



# HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

*Biochim Biophys Acta*. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2018 January 01.

Published in final edited form as:

*Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2017 January ; 1861(1 Pt A): 3002–3010. doi:10.1016/j.bbagen.2016.09.029.

## Ebselen exerts antifungal activity by regulating glutathione (GSH) and reactive oxygen species (ROS) production in fungal cells

Shankar Thangamani<sup>1</sup>, Hassan E. Eldesouky<sup>1</sup>, Haroon Mohammad<sup>1</sup>, Pete E. Pascuzzi<sup>2</sup>, Larisa Avramova<sup>3</sup>, Tony R. Hazbun<sup>3,4,\*</sup>, and Mohamed N. Seleem<sup>1,5,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Comparative Pathobiology, College of Veterinary Medicine, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana 47906, USA

<sup>2</sup>Faculty in Libraries, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana 47906, USA

<sup>3</sup>Bindley Bioscience Center, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana 47906, USA

<sup>4</sup>Department of Medicinal Chemistry and Molecular Pharmacology, College of Pharmacy, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana 47906, USA

<sup>5</sup>Purdue Institute for Inflammation, Immunology, and Infectious Disease, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907, USA

### Abstract

**Background**—Ebselen, an organoselenium compound and a clinically safe molecule has been reported to possess potent antifungal activity, but its antifungal mechanism of action and *in vivo* antifungal activity remains unclear.

**Methods**—The antifungal effect of ebselen was tested against *Candida albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. parapsilosis*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, and *C. gattii* clinical isolates. Chemogenomic profiling and biochemical assays were employed to identify the antifungal target of ebselen. Ebselen's antifungal activity *in vivo* was investigated in a *Caenorhabditis elegans* animal model.

**Results**—Ebselen exhibits potent antifungal activity against both *Candida* spp. and *Cryptococcus* spp, at concentrations ranging from 0.5 – 2 µg/ml. Ebselen rapidly eradicates a high fungal inoculum within two hours of treatment. Investigation of the drug's antifungal mechanism of action indicates that ebselen depletes intracellular glutathione (GSH) levels, leading to increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and thereby disturbs the redox homeostasis in fungal

\*Correspondence: thazbun@purdue.edu, mseleem@purdue.edu (lead).

**Conflicts of interest:** None to declare.

**Author contributions:** S.T, H.E and L.A performed the experiments. P.P analyzed the sequencing results. S.T, T.H and M.S designed the study, analyzed the data and interpreted the results. S.T, T.H, H.M and M.S wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and discussed the results.

**Publisher's Disclaimer:** This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final citable form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

cells. Examination of ebselen's *in vivo* antifungal activity in two *Caenorhabditis elegans* models of infection demonstrate that ebselen is superior to conventional antifungal drugs (fluconazole, flucytosine and amphotericin) in reducing *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* fungal load.

**Conclusion**—Ebselen possesses potent antifungal activity against clinically relevant isolates of both *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* by regulating GSH and ROS production. The potent *in vivo* antifungal activity of ebselen supports further investigation for repurposing it for use as an antifungal agent.

**General significance**—The present study shows that ebselen targets glutathione and also support that glutathione as a potential target for antifungal drug development.

## Keywords

ebselen; antifungal activity; glutathione; ROS production *C. elegans*

## 1. Introduction

Ebselen (2-phenyl-1,2-benziselenazol-3(2H)-one) is an organoselenium compound that is known to possess anti-atherosclerotic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidative, cytoprotective, anti-mutagenic and anti-lipoperoxidative properties [1–4]. Several studies have demonstrated that ebselen, due to its highly electrophilic nature, interacts with cysteine rich proteins (such as thioredoxin) and non-proteins (thiols) [2,5–11]. Ebselen specifically interacts with free thiols such as glutathione (GSH) to form ebselen selenenyl sulfide; this intermediate catalyzes reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation. Interestingly, ebselen selenenyl sulfide can be reduced by GSH to form ebselen selenol. This particular intermediate functions as a ROS scavenger, and thereby protects the cell from free radical damage [2,6,7]. As a clinically safe molecule, ebselen has been investigated for the treatment of various ailments such as arthritis, stroke, cardiovascular disease and cancer [2,12–15].

In addition to the beneficial properties of ebselen in mammalian cells, ebselen has also been investigated for its antimicrobial activity against multidrug-resistant Gram positive pathogens, including *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Enterococcus spp.* [16–21]. Recently, we demonstrated that ebselen exerts its antibacterial activity through the inhibition of protein synthesis in bacteria [20,21]. Ebselen has also been shown to possess potent antifungal activity, though different molecular targets have been proposed [22–24]. Studies by Billack et.al and Chan et.al demonstrated that ebselen inhibits the plasma membrane H(+)-ATPase pump (Pma1p) in yeast [23,24]. Azad et.al proposed that ebselen activates the DNA damage response and alters nuclear proteins in yeast [25]. A follow-up study by their research group also proposed that ebselen inhibits glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH3) and induces ROS production in yeast [26]. The studies above highlight that the antifungal mechanism of action of ebselen is challenging to elucidate and currently remains unresolved.

Given the tremendous pressure imposed by the emergence of resistance to antifungal agents currently utilized in the clinic, identifying new classes of antifungal drugs remains an unmet challenge [27–30]. However, the traditional pathway for drug discovery is an arduous process that yields few approved new antimicrobials annually. An alternative approach

steadily gaining support is utilizing drug repurposing to identify promising new anti-infective agents and expedite their regulatory approval [27,31].

