIG. 6. The MF α pheromone is not essential for virulence. A total of 10^7 cells of the wild-type strain (JEC21), the *mfa1,2,3* mutant strain (WSC18), and two independent *mfa1,2,3* meiotic segregants isolated after a genetic cross (strains RDC46-3 and RDC46-4) were each injected intravenously into groups of 10 C5 complement-deficient DBA mice. Survival was monitored for 40 days and plotted. Symbols: \diamond , *MAT* α ; \square , *mfa1,2,3*; \triangle , *mfa1,2,3-1*; \circ , *mfa1,2,3-2*.

stimulates *MAT* α cells to differentiate and undergo monokaryotic fruiting, which involves filamentation and sporulation in response to nitrogen limitation. Haploid fruiting of *C. neoformans* was thought to be analogous to pseudohyphal differentiation of *S. cerevisiae* diploid cells in response to nitrogen limitation (26, 64). However, although *S. cerevisiae* pseudohyphal growth is controlled by elements of the MAP kinase cascade that also functions in mating of haploid yeast cells, the pheromones, their receptors, and the coupled G protein are not expressed in diploid cells and do not participate in pseudohyphal growth (42). In contrast, haploid fruiting of *C. neoformans* occurs in haploid *MAT* α cells (64), is activated by the G-protein β -subunit Gpb1 involved in pheromone detection (62), is stimulated by MF α mating pheromone in an autocrine fashion (this study), and can be dramatically enhanced by factors secreted by *MAT* α cells (62) or expression of the MF α pheromone (this study). These findings suggest that haploid fruiting is normally activated by mating pheromones and plays a role in the early stages of mating. Recent findings reveal filamentous differentiation of haploid *S. cerevisiae* cells is also stimulated by mating pheromones, suggesting pheromone induced filamentation and mating are conserved in divergent ascomycetous and basidiomycetous yeasts (21, 53, 62).

Our findings support a model in which the MF α pheromone enhances differentiation by an autocrine signaling loop that activates the pheromone response pathway. This is surprising because in other fungus mating pheromones act only on cells of the opposite mating type. How might *MAT* α cells respond to their own MF α pheromone? One hypothesis is that the MF α pheromone acts as a partial agonist for the MF α pheromone receptor encoded by the *STE3 α /CPR1 α* gene. The MF α and MF α pheromones are farnesylated carboxymethylated peptides and also share some amino acid identity, particularly at the predicted amino terminus of the mature pheromone (MF α 1 [QEAHPPGGMTLC*] and MF α 1 [EEAYGSGQGPT YSC*]) (13, 18, 45). Thus, the MF α pheromone may bind to the MF α pheromone binding pocket on a common receptor. Similarly, the MF α pheromone acts on both *MAT* α cells by

paracrine signaling and on *MAT* α cells by autocrine signaling. The Ste3 α /Cpr1 α pheromone receptor expressed by *MAT* α cells and the Ste3 α /Cpr1 α receptor expressed by *MAT* α cells share significant amino acid sequence identity (\sim 33%) and may therefore share similar related ligand specificities that contribute to recognition of both self and nonself pheromone ligands. Further studies with synthetic pheromones and heterologous expression of the pheromone receptor genes in *S. cerevisiae*, as has recently been applied to *C. cinereus* and *S. commune* (24, 29, 46), should allow this model to be tested in further detail.

An alternative hypothesis might be that intracellular expression of the mating pheromone precursors alters the processing of other farnesylated proteins involved in signaling. The most likely candidates would be homologs of Ras or the G-protein γ subunit. However, previous studies indicate that these components play or are likely to play positive roles during mating and fruiting (1, 3, 16, 62). Thus, inhibition of their processing should inhibit differentiation in contrast to the stimulation observed upon overexpression of the MF α or MF α pheromone. A second alternative hypothesis is that *C. neoformans* expresses homologs of the mammalian RAMP proteins, which bind to and alter the ligand specificity of G-protein-coupled receptors (43). As yet, no RAMP homolog has been identified in the ongoing genomic sequence project.

