SPECIAL REPORT

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Future MICROBIOLOGY

Aging: an emergent phenotypic trait that contributes to the virulence of *Cryptococcus neoformans*

Tejas Bouklas[1] & Bettina C Fries*[1,2]

ABSTRACT The pathogenic fungus, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, is known to undergo phenotypic variation, which affects its virulence in the host. Recent investigations on *C. neoformans* cells in humans have validated the concept that phenotypic variation is present and relevant for the outcome of chronic cryptococcosis. The *C. neoformans* capsule is not the only trait that varies among strains. An emerging variant is the "old cell phenotype" generated when *C. neoformans* undergoes replicative aging. This phenotype, which other than larger size also exhibits a thickened cell wall, inhibits phagocytosis and killing by antifungals *in vitro*. In concert with the finding that old cells accumulate *in vivo*, this emergent trait could have significant impact on cryptococcal virulence and infection, and contribute to treatment failure.

KEYWORDS
• aging • *C. neoformans* • pathogen • phenotypic variation • virulence

Fungi, such as *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* have been invaluable model organisms in the study of aging [1–5], a field that has been far removed from fungal pathogenesis until recently. Recent studies in the fungal pathogens, *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans*, have revealed that aging increases phenotypic variation within the pathogen population as it expands in the host environment over time [6–9]. Old *C. neoformans* cells have been shown to be biologically advantageous *in vitro* compared with young cells [6,8] and could constitute an unanticipated phenotypic variant that could potentially alter the virulence of *C. neoformans* during infection. This interesting phenomenon could be relevant to other eukaryotic and some prokaryotic pathogens where asymmetrical aging occurs, and where phenotypic variation emerges during host pathogen interaction.

Capsule induction is a major determinant of phenotypic variation

Several studies have demonstrated that during chronic infection with *C. neoformans*, phenotypic variants emerge [10–14]. Such 'microevolution' has been documented in serial isolates [15,16] and experimental murine infection [17]. The most thoroughly investigated phenotypic trait is capsule size, which can be variable among strains and even within a cryptococcal population. Older studies have inversely correlated capsule volume and induction [18] with phagocytosis indices [19] and variable antibody binding [20]. Capsule growth in *C. neoformans* is tightly coordinated with cell cycle progression [21]. Accordingly, mutants of a G1-type cyclin, *Cln1* [22] that exhibit a longer G_1 phase also produce a larger capsule. Capsule size is regulated by several transcription factors, including Ada2, Rim101, and Gat201 [23,24]. In addition, capsule sizes can vary and depend on the microenvironment of infection. Polysaccharide capsules are more induced in *C. neoformans* residing in the lung compared

[1]Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Health Sciences Center T15-080, Stony Brook University Medical Center, Stony Brook, NY 11794-8153, USA
[2]Department of Molecular Genetics & Microbiology, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 11794-8153, USA
*Author for correspondence: Tel.: +1 631 444 1901; Fax: +1 631 444 7518; bettina.fries@stonybrookmedicine.edu

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with the yeast found in the brain environment [25,26]. Size matters as successful phagocytosis is important for the ability of *C. neoformans* to transmigrate across the blood–brain barrier, and capsular changes have been documented to affect dissemination to the brain [27,28]. Consistent with that view, a recent large phenotypic analysis of *C. neoformans* strains derived from cerebrospinal fluids (CSF) of humans with chronic cryptococcal meningitis determined that strains with high levels of fungal uptake by macrophages *in vitro* were associated with higher CSF fungal burden and decreased long-term patient survival. Interestingly, high-uptake strains were also hypocapsular and exhibited greater laccase activity and increased survival *ex vivo* in purified CSF [29].