Based upon the preliminary data presented in literature, ebselen is a promising drug to repurpose as a novel antifungal agent. However, additional research is necessary to elucidate ebselen's antifungal mechanism of action. Thus, the objectives of our study were to examine ebselen's spectrum of activity against an array of fungal clinical isolates, to deduce ebselen's antifungal mechanism of action, and to confirm the drug's *in vivo* efficacy in two *Caenorhabditis elegans* animal models of fungal infection.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Fungal strains and reagents

*Candida albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. parapsilosis*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, and *C. gattii* strains used in this study are presented in Table 1. RPMI powder, MOPS and L-glutathione (reduced) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Yeast peptone dextrose agar (YPD) (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA), fluconazole (Acros Organics, New Jersey), flucytosine and ebselen (TCI chemicals, Tokyo, Japan) were purchased from commercial vendors.

### 2.2. Antifungal susceptibility testing

Antifungal susceptibility testing was done as per the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards M-27A3 (NCCLS) guidelines [32]. Briefly, five colonies from 24-hour old cultures of *Candida* spp. or 48-hour old cultures of *Cryptococcus* were transferred to 5 ml of sterile Phosphate buffered saline (PBS). After adjusting to reach a McFarland standard 0.5, fungal suspensions were diluted 1:2000 in RPMI 1640 buffered to pH 7.0 with 0.165 M MOPS (RPMI-MOPS). The drugs (ebselen, fluconazole, flucytosine and amphotericin) were serially diluted and the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was determined as follows: (i) For fluconazole and flucytosine, the MIC was classified as a significant decrease (approximately 50%) in visible growth compared to untreated controls; (ii) For ebselen and amphotericin B, the MIC was categorized as the lowest concentration that produced no visible fungal growth. All experiments were carried out in triplicate wells and repeated at least twice.

### 2.3. Time kill assay

Cultures of *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* at a dilution of  $5 \times 10^5$  CFU/ml were treated with  $5 \times$  MICs of ebselen, fluconazole, flucytosine and amphotericin B (in triplicate) in RPMI-MOPS, at 35°C. At specific time points, aliquots were collected, serially diluted in PBS, and plated onto YPD agar plates. After incubation at 35°C for 24–48 hours the fungal colony forming units (CFU) were obtained, as described elsewhere [33].

### 2.4. Chemogenomics profiling of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

The initial testing of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* response to ebselen was performed with the wild type BY4743 diploid strain, the isogenic parent to the heterozygous diploid deletion collection. BY4743 was grown in YPD in 96-well plates with 1% DMSO or ebselen in

concentrations ranging from 10 to 200  $\mu\text{M}$  to determine a suitable level of growth inhibition. Ebselen (25  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was used for haploinsufficiency profiling because it delayed growth by 30% compared to the no drug control half-maximal optical density (OD). All experiments were performed at 30°C and cultures were shaken at 300 rpm. A frozen aliquot (200  $\mu\text{L}$ ) of the heterozygous deletion pool (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) was thawed and used to inoculate 2 mL of YPD broth and grown for 9 hours to reach an  $\text{OD}_{600}$  of 4.0. The culture was diluted to an  $\text{OD}_{600}$  of 0.13 and either 1% DMSO or 25  $\mu\text{M}$  ebselen was added (three replicates each) and grown for 7 hours. The cultures were grown again by diluting to an  $\text{OD}_{600}$  of 0.13 in 1 mL YPD broth with DMSO or 25  $\mu\text{M}$  ebselen and grown for 8 hours, harvested and genomic DNA extracted using the YeaStar Genomic DNA kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA). The UPTAGs were amplified by PCR with Phusion Hot Start II High-Fidelity DNA polymerase at 0.02 U/ $\mu\text{L}$  (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) using 0.5 ng/ $\mu\text{L}$  genomic DNA. The 267 bp PCR product was electrophoresed on an agarose gel and the DNA extracted using a QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Purified DNA was measured using a Qubit instrument and samples were normalized and mixed to a final concentration of 10 nM. Strains were grown and maintained on media using standard practices [34].

The pooled PCR products were sequenced using standard Illumina sequencing in a HiSeq 2500 instrument. The reads were separated based on a 5 base multiplex tag unique for each experiment and an average of 5 million reads per replicate was obtained. The UPTAG barcodes in each experimental sample were separated based on a reference database of recharacterized barcode sequences [35].

The resulting strain counts were imported into R and analyzed with edgeR [36]. Sequencing library sizes were normalized using default parameters. Only strains with one or more counts in three or more samples were analyzed further. Differential representation of strains was determined using the quantile-adjusted conditional maximum likelihood (qCML) method. False discovery rates were determined to control for multiple testing.

## 2.5. *Saccharomyces* deletion strain haploinsufficiency validation

Overnight grown saturated cultures of yeast cells were diluted to 1 to 10 and further to 1 to 5000 before treating with indicated concentration of ebselen. After 24 hours of incubation, yeast growth was monitored using a spectrophotometer ( $\text{OD}_{600}$ ) and the results were expressed as percent growth rate for each strain compared to the untreated control group, as described elsewhere [37].

## 2.6. Determining fungal growth with L- glutathione supplementation

In experiments with L- glutathione supplementation, indicated concentration of glutathione was added to the fungal cultures (with or without ebselen) and the percent growth rate or MIC was determined as described above.

