# Integrin  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  Is a Leukocyte Receptor for *Candida albicans* and Is Essential for Protection against Fungal Infections

# Samir Jawhara,\* Elzbieta Pluskota,\* Dmitriy Verbovetskiy,\* Olena Skomorovska-Prokvolit,† Edward F. Plow,\* and Dmitry A. Soloviev\*

The opportunistic fungus *Candida albicans* is one of the leading causes of infections in immunocompromised patients, and innate immunity provides a principal mechanism for protection from the pathogen. In the present work, the role of integrin  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  in the pathogenesis of fungal infection was assessed. Both purified  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ -expressing human epithelial kidney 293 cells recognized and bound to the fungal hyphae of SC5314 strain of C. albicans but not to the yeast form or to hyphae of a strain deficient in the fungal mannoprotein, Pra1. The binding of the integrin to the fungus was inhibited by b-glucans but not by mannans, implicating a lectin-like activity in recognition but distinct in specificity from that of  $\alpha_{M}\beta_{2}$ . Mice deficient in  $\alpha_{X}\beta_{2}$  were more prone to systemic infection with the LD<sub>50</sub> fungal inoculum decreasing 3-fold in  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ -deficient mice compared with wild-type mice. After challenging i.v. with 1.5  $\times$  10<sup>4</sup> cell/g, 60% of control C57BL/6 mice died within 14 d compared with 100% mortality of  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_{2}$ deficient mice within 9 d. Organs taken from  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ -deficient mice 16 h postinfection revealed a 10-fold increase in fungal invasion into the brain and a 2-fold increase into the liver. These data indicate that  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  is important for protection against systemic C. *albicans* infections and macrophage subsets in the liver, Kupffer cells, and in the brain, microglial cells use  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  to control fungal invasion. The Journal of Immunology, 2012, 189: 2468–2477.

andida albicans is a common opportunistic fungal path-<br>ogen. It is a dimorphic fungus existing as rounded yeast<br>cells or as filamentous forms (1, 2). Although the yeast<br>form can colonize mucosal membranes it is thought tha ogen. It is a dimorphic fungus existing as rounded yeast form can colonize mucosal membranes, it is thought that the filamentous form provides some protection to the microorganism against host defense systems, and the ability of C. albicans to rapidly and reversibly switch between yeast and filamentous morphologies is crucial to its pathogenicity (3–6). In recent years, Candida infections ranked as the fourth most common cause of nosocomial infections with immunocompromised patients being particularly susceptible (7, 8). Bloodstream fungal infections have an extremely high (30–70%, by different estimations) morbidity and mortality (8–11).

The innate immune system provides the principal protection against Candida infections. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes have been shown to be the primary components of the cellular immune defenses against Candida (12–14), and a protective role for macrophages in disseminated candidemia has also been suggested

Received for publication February 10, 2012. Accepted for publication June 28, 2012.

Copyright 2012 by The American Association of Immunologists, Inc. 0022-1767/12/\$16.00

(13, 15, 16). The most prominent receptors on leukocytes used in fungal or microbial recognition are integrins of the  $\beta_2$  subfamily (17, 18). This subfamily of leukocyte receptors is composed of four members that share a common  $\beta_2$  subunit that associates noncovalently with one of four distinct but structurally homologous  $\alpha$  subunits to form  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (Mac-1, CD11b/CD18, and CR3),  $\alpha_L \beta_2$  (LFA-1 and CD11a/CD18),  $\alpha_X \beta_2$  (p150,95 CD11c/CD18 and CR4), and  $\alpha_D \beta_2$  (CD11d/CD18) (19–23). These cell surface receptors are expressed on monocytes, granulocytes, macrophages, and NK cells and have been implicated in diverse protective responses mediated by these cells, including phagocytosis, cell-mediated killing, chemotaxis, and cellular activation. Specifically, the  $\beta_2$  integrins mediate migration of leukocytes to sites of infection and adhesion to microorganisms with subsequent phagocytosis or killing of many pathogens (12, 17, 24). Patients with leukocyte adhesion deficiency-1 (LAD-1), a rare hereditary disease that is characterized by low expression (mild LAD-1) or complete absence (severe) of all four of the  $\beta_2$  integrins because of mutations in the *ITGB2* ( $\beta_2$ ) gene (25, 26), are highly susceptible to a wide range of bacterial and fungal infections (27, 28) [and the increased sensitivity of such patients to  $C$ . *albicans* infections has been discussed (29)]. Although other leukocyte pattern recognition receptors, which recognize fungal  $\beta$ -glucans (Dectin-1 and TLR2 (30, 31) and mannan-specific TLR4 (32)), also participate in fungal recognition and apparently are essential in leukocyte activation and notably in activation of  $\beta_2$  integrins (33, 34), they do not directly facilitate leukocyte migration, adhesion, or phagocytosis.

Of the  $\beta_2$  integrins,  $\alpha_M \beta_2$  has been specifically implicated in the recognition of C. albicans. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes and NK cells use  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  to adhere only to the filamentous form but not to the yeast form of C. albicans (35, 36). C. albicans pH-regulated Ag 1 (Pra1) (37), also known as fibrinogen binding protein 1 (38) or C. albicans 58-kDa mannoprotein (39), was identified as the major ligand of  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  among C. albicans proteins (40). Pra1p is a mannoprotein (1, 41) and is expressed on the surface of the

<sup>\*</sup>Department of Molecular Cardiology, Joseph J. Jacobs Center for Thrombosis and Vascular Biology, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, OH 44195; and † Center for Proteomics and Bioinformatics, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH 44106

This work was supported by National Institute for Allergy and Infectious Diseases Grant AIO 80596.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to Dr. Dmitry A. Soloviev, Cleveland Clinic, 9500 Euclid Avenue, Mail Code NB50, Cleveland, OH 44195. E-mail address: solovjd@ccf.org

Abbreviations used in this article: D-PBS, Dulbecco's PBS; HEK293, human epithelial kidney 293; HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cell, the HEK293 cell expressing  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  on its surface; KO, knockout; LAD-1, leukocyte adhesion deficit, type 1; MHC-II, MHC class II; NIF, canine hookworm neutrophil inhibitory factor; OG, octyl-β-D-glucopyranoside; Pra1, pH-regulated Ag 1; SDA, Sabouraud Dextrose Agar; WT, wild-type;  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice, mice depleted in  $\alpha_X \beta_2$ .

This article is distributed under The American Association of Immunologists, Inc., [Reuse Terms and Conditions for Author Choice articles.](http://www.jimmunol.org/site/misc/authorchoice.xhtml)

hyphae but not on the yeast form of C. albicans (3, 41). Expression of Pra1p is strongly pH dependent and is also regulated by nutrition and certain other fungal genes (37, 41, 42). Disruption of the PRA1 gene protects the fungus against leukocyte killing in vitro and in vivo, impedes the innate immune response to infection, and increases overall fungal virulence and organ invasion in vivo (29, 43).

Although mutations in  $\alpha_M$  subunits have been previously described (44), it appears that the clinical manifestations of selective loss of  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  are less severe than when all four  $\beta_2$ -integrins are absent, which suggests that  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  may share at least part of its surveillance functions with other  $\beta_2$  integrins, most likely with the integrin  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  (19, 45). Integrin  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  is present on the surface of all leukocyte subsets that express  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ , with the exception of dendritic cells, which have CD11c  $(\alpha_X)$  as a major surface marker. These integrins are ∼70% identical and also share a number of ligands, most notably fibrinogen (46), ICAM-1 (47), and iC3b, a component of the complement system (48). However, the functions of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  are less well studied, and its functions in innate immunity are still unclear. It was shown that  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  is involved in macrophagemediated phagocytosis of Mycobacterium tuberculosis (49) and Mycobacterium leprae (50) and may play a role in the development of gastric ulcers in chronic Helicobacter pylori infection (51).

The present study was undertaken to determine the role and significance of the  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  in C. albicans pathogenicity and the effects of its elimination on host defense in vivo, using  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$ deficient mice in a model of systemic murine candidiasis.

# Materials and Methods

# C. albicans strains

C. albicans strain SC5314 was used in most in vitro and in vivo experiments. In some experiments, the Pra1-depleted strain CAMB5-18 (pra1:: hisG/pra1::hisG iro1-ura3 $\Delta$ /IRO1-URA3) was also used. This strain was derived from the strain CAMB435 by reversion of the *iro1-ura3* deletion as previously described (52) and was characterized by us previously (29). All strains were routinely maintained on Difco Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) plates (BD Biosciences, Sparks, MD).

#### Animals

 $\alpha_X$ -Knockout (KO) mice ( $\Delta \alpha_X \beta_2$ ) were provided by Dr. C. M. Ballantyne (Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX). This mouse line was generated in parallel with other  $\beta_2$ -KO lines (53). All these  $\beta_2$ -KO murine lines have been used in a number of studies in comparison with the  $\Delta \alpha_M$  mice (54–56), and there are no separate publications only characterizing the  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice. In our laboratory, these mice were backcrossed for more than 12 generations into a C57BL/J6 background. Before experiments, the genotypes of all mice were confirmed by PCR of blood DNA samples. Age-matched C57BL/J6 mice, obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME), were used as controls (wild-type [WT] mice). All protocols involving mice were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee in accordance with the Public Health Service policy, the Health Research Extension Act (PL99-158), and the Cleveland Clinic policy. All experiments on mice involving C. albicans infections were carried out in a BSL2 facility. The mice were maintained during experiments on a 12-h alternating light/dark cycle and supplied with food (diet number 2918; Harlan Teklad, Madison, WI) and sterilized water ad libitum.