Cell size independent of capsule size generates phenotypic variants

It must be noted that cell size variation is not only dependent on capsule induction but can also occur when the cell body size varies [6]. In fact, *C. neoformans* cells with a variable range of cell sizes have been observed in murine infection studies [30]. Recent investigations focused on replicative aging in cryptococcal populations have shown that size variation also occurs during the process of replicative aging and can be observed in chronic rat and human cryptococcosis [8]. The cell size increase seen during aging proportionally affects the capsule and the cell body [31], and thus is not only due to an over-induced capsule. Size increase from replicative aging has been observed in other fungi as well [6,9]. It remains questionable whether cell size is truly predetermined and correlated with overall life span as this was concluded from investigations done with a *S. cerevisiae* mutant collection [32]. There it was found that the smaller the cell size at birth, the longer the replicative life span (RLS) of the mutant (greater number of replications per cell). A study done in our laboratory with 18 *C. neoformans* strains did not validate that finding and found no correlation with cell body size and life span **(Figure 1A)**. Interestingly, this study indicated that cell size at death appeared to somewhat correlate with life span **(Figure 1B)**. In *Mycobacterium smegmatis*, a rod-shaped bacterium that replicates asymmetrically, birth and elongation rates also did not correlate [33]. Birth size may thus not limit life span in pathogens *per se* and underlie different selection pressures, especially in facultative intracellular pathogens like *C. neoformans* [34–38].

Titan cells

Murine infection studies described yet another cell phenotype, namely large-bodied cells termed 'titan cells', which are much larger than old cells that emerge in the process of replicative aging [6,8,39]. Titan cells can occur within 24 h of pulmonary murine infection [40], whereas old cells occur after weeks of meningeal rat infection [8]. Titan cells grow to cells that are 5–10 times larger than the cell size of the inoculum and demonstrate larger capsules [40]. Both titan [39,40] and old cells [8] are either not at all or not easily phagocytosed by macrophages, and show increased resistance to oxidative stress. Notably, titan cells are polyploid, and it is not clear at this point whether old cells are polyploid as well. Interestingly, genome duplication can occur in fungi without cell division as observed in *S. cerevisiae* [41]. Regardless of the differences in these cellular morphologies, both types may be important to cryptococcal disease, depending on the time and site of infection. Titan cells likely result in phenotypic variants early on, whereas old cells require many replications and can only emerge over time.

The thickness of the cell wall can increase phenotypic variability

Cell walls of fungi are important defense barriers and also targets of antifungal medication. They contain immunologically relevant epitopes, and therefore their components are vital to immune responses, and importantly, can also contribute to altered virulence [42–46]. A less studied aspect of the *C. neoformans* cell wall is the generation of bud scars, which are left on the mother cell after a bud separates [47]. In aging *S. cerevisiae*, the cell wall becomes weakened with the accumulation of these bud scars [48]. By contrast, in aging *C. neoformans*, bud scars heal as the cell wall is rearranged during budding [49,50]. In fact, the cell wall has been documented to thicken with age, and its thickness can permit differentiation between old mother cells and their young daughter cells **(Figure 2)**. A thickened cell wall in older cells could conceivably explain a lower effective fungicidal activity (EFA <0.5 log), which is observed in some cryptococcosis patients that are treated with antifungals and correlates with poor outcome [51,52]. Particularly, the thickened cell wall may keep polyenes and azoles from interacting with ergosterol in the fungal cell membrane, and echinocandins from interacting with glucans in the fungal cell wall. In fact, old *C. neoformans* cells show increased resistance to the polyene amphotericin