## 2.7. Glutathione assay

The assay was conducted as per the manufacturer's instructions (Glutathione assay kit from Cayman chemicals, Michigan, USA). Briefly, saturated cultures of wild type and deletion

strains of *S. cerevisiae* cells were diluted to 1:5 in YPD broth and treated with ebselen (20 µg/ml) for 2.5 hours. After treatment, tubes were centrifuged. The cells were subsequently washed once with cold water and followed by 1 × GSH MES buffer (supplied by the manufacturer). After washing, cells were re-suspended in 250 µL of 1 × GSH MES buffer and sonicated for 45 seconds. Tubes were centrifuged and the supernatant was collected for the assay. An aliquot (50 µL) of cell supernatant was added to each well in a 96-well plate and then 150 µL of the assay cocktail, prepared per the manufacturer's guidelines, was added. After two minutes of incubation, the intensity of yellow color produced was measured using a spectrophotometer (OD<sub>410</sub>). The results are expressed either as absorbance per ml or percent glutathione production relative to untreated control groups.

## 2.8. Measuring ROS production in yeast cells

The Image-iT™ LIVE Green Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) detection kit (Molecular Probes, Inc. Eugene, OR) was utilized and the ROS production was measured as per the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, saturated cultures of wild type and deletion strains of *S. cerevisiae* cells were diluted to 1:5 in YPD broth and treated with ebselen (20 µg/ml) for 2.5 hours. Then 10mM of 5-(and-6)-carboxy-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (carboxy-H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA) dye was added at a dilution of 1:500. After 2 hours of incubation, the cells were washed with PBS and the intensity of fluorescence produced was measured using spectrophotometer or imaged by Leica confocal laser scanning microscopy.

## 2.9. Caenorhabditis elegans (C. elegans) infection study

*C. elegans* AU37 (sek-1; glp-4) strain (glp-4(bn2)) was used to investigate the antifungal efficacy of ebselen, as described elsewhere [20,38–41]. Briefly, L4-stage worms were infected either with *Cryptococcus neoformans* NR-41292 or *Candida albicans* ATCC 10232 for three hours at room temperature. After infection, worms were washed with M9 buffer and treated for 24 hours either with DMSO or drugs (ebselen, amphotericin B, fluconazole, and flucytosine), at indicated concentrations. Post-treatment, worms were washed, disrupted using silicon carbide particles [20,39–41], and the resulting suspensions were serially diluted and transferred to YPD agar plates containing ampicillin (100 µg/ml), streptomycin (100 µg/ml) and kanamycin (45 µg/ml). Plates were incubated for 24–48 hours at 35°C before the colony forming unit (CFU) per worm was determined.

## 2.10. Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were done using GraphPad Prism 6.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA). *P* values were calculated using the Student *t* test. *P* values 0.05 were deemed significant.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Antifungal activity and killing kinetics of ebselen

Ebselen's antifungal activity was examined against numerous clinical isolates of *Candida* and *Cryptococcus*. Ebselen inhibited isolates of *Candida albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis* and *C. parapsilosis* at concentrations ranging from 0.5 to 2 µg/ml (Table 1). Ebselen retained its potent antifungal activity against *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Cryptococcus gattii*, as

the drug inhibited growth of these fungal species at concentrations ranging from 0.5 to 1 µg/ml (Table 1).

In order to investigate the killing kinetics of ebselen against both *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans*, a time-kill assay was conducted. Unlike fluconazole and flucytosine, ebselen (at 5 × MIC) completely eradicated *C. albicans* ATCC 10231 and *C. neoformans* NR-41291 within two hours of treatment (Figure 1). Ebselen's fungicidal activity was superior to amphotericin which required at least four hours to completely eliminate fungal cells (Figure 1).

### 3.2. Glutathione as a potential target of ebselen

After verifying ebselen's potent antifungal activity, we proceeded to investigate the antifungal mechanism of ebselen. Chemogenomic profiling, using drug-induced haploinsufficiency, was utilized due to its nature as a highly-specific technique to deduce the molecular mechanism of unknown compounds [42–44]. Haploinsufficiency profiling (HIP) allows for the simultaneous assessment of the sensitivity of the pooled genome-wide set of heterozygous deletion strains due to the fact that each strain possesses a unique synthetic DNA barcode. The method is an unbiased approach to find strains exhibiting the most sensitivity to ebselen. After determining the concentration that reduced wild-type growth by 30%, we used 25 µM of drug to profile the pooled heterozygous strains in the biological samples. PCR was used to amplify the unique UPTAG DNA barcodes located at the gene deletion site and the barcode abundance was tracked using Illumina sequencing. The resulting counts were normalized and visualized using EdgeR (Supplementary figure).

We identified 33 heterozygous deletion strains that were under-represented based on a FDR less than 0.02, when comparing ebselen treatment to DMSO. These strains were enriched for glutathione metabolic process (p-value = 0.003). In addition, we also included additional heterozygous deletion strains based on previous chemogenomic profiling of ebselen using heterozygous and homozygous diploid strain pools: *pma1* which was the 35<sup>th</sup> ranked strain from a heterozygous screen [45]; *glr*, *gsh1*, *gsh2* hits from a homozygous screen [44]; *ubx4*, *gsh1*, *tp2* from a homozygous screen [44]; and *rad4* from a heterozygous screen [44]. In addition, a cluster of the deletion strains are associated by adjacent chromosomal locations and these may share a background mutation rendering them sensitive to multiple compounds as documented previously [44]. Strains with deletions corresponding to this previously identified strain cluster (*YLR274W* to *YLR321C*) are likely not specific to ebselen. A full description and rationale for including additional strains are available in supplementary information (supplementary excel file). It is important to note that some of these additional strains were derived from homozygous deletion strain profiling but we tested the heterozygous counterparts.