#### Cells

Human epithelial kidney 293 (HEK293) cells expressing  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  (HEK293/  $\alpha$ <sub>X</sub> $\beta$ <sub>2</sub> cells) were prepared as described previously (57–59). Briefly, human full-length  $\alpha_X$  and  $\beta_2$  cDNAs were blunt-end cloned into TOPO-pCDNA 3.1(+) expression vector (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). Plasmids were sequenced to ensure appropriate insert orientation and cotransfected into HEK293 cells using the LipofectAMINE Plus reagent (Life Technologies). To prepare control mock-transfected cells, the vector alone was used. Transfected cells were selected using neomycin sulfate (Life Technologies), and cells expressing the integrin were detected and sorted by flow cytometry (FACS) using a FACStar cell sorter (BD Biosciences) and antihuman CD18 mAb (clone IB4). The sorted cells were subcloned, and  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ 

expression was characterized by FACS. The cell lines obtained were routinely grown in a monolayer in DMEM/F12 medium, supplemented with 10% FBS (all from BioWhittaker). For experiments, the cells were harvested using enzyme-free Cell Dissociation buffer (Life Technologies), washed with HBSS, and resuspended in HBSS containing 100 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 5 mM  $CaCl<sub>2</sub>$ , and 5 mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$  (HBSS/HEPES). Monocytes were isolated from human donor blood using the *Pan* Monocyte Isolation Kit (Miltenyi Biotec) following the manufacturer's instructions.

All studies involving human blood cells were performed in accord with protocols and policies approved by the Institutional Review Board at Cleveland Clinic and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975 as revised in 2000.

#### Abs and inhibitors

mAbs used in this study were as follows: 44a (anti-human  $\alpha_M$  I-domain, IgG1), OKM1 (anti-human  $\alpha_M$  lectin domain, IgG2b), IB4 (anti-human  $\beta_2$ , IgG2a). The hybridoma cell lines producing these mAbs were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection and adapted to growing in serum-free media in CELLine Bioreactor Flasks (Integra Biosciences, Hudson, NH) in the Cleveland Clinic Hybridoma Core. The mAbs were purified from conditioned media using recombinant protein G columns (Life Technologies).

The mAb clone 3.9 (anti-human  $\alpha_X$ , IgG1) and clone N418 (anti-mouse  $\alpha_X$ ) were purchased from BioLegend (San Diego, CA), and mAb clone YW62.3 (anti-mouse CD45) was obtained from Serotec (Raleigh, NC).

Baker yeast  $\beta$ -glucan, mannan, and echistatin (60, 61) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). The recombinant hookworm neutrophil inhibitory factor (NIF) was prepared as described previously (58).

#### Tissue section preparation and assaying

Brains and livers from experimental mice were snap-frozen in OCT. Brain sections  $(6 \mu m)$  thick) were processed for immunohistochemical staining with the following Abs: hamster anti-mouse CD11c (BioLegend), followed by biotinylated anti-hamster Ab and streptavidin Alexa Fluor 568. CD45 was stained using rat anti-mouse CD45 mAb (BD Biosciences) and rabbit– anti-rat Ab conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488. The slides were mounted using Vectashield mounting medium containing DAPI (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). To visualize the extent of the fungal cell invasion and proliferation, the brain and liver sections were stained with periodic acid– Schiff stain. The images were observed using a Leica DMR microscope equipped with  $\times$ 10/0.4 and  $\times$ 20/0.5 NA objective lenses (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) and photographed with a Qimaging Retiga ExiFas camera (Qimaging, Burnaby, British Columbia, Canada) using ImagePro 5.1 software (Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD).The images were processed with Adobe Photoshop 7.0 software (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA).

#### C. albicans staining with soluble  $\alpha_X\beta_2$

Recombinant  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  was isolated from HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells with the method previously used by us to purify  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (40, 59). Briefly, 10 g cells was harvested, washed, and lysed with 1% Triton X-100 in TBS containing protease inhibitor mixture for mammalian cells (Sigma-Aldrich). The cell lysate was clarified by centrifugation, diluted with TBS containing CaCl<sub>2</sub> and MgCl<sub>2</sub> and loaded onto a column of immobilized IB4 (anti- $\beta_2$ ). To prepare the immunoadsorbent, purified IB4 mAbs were coupled to cyanogen bromide-activated Sepharose 4B (GE Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ) following the manufacturer's protocol to final concentrations of 2.2–2.8 mg immobilized proteins per 1 ml swollen gel. After washing with TBS containing 10 mM octyl-ß-D-glucopyranoside (OG; Calbiochem, San Diego, CA) and CaCl<sub>2</sub>/MgCl<sub>2</sub>, bound protein was eluted with three column volumes of 20 mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.2), containing OG and Ca/  $Mg^{2+}$ . Immediately after elution, 100  $\mu$ 1 1 M HEPES-NaOH (pH 8) was added to each 1 ml of the column eluate to neutralize the acidic pH. Protein fractions were pooled and dialyzed against HEPES-NaCl, OG, and  $Ca/Mg^{2+}$ . The proteins were biotinylated using Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin (Pierce), according to the manufacturer's protocol. To visualize  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_{2}-C$ . albicans interaction, C. albicans strain SC5314 was allowed to germinate in RPMI 1640 medium for 2 h and then purified. Biotinylated  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  was added to obtain a 1  $\mu$ g/ml concentration, and the samples were incubated for 1 h at 37˚C. After incubation, the fungi were washed with Dulbecco's PBS (D-PBS) and incubated with FITC–streptavidin conjugate for 30 min at room temperature. Subsequently, the fungi were again washed with D-PBS. Blankophor, the  $\beta$ -glucan, and chitin-specific dye were added, and the mixture was incubated for an additional 30 min (62). Finally, the fungi were washed with D-PBS and analyzed by fluorescence microscopy (Leica Microsystems) at a magnification of  $\times 800$ .

# Cell adhesion assays

Cell adhesion assays were performed as described previously (40, 63). Briefly, to determine cell adhesion to fungal hyphae, 48-well Costar tissue culture plates (Corning, Corning, NY) were precoated with polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP; Sigma-Aldrich) and washed with HBSS, and aliquots of  $5 \times 10^5$  C. albicans yeast were added and incubated overnight at  $37^{\circ}$ C to germinate. For adhesion to *C. albicans* yeast, the fungi were incubated in YNB broth to prevent germination. After incubation, the supernatant was removed and adherent fungi were carefully washed with HBSS. A total of  $10<sup>5</sup>$  PMA-activated peripheral blood human monocytes or HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells were added in HBSS/HEPES and assay plates were incubated at 37˚C for 1 h. Control wells were coated with PVP only. Each experimental point was in triplicate. Subsequently, plates were washed, and the number of adherent cells in each well was quantified using the CyQUANT Cell Proliferation Assay kit (Life Technologies) as described previously (40, 63). For inhibition assays, before addition to the plate wells, the HEK293/ $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  cells or isolated monocytes were preincubated with 10–20  $\mu$ g/ml selected Abs, 1 mM  $\beta$ -glucan, 1 mM mannan, or 5  $\mu$ M echistatin for 10 min at room temperature. Data from cell adhesion and migration (see below) are presented as percentage (mean  $\pm$  SE) of total cells (to which was assigned the value of 100%) and represent the results of three independent experiments.

# Cell migration assays

Human peripheral blood monocytes and HEK293/ $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_{\rm 2}$  cell migration assays were performed in serum-free RPMI 1640 (monocytes) or DMEM/ F-12 (HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$ ) medium (Life Technologies) using modified Boyden chambers (Costar Transwell inserts in a 24-well plate format; Corning) with tissue culture-treated polycarbonate filters of  $5-\mu m$  (for monocytes) or 8-µm pores (for HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells) as described previously (40, 63– 65). The lower chambers contained 600  $\mu$ l media with 10<sup>6</sup> C. albicans yeast, which were germinated overnight prior to beginning the analyses. The upper chambers contained final volumes of 200  $\mu$ l HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_{2}$  cell suspensions. The assays were initiated by addition of 50  $\mu$ l cell suspension ( $10<sup>5</sup>$  cells/well) to 150  $\mu$ l media in the upper chambers, and the plates were placed in a humidified incubator at  $37^{\circ}$ C and  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> for 8 h. For inhibition experiments, selected Abs, NIF, and glycans were added simultaneously with the cells to the upper chamber. After migration, nonmigrated cells were removed from upper chamber using cotton swabs. The migrated cells, present on the undersurface of the membrane as well as in the lower chamber, were quantified using the CyQUANT Cell Proliferation kit as described above and previously (63, 64).

#### Killing (phagocytosis) assay

A total of  $10^5$  C. albicans SC5314 strain cells in 0.25 ml high glucose RPMI 1640 medium containing 0.1 M HEPES (pH 7.8) were allowed to germinate in plastic tubes at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 1 h with slow agitation. The fungal cells were collected by centrifugation, washed twice with D-PBS, suspended in 0.25 ml HBSS/HEPES (pH 7.4), and mixed with  $3 \times 10^5$  (1:3) ratio),  $7 \times 10^5$  (1:7 ratio), or  $1.1 \times 10^6$  (1:11 ratio) HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  or mock-transfected HEK293 cells. In control experiments, the HEK293/  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells were preincubated with 20  $\mu$ g/ml anti- $\alpha_{\text{X}}$  mAbs 3.9 for 10 min at room temperature. The cell/fungal mixtures were incubated at 37˚C with slow shaking for 2 h. To determine the extent of killing/phagocytosis, aliquots of the cell/fungal suspension were taken every 20 min, diluted with HBSS/HEPES, and subsequently plated in serial dilutions on SDA plates. The CFU were counted manually on day 2 using a Bel-Art Products Colony Counter. Cells were not lysed before plating, and all fungal cells that remained ingested were recorded as "killed." Results were independently verified by a modification of the method of Lehrer et al. (40, 66). Briefly, at the experiment end point, an equal volume of 1% Tween 80 was added to the fungal/leukocyte mixture to lyse leukocytes, and C. albicans cell pellets obtained by centrifugation were resuspended in 0.25 ml 2.5 mM methylene blue (Sigma-Aldrich) in HBSS/HEPES. The number of viable (nonstained) cells was counted in a hemacytometer. Control samples contained C. albicans incubated without HEK293 cells. Results obtained by both methods of quantitation of fungal viability showed close correlation with variances in the 5–10% range.