Our studies on autocrine pheromone signaling are analogous to previous studies of self-compatible *C. cinereus* mutant strains. In the basidiomycete *C. cinereus*, the unlinked *A* and *B* loci determine mating-type compatibility. The *B* loci encode pheromones and pheromone receptors, and in wild-type strains the pheromones produced by any given *B* locus are not ligands for the receptor encoded by the same locus (28, 29, 48, 60, 63). Olesnicki et al. recently characterized several unusual self-compatible strains with mutations at the *B* locus (47). In one case, a single amino change (R96H) in the second intracellular loop of the Rcb3⁶ pheromone receptor enables the receptor to be activated by a normally incompatible pheromone ligand (47). In another case, a single amino acid substitution in the Phb3.2⁶ pheromone (F67W) allows the mutant pheromone to activate a normally incompatible receptor (47). Similar studies have been recently reported in the basidiomycete *S. commune*. In this case, mutations in a pheromone ligand caused a change in the cognate receptor, and a two-residue deletion in a receptor prevented recognition of one but not other pheromone ligands (23). Mutations that constitutively activate pheromone receptor signaling, or novel chimeric receptor genes, also confer self-compatibility (27, 46). These studies illustrate how subtle amino acid substitutions in either a pheromone receptor or a pheromone can profoundly alter the ligand-receptor interaction. Our findings in *C. neoformans* suggest the possibility that changes in either the MF α receptor, the MF α pheromone, or both lead to autocrine interactions between the pheromone and receptor that enable *MAT* α cells to sense and differentiate in response to their own mating pheromone.

Our studies on autocrine pheromone signaling are also analogous to previous studies on the regulation of mitogenesis and mating in ciliates. The cosmopolitan soil protozoan ciliate *E. raikovi* exists in several different mating types, and cell-cell interactions during mating are regulated by secreted peptide

mating pheromones (reviewed in reference 6). Importantly, the mating pheromones also regulate mitogenesis in an autocrine signaling fashion in which the secreted pheromone acts on the producing cell (61). Recent studies reveal that the pheromones are expressed in both a membrane-bound and a secreted form, and pheromone recognition involves homotypic interactions between the two forms (49). These findings suggest that the ciliate mating pheromones are similar to mammalian growth factors that drive cell division in an autocrine fashion. Thus, while fungal and ciliate mating pheromones act via distinct signaling mechanisms, there is striking similarity between the autocrine signaling events described in ciliates and our findings in the fungal pathogen *C. neoformans*.

We propose two possible evolutionary scenarios that gave rise to these autocrine signaling mechanisms. In the first model, pheromone signaling originally evolved as an autocrine signaling response that promoted growth, filamentation, and cell fusion of a primordial fungus with a single receptor and a single lipid modified pheromone. During evolution, some fungi evolved cell type signaling specificity in which pheromones came to act on only the receptors expressed by cells of opposite mating type, whereas other organisms retained autocrine signaling. In the second model, pheromones and their receptors evolved early on to act on only opposite mating partners, but in some fungi mutational events occurred to enable autocrine signaling. Mutations of this type have been readily isolated in *C. cinereus* and may explain the autocrine signaling we observe with both MF α and MF β pheromones in *C. neoformans*.

Mating pheromone autocrine signaling may function like the autoinducer factors that control quorum sensing in bacteria. During quorum sensing, bacteria produce and respond to local gradients of small molecules, often homoserine lactone derivatives, in response to population density. The MF α and MF β mating pheromones are hydrophobic farnesylated peptides that likely remain preferentially bound to the membrane of the producing cell. This would provide a mechanism to locally concentrate the pheromone and promote autocrine signaling in response to population density increases in a growing colony. The MF α pheromone genes are induced by nutrient deprivation, which occurs as the colony expands and increasing numbers of cells exhaust the nutrient supply. Autocrine signaling would then stimulate haploid filamentation and sporulation, producing spores that could escape from the colony to forage for nutrients or mating partners.