The heterozygous strains including *gsh1*, *gsh2*, *glr1*, *trr1*, *trr2*, *fks1*, *ylr287c*, *ylr282c*, *guf1*, *ylr296w*, *est2*, *rff1* and *ycr006c* experienced a significant reduction in growth when exposed to ebselen (Figure 2A). Importantly, two heterozygous deletion strains (*gsh1* and *gsh2*) encoding genes involved in glutathione (GSH) synthesis were the most sensitive to ebselen. A haploid set of these two deletion strains (*gsh1* and *gsh2*) was also tested. These haploid deletion strains (*gsh1* and *gsh2*) were not resistant to ebselen

and exhibited increased sensitivity to ebselen when compared to the diploid strains (Figure 2B). The results indicate that ebselen most likely does not directly target the proteins (Gsh1 and Gsh2) involved in glutathione synthesis but likely impinges on glutathione metabolism and exhibits antifungal activity. Based on the fact that ebselen binds directly to GSH and depletes GSH levels, leading to apoptosis in mammalian cells [10,46], we hypothesized ebselen exhibits a similar mode of action in yeast. Glutathione levels in wild type (BY4743 and BY4741), heterozygous and homozygous deletion strains (*gsh1* and *gsh2*) were quantified using a glutathione assay kit. Results indicate that all deletion strains experienced a significant reduction in GSH levels compared to their respective wild-type strains (Figure 2C). Homozygous deletion strains have a very low presence of GSH compared to their heterozygous strain counterpart (Figure 2C). However, treatment of homozygous deletion strains with ebselen further reduced GSH levels (approximately by 40%) compared to untreated control groups. On the other hand, the wild type and heterozygous deletion strains (*gsh1* and *gsh2*) showed no considerable decrease in GSH levels when treated with ebselen at this concentration (Figure 2D). These results suggest that ebselen depletes intracellular glutathione levels in yeast cells.

### 3.3. Depletion of glutathione by ebselen leads to increased ROS production

Glutathione plays a central role in maintaining redox-homeostasis in yeast [47,48]. Significant decreases in GSH levels might lead to dysregulation of redox homeostasis and in turn increase ROS production [10,46–48]. Given that ebselen was shown to deplete GSH levels in yeast cells, we investigated the effect of ebselen on ROS production. Basal level of ROS production in wild-type and GSH deletion strains were quantified. As expected, homozygous deletion strains (*gsh1* and *gsh2*) displayed a considerable increase in ROS levels compared to both the wild-type and heterozygous deletion strains (Figure 3A). However, when exposed to ebselen treatment, all strains (except the *gsh2* heterozygous deletion strain) experienced a significant increase in ROS production (Figure 3B). As expected, *gsh1* and *gsh2* homozygous deletion strains exhibited the largest increase in ROS production (almost two-fold increase) compared to untreated control groups (Figure 3B). These results were confirmed using confocal microscopy. As presented in Figure 3C, ROS production was prominently noticed only in the *gsh1* and *gsh2* homozygous deletion strains. Collectively, the results support the notion that ebselen exerts its antifungal activity by causing a sharp decrease in GSH levels that subsequently leads to increased ROS production in yeast cells.

### 3.4. Supplementation of L-glutathione restored the cell growth

Based upon the above result, we hypothesized that GSH supplementation would reverse the inhibitory effect in yeast caused by ebselen. As expected, supplementation with L-glutathione restored cell growth and reversed the inhibition caused by ebselen, in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 4). GSH, at 25 µg/ml, completely restored the cell growth (Figure 4). In addition, the effect of GSH supplementation on susceptibility of *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* strains to ebselen were also examined. Interestingly, with GSH supplementation (0.25 mg/ml), all tested fungal strains including *C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. neoformans* and *C. gattii* become resistant to ebselen (MIC >128 µg/ml) (Table 2). On the other hand, the MIC of control antifungal drugs (fluconazole

and flucytosine amphotericin) was not altered with GSH supplementation (Table 2). These results suggest a mode of action of ebselen that is specifically reversed by elevated GSH levels.

### 3.5. *In vivo* efficacy of ebselen in infected *C. elegans* model

To investigate if the *in vitro* antifungal activity of ebselen translates *in vivo*, the antifungal efficacy of ebselen was tested in a *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans*-infected *C. elegans* animal model. As shown in Figure 5, treatment of infected *C. elegans* with amphotericin, fluconazole, flucytosine and ebselen at 4 and 8 µg/ml, produced a significant reduction ( $P < 0.05$ ) in mean fungal load when compared to the untreated control groups. *C. elegans* treated with ebselen (8µg/ml) completely eradicated *C. albicans*, Amphotericin (8 µg/ml) produced a  $1.53 \pm 0.08 \log_{10}$  CFU reduction which was nearly identical to ebselen at 4 µg/ml ( $1.52 \pm 0.14 \log_{10}$ ). Fluconazole, at 8 µg/ml, reduced the burden of *C. albicans* by  $1.36 \pm 0.07 \log_{10}$  followed by amphotericin (4 µg/ml) ( $1.05 \pm 0.16 \log_{10}$ ), flucytosine (8 µg/ml) ( $0.79 \pm 0.09 \log_{10}$ ), flucytosine (4 µg/ml) ( $0.62 \pm 0.08 \log_{10}$ ) and fluconazole (4 µg/ml) ( $0.55 \pm 0.09 \log_{10}$ ).

Treatment of *C. neoformans*-infected *C. elegans* with ebselen (8 µg/ml) also generated the highest reduction in CFU count ( $2.31 \pm 0.02 \log_{10}$ ), followed by amphotericin (8 µg/ml) ( $1.98 \pm 0.13 \log_{10}$ ), (1.97±0.09 log<sub>10</sub>), ebselen at 4 µg/ml ( $1.97 \pm 0.09 \log_{10}$ ), amphotericin (4 µg/ml) ( $1.46 \pm 0.03 \log_{10}$ ), fluconazole (8 µg/ml) ( $1.32 \pm 0.04 \log_{10}$ ), flucytosine (8 µg/ml) ( $0.75 \pm 0.02 \log_{10}$ ), fluconazole (4 µg/ml) ( $0.66 \pm 0.02 \log_{10}$ ) and flucytosine (4 µg/ml) ( $0.58 \pm 0.11 \log_{10}$ ).