#### Murine model of systemic disseminated candidiasis

The model of systematic candidiasis, described and applied to C57BL/6 by MacCallum and Odds (67), was used. Each experimental group contained 10 mice of 10–12 wk of age, and weights ranged from 19 to 21 g. C57BL/6 (control WT mice) and  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ -depleted mice ( $\Delta\alpha_X$  mice) were injected with 10<sup>5</sup> or 3  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> C. albicans SC5314 strain in 0.1 ml sterile saline via the tail vein. Mice were returned to cages and monitored. To determine the degree

of distress, we developed a scoring system, similar to one described for the determination of humane end points in a murine model of leukemia (68). The following symptoms were evaluated and scored as follows: coma, 15 points; weight loss of: 20%, 15 points, 15%, 11 points, and 10%, 8 points; abdominal swelling, 6 points; significant decrease in mobility, 4 points; hunched posture, 3 points; porphyrin "red tears," 3 points; head pressing, 2 points; and spiky coat, 2 points. Each group was monitored daily over the 14-d period at the same time each day. The score was noncumulative and was recalculated for each mouse every  $24 \pm 1.5$  h. The primary end point was the number of mice surviving on day 14 within each experimental group. When mice scored 15 or more points before 14 d, the animals were euthanized. At day 14, all surviving mice were euthanized and subjected to pathological examination. To determine the extent of C. albicans invasion and fungal burden in individual organs, liver, spleen, heart, lungs, and kidney were harvested, weighed, and homogenized in 5 ml PBS, and serial dilutions of the homogenates were plated onto SDA plates for CFU quantitation. In separate experiments, mice from each group of five mice were euthanized after 16 or 40 h of infection, and their organs were removed and examined to determine the degree of the fungal invasion and organ fungal burdens (67).

## Statistical analyses

Statistical significance was determined using paired log-rank and Cox regression for mouse survival data or Student  $t$  test in all other cases. For all statistical calculations the statistical package in SigmaPlot, version 12.0 (Jandel Scientific Software, Chicago, IL) was used. Differences between groups were considered significant with  $p < 0.05$ . Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SD unless otherwise noted.

# Results

#### Integrin  $\alpha_{X}\beta_{2}$  is required to control C. albicans infection

As a first step to assess the biological significance of  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  in the context of the total host–pathogen relationship, transgenic mice that lack  $\alpha_X$  ( $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice) were used in a murine model of disseminated candidiasis. In this assay, mice of both WT (C57BL/6 mice) and  $\Delta \alpha_X$  lines were challenged with 10<sup>5</sup> or 3  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> C. albicans inocula via tail vein injection. All WT mice inoculated with  $10^5 (0.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{/g})$  *C. albicans* survived 14 d (336 h).  $\alpha_X \beta_2$ <br>elimination dramatically decreased mice survival: during these elimination dramatically decreased mice survival; during these same 336 h, 50% of the  $\Delta \alpha_X$ -mice reached the predetermined end point (see Materials and Methods for a complete list of "mortality" criteria) with a median survival time 264 h (Fig. 1A, left panel). A similar level of mortality occurred in WT mice only after introduction of a 3-fold higher inoculum (Fig. 1B). After challenge with the 3  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> C. *albicans* cells (~1.5  $\times$  10<sup>-4</sup>/g) inoculum, ∼50% of WT mice reached the end point within 12 d with a median survival time at  $252 \pm 12$  h. In contrast, all  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice reached the end point with this inoculum within the first 9 d with a median survival time of  $112 \pm 8$  h ( $p < 0.01$ ; log-rank test) (Fig. 1A, right panel).

# Elimination of  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  decreases resistance of brain and liver to C. albicans invasion

The substantial increase in susceptibility of the  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice to the *Candida* infection indicates that  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  plays a significant role in antifungal protection and innate immunity. This interpretation was further corroborated by pathological examination of infected mice. To determine the impact of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  deletion on the rate of fungal colonization, WT and the  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice were challenged i.v. with  $10^5$  C. albicans, and selected organs (brain, kidney, lung, heart, spleen, and liver) were recovered 16 and 40 h postinfection and at day 14 from mice that survived. Tissue targeting and invasion, fungal dissemination, and organ fungal burden were assessed in recovered organs. Consistent with previous studies (69), high fungal burden was present in the kidneys at all times postinfection and was similar at 16 and 40 h ( $p = 0.96$ ; Student t test) in both mouse strains (Fig. 2A, 2B). There was no significant difference ( $p > 0.05$ ) in fungal burdens in the spleen, heart, and



**FIGURE 1.** The effect of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  elimination on C. albicans virulence in a murine model of disseminated candidiasis. (A) The Kaplan–Meier (cumulative) graphic of murine survival. A total of  $10^5$  (left panel) or  $3 \times 10^5$ (right panel) of strain SC5314 C. albicans were introduced in 100  $\mu$ l D-PBS via tail vein injection into WT ( $\bullet$ ) or  $\Delta \alpha_X$  ( $\circ$ ) mice (n = 10 in each group). After administration, the mice were inspected on a  $12 \pm 2$  h basis and euthanized when they became moribund (e.g., at 20% weight loss). (B)  $LD_{50}$  dose of C. *albicans*. The median survivors of both groups are calculated as medians (25th and 75th). The  $p$  values were calculated by logrank test.

lungs at both early time points; but at day 14, differences in fungal burden in the surviving WT and  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice become evident ( $p <$ 0.05). At the day 14 survival point, fungal burden in the kidney was significantly elevated (2.8-fold difference;  $p < 0.01$ ) in  $\Delta \alpha_X$ mice (2  $\times$  10<sup>4</sup>  $\pm$  3.2  $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> CFU/g) compared with WT mice  $(7.7 \times 10^3 \pm 1.2 \times 10^3)$  (Fig. 2C). In contrast, fungal burdens in brains and livers recovered from  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice were substantially elevated compared with the corresponding WT organs: at 16 h,  $\Delta \alpha_X$  brain had 2  $\times$  10<sup>4</sup>  $\pm$  2.4  $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> CFU/g tissue, whereas WT brains had  $6.1 \times 10^3 \pm 7 \times 10^2$  CFU/g (10-fold raise;  $p < 0.01$ );  $\Delta \alpha_X$  liver had 7.6  $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> ± 1.3  $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> CFU/g, 2-fold rise (p < 0.05), whereas WT liver had a fungal burden of  $3.5 \times 10^3 \pm 360$ CFU/g (Fig. 2A). These differences increased over time: at 40 h,  $2.9 \times 10^4 \pm 2.3 \times 10^3$  CFU/g  $\Delta_{\alpha_X}$  brain compared with 700  $\pm$ 120 CFU/g WT brain (40-fold rise;  $p < 0.005$ ) and  $3 \times 10^3 \pm 220$ CFU/g  $\Delta \alpha_X$  liver compared with 480  $\pm$  110 CFU/g WT liver (6fold rise;  $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 2B). These differences were sustained at day 14 in all surviving mice:  $6400 \pm 1820$  versus  $200 \pm 160$ CFU/g (32-fold;  $p < 0.01$ ) and 3100  $\pm$  1200 versus 700  $\pm$  400 CFU/g (4-fold;  $p < 0.01$ ) for brain and liver of  $\Delta \alpha_X$  and WT mice, respectively (Fig. 2C).

# Residential macrophages require  $\alpha_{X}\beta_{2}$  to control C. albicans invasion in vivo

The results of fungal burden studies were further confirmed in histological sections of tissues from the infected organs. In the sections of WT brains obtained at 40 h postinfection, staining with periodic acid–Schiff reagent revealed only several scattered fungal hyphae (Fig. 3A, *left panel*). In contrast, in the brains of  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice 40 h postinfection, C. albicans formed a visible network of nu-



**FIGURE 2.** The effect of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  elimination on C. albicans dissemination. Challenged i.v. with SC5314 10<sup>5</sup> C. albicans, WT ( $\blacksquare$ ), or  $\Delta \alpha_X$  ( $\Box$ ) mice were euthanized after 16 h  $(A)$  or 40 h  $(B)$  of infection; their organs (brain, heart, lungs, liver, left kidney, and spleen) were removed, homogenized, and plated in serial dilution onto agar plates. (C) The organ fungal burdens of mice who survived to end point are presented. The results are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD of two independent experiments (n = 3).  $\binom{p}{0.05}$ ,  $\binom{p}{0.005}$  (t test).

merous fungal hyphae (Fig. 3A, right panel). After 14 d of infection, in the kidney sections of WT mice, C. albicans formed single scattered colonies (Fig. 3B, left panel), whereas in kidney sections of  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice, the fungal colonies were numerous and showed evidence of extensive organ colonization (arrows in Fig. 3B, right panel).

To ensure that  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  deletion affects only leukocytes, the sections of brains from WT (Fig. 3C) and  $\Delta \alpha_X$  (Fig. 3D) mice at 40 h of infection were immunostained with Abs against the common hematopoietic cell surface marker CD45 (anti-Ly5, labeled with Alexa Fluor 488, green fluorescence), anti-CD11c (anti- $\alpha_X$ , labeled with Alexa Fluor 568, red fluorescence), and DAPI (to visualize nuclei, blue fluorescence). The fluorescence overlays demonstrate that only hematopoietic cells (leukocytes) are CD11c<sup>+</sup> within this organ. The images also show that CD45<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup> cells in the brain of the WT mice group form filamentous structures most likely along fungal hyphae. In contrast, CD45<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>-</sup> cells in the brains of the  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice do not organize but instead remained dispersed (Fig. 3C, 3D). These results indicate that subsets of brain residential leukocytes may use  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  for localization to the fungus.