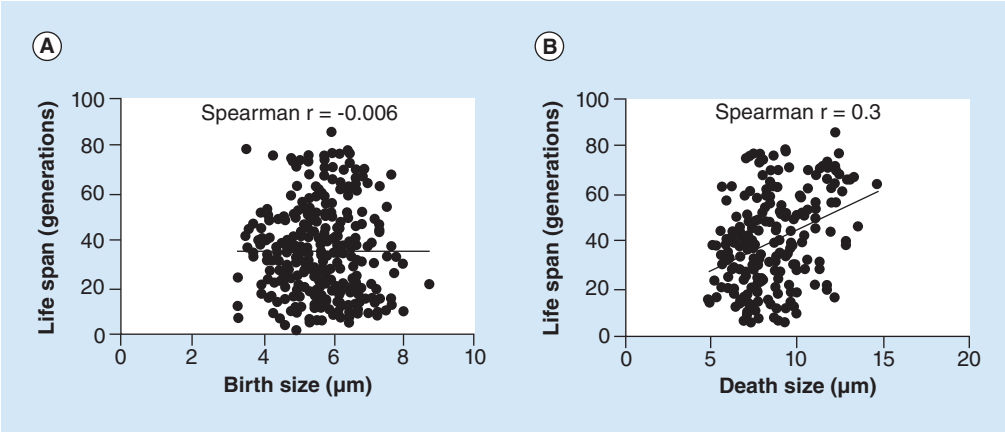

Figure 1. Birth size of *Cryptococcus neoformans* cells from various clinical isolates does not strongly correlate with the cell's replicative life span (RLS). (A) The size at birth of 359 *C. neoformans* cells did not correlate with their respective median RLSs (Spearman's $r = -0.006$). **(B)** Death size of 235 *C. neoformans* cells appeared to correlate with their respective median RLSs (Spearman's $r = 0.3$).

B (AMB) and the azole fluconazole as demonstrated in time killing assays [6,8], which are not dependent on growth. Similar resistance was observed in old *C. albicans* cells when exposed to variable concentrations of the echinocandin caspofungin [6]. Already in *C. neoformans* cells that have undergone only 10 replications, killing assays have demonstrated enhanced resistance [6,8]. This finding in combination with the fact that AMB has poor penetration in the central nervous system warrants more studies directed toward drug resistance in *C. neoformans*. Here, it is noteworthy to acknowledge that phenotypic differences, such as cell wall thickness, between young and old cells would not be detected with *in vitro* minimum inhibitory concentration assays, which are dependent on growth. These assays are performed with young exponentially growing pathogen populations [53] and present selection pressures that are very different from fungal cells grown over weeks and months *in vivo* [8].

Phenotypic switching elicits hypervirulent variants of *C. neoformans*

Phenotypic switching is defined as the spontaneous emergence of colonies that have an altered colony morphology [54], and this phenomenon is observed at a higher frequency than somatic mutation and can revert to the unaltered or parent type [53,55–57]. Therefore, phenotypic switching constitutes a controlled epigenetically driven process that allows *C. neoformans* to change 'phenotypes' without the risk of mutation. Phenotypic switch variants exhibit enhanced virulence in murine infection models and, therefore, are selected in the host environment [14,56–60]. This is not unique to *C. neoformans*, and in fact, phenotypic switch variants in *C. glabrata* also similarly exhibit enhanced virulence [61,62].

One interesting observation is that hypervirulent switch variants, which result from phenotypic switching, appear to exhibit a shortened replicative life span [8]. Specifically, this means that phenotypic switching results in a significant loss of the average number of total replications that the switch variant can undergo when compared with the parent **(Figure 3)**. This finding underscores the fact that life span is regulated and not fixed and that phenotypic switching may be epigenetically linked to replicative aging. Also aging of yeast cells promotes an increased rate of switching to hypervirulent variants in *C. neoformans* [6]. Most likely, this is the result of age-induced genomic instability [63,64], which may also affect heteroresistance [65] and chromosomal loss [66–68], both of which have been shown to influence cryptococcal virulence. Therefore, hypervirulent variants are by no means the predominant mechanism of generating phenotypic variants.

Selection of phenotypic variants & cryptococcal cells with the 'old phenotype' (cells of advanced replicative age)

C. neoformans switch variants, such as the hypervirulent mucoid variant that arises from smooth

Figure 2. The thickness of the *Cryptococcus neoformans* cell wall increases with division. A representative image showing that the cell wall of an old *C. neoformans* mother cell is relatively thicker than its young daughter cell.