## 4. Discussion

Fungal infections are a significant healthcare challenge particularly in immunocompromised individuals, such as HIV patients [49,50]. *Candida albicans* is the fourth leading cause of bloodstream infections in the United States and has been associated with a high mortality rate (50%) [51,52]. In addition to infections caused by *C. albicans*, Cryptococci, particularly *C. neoformans*, are a major source of infections in immunocompromised individuals. Cryptococcal meningitis is a significant cause of mortality in HIV patients with an estimated 1 million cases each year, resulting in nearly 625,000 deaths [50,53]. The immune system in these immunocompromised patients is not capable of eradicating these fungal pathogens. Thus treatment is highly dependent on antifungal drugs successfully resolving the fungal infection [27]. Unfortunately, antifungal agents have limited effectiveness in treating some invasive fungal infections and suffer from restrictions in spectrum of activity, route of administration, and crossing blood brain barrier [30,54]. Further compounding this problem, the number of antifungal drug classes currently available to clinicians is limited. This issue is exacerbated by the fact that resistance to antifungal agents is increasing and many current antifungal agents exhibit unusual toxicities thus further restricting their use [27–30]. This highlights the pressing need to identify new antifungal drugs to combat these dangerous pathogens. The traditional route of antifungal innovation and regulatory approval is a time-consuming, expensive venture. This has led researchers to explore alternative approaches, such as drug repurposing, to expedite anti-infective drug development [27,31,55–58].



Ebselen is an organoselenium compound that is currently undergoing clinical trials for the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease, arthritis, stroke, atherosclerosis, and cancer [2,12–15]. In an intensive search for non-antifungal drugs exhibiting antifungal activity, we and others [22–24] demonstrated that ebselen possesses potent broad-spectrum fungicidal activity against *Candida* and *Cryptococcus spp* with the MIC values ranging from 0.5 to 2 µg/ml. Although, its antifungal activity has been reported before, the antifungal mechanism of action and *in vivo* efficacy of ebselen remains unclear with several potential targets proposed [17,22–24]. In the present study, we demonstrated that ebselen reduces GSH concentration in yeast cells leading to dysregulation of redox homeostasis. These results correlate with studies conducted by Yang *et.al* and Shi *et.al* that reported ebselen depletes GSH levels in mammalian cells, ultimately leading to apoptosis [10,46].

Although, ebselen has been shown to have an antioxidant effect and protects cells from free radical damage, it has also been shown to cause apoptosis by reducing thiol levels in mammalian cells [10,46]. The present study indicates that ebselen also exhibits a similar mode of action in yeast cells. Decreased GSH levels subsequently leads to increased ROS production thereby placing cells under oxidative stress. This finding is in agreement with a recent study by Ngo *et. al* that demonstrated ebselen treatment induces ROS in *Candida albicans* [22]. In addition, Azad *et. al* proposed that ebselen increases ROS levels in yeast by inhibiting the Gdh3 enzyme involved in glutathione synthesis [26]. However, we found that *gdh3* heterozygous and haploid deletion strains were not susceptible to ebselen compared to both the *gsh1* and *gsh2* deletion strains. Studies conducted by Billack *et. al* and Chan *et. al* proposed that the plasma membrane H(+)-ATPase pump (Pma1) is the potential target of ebselen in yeast [23,24]. However, we also confirmed that the *pma1* heterozygous deletion strain does not experience significant growth impairment when exposed to ebselen relative to the *gsh1* and *gsh2* deletion strains. Many of the proposed targets for ebselen have been demonstrated via biochemical based assays in which it is difficult to assess the specificity of ebselen for the protein target compared to other targets especially because of the reactivity of the molecule for cysteines. Collectively, results from our study demonstrate that ebselen reduces intracellular GSH concentration leading to dysregulation of redox homeostasis and that deficiency in glutathione biosynthesis exacerbates this mode of action.

Glutathione is an essential metabolite required to protect yeast from oxidative stress [47,48,59–62]. *S. cerevisiae* lacking c-glutamyl cysteine synthase (Gsh1), the first enzyme in glutathione biosynthesis, leads to glutathione autotrophy in which the cells dependent on exogenous GSH for its growth and survival [63,64]. In the absence of endogenous GSH, yeast has the ability to uptake GSH from an environment through high-affinity glutathione transporters such as Hgt1 [63–65]. In the present study, we also demonstrated that *gsh1* and *gsh2* homozygous deletion strains has relatively low amount of basal GSH when compared to wild type and the counterpart heterozygous deletion strains. The GSH observed in the *gsh1* and *gsh2* homozygous deletion strains is likely derived from growth medium. The presence of low amount of GSH in these deletion strains was further depleted by ebselen treatment and in turn places cells in oxidative stress. Importance and essentiality of GSH has also been demonstrated in other fungi species including *Candida* [60,65], suggesting that glutathione might form an attractive novel target for the development of new

antifungal drugs [66–68]. Future studies are required to delineate the interaction between ebselen and yeast GSH, and also the affinity of ebselen towards mammalian GSH.