# Activated monocytes use both  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  for fungal recognition

Previous studies demonstrated that NK lymphocytes (35, 61) and neutrophils (40) use integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  but not  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  for C. albicans recognition. With our data on organ fungal burden suggesting that  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  deficiency affected residential tissue macrophages, the microglia in a brain, and Kupffer cells a in liver, we chose monocytes as representative primary cell to assess  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  involvement in leukocyte adhesion to C. albicans. Human peripheral blood monocytes were isolated, stimulated with PMA to activate their integ-



**FIGURE 3.** The effect of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  elimination on C. albicans invasion of the brain. Histological sections of murine brains taken after 16 h of infection (A) or of murine kidney obtained after 14 d of infection (B) from WT (left two photos) or from  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice (right two photos) were stained with hematoxylin. Arrows point on  $C$ . albicans hyphae  $(A)$  and on the signs of further organ colonization (B). Scale bars  $(A, B)$ , 5  $\mu$ m. Sections of brains taken from WT (C) or  $\Delta \alpha_X$  (D) mice 40 h postinfection were stained with Alexa Fluor 488-labeled anti-CD45 mAbs (hematopoietic cells marker, left panels, green fluorescence) and Alexa Fluor 558-labeled anti-CD11c mAbs (anti- $\beta_2$ , middle panels, red fluorescence). In the right panels, the overlay of the sample's green and red fluorescence is presented. The cellular nuclei are stained with DAPI (blue fluorescence). Scale bars  $(C, D), 50 \mu m.$ 

rins, and added to germinated SC5314 fungus. In the absence of inhibitors,  $28 \pm 6\%$  of the activated monocytes adhered to the fungal hyphae as compared with only 2% monocyte adhesion to the fungal yeast form (defined as nonspecific adhesion). Both anti- $\alpha_M$  I-domain mAb 44a and the  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ -specific ligand NIF decreased monocyte adhesion to the fungal hyphae by  $\sim$ 3-fold, to 8  $\pm$ 4%. Anti-α<sub>X</sub> mAb inhibited cell adhesion only ~50%, to 15 ± 6% of the total cells. The anti- $\alpha_M$  lectin domain mAb OKM1 and anti- $\beta_2$  mAb IB4 completely inhibited monocyte adhesion, whereas the irrelevant control, mAb W6/32, had no effect (Fig. 4A). A similar specificity was demonstrated in migration assays (Fig. 4B). When monocytes were allowed to migrate (through 5-µm pores) overnight to germinated C. albicans, anti- $\beta_2$  mAb completely inhibited the migration, anti- $\alpha_M$  I-domain mAb, and anti- $\alpha_X$  mAb inhibited 40– 50%, and the control irrelevant anti-MHC class II (MHC-II) mAbs had no effect. However, a difference between migration and adhesion assays was noted. Anti- $\alpha_M$  lectin-domain mAb OKM1 completely inhibited adhesion of monocytes to the fungus, whereas this mAb had no effect on the monocyte migration to the fungus. This difference may reflect different roles of the fungal carbohydrates (e.g., b-glucans and mannans) recognized by the lectin



migratory  $(B)$  responses to C. albicans of PMA-activated human monocytes. Isolated human peripheral blood monocytes were preincubated for 10 min on ice in the presence of 5 mM PMA with or without inhibitors. (A) Adhesion to *C. albicans*. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 25 min, and then, nonadherent cells were removed by washing, and the adherent cells were quantified using the CyQUANT Cell Proliferation Assay kit. (B) Migration to C. albicans. A total of  $5 \times 10^5$  monocytes/well were allowed to migrate overnight through polycarbonate membrane with  $5-\mu m$  porosity to  $10^6$  pregerminated *C. albicans* of WT SC5314 strain. The number of migrated cells was quantified in the lower chamber and in the "fungal side" of the membrane using CyQUANT Cell Proliferation kits. As inhibitors, the following mAbs were used in 10  $\mu$ g/ml concentration: anti- $\alpha_M$  I-domain (44a), anti- $\alpha_M$  lectin domain (OKM1), anti- $\beta_2$  (IB4), anti- $\alpha_X$  (3.9), irrelevant anti–MHC-II (W6/32), and 5  $\mu$ M recombinant NIF. Migration or adhesion in the absence of C. albicans or in the absence of inhibitors was used as negative (background) and positive controls, respectively. Results are presented as percentage (mean  $\pm$  SE) of total cells (to which was assigned the value of 100%) and represent the results of three independent experiments, each in triplicate.

domain of  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  on the migratory and adhesive responses of monocytes. These results demonstrate that monocytes can use  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  as well as  $\alpha_{\rm M}\beta_2$  to engage C. *albicans*, and taken together, the two integrins are the major mediators of monocyte adhesion and migration to the fungus.

# Purified recombinant  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  recognizes the hyphae of WT C. albicans but not Pra1-deficient fungi

To access the specificity of  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$ –*C. albicans* interaction, a HEK293 cell line stably expressing the integrin was developed. Full-length cDNAs of human  $\alpha_X$  and  $\beta_2$  were cotransfected into HEK293, and positive cells were sorted and subcloned. The established cell line (HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_{2}$  cells) then was examined by FACS using a panel of Abs: anti-human  $\alpha_X$  (mAb 3.9), antihuman  $\beta_2$  (IB4), anti-human  $\alpha_M$  I-domain (44a), anti-human  $\alpha_M$ lectin domain (OKM1), and control irrelevant mAb W6/32 (antihuman MHC-II). As expected,  $\alpha_X$  and  $\beta_2$  were highly expressed on the HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cell surface (Fig. 5A). Although  $\alpha_X$  is highly homologous to  $\alpha_M$ , the anti- $\alpha_M$  I-domain mAb 44a, which block binding of most ligands to  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ , did not recognize the HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells. Surprisingly, the anti- $\alpha_{\text{M}}$  lectin domain mAb OKM1, which inhibits the binding of polysaccharides such as  $\beta$ -glucans and mannans to  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (70), also showed weak reactivity with  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  (Fig. 5A) but not with mock-transfected HEK293 cells (data not shown). Thus, the  $\alpha_X$  subunit may contain structures similar to the  $\alpha_M$  lectin domain and therefore may recognize fungal polysaccharides and serve as a pattern recognition receptor.

Both  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  integrins have many ligands in common. Because the C. albicans hyphae surface protein Pra1 was identified as a major C. albicans ligand for  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (40), we considered whether this protein might also serve as a ligand for  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_{2}$ . We tested HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells as a source of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  protein and the ability of purified  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  to recognize two C. albicans strains, SC5314 (WT) and Pra1-nul mutant (CAMB5-18). The yeast of both fungal strains were allowed to germinate overnight for maximal Pra1 expression in the WT strain and the fungal cell wall chitin and glucans were stained with blue fluorescent dye Blankophor (62). Labeled fungi then were incubated with FITClabeled  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  and examined by fluorescence microscopy. The microphotograph shown in Fig. 5B clearly demonstrates that soluble  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  (green fluorescence) bound the hyphal form of WT fungus but not the rounded yeast form of C. albicans (Fig. 5B). No binding to the Pra1-deficient strain CAMB5-18 (Fig. 5C) was detected, indicating that  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  binds to Pra1 or to a C. albicans hyphal constituent regulated by Pra1.

# Upon expression of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  HEK293 cells acquire ability to recognize, bind, and phagocytose C. albicans

In the next set of experiments, the ability of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  to support HEK293 cell migration to *C. albicans* and adhesion to the fungi with subsequent phagocytosis was explored. HEK293 cells, expressing either  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  or mock transfected, were added to plates with germinated C. albicans of SC5314 or CAMB5-18 strains. In some cases, plates with nongerminated fungi were also tested. After 30 min, unbound cells were washed away, and adherent cells were quantified using the CyQUANT fluorescent dye. In the absence of inhibitors, 58  $\pm$  5% of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells adhered to the hyphal form of SC5314 strain, whereas they failed to adhere to the yeast form of this fungal strain. The control mock-transfected HEK293 cells did not adhere to any form of C. albicans SC5314 strain (Fig. 6A), suggesting that the adhesion is  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  dependent. This conclusion was confirmed using a panel of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_{\text{M}}\beta_2$  inhibitors. The adhesion of HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  was completely inhibited with anti- $\alpha_X$  (3.9) and anti- $\beta_2$  (IB4) mAbs, whereas the anti- $\alpha_M$  lectin domain mAb OKM1 inhibited 80  $\pm$  10% of the cell adhesion. In contrast, the anti- $\alpha_M$  I-domain blocking mAbs 44a and NIF, a specific inhibitor of ligand binding to  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (58, 71) (NIF) as well as control W6/32 anti–MHC-II mAb, were ineffective. Soluble  $\beta$ -glucans at a concentration of 1  $\mu$ g/ml inhibited adhesion of the HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells by 50  $\pm$  5%. Surprisingly, baker yeast mannans, which blocks HEK293/ $\alpha_M\beta_2$  adhesion to C. albicans (36), did not block adhesion of HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_{2}$  cells (Fig. 6A). In control experiments, neither  $\beta$ -glucan nor mannan was able to inhibit  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ -supported adhesion to another  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  ligand—the fibrinogen peptide P2C, a nonglycosylated ligand that is also recognized by  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  (59, 72) (results not shown). Both cell lines were not able to adhere to germinated Pra1-deficient C. albicans strain CAMB5-18 (40) (Fig. 6A), again indicating that C. albicans recognition by  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  is Pra1 dependent.