Our studies also addressed the role of the MF α mating pheromones encoded by the MAT α locus in virulence of *C. neoformans*. Several independent mutants lacking the MF α pheromone were capable of causing 100% lethal infections in a murine inhalation model, and thus the MF α pheromone is not strictly essential for virulence. In accord with this finding, the *mfa1,2,3* triple mutant strain had no overt defect in capsule or melanin production and grew normally at 37°C on minimal medium. The virulence potential of the *mfa1,2,3* mutant strains was modestly attenuated compared to the wild type, a finding which is consistent with a minor role for the pheromones in virulence. The MF $\alpha 1$ gene was previously found to be induced in vivo at 2 to 3 weeks after infection of the central nervous system in a rabbit model of cryptococcal meningitis with a pathogenic serotype A clinical isolate (19). Thus, the MF $\alpha 1$ gene may respond to nutrient-limiting conditions

present in the host, similar to what we observed in our in vitro expression studies. The production of MF α pheromone may subtly alter virulence by acting on the host, on the fungal producing cells by autocrine signaling, or via both mechanisms. We note that, whereas MF α pheromone promotes filamentous differentiation in vitro, during infection *C. neoformans* cells are found virtually exclusively as budding yeast cells (2). Thus, the MF α pheromone might promote other types of autocrine responses in the host that contribute to virulence.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank members of the Heitman lab for discussions and John Perfect for his enthusiastic support and encouragement.

This work was supported by NIAID R01 grants AI39115 and AI42159 (to J.H.), and P01 award AI44975 from NIAID to the Duke University Mycology Research Unit. Gary Cox is a Burroughs Wellcome New Investigator in Molecular Pathogenic Mycology. Joseph Heitman is a Burroughs Wellcome Scholar in Molecular Pathogenic Mycology and an associate investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute.

W.-C.S. and R.C.D. contributed equally to this study.

REFERENCES

- Alspaugh, J. A., L. M. Cavallo, J. R. Perfect, and J. Heitman. 2000. RAS1 regulates filamentation, mating and growth at high temperature of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **36**:352–365.
- Alspaugh, J. A., R. C. Davidson, and J. Heitman. 2000. Morphogenesis of *Cryptococcus neoformans*, p. 217–238. In J. F. Ernst and A. Schmidt (ed.), *Dimorphism in human pathogenic and apathogenic yeasts*, vol. 5. Karger, Basel, Switzerland.
- Alspaugh, J. A., J. R. Perfect, and J. Heitman. 1997. *Cryptococcus neoformans* mating and virulence are regulated by the G-protein α subunit GPA1 and cAMP. *Genes Dev.* **11**:3206–3217.
- Bakkeren, G., and J. W. Kronstad. 1996. The pheromone cell signaling components of the *Ustilago* a mating-type loci determine intercompatibility between species. *Genetics* **143**:1601–1613.
- Banuet, F. 1998. Signalling in the yeasts: an informational cascade with links to the filamentous fungi. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **62**:249–274.
- Beale, G. 1990. Self and non-self recognition in the ciliate protozoan *Euplotes*. *Trends Genet.* **6**:137–139.
- Bölker, M., M. Urban, and R. Kahmann. 1992. The a mating type locus of *U. maydis* specifies cell signaling components. *Cell* **68**:441–450.
- Caldwell, G. A., S. H. Wang, C. B. Xue, Y. Jiang, H. F. Lu, F. Naider, and J. M. Becker. 1994. Molecular determinants of bioactivity of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* lipopeptide mating pheromone. *J. Biol. Chem.* **269**:19817–19826.
- Cardenas, M. E., C. Hemenway, R. S. Muir, R. Ye, D. Fiorentino, and J. Heitman. 1994. Immunophilins interact with calcineurin in the absence of exogenous immunosuppressive ligands. *EMBO J.* **13**:5944–5957.
- Casadevall, A., and J. R. Perfect. 1998. *Cryptococcus neoformans*. ASM Press, Washington, D.C.
- Casselton, L. A., and N. S. Olesnicky. 1998. Molecular genetics of mating recognition in basidiomycete fungi. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **62**:55–70.
- Chang, Y. C., and K. J. Kwon-Chung. 1994. Complementation of a capsule-deficient mutation of *Cryptococcus neoformans* restores its virulence. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **14**:4912–4919.
- Chaturvedi, S., B. Rodeghier, J. Fan, C. M. McClelland, B. L. Wickes, and V. Chaturvedi. 2000. Direct PCR of *Cryptococcus neoformans* MAT α and MAT β pheromones to determine mating type, ploidy, and variety: a tool for epidemiological and molecular pathogenesis studies. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **38**:2007–2009.
- Chen, P., S. K. Sapperstein, J. D. Choi, and S. Michaelis. 1997. Biogenesis of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* mating pheromone a-factor. *J. Cell Biol.* **136**:251–269.
- Cruz, M. C., R. A. L. Sia, M. Olson, G. M. Cox, and J. Heitman. 2000. Comparison of the roles of calcineurin in physiology and virulence in serotype D and serotype A strains of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Infect. Immun.* **68**:982–985.
- D'Souza, C. A., J. A. Alspaugh, C. Yue, T. Harashima, G. M. Cox, J. R. Perfect, and J. Heitman. 2001. Cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase controls virulence of the fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **21**:3179–3191.
- Davey, J. 1998. Fusion of a fission yeast. *Yeast* **14**:1529–1566.
- Davidson, R. C., T. D. E. Moore, A. R. Odom, and J. Heitman. 2000. Characterization of the MF α pheromone of the human fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **39**:1–12.