Chemogenomic profiling was employed in this study, and it identified 33 heterozygous deletion strains sensitive to ebselen that were under-represented based on an FDR less than 0.02. However, the hits recovered did not include the *GSH1* or *GSH2* genes. It is also interesting to note that these strains were also not identified as hits in other heterozygous chemogenomic profiling screens employed by two other groups [44,45]. Potential hits obtained using this technique greatly depend on (i) the concentration of the drug/compound used to test the deletion pool (ii) Many technical factors such as the PCR quality and number of reads. These factors should be taken into consideration when utilizing chemogenomic profiling to identify the mode of action of unknown compounds.

The final segment of this study investigated the *in vivo* antifungal efficacy of ebselen in a *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans*-infected *C. elegans* animal model. Ebselen, at 8 µg/ml, completely eradicated the *C. albicans* load and produced a more than two- log<sub>10</sub> reduction in *C. neoformans* CFU load. Ebselen's antifungal activity was found to be superior to currently approved antifungal drugs including amphotericin, fluconazole and flucytosine in reducing the fungal load in the *C. elegans* animal model. These results lay a strong foundation for future studies to test the antifungal efficacy of ebselen in appropriate mice models of fungal infection. Ebselen is also known to be capable of crossing the blood brain barrier [15]. This quality provides an added advantage to investigate the potential use of this drug for the treatment of *Cryptococcal* meningitis infections particularly in HIV patients [15,50].

In conclusion, the present study confirms ebselen, with its unique mechanism of action and potent *in vivo* antifungal activity, is a promising clinical molecule that necessitates further investigation for repurposing as a novel antifungal agent.

## Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

## Acknowledgments

We thank Rick Westerman and the Purdue Genomics Core for help with Illumina sequencing and data processing.

**Funding:** TRH was partially funded by the Bindley Bioscience Center Fellow program. The Purdue University Genomics Core was used in this study and is supported from the Purdue University Center for Cancer Research, NIH grant P30 CA023168. Research reported in this publication was also supported by the National Institute of Allergy And Infectious Diseases of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number R56AI114861 to MNS.

## References

1. Schewe T. Molecular actions of ebselen--an antiinflammatory antioxidant. *Gen Pharmacol.* 1995; 26:1153–1169. [PubMed: 7590103]
2. Azad GK, Tomar RS. Ebselen, a promising antioxidant drug: mechanisms of action and targets of biological pathways. *Mol Biol Rep.* 2014; 41:4865–4879. [PubMed: 24867080]
3. Muller A, Cadenas E, Graf P, Sies H. A novel biologically active seleno-organic compound--I. Glutathione peroxidase-like activity in vitro and antioxidant capacity of PZ 51 (Ebselen). *Biochem Pharmacol.* 1984; 33:3235–3239. [PubMed: 6487370]

4. Maiorino M, Roveri A, Ursini F. Antioxidant effect of Ebselen (PZ 51): peroxidase mimetic activity on phospholipid and cholesterol hydroperoxides vs free radical scavenger activity. *Arch Biochem Biophys.* 1992; 295:404–409. [PubMed: 1586168]
5. Ullrich V, Weber P, Meisch F, von Appen F. Ebselen-binding equilibria between plasma and target proteins. *Biochem Pharmacol.* 1996; 52:15–19. [PubMed: 8678900]
6. Haenen GR, De Rooij BM, Vermeulen NP, Bast A. Mechanism of the reaction of ebselen with endogenous thiols: dihydrolipoate is a better cofactor than glutathione in the peroxidase activity of ebselen. *Mol Pharmacol.* 1990; 37:412–422. [PubMed: 2107391]
7. Cotgreave IA, Morgenstern R, Engman L, Ahokas J. Characterisation and quantitation of a selenol intermediate in the reaction of ebselen with thiols. *Chem Biol Interact.* 1992; 84:69–76. [PubMed: 1394616]
8. Hattori R, Yui Y, Shinoda E, Inoue R, Aoyama T, et al. Effect of ebselen on bovine and rat nitric oxide synthase activity is modified by thiols. *Jpn J Pharmacol.* 1996; 72:191–193. [PubMed: 8912920]
9. Kade IJ, Balogun BD, Rocha JB. In vitro glutathione peroxidase mimicry of ebselen is linked to its oxidation of critical thiols on key cerebral suphydryl proteins - A novel component of its GPx-mimic antioxidant mechanism emerging from its thiol-modulated toxicology and pharmacology. *Chem Biol Interact.* 2013; 206:27–36. [PubMed: 23933410]
10. Yang CF, Shen HM, Ong CN. Ebselen induces apoptosis in HepG(2) cells through rapid depletion of intracellular thiols. *Arch Biochem Biophys.* 2000; 374:142–152. [PubMed: 10666292]
11. Zembowicz A, Hatchett RJ, Radziszewski W, Gryglewski RJ. Inhibition of endothelial nitric oxide synthase by ebselen. Prevention by thiols suggests the inactivation by ebselen of a critical thiol essential for the catalytic activity of nitric oxide synthase. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1993; 267:1112–1118. [PubMed: 7505326]
12. Handa Y, Kaneko M, Takeuchi H, Tsuchida A, Kobayashi H, et al. Effect of an antioxidant, ebselen, on development of chronic cerebral vasospasm after subarachnoid hemorrhage in primates. *Surg Neurol.* 2000; 53:323–329. [PubMed: 10825515]
13. Kobayashi T, Ohta Y, Yoshino J. Preventive effect of ebselen on acute gastric mucosal lesion development in rats treated with compound 48/80. *Eur J Pharmacol.* 2001; 414:271–279. [PubMed: 11239928]
14. Parnham MJ, Sies H. The early research and development of ebselen. *Biochem Pharmacol.* 2013; 86:1248–1253. [PubMed: 24012716]
15. Singh N, Halliday AC, Thomas JM, Kuznetsova OV, Baldwin R, et al. A safe lithium mimetic for bipolar disorder. *Nat Commun.* 2013; 4:1332. [PubMed: 23299882]
16. Nozawa R, Yokota T, Fujimoto T. Susceptibility of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* to the selenium-containing compound 2-phenyl-1,2-benzoselenazol-3(2H)-one (PZ51). *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1989; 33:1388–1390. [PubMed: 2802564]
17. Lu J, Vlamis-Gardikas A, Kandasamy K, Zhao R, Gustafsson TN, et al. Inhibition of bacterial thioredoxin reductase: an antibiotic mechanism targeting bacteria lacking glutathione. *FASEB J.* 2013; 27:1394–1403. [PubMed: 23248236]
18. Cai W, Wu J, Xi C, Ashe AJ 3rd, Meyerhoff ME. Carboxyl-ebselen-based layer-by-layer films as potential antithrombotic and antimicrobial coatings. *Biomaterials.* 2011; 32:7774–7784. [PubMed: 21794909]
19. Wojtowicz H, Kloc K, Maliszewska I, Mlochowski J, Pietka M, et al. Azaanalogues of ebselen as antimicrobial and antiviral agents: synthesis and properties. *Farmaco.* 2004; 59:863–868. [PubMed: 15544790]
20. Thangamani S, Younis W, Seleem MN. Repurposing Clinical Molecule Ebselen to Combat Drug Resistant Pathogens. *PLoS One.* 2015; 10:e0133877. [PubMed: 26222252]
21. Thangamani S, Younis W, Seleem MN. Repurposing ebselen for treatment of multidrug-resistant staphylococcal infections. *Sci Rep.* 2015; 5:11596. [PubMed: 26111644]
22. Ngo HX, Shrestha SK, Garneau-Tsodikova S. Identification of Ebsulfur Analogues with Broad-Spectrum Antifungal Activity. *ChemMedChem.* 2016