Next, we tested migration of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells to C. albicans conditioned medium, a source of soluble Pra1 (40), in the presence or absence of integrin inhibitors. After 8 h, in the absence of inhibitors,  $17 \pm 4\% \alpha_x \beta_2$  cells migrated to fungal supernatant. The anti- $\beta_2$  mAb IB4, at 20  $\mu$ g/ml, reduced cell migration to fungal supernatant to 4  $\pm$  1%. The same effect was observed in the presence of anti- $\alpha_X$  mAb 3.9, which also inhibited migration to C. albicans supernatant. As a control, we also measured migration of the cells to vitronectin, which is mediated primarily by endogenous  $\alpha_V$  integrins on these cells. Anti- $\alpha_V$  mAb 272-17E6 inhibited migration of the cells to vitronectin to  $4.4 \pm 3.5\%$  but had no affect on migration of the cells to the fungal supernatant. Echistatin, a snake venom disintegrin that inhibits ligand recognition by

**FIGURE 5.** (A) Characterization of HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_{2}$ cells by reactivity mAbs; (B, C) binding of purified  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  to germinated C. albicans. (A) Characterization of HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells by FACS. A panel of Abs was used to examine the expression of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  Ags: antihuman  $\alpha_X$  (mAb 3.9), anti-human  $\beta_2$  (IB4), anti-human  $\alpha_M$  I-domain (44a), anti-human  $\alpha_M$  lectin domain (OKM1), and negative control irrelevant mAb W6/32 (anti-human MHC-II). Germinated C. albicans of WT strain SC5314 (B) or Pra1-depleted strain CAMB5-18 (C) labeled with Blankophore dye (blue fluorescence) was stained with and FITC-labeled purified  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ (green fluorescence) and photographed using fluorescence microscopy. Scale bars  $(B, C), 5 \mu m$ .





**FIGURE 6.** Upon expression on surface of HEK293 cells  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  supports adhesive, migratory and phagocytic activities of the cells toward C. albicans. (A) HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cell adhesion to C. albicans. A total of  $5 \times 10^5$ HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  ( $\blacksquare$ ) or mock-transfected ( $\Box$ ) cells were added to wells of tissue culture plates containing germinated (hyphae) or nongerminated (yeast) C. albicans of WT (SC5314) or ΔPra1 (CAMB5-18) strains. The plates were incubated at 37˚C for 1 h, then nonadherent cells were removed by washing, and the adherent cells were quantified using the CyQUANT Cell Proliferation Assay kit. For inhibition assays, before addition to the plate wells, the cells were preincubated with  $10 \mu g/ml$  of the Abs: anti- $\alpha_M$  I-domain (44a), anti- $\alpha_M$  lectin domain (OKM1), anti- $\beta_2$ (IB4), anti- $\alpha$ <sub>X</sub> (3.9), and irrelevant anti-MHC-II (W6/32) or with 1 mM  $\beta$ -glucan, 1 mM mannan, or 5  $\mu$ M recombinant NIF for 10 min at room temperature. (B) HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_{2}$  cell migration to C. albicans. Cell migration was measured in Boyden chambers (Costar Transwell with 8- $\mu$ m porosity in a 24-well format). A total of  $10^5$  HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells were added to the upper chamber, whereas lower chambers contained  $10<sup>6</sup>$  germinated C. albicans cells of WT SC5314 strain  $(\square)$  or 10 mM vitronectin  $(\blacksquare)$  in serum-free DMEM/F-12 medium. The inhibitors mAbs IB4, OKM1, 3.9 (see above), anti- $\alpha_V$  (27217E6), and 1 mM  $\beta$ -glucan or echistatin were added with the cells to the upper chamber. Plates were incubated for 8 h in a humidified incubator at  $37^{\circ}$ C and  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub>. The migrated cells were counted using the CyQUANT Cell Proliferation kit. (C) Phagocytosis of C. albicans by HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells. A total of 10<sup>5</sup> germinated C. albicans SC5314 strain cells were incubated with  $3 \times 10^5$  (1:3 ratio),  $7 \times 10^5$  (1:7 ratio), or  $1.1 \times 10^6$  (1:11 ratio) mock-transfected HEK293 cells ( $\bullet$ ) or HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells in the presence ( $\triangle$ ) or absence ( $\odot$ ) of anti- $\alpha_X$  mAbs 3.9. Fungal survival was determined every 20 min by plating the sample aliquots onto SDA plates in serial dilutions. Results are presented as percentage (mean  $\pm$  SE) of total cells (to which was assigned the value of 100%) and represent the results of three independent experiments, each in triplicate. \*  $p < 0.05$  (*t* test), \* \*  $p > 0.05$ .

most integrins, including the  $\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_V$  integrins (61), completely reduced cell migration to both Candida supernatant and vitronectin (Fig. 6B). Taken together, these data indicate that migration of  $\alpha$ <sub>X</sub> $\beta$ <sub>2</sub> cells to *C. albicans* proteins is integrin dependent, and  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  is implicated in this response of the HEK293/ $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  cells. Notably,  $\beta$ -glucan and anti- $\alpha_M$  lectin domain mAb OKM1, which inhibited adhesion of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells to C. albicans, did not affect migration of these cells to the fungal extracellular proteins (Fig. 6B), suggesting that the lectin specificity of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  is involved in adhesion but not migration to C. albicans.

The ability of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  to promote antifungal activity of HEK293 cells was also tested. Because fibroblasts such as HEK293 possess weak endogenous antifungal activity and are able to internalize pathogens by passive endocytosis (73, 74), we wished to distinguish passive nonspecific endocytosis from specific phagocytosis, and various ratios of fungi/cells were tested in killing assays. Germinated C. albicans cells of the SC5314 strain were coincubated with  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  or mock-transfected HEK293 at fungi/HEK293 cell ratios of 1:3, 1:7, or 1:11 for 2 h. Aliquots were taken every 20 min, and the amounts of viable fungi remaining were quantified as CFU by plating aliquots in a series of dilutions onto agar plates. Only 58  $\pm$  6% of the initial fungi remained viable after a 2-h incubation with the  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells at the 1:3 ratio. At a 1:7 ratio, the amount of surviving fungi decreased to 42  $\pm$  5% and fell to 28  $\pm$ 6% at a 1:11 ratio. In contrast, with mock-transfected HEK293 cells, fungal survival was  $76 \pm 6$  and  $82 \pm 5\%$  at the 1:11 and 1:7 ratios, respectively, and all fungi survived at the ratio 1:3 (Fig. 6C). Preincubation of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells with anti- $\alpha_X$  blocking mAb 3.9 completely inhibited the antifungal activity of the  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells to levels observed with mock-transfected HEK293 cells ( $p > 0.5$ ). These results indicate that  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  is able to promote phagocytosis of C. albicans.

# **Discussion**

In the present work, we demonstrate the importance of integrin  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$ for protection against *C. albicans* systemic infection by the innate immune system. Although the ability of  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  to recognize C3bi and thereby to assist in the elimination of opsonized particles has been described previously (48), to our knowledge, our study is the first demonstration of involvement of this integrin in direct pathogen recognition and elimination by leukocytes as well as its critical importance in the control of fungal invasion to brain and liver by certain subsets of tissue residential macrophages (see below).

Our data on the murine organ fungal burdens indicate that the  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  elimination affects mainly the liver and brain, dramatically increasing invasion and propagation of the fungus in these organs. This effect of  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  became evident at the earliest stages of infection: as early as16 h after the challenge, a 2-fold difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) emerged in fungal burdens in the livers of  $\Delta \alpha_X$  and WT mice and a 10-fold difference ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the brains. At 40 h postinfection, this difference in the susceptibility of the  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_{2}$ deficient mice and WT animals reached 6-fold ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the liver and  $>40$ -fold ( $p < 0.005$ ) in the brain.

The integrins of the  $\beta_2$  subfamily, known collectively as "leukocyte integrins," are expressed predominantly on the surface of leukocytes (23, 75). In our experiments, immunostaining of infected brain and liver sections revealed that only the CD45<sup>+</sup> hematopoietic cells in these tissues express  $\alpha_X$  [also see (76)], and thus,  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  elimination is likely to affect leukocyte function only.

The kidney and the brain are the primary targets for *C. albicans* during systemic infection. The fungi invade these organs directly from the bloodstream, and invasion can start during the first minutes postinfection (67). The blood immune mechanisms (e.g., monocytes, neutrophils, NK lymphocytes, and cells of the blood–

brain barrier) provide little protection from neuroinvasion during the initial stages of systemic infection. Blood cells can clarify the bloodstream of sublethal doses of C. albicans only after 20 h of infection, and, in the case of near-lethal doses, fungal CFUs can be detected in the blood even after 24–30 h postinfection (67). The i.v. route for the fungal injection bypasses possible contact of the fungi with tissue macrophages. To circumvent the blood–brain barrier, C. albicans uses a unique mechanism of invasion: upon binding to gp96 heat shock protein and/or to N-cadherin on the surface of normally nonphagocytic brain microvascular epithelial cells, fungi stimulate their own uptake (77, 78). Therefore, in our model, the difference in organ fungal burdens of WT and  $\Delta \alpha_X$  in mice appears to be due to differences in activity of the organresident macrophage subsets, microglial cells in brain, and Kupffer cells in liver.

Existing literature present extensive evidence that microglia play the principal role in the protection against C. albicans intracerebral infections. Direct proof of their crucial role was provided by the demonstration that intracerebral transfer of microglial cells provides complete protection (100% survival) against subsequent intracerebral challenge with a lethal inoculum of the fungus. After i.v. challenge with near-lethal *C. albicans* inoculums, the concentration of fungal CFUs in the brain rapidly increases and reaches maximal level at ∼24 h infection. Then, the fungal burden in brain stabilizes and remains at this level until days 7–8 with a subsequent slow decline (67). This time course implies that 24 h is sufficient for microglial activation and conversion to "brain macrophages," and the migration to the fungus to contain infection and corresponds well with our data, demonstrating that after 40 h most brain CD45<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup> cells in WT have migrated and assembled around the hyphal-like structures of C. albicans. In  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$ -deficient mice, the CD45<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>-</sup> cells in the brain remained<br>diffusely distributed, suggesting that  $\alpha_{\rm Z}$ <sup>o</sup> is required for these cells diffusely distributed, suggesting that  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  is required for these cells to migrate to and recognize C. albicans.