parent cells, affect a small proportion of the pathogen population. However, novel phenotypes can be very stable, are thus inherited by progeny yeast cells, and selected in the setting of the host environment. Specifically, it is the significant changes in the capsular polysaccharide that affect viscosity and biophysical characteristics of the polysaccharide in these variants and confer an advantage while promoting their selection [6]. In fact, despite slower doubling times that are observed both in older cells [8] and in hypervirulent switch variants [14,59], these variants still persist and dominate the pathogen population [6,56]. These doubling time differences hint at the fact that rapid reproduction might be traded in fungi for other advantages. In *S. cerevisiae*, mutations that extend life span have been shown to cause defects in reproduction and fitness [69]. Unlike the switch variants, the trait of being old is not passed on to the progenies, which are young with every replication. The exception to this are long-lived *S. cerevisiae* mutants where the life span is inherited [69], or extremely old cells that give rise to progeny with a 30% reduced life span [70]. Therefore, the fact that old cells are observed during chronic infection suggests that immense selection pressures that kill off the predominantly young population are operative in the host environment. Data suggest that host immune cells, which include macrophages, as well as antifungal treatment, such as AMB, constitute some of the selection pressures *in vivo* [8].

Conclusion & future perspective

The ability of *C. neoformans* to generate phenotypic variants could help explain differences in the outcome of infection, which still has a

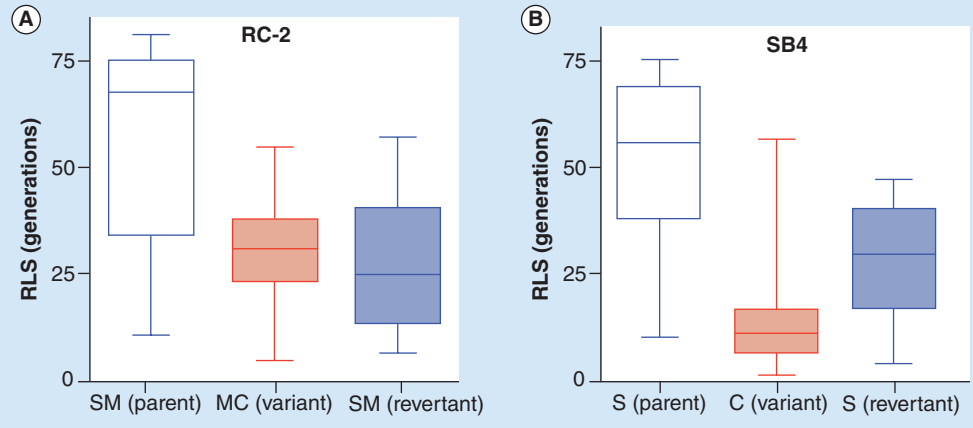

Figure 3. Replicative life span appears to be regulated in phenotypic switch variants. (A) RLS of the hypervirulent variant (MC) was significantly shortened compared with the parent type (SM) of a serotype D strain RC-2. This RLS was not recovered when MC was reverted back to SM. **(B)** RLS of the hypervirulent variant (C) was significantly shortened compared with the parent type (S) of a serotype A strain SB4. This RLS was not recovered when C was reverted to S.
C: Serrated; MC: Mucoid; RLS: Replicative life span; S: Smooth; SM: Smooth.

significant mortality [71]. Recent data correlated capsular size to raised intracranial pressure and lowered inflammatory response in patient spinal fluid [72] and found that the pathogen population size was more heterogeneous *in vivo* than *in vitro*. This heterogeneity was in agreement with a pathogen population that had undergone microevolution and persisted despite various selection pressures during chronic infection. More investigations that focus on the actual *in vivo* evolved pathogen population have to be pursued. Now methods are available that will permit us to determine the age of individual *C. neoformans* cells in an *in vivo* specimen. Future studies are planned to test the intriguing hypothesis that aging of cells within a pathogen population is an unanticipated emergent phenotypic trait that contributes to cryptococcal virulence and resilience.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

- Phenotypic variation in *C. neoformans* has been established to be imperative to the ability of the pathogen to persist during chronic infection.
- Despite extensive studies of this phenomenon, cryptococcosis remains a formidable threat for parts of the world.
- In order to better understand what causes the generation of variants and promotes their selection during infection, newer approaches need to be taken.
- Studies on the epigenetic regulation of capsular induction, cell size, cell wall thickness, aging and phenotypic switching may provide insight into the unique and unanticipated emergence of phenotypic variants that contribute to cryptococcal persistence, resilience and ultimately virulence.

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