19. Del Poeta, M., D. L. Toffaletti, T. H. Rude, S. D. Sparks, J. Heitman, and J. R. Perfect. 1999. *Cryptococcus neoformans* differential gene expression detected in vitro and in vivo with green fluorescent protein. *Infect. Immun.* **67**:1812–1820.
20. Edman, J. C., and K. J. Kwon-Chung. 1990. Isolation of the *URA5* gene from *Cryptococcus neoformans* var. *neoformans* and its use as a selective marker for transformation. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **10**:4538–4544.
21. Erdman, S., and M. Snyder. 2001. A filamentous growth response mediated by the yeast mating pathway. *Genetics* **159**:919–928.
22. Feldmesser, M., Y. Kress, P. Novikoff, and A. Casadevall. 2000. *Cryptococcus neoformans* is a facultative intracellular pathogen in murine pulmonary infection. *Infect. Immun.* **68**:4225–4237.
23. Fowler, T. J., M. F. Mitton, L. J. Vaillancourt, and C. A. Raper. 2001. Changes in mate recognition through alterations of pheromones and receptors in the multisexual mushroom fungus *Schizophyllum commune*. *Genetics* **158**:1491–1503.
24. Fowler, T. J., S. M. DeSimone, M. F. Mitton, J. Kurjan, and C. A. Raper. 1999. Multiple sex pheromones and receptors of a mushroom-producing fungus elicit mating in yeast. *Mol. Biol. Cell* **10**:2559–2572.
25. Fox, D. S., M. C. Cruz, R. A. L. Sia, H. Ke, G. M. Cox, M. E. Cardenas, and J. Heitman. 2001. Calcineurin regulatory subunit is essential for virulence and mediates interactions with FKBP12-FK506 in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **39**:835–849.
26. Gimeno, C. J., P. O. Ljungdahl, C. A. Styles, and G. R. Fink. 1992. Unipolar cell divisions in the yeast *S. cerevisiae* lead to filamentous growth: regulation by starvation and *RAS*. *Cell* **68**:1077–1090.
27. Gola, S., J. Hegner, and E. Kothe. 2000. Chimeric pheromone receptors in the basidiomycete *Schizophyllum commune*. *Fungal Genet. Biol.* **30**:191–196.
28. Halsall, J. R., M. J. Milner, and L. A. Casselton. 2000. Three subfamilies of pheromone and receptor genes generate multiple B mating specificities in the mushroom *Coprinus cinereus*. *Genetics* **154**:1115–1123.
29. Hegner, J., C. Siebert-Bartholmei, and E. Kothe. 1999. Ligand recognition in multiallelic pheromone receptors from the basidiomycete *Schizophyllum commune* studied in yeast. *Fungal Genet. Biol.* **26**:190–197.
30. Heitman, J., B. Allen, J. A. Alspaugh, and K. J. Kwon-Chung. 1999. On the origins of the congenic *MAT α* and *MATa* strains of pathogenic yeast *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Fungal Genet. Biol.* **28**:1–5.
31. Ho, S. N., H. D. Hunt, R. M. Horton, J. K. Pullen, and L. R. Pease. 1989. Site-directed mutagenesis by overlap extension using the polymerase chain reaction. *Gene* **77**:51–59.
32. Karos, M., Y. C. Chang, C. M. McClelland, D. L. Clarke, J. Fu, B. L. Wickes, and K. J. Kwon-Chung. 2000. Mapping of the *Cryptococcus neoformans* *MAT α* locus: presence of mating type-specific mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade homologs. *J. Bacteriol.* **182**:6222–6227.
33. Kothe, E. 1999. Mating types and pheromone recognition in the homobasidiomycete *Schizophyllum commune*. *Fungal Genet. Biol.* **27**:146–152.
34. Kothe, E. 1996. Tetrapolar fungal mating types: sexes by the thousands. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **18**:65–87.