Kupffer cells are the specialized phagocytic cells found on the luminal surface of hepatic sinusoids (79). These cells are of monocytoid lineage (79, 80) and express both  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_{\text{M}}\beta_2$  integrins  $(81–83)$ , and their importance for protection against C. albicans invasion has been demonstrated previously (84–87). The possible involvement of integrin  $\alpha$ <sub>X</sub> $\beta$ <sub>2</sub> in phagocytosis of *C. albicans* by microglial and Kupffer cells has been proposed (84, 88, 89). Taken together, these data suggest that  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  but not  $\alpha_{\text{M}}\beta_2$  is critical in antifungal activity of tissue-resident macrophage subsets. This conclusion is consistent with the previous report demonstrating that increased expression of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  results in enhanced phagocytosis of M. tuberculosis by human macrophages (49).

Integrins on the surface of nonstimulated leukocytes are expressed in inactive "closed" conformation and require activation to recognize their ligands with high affinity. During inflammation, various physiological agonists induce activation of specific integrins. Thus,  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  may become activated, whereas  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  remains in an inactive conformation or vice versa, and therefore, these two  $\beta_2$  integrins may differentially participate in leukocyte function despite both being expressed on the leukocyte surface (19). Activation of peripheral blood monocytes in vitro with PMA results in activation of all leukocyte integrins. For this reason, anti- $\alpha_X\beta_2$ mAbs block adhesion of PMA-activated monocytes only partially. The only anti- $\alpha_M$  mAb that blocks adhesion to the fungus is directed to the  $\alpha_M$  lectin domain, and as we have shown, this mAb also cross-reacts with a previously unrecognized lectin domain within the  $\alpha_X$  subunit.

b-Glucans and mannans are important immunomodulators, and their binding by leukocytes is implemented by integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (90, 91). Upon ligation with the integrin,  $\beta$ -glucans activate  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  and

stabilize it in an intermediate active conformation (92).Unlike  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ , where the carbohydrate binding and sugar selectivity of its  $\alpha_M$ -lectin domain are well characterized (e.g., (93–95)), there is no evidence in the literature for recognition of fungal glycans or bacterial LPS by  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ . Therefore, our observation that activity of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  is modulated by fungal  $\beta$ -glucans is a novel finding of our present work. On the basis of ~70% homology between  $\alpha_M$  and  $\alpha_X$  and that the OKM1 mAb, which blocks glycan binding to  $\alpha_M$ (70), weakly cross-reacts with  $\alpha_X$ , we anticipate certain similarities in the sugar specificity of these integrin subunits. However,  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  and  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  demonstrated clear distinction in carbohydrate selectivity: although  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  recognizes both  $\beta$ -glucans and mannans, the activity of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  appears to be modulated by  $\beta$ -glucans but not by mannans. In our experiments, mannans, unlike  $\beta$ -glucans, were not able to inhibit adhesion of HEK293/ $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  to C. albicans hyphae. The observed differences in sugar selectivity of the integrins may play an important role in the regulation of leukocyte activation and differentiation (95, 96).

In the present work, direct interaction between purified  $\alpha_{\rm X}\beta_2$  and Pra1 was not tested directly. Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that another C. albicans hyphal protein that is regulated by Pra1 may serve as a ligand for  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ . However, the existing literature provides no evidence for such a molecule. Thus, our findings that purified  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  interacts with C. albicans hyphae but not with the yeast form and that the HEK293/ $\alpha_X\beta_2$  cells recognize and adhere to hyphae of WT C. albicans strain SC5314, but not of Pra1-deficient strain CAMB5-18, provide strong evidence that Pra1 serves as C. albicans ligand for  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ .

The integrin  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  is usually present on the surface of leukocyte subsets together with another member of the  $\beta_2$  integrin family,  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ , to which such primary antipathogen leukocyte activities, such as recognition of bacterial LPS and fungal mannoproteins, are traditionally ascribed (12, 17, 24). We speculate that  $\alpha_M \beta_2$  and  $\alpha$ <sub>X</sub> $\beta$ <sub>2</sub> integrins may play complementary roles in executing cellular immunity or that different cellular agonists may favor activation and utilization of one particular integrin. Our data showing significantly reduced resistance of  $\alpha_X\beta_2$ -deficient mice to *Candida* invasion and the  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  requirement for fungal recognition and killing by macrophages clearly demonstrate that  $\alpha_X\beta_2$  plays an independent role in the defense against fungal infections and does not simply serve as an auxiliary receptor for pathogens, secondary to  $\alpha_M \beta_2$ .

Taken together, these data clearly demonstrate the importance of  $\alpha_{\text{X}}\beta_2$  in protection against *C. albicans* systemic infection, and this protective effect is mediated by subsets of tissue residential macrophages.

# Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Christy A. Ballantyne of Baylor College of Medicine for the  $\Delta \alpha_X$  mice, Dr. William A. Fonzi of Georgetown University for C. albicans DPra1 strain, Earl Poptic from Cleveland Clinic Hybridoma Core for help with large-scale Ab preparation, Carla Drumm (Cleveland Clinic) for help with mouse husbandry, and Rajani Tendulkar (Cleveland Clinic) for excellent administrative support of the project.

# **Disclosures**

The authors have no financial conflicts of interest.