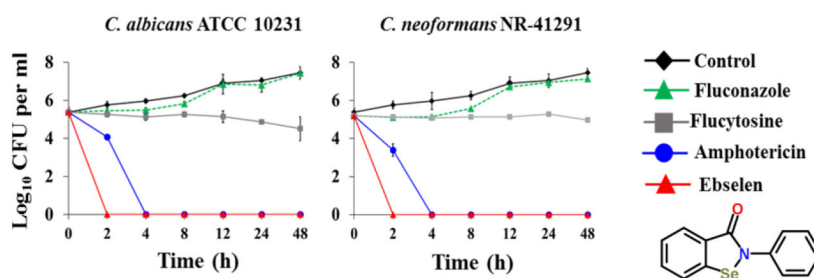
23. Billack B, Pietka-Ottlik M, Santoro M, Nicholson S, Mlochowski J, et al. Evaluation of the antifungal and plasma membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase inhibitory action of ebselen and two ebselen analogs in *S. cerevisiae* cultures. *J Enzyme Inhib Med Chem*. 2010; 25:312–317. [PubMed: 20210698]
24. Chan G, Hardej D, Santoro M, Lau-Cam C, Billack B. Evaluation of the antimicrobial activity of ebselen: role of the yeast plasma membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase. *J Biochem Mol Toxicol*. 2007; 21:252–264. [PubMed: 17912695]
25. Azad GK, Balkrishna SJ, Sathish N, Kumar S, Tomar RS. Multifunctional Ebselen drug functions through the activation of DNA damage response and alterations in nuclear proteins. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2012; 83:296–303. [PubMed: 22027221]
26. Azad GK, Singh V, Mandal P, Singh P, Golla U, et al. Ebselen induces reactive oxygen species (ROS)-mediated cytotoxicity in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* with inhibition of glutamate dehydrogenase being a target. *FEBS Open Bio*. 2014; 4:77–89.
27. Butts A, Krysan DJ. Antifungal drug discovery: something old and something new. *PLoS Pathog*. 2012; 8:e1002870. [PubMed: 22969422]
28. Odds FC, Brown AJ, Gow NA. Antifungal agents: mechanisms of action. *Trends Microbiol*. 2003; 11:272–279. [PubMed: 12823944]
29. Lewis RE. Current concepts in antifungal pharmacology. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2011; 86:805–817. [PubMed: 21803962]
30. Vandeputte P, Ferrari S, Coste AT. Antifungal resistance and new strategies to control fungal infections. *Int J Microbiol*. 2012; 2012:713687. [PubMed: 22187560]
31. Thangamani S, Mohammad H, Younis W, Seleem MN. Drug Repurposing for the Treatment of Staphylococcal Infections. *Current Pharmaceutical Design*. 2015; 21:2089–2100. [PubMed: 25760334]
32. da Silva AR, Andrade Neto JB, da Silva CR, Campos RS, Costa Silva RA, et al. Berberine Antifungal Activity in Fluconazole-resistant Pathogenic Yeasts: Action Mechanism Evaluated by Flow Cytometry and Biofilm Growth Inhibition in *Candida* spp. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2016
33. Canton E, Peman J, Gobernado M, Viudes A, Espinel-Ingroff A. Patterns of amphotericin B killing kinetics against seven *Candida* species. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2004; 48:2477–2482. [PubMed: 15215097]
34. Amberg, DC.; Burke, D.; Strathern, JN. *Methods in Yeast Genetics*. A Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Course Manual Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press; 2005.
35. Smith AM, Heisler LE, Mellor J, Kaper F, Thompson MJ, et al. Quantitative phenotyping via deep barcode sequencing. *Genome Res*. 2009; 19:1836–1842. [PubMed: 19622793]
36. Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics*. 2010; 26:139–140. [PubMed: 19910308]
37. Gamberi T, Fiaschi T, Modesti A, Massai L, Messori L, et al. Evidence that the antiproliferative effects of auranofin in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* arise from inhibition of mitochondrial respiration. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol*. 2015; 65:61–71. [PubMed: 26024642]
38. Mylonakis E, Ausubel FM, Perfect JR, Heitman J, Calderwood SB. Killing of *Caenorhabditis elegans* by *Cryptococcus neoformans* as a model of yeast pathogenesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2002; 99:15675–15680. [PubMed: 12438649]
39. Abushahba MF, Mohammad H, Thangamani S, Hussein AA, Seleem MN. Impact of different cell penetrating peptides on the efficacy of antisense therapeutics for targeting intracellular pathogens. *Sci Rep*. 2016; 6:20832. [PubMed: 26860980]
40. Abushahba MF, Mohammad H, Seleem MN. Targeting Multidrug-resistant Staphylococci with an anti-rpoA Peptide Nucleic Acid Conjugated to the HIV-1 TAT Cell Penetrating Peptide. *Mol Ther Nucleic Acids*. 2016; 5:e339. [PubMed: 27434684]
41. Alajlouni RA, Seleem MN. Targeting *listeria monocytogenes* rpoA and rpoD genes using peptide nucleic acids. *Nucleic Acid Ther*. 2013; 23:363–367. [PubMed: 23859300]
42. Giaever G, Flaherty P, Kumm J, Proctor M, Nislow C, et al. Chemogenomic profiling: identifying the functional interactions of small molecules in yeast. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2004; 101:793–798. [PubMed: 14718668]