35. Kronstad, J. W., and C. Staben. 1997. Mating type in filamentous fungi. *Annu. Rev. Genet.* **31**:245–276.
36. Kues, U. 2000. Life history and developmental processes in the basidiomycete *Coprinus cinereus*. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **64**:316–353.
37. Kwon-Chung, K. J. 1976. Morphogenesis of *Filobasidiella neoformans*, the sexual state of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mycologia* **68**:821–833.
38. Kwon-Chung, K. J., and J. E. Bennett. 1978. Distribution of α and a mating types of *Cryptococcus neoformans* among natural and clinical isolates. *Am. J. Epidemiol.* **108**:337–340.
39. Kwon-Chung, K. J., J. C. Edman, and B. L. Wickes. 1992. Genetic association of mating types and virulence in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Infect. Immun.* **60**:602–605.
40. Kwon-Chung, K. J., I. Polacheck, and T. J. Popkin. 1982. Melanin-lacking mutants of *Cryptococcus neoformans* and their virulence for mice. *J. Bacteriol.* **150**:1414–1421.
41. Kwon-Chung, K. J., and J. C. Rhodes. 1986. Encapsulation and melanin formation as indicators of virulence in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Infect. Immun.* **51**:218–223.
42. Liu, H., C. A. Styles, and G. R. Fink. 1993. Elements of the yeast pheromone response pathway required for filamentous growth of diploids. *Science* **262**:1741–1744.
43. McLatchie, L. M., N. J. Fraser, M. J. Main, A. Wise, J. Brown, N. Thompson, R. Solari, M. G. Lee, and S. M. Foord. 1998. RAMPs regulate the transport and ligand specificity of the calcitonin-receptor-like receptor. *Nature* **393**:333–339.
44. Michaelis, S., and I. Herskowitz. 1988. The α -factor pheromone of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is essential for mating. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **8**:1309–1318.
45. Moore, T. D. E., and J. C. Edman. 1993. The α -mating type locus of *Cryptococcus neoformans* contains a peptide pheromone gene. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **13**:1962–1970.
46. Olesnicky, N. S., A. J. Brown, S. J. Dowell, and L. A. Casselton. 1999. A constitutively active G-protein-coupled receptor causes mating self-compatibility in the mushroom *Coprinus*. *EMBO J.* **18**:2756–2763.
47. Olesnicky, N. S., A. J. Brown, Y. Honda, S. L. Dyos, S. J. Dowell, and L. A. Casselton. 2000. Self-compatible B mutants in coprinus with altered pheromone-receptor specificities. *Genetics* **156**:1025–1033.
48. O'Shea, S. F., P. T. Chaure, J. R. Halsall, N. S. Olesnicky, A. Leibbrandt, I. F. Conneron, and L. A. Casselton. 1998. A large pheromone and receptor gene complex determines multiple B mating type specificities in *Coprinus cinereus*. *Genetics* **148**:1081–1090.
49. Ortenzi, C., C. Alimenti, A. Vallesi, B. D. Pretoro, A. L. Terza, and P. Luporini. 2000. The autocrine mitogenic loop of the ciliate *Euplotes raikovi*: the pheromone membrane-bound forms are the cell binding sites and potential signaling receptors of soluble pheromones. *Mol. Biol. Cell* **11**:1445–1455.
50. Rhodes, J. C. 1985. Contribution of complement component C5 to the pathogenesis of experimental murine cryptococcosis. *Sabouraudia* **23**:225–234.
51. Rhodes, J. C., and D. H. Howard. 1980. Isolation and characterization of arginine auxotrophs of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Infect. Immun.* **27**:910–914.