# References

- 1. Chaffin, W. L., J. L. López-Ribot, M. Casanova, D. Gozalbo, and J. P. Martínez. 1998. Cell wall and secreted proteins of Candida albicans: identification, function, and expression. Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev. 62: 130–180.
- 2. Corner, B. E., and P. T. Magee. 1997. Candida pathogenesis: unravelling the threads of infection. Curr. Biol. 7: R691-R694.
- 3. Muhlschlegal, F., W. A. Fonzi, L. W. Hoyer, T. Payne, F. M. Poulet, J. Clevenger, J. P. Latgé, J. Calera, A. Beauvais, S. Paris, et al. 1998. Molecular mechanisms of virulence in fungus-host interactions for Aspergillus fumigatus and Candida albicans. Med. Mycol. 36(Suppl 1): 238–248.
- 4. Calderone, R. A., and W. A. Fonzi. 2001. Virulence factors of Candida albicans. Trends Microbiol. 9: 327–335.
- 5. Lo, H. J., J. R. Köhler, B. DiDomenico, D. Loebenberg, A. Cacciapuoti, and G. R. Fink. 1997. Nonfilamentous C. albicans mutants are avirulent. Cell 90: 939–949.
- 6. Saville, S. P., A. L. Lazzell, C. Monteagudo, and J. L. Lopez-Ribot. 2003. Engineered control of cell morphology in vivo reveals distinct roles for yeast and filamentous forms of Candida albicans during infection. Eukaryot. Cell 2: 1053-1060.
- 7. Snydman, D. R. 2003. Shifting patterns in the epidemiology of nosocomial Candida infections. Chest 123(Suppl. 5)500S–503S.
- 8. Abelson, J. A., T. Moore, D. Bruckner, J. Deville, and K. Nielsen. 2005. Frequency of fungemia in hospitalized pediatric inpatients over 11 years at a tertiary care institution. Pediatrics 116: 61-67.
- 9. Cole, G. T., A. A. Halawa, and E. J. Anaissie. 1996. The role of the gastrointestinal tract in hematogenous candidiasis: from the laboratory to the bedside. Clin. Infect. Dis. 22(Suppl. 2): 73–88.
- 10. Wingard, J. R. 1994. Infections due to resistant Candida species in patients with cancer who are receiving chemotherapy. Clin. Infect. Dis. 19(Suppl. 1): S49-S53.
- 11. Richardson, M. D. 2005. Changing patterns and trends in systemic fungal infections. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 56(Suppl. 1): i5–i11.
- 12. Diamond, R. D. 1993. Interactions of phagocytic cells with Candida and other opportunistic fungi. Arch. Med. Res. 24: 361–369.
- 13. Netea, M. G., K. Gijzen, N. Coolen, I. Verschueren, C. G. Figdor, J. W. Van der Meer, R. Torensma, and B. J. Kullberg. 2004. Human dendritic cells are less potent at killing Candida albicans than both monocytes and macrophages. Microbes Infect. 6: 985–989.
- 14. Mahanty, S., R. A. Greenfield, W. A. Joyce, and P. W. Kincade. 1988. Inoculation candidiasis in a murine model of severe combined immunodeficiency syndrome. Infect. Immun. 56: 3162-3166.
- 15. Baghian, A., and K. W. Lee. 1988. Role of activated macrophages in resistance to systemic candidosis. J. Leukoc. Biol. 44: 166–171.
- 16. Bistoni, F., A. Vecchiarelli, E. Cenci, P. Puccetti, P. Marconi, and A. Cassone. 1986. Evidence for macrophage-mediated protection against lethal Candida albicans infection. Infect. Immun. 51: 668–674.
- 17. Mayadas, T. N., and X. Cullere. 2005. Neutrophil  $\beta_2$  integrins: moderators of life or death decisions. Trends Immunol. 26: 388-395.
- McFarland, H. I., S. R. Nahill, J. W. Maciaszek, and R. M. Welsh. 1992. CD11b (Mac-1): a marker for CD8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic T cell activation and memory in virus infection. J. Immunol. 149: 1326–1333.
- 19. Arnaout, M. A., L. L. Lanier, and D. V. Faller. 1988. Relative contribution of the leukocyte molecules Mo1, LFA-1, and p150,95 (LeuM5) in adhesion of granulocytes and monocytes to vascular endothelium is tissue- and stimulus-specific. J. Cell. Physiol. 137: 305–309.
- 20. Larson, R. S., and T. A. Springer. 1990. Structure and function of leukocyte integrins. Immunol. Rev. 114: 181–217.
- 21. Arnaout, M. A., M. Michishita, and C. P. Sharma. 1992. On the regulation of  $\beta_2$ integrins. Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 323: 171–179.
- 22. Stewart, M., M. Thiel, and N. Hogg. 1995. Leukocyte integrins. Curr. Opin. Cell Biol. 7: 690–696.
- 23. Harris, E. S., T. M. McIntyre, S. M. Prescott, and G. A. Zimmerman. 2000. The leukocyte integrins. J. Biol. Chem. 275: 23409–23412.
- 24. Bajtay, Z., C. Speth, A. Erdei, and M. P. Dierich. 2004. Cutting edge: productive HIV-1 infection of dendritic cells via complement receptor type 3 (CR3, CD11b/ CD18). J. Immunol. 173: 4775–4778.
- 25. Kuijpers, T. W., E. van de Vijver, M. A. Weterman, M. de Boer, A. T. Tool, T. K. van den Berg, M. Moser, M. E. Jakobs, K. Seeger, O. Sanal, et al. 2009. LAD-1/variant syndrome is caused by mutations in FERMT3. Blood 113: 4740– 4746.
- 26. Anderson, D. C., F. C. Schmalstieg, W. Shearer, K. Becker-Freeman, S. Kohl, C. W. Smith, M. F. Tosi, and T. Springer. 1985. Leukocyte LFA-1, OKM1, p150,95 deficiency syndrome: functional and biosynthetic studies of three kindreds. Fed. Proc. 44: 2671–2677.
- 27. Andrews, T., and K. E. Sullivan. 2003. Infections in patients with inherited defects in phagocytic function. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 16: 597–621.
- 28. Klempner, M. S., and H. L. Malech. 2003. Phagocytes: normal and abnormal neutrophil host defenses. In Infectious Diseases, 3rd ed. S. L. Gorbach, J. G. Bartlett, and N. R. Blacklow, eds. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia. p. 14‑39.
- 29. Soloviev, D. A., S. Jawhara, and W. A. Fonzi. 2011. Regulation of innate immune response to *Candida albicans* infections by  $\alpha M\beta$ 2-Pra1p interaction. *In*fect. Immun. 79: 1546–1558.
- 30. Brown, G. D., P. R. Taylor, D. M. Reid, J. A. Willment, D. L. Williams, L. Martinez-Pomares, S. Y. Wong, and S. Gordon. 2002. Dectin-1 is a major b-glucan receptor on macrophages. J. Exp. Med. 196: 407–412.
- 31. Netea, M. G., R. Sutmuller, C. Hermann, C. A. Van der Graaf, J. W. Van der Meer, J. H. van Krieken, T. Hartung, G. Adema, and B. J. Kullberg. 2004. Tolllike receptor 2 suppresses immunity against Candida albicans through induction of IL-10 and regulatory T cells. J. Immunol. 172: 3712–3718.
- 32. Netea, M. G., C. A. Van Der Graaf, A. G. Vonk, I. Verschueren, J. W. Van Der Meer, and B. J. Kullberg. 2002. The role of toll-like receptor (TLR) 2 and TLR4 in the host defense against disseminated candidiasis. J. Infect. Dis. 185: 1483– 1489.
- 33. Harokopakis, E., M. H. Albzreh, M. H. Martin, and G. Hajishengallis. 2006. TLR2 transmodulates monocyte adhesion and transmigration via Rac1- and PI3K-mediated inside-out signaling in response to Porphyromonas gingivalis fimbriae. J. Immunol. 176: 7645–7656.
- 34. Sorgi, C. A., A. Secatto, C. Fontanari, W. M. Turato, C. Belangér, A. I. de Medeiros, S. Kashima, S. Marleau, D. T. Covas, P. T. Bozza, and L. H. Faccioli. 2009. Histoplasma capsulatum cell wall  $\beta$ -glucan induces lipid body formation through CD18, TLR2, and dectin-1 receptors: correlation with leukotriene B4 generation and role in HIV-1 infection. J. Immunol. 182: 4025–4035.
- 35. Forsyth, C. B., and H. L. Mathews. 1996. Lymphocytes utilize CD11b/CD18 for adhesion to Candida albicans. Cell. Immunol. 170: 91–100.
- 36. Forsyth, C. B., E. F. Plow, and L. Zhang. 1998. Interaction of the fungal pathogen Candida albicans with integrin CD11b/CD18: recognition by the I domain is modulated by the lectin-like domain and the CD18 subunit. J. Immunol. 161: 6198–6205.
- 37. Sentandreu, M., M. V. Elorza, R. Sentandreu, and W. A. Fonzi. 1998. Cloning and characterization of PRA1, a gene encoding a novel pH-regulated antigen of Candida albicans. J. Bacteriol. 180: 282–289.
- 38. López-Ribot, J. L., P. Sepúlveda, A. M. Cervera, P. Roig, D. Gozalbo, and J. P. Martínez. 1997. Cloning of a cDNA fragment encoding part of the protein moiety of the 58-kDa fibrinogen-binding mannoprotein of Candida albicans. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 157: 273–278.
- 39. Casanova, M., J. L. Lopez-Ribot, C. Monteagudo, A. Llombart-Bosch, R. Sentandreu, and J. P. Martinez. 1992. Identification of a 58-kilodalton cell surface fibrinogen-binding mannoprotein from Candida albicans. Infect. Immun. 60: 4221–4229.
- 40. Soloviev, D. A., W. A. Fonzi, R. Sentandreu, E. Pluskota, C. B. Forsyth, S. P. Yadav, and E. F. Plow. 2007. Identification of pH-regulated antigen 1 released from *Candida albicans* as the major ligand for leukocyte integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ . *J.* Immunol. 178: 2038–2046.
- 41. De Bernardis, F., F. A. Mühlschlegel, A. Cassone, and W. A. Fonzi. 1998. The pH of the host niche controls gene expression in and virulence of Candida albicans. Infect. Immun. 66: 3317–3325.
- 42. Ramon, A. M., A. Porta, and W. A. Fonzi. 1999. Effect of environmental pH on morphological development of Candida albicans is mediated via the PacCrelated transcription factor encoded by PRR2. J. Bacteriol. 181: 7524–7530.
- 43. Luo, S., S. Poltermann, A. Kunert, S. Rupp, and P. F. Zipfel. 2009. Immune evasion of the human pathogenic yeast Candida albicans: Pra1 is a Factor H, FHL-1 and plasminogen binding surface protein. Mol. Immunol. 47: 541–550.
- 44. Hogg, N., and P. A. Bates. 2000. Genetic analysis of integrin function in man: LAD-1 and other syndromes. Matrix Biol. 19: 211–222.
- 45. Lanier, L. L., M. A. Arnaout, R. Schwarting, N. L. Warner, and G. D. Ross. 1985. p150/95, third member of the LFA-1/CR3 polypeptide family identified by anti-Leu M5 monoclonal antibody. Eur. J. Immunol. 15: 713–718.
- 46. Nham, S. U. 1999. Characteristics of fibrinogen binding to the domain of CD11c, an  $\alpha$  subunit of p150,95. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 264: 630-634.
- 47. Frick, C., A. Odermatt, K. Zen, K. J. Mandell, H. Edens, R. Portmann, L. Mazzucchelli, D. L. Jaye, and C. A. Parkos. 2005. Interaction of ICAM-1 with  $\beta_2$ -integrin CD11c/CD18: characterization of a peptide ligand that mimics a putative binding site on domain D4 of ICAM-1. Eur. J. Immunol. 35: 3610– 3621.
- 48. Bilsland, C. A., M. S. Diamond, and T. A. Springer. 1994. The leukocyte integrin p150,95 (CD11c/CD18) as a receptor for iC3b. Activation by a heterologous beta subunit and localization of a ligand recognition site to the I domain. *J. Immunol.* 152: 4582–4589.
- 49. Rosas-Taraco, A. G., M. C. Salinas-Carmona, A. Revol, A. Rendon, G. Caballero-Olin, and A. Y. Arce-Mendoza. 2009. Expression of CDllc in blood monocytes as biomarker for favorable response to antituberculosis treatment. Arch. Med. Res. 40: 128–131.
- 50. Schlesinger, L. S., and M. A. Horwitz. 1991. Phagocytosis of Mycobacterium leprae by human monocyte-derived macrophages is mediated by complement receptors CR1 (CD35), CR3 (CD11b/CD18), and CR4 (CD11c/CD18) and IFN- $\gamma$  activation inhibits complement receptor function and phagocytosis of this bacterium. J. Immunol. 147: 1983–1994.
- 51. Hellmig, S., S. Mascheretti, J. Renz, H. Frenzel, F. Jelschen, J. K. Rehbein, U. Fölsch, J. Hampe, and S. Schreiber. 2005. Haplotype analysis of the CD11 gene cluster in patients with chronic Helicobacter pylori infection and gastric ulcer disease. Tissue Antigens 65: 271–274.
- 52. Porta, A., A. M. Ramon, and W. A. Fonzi. 1999. PRR1, a homolog of Aspergillus nidulans palF, controls pH-dependent gene expression and filamentation in Candida albicans. J. Bacteriol. 181: 7516–7523.
- 53. Lu, H., C. W. Smith, J. Perrard, D. Bullard, L. Tang, S. B. Shappell, M. L. Entman, A. L. Beaudet, and C. M. Ballantyne. 1997. LFA-1 is sufficient in mediating neutrophil emigration in Mac-1-deficient mice. J. Clin. Invest. 99: 1340–1350.
- 54. Rosenkranz, A. R., A. Coxon, M. Maurer, M. F. Gurish, K. F. Austen, D. S. Friend, S. J. Galli, and T. N. Mayadas. 1998. Impaired mast cell development and innate immunity in Mac-1 (CD11b/CD18, CR3)-deficient mice. J. Immunol. 161: 6463–6467.
- 55. Ding, Z. M., J. E. Babensee, S. I. Simon, H. Lu, J. L. Perrard, D. C. Bullard, X. Y. Dai, S. K. Bromley, M. L. Dustin, M. L. Entman, et al. 1999. Relative contribution of LFA-1 and Mac-1 to neutrophil adhesion and migration. J. Immunol. 163: 5029–5038.
- 56. Pluskota, E., N. M. Woody, D. Szpak, C. M. Ballantyne, D. A. Soloviev, D. I. Simon, and E. F. Plow. 2008. Expression, activation, and function of integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  (Mac-1) on neutrophil-derived microparticles. *Blood* 112: 2327– 2335.
- 57. Zhang, L., and E. F. Plow. 1996. A discrete site modulates activation of I domains: application to integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ . J. Biol. Chem. 271: 29953-29957.
- 58. Zhang, L., and E. F. Plow. 1996. Overlapping, but not identical sites, are involved in the recognition of C3bi, NIF, and adhesive ligands by the  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  integrins. J. Biol. Chem. 271: 18211–18216.
- 59. Solovjov, D. A., E. Pluskota, and E. F. Plow. 2005. Distinct roles for the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ subunits in the functions of integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ . J. Biol. Chem. 280: 1336–1345.
- 60. Kumar, C. C., H. Nie, C. P. Rogers, M. Malkowski, E. Maxwell, J. J. Catino, and L. Armstrong. 1997. Biochemical characterization of the binding of echistatin to integrin  $\alpha_{v}\beta_{3}$  receptor. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 283: 843–853.
- 61. Forsyth, C. B., and H. L. Mathews. 2002. Lymphocyte adhesion to Candida albicans. Infect. Immun. 70: 517–527.
- 62. Rüchel, R., and M. Schaffrinski. 1999. Versatile fluorescent staining of fungi in clinical specimens by using the optical brightener Blankophor. J. Clin. Microbiol. 37: 2694–2696.
- 63. Soloviev, D. A., E. Pluskota, and E. F. Plow. 2006. Cell adhesion and migration assays. In Methods in Molecular Medicine. Q. Wang, ed. Vol. 129. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, p. 267–278.
- 64. Pluskota, E., D. A. Soloviev, K. Bdeir, D. B. Cines, and E. F. Plow. 2004. Integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  orchestrates and accelerates plasminogen activation and fibrinolysis by neutrophils. J. Biol. Chem. 279: 18063–18072.
- 65. Forsyth, C. B., D. A. Solovjov, T. P. Ugarova, and E. F. Plow. 2001. Integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$ -mediated cell migration to fibrinogen and its recognition peptides. J. Exp. Med. 193: 1123–1133.
- Lehrer, R. I., and M. J. Cline. 1969. Interaction of Candida albicans with human leukocytes and serum. J. Bacteriol. 98: 996–1004.
- 67. MacCallum, D. M., and F. C. Odds. 2005. Temporal events in the intravenous challenge model for experimental Candida albicans infections in female mice. Mycoses 48: 151–161.
- 68. Aldred, A. J., M. C. Cha, and K. A. Meckling-Gill. 2002. Determination of a humane endpoint in the L1210 model of murine leukemia. Contemp. Top. Lab. Anim. Sci. 41: 24–27.
- 69. Spellberg, B., A. S. Ibrahim, J. E. Edwards, Jr., and S. G. Filler. 2005. Mice with disseminated candidiasis die of progressive sepsis. J. Infect. Dis. 192: 336–343.
- 70. Ross, G. D., J. A. Cain, and P. J. Lachmann. 1985. Membrane complement receptor type three (CR3) has lectin-like properties analogous to bovine conglutinin as functions as a receptor for zymosan and rabbit erythrocytes as well as a receptor for iC3b. J. Immunol. 134: 3307–3315.
- 71. Zhang, L., and E. F. Plow. 1997. Identification and reconstruction of the binding site within  $\alpha_M \beta_2$  for a specific and high affinity ligand, NIF. J. Biol. Chem. 272: 17558–17564.
- 72. Ugarova, T. P., D. A. Solovjov, L. Zhang, D. I. Loukinov, V. C. Yee, L. V. Medved, and E. F. Plow. 1998. Identification of a novel recognition sequence for integrin  $\alpha_M\beta_2$  within the  $\gamma$ -chain of fibrinogen. J. Biol. Chem. 273: 22519–22527.
- 73. Ginsburg, I., M. N. Sela, A. Morag, Z. Ravid, Z. Duchan, M. Ferne, S. Rabinowitz-Bergner, P. P. Thomas, P. Davies, J. Niccols, et al. 1981. Role of leukocyte factors and cationic polyelectrolytes in phagocytosis of group A streptococci and Candida albicans by neutrophils, macrophages, fibroblasts and epithelial cells: modulation by anionic polyelectrolytes in relation to pathogenesis of chronic inflammation. Inflammation 5: 289–312.
- 74. Bodo, M., E. Becchetti, T. Baroni, S. Mocci, L. Merletti, M. Giammarioli, M. Calvitti, and G. Sbaraglia. 1995. Internalization of Candida albicans and cytoskeletal organization in macrophages and fibroblasts treated with concanavalin A. Cell. Mol. Biol. (Noisy-le-grand) 41: 297–305.
- 75. Margadant, C., H. N. Monsuur, J. C. Norman, and A. Sonnenberg. 2011. Mechanisms of integrin activation and trafficking. Curr. Opin. Cell Biol. 23: 607–614.
- 76. Becher, B., and J. P. Antel. 1996. Comparison of phenotypic and functional properties of immediately ex vivo and cultured human adult microglia. Glia 18: 1–10.
- 77. Jong, A. Y., M. F. Stins, S. H. Huang, S. H. Chen, and K. S. Kim. 2001. Traversal of Candida albicans across human blood-brain barrier in vitro. Infect. Immun. 69: 4536–4544.
- 78. Liu, Y., R. Mittal, N. V. Solis, N. V. Prasadarao, and S. G. Filler. 2011. Mechanisms of Candida albicans trafficking to the brain. PLoS Pathog. 7: e1002305.
- 79. Naito, M., G. Hasegawa, and K. Takahashi. 1997. Development, differentiation, and maturation of Kupffer cells. Microsc. Res. Tech. 39: 350-364.
- 80. Lawson, L. J., V. H. Perry, and S. Gordon. 1992. Turnover of resident microglia in the normal adult mouse brain. Neuroscience 48: 405–415.
- 81. Akiyama, H., and P. L. McGeer. 1990. Brain microglia constitutively express  $\beta_2$ integrins. J. Neuroimmunol. 30: 81–93.
- 82. Helmy, K. Y., K. J. Katschke, Jr., N. N. Gorgani, N. M. Kljavin, J. M. Elliott, L. Diehl, S. J. Scales, N. Ghilardi, and M. van Lookeren Campagne. 2006. CRIg: a macrophage complement receptor required for phagocytosis of circulating pathogens. Cell 124: 915–927.
- 83. Hinglais, N., M. D. Kazatchkine, C. Mandet, M. D. Appay, and J. Bariety. 1989. Human liver Kupffer cells express CR1, CR3, and CR4 complement receptor antigens: an immunohistochemical study. Lab. Invest. 61: 509-514.
- 84. Lionakis, M. S., J. K. Lim, C. C. Lee, and P. M. Murphy. 2011. Organ-specific innate immune responses in a mouse model of invasive candidiasis. J. Innate Immun. 3: 180–199.
- 85. Redmond, H. P., J. Shou, H. J. Gallagher, C. J. Kelly, and J. M. Daly. 1993. Macrophage-dependent candidacidal mechanisms in the murine system: comparison of murine Kupffer cell and peritoneal macrophage candidacidal mechanisms. J. Immunol. 150: 3427–3433.
- 86. Blasi, E., R. Mazzolla, R. Barluzzi, and F. Bistoni. 1991. Microglial cellmediated anti-Candida activity: temperature, ions, protein kinase C as crucial elements. J. Neuroimmunol. 34: 53–60.
- 87. Neglia, R., B. Colombari, S. Peppoloni, C. Orsi, A. Tavanti, S. Senesi, and E. Blasi. 2006. Adaptive response of microglial cells to in vitro infection by Candida albicans isolates with different genomic backgrounds. Microb. Pathog. 41: 251–256.
- 88. Toth, C. A., and P. Thomas. 1992. Liver endocytosis and Kupffer cells. Hepatology 16: 255–266.
- 89. Yan, J., V. Vetvicka, Y. Xia, M. Hanikýrová, T. N. Mayadas, and G. D. Ross. 2000. Critical role of Kupffer cell CR3 (CD11b/CD18) in the clearance of IgMopsonized erythrocytes or soluble  $\beta$ -glucan. Immunopharmacology 46: 39-54.
- 90. Vetvicka, V., B. Dvorak, J. Vetvickova, J. Richter, J. Krizan, P. Sima, and J.- C. Yvin. 2007. Orally administered marine  $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - $\beta$ -D-glucan Phycarine stimulates both humoral and cellular immunity. Int. J. Biol. Macromol. 40: 291–298.
- 91. Chan, G. C., W. K. Chan, and D. M. Sze. 2009. The effects of  $\beta$ -glucan on human immune and cancer cells. J Hematol Oncol 2: 25.
- 92. O'Brien, X. M., K. E. Heflin, L. M. Lavigne, K. Yu, M. Kim, A. R. Salomon, and J. S. Reichner. 2012. Lectin site ligation of CR3 induces conformational changes and signaling. J. Biol. Chem. 287: 3337–3348.
- 93. Thornton, B. P., V. Vĕtvicka, M. Pitman, R. C. Goldman, and G. D. Ross. 1996. Analysis of the sugar specificity and molecular location of the  $\beta$ -glucan-binding lectin site of complement receptor type 3 (CD11b/CD18). J. Immunol. 156: 1235–1246.
- 94. Xia, Y., V. Vetvicka, J. Yan, M. Hanikýrová, T. Mayadas, and G. D. Ross. 1999. The  $\beta$ -glucan-binding lectin site of mouse CR3 (CD11b/CD18) and its function in generating a primed state of the receptor that mediates cytotoxic activation in response to iC3b-opsonized target cells. J. Immunol. 162: 2281–2290.
- 95. Ross, G. D. 2000. Regulation of the adhesion versus cytotoxic functions of the Mac-1/CR3/ $\alpha_M\beta_2$ -integrin glycoprotein. Crit. Rev. Immunol. 20: 197–222.
- 96. Agarwal, S., C. A. Specht, H. Huang, G. R. Ostroff, S. Ram, P. A. Rice, and A. Levitzki. 2011. Linkage specificity and role of properdin in activation of the alternative complement pathway by fungal glycans. MBio 2: e00178-11.