52. Rhodes, J. C., L. S. Wicker, and W. J. Urba. 1980. Genetic control of susceptibility to *Cryptococcus neoformans* in mice. *Infect. Immun.* **29**:494–499.
53. Roberts, C. J., B. Nelson, M. J. Marton, R. Stoughton, M. R. Meyer, H. A. Bennett, Y. D. He, H. Dai, W. L. Walker, T. R. Hughes, M. Tyers, C. Boone, and S. H. Friend. 2000. Signaling and circuitry of multiple MAPK pathways revealed by a matrix of global gene expression profiles. *Science* **287**:873–880.
54. Salas, S. D., J. E. Bennett, K. J. Kwon-Chung, J. R. Perfect, and P. R. Williamson. 1996. Effect of the laccase gene, *CNLAC1*, on virulence of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *J. Exp. Med.* **184**:377–386.
55. Sanfelice, F. 1894. Contributo alla morfologia e biologia dei blastomiceti che si sviluppano nei succhi di alcuni frutti. *Ann. Igiene.* **4**:463–495.
56. Spellig, T., M. Bolker, F. Lottspeich, R. W. Frank, and R. Kahmann. 1994. Pheromones trigger filamentous growth in *Ustilago maydis*. *EMBO J.* **13**:1620–1627.
57. Sprague, G. F., Jr., and J. W. Thorner. 1992. Pheromone response and signal transduction during the mating process of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, p. 657–744. In E. W. Jones, J. R. Pringle, and J. R. Broach (ed.), *The molecular and cellular biology of the yeast Saccharomyces: gene expression*, vol. 2. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
58. Toffaletti, D. L., and J. R. Perfect. 1994. Biolistic DNA delivery for *Cryptococcus neoformans* transformation, p. 303–308. In B. Maresca, and G. S. Kobayashi (ed.), *Molecular biology of pathogenic fungi: a laboratory manual*. Telos Press, New York, N.Y.
59. Vaillancourt, L. J., and C. A. Raper. 1996. Pheromones and pheromone receptors as mating-type determinants in basidiomycetes. *Genet. Eng.* **18**:219–247.
60. Vaillancourt, L. J., M. Raudaskoski, C. A. Specht, and C. A. Raper. 1997. Multiple genes encoding pheromones and a pheromone receptor define the *B β 1* mating-type specificity in *Schizophyllum commune*. *Genetics* **146**:541–551.
61. Vallesi, A., G. Giuli, R. A. Bradshaw, and P. Luporini. 1995. Autocrine mitogenic activity of pheromones produced by the protozoan ciliate *Euplotes raikovi*. *Nature* **376**:522–524.
62. Wang, P., J. R. Perfect, and J. Heitman. 2000. The G-protein β subunit GPB1 is required for mating and haploid fruiting in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **20**:352–362.
63. Wendland, J., L. J. Vaillancourt, J. Hegner, K. B. Lengeler, K. J. Laddison, C. A. Raper, and E. Kothe. 1995. The mating-type locus *Ba1* of *Schizophyllum commune* contains a pheromone receptor gene and putative pheromone genes. *EMBO J.* **14**:5271–5278.
64. Wickes, B. L., M. E. Mayorga, U. Edman, and J. C. Edman. 1996. Dimorphism and haploid fruiting in *Cryptococcus neoformans*: association with the α -mating type. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **93**:7327–7331.
65. Yamamoto, M., Y. Imai, and Y. Watanabe. 1997. Mating and sporulation in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, p. 1037–1106. In J. R. Pringle, J. R. Broach, and E. W. Jones (ed.), *The molecular and cellular biology of the yeast Saccharomyces*, vol. 3. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.