43. Roemer T, Davies J, Giaever G, Nislow C. Bugs, drugs and chemical genomics. *Nat Chem Biol.* 2012; 8:46–56.
44. Hoepfner D, Helliwell SB, Sadlish H, Schuierer S, Filipuzzi I, et al. High-resolution chemical dissection of a model eukaryote reveals targets, pathways and gene functions. *Microbiol Res.* 2014; 169:107–120. [PubMed: 24360837]
45. Lee AY, St Onge RP, Proctor MJ, Wallace IM, Nile AH, et al. Mapping the cellular response to small molecules using chemogenomic fitness signatures. *Science.* 2014; 344:208–211. [PubMed: 24723613]
46. Shi H, Liu S, Miyake M, Liu KJ. Ebselen induced C6 glioma cell death in oxygen and glucose deprivation. *Chem Res Toxicol.* 2006; 19:655–660. [PubMed: 16696567]
47. Grant CM, Dawes IW. Synthesis and role of glutathione in protection against oxidative stress in yeast. *Redox Rep.* 1996; 2:223–229. [PubMed: 27406271]
48. Grant CM, MacIver FH, Dawes IW. Glutathione is an essential metabolite required for resistance to oxidative stress in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Curr Genet.* 1996; 29:511–515. [PubMed: 8662189]
49. Low CY, Rotstein C. Emerging fungal infections in immunocompromised patients. *F1000 Med Rep.* 2011; 3:14. [PubMed: 21876720]
50. Jarvis JN, Harrison TS. HIV-associated cryptococcal meningitis. *AIDS.* 2007; 21:2119–2129. [PubMed: 18090038]
51. Wisplinghoff H, Bischoff T, Tallent SM, Seifert H, Wenzel RP, et al. Nosocomial bloodstream infections in US hospitals: analysis of 24,179 cases from a prospective nationwide surveillance study. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2004; 39:309–317. [PubMed: 15306996]
52. Gudlaugsson O, Gillespie S, Lee K, Vande Berg J, Hu J, et al. Attributable mortality of nosocomial candidemia, revisited. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2003; 37:1172–1177. [PubMed: 14557960]
53. Park BJ, Wannemuehler KA, Marston BJ, Govender N, Pappas PG, et al. Estimation of the current global burden of cryptococcal meningitis among persons living with HIV/AIDS. *AIDS.* 2009; 23:525–530. [PubMed: 19182676]
54. Brown GD, Denning DW, Gow NA, Levitz SM, Netea MG, et al. Hidden killers: human fungal infections. *Sci Transl Med.* 2012; 4:165rv113.
55. Thangamani S, Mohammad H, Abushahba MF, Sobreira TJ, Seleem MN. Repurposing auranofin for the treatment of cutaneous staphylococcal infections. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2016; 47:195–201. [PubMed: 26895605]
56. Thangamani S, Mohammad H, Abushahba MF, Sobreira TJ, Hedrick VE, et al. Antibacterial activity and mechanism of action of auranofin against multi-drug resistant bacterial pathogens. *Sci Rep.* 2016; 6:22571. [PubMed: 26936660]
57. Thangamani S, Younis W, Seleem MN. Repurposing celecoxib as a topical antimicrobial agent. *Front Microbiol.* 2015; 6:750. [PubMed: 26284040]
58. Debnath A, Parsonage D, Andrade RM, He C, Cobo ER, et al. A high-throughput drug screen for *Entamoeba histolytica* identifies a new lead and target. *Nat Med.* 2012; 18:956–960. [PubMed: 22610278]
59. Spector D, Labarre J, Toledano MB. A genetic investigation of the essential role of glutathione: mutations in the proline biosynthesis pathway are the only suppressors of glutathione auxotrophy in yeast. *J Biol Chem.* 2001; 276:7011–7016. [PubMed: 11084050]
60. Yadav AK, Desai PR, Rai MN, Kaur R, Ganesan K, et al. Glutathione biosynthesis in the yeast pathogens *Candida glabrata* and *Candida albicans*: essential in *C. glabrata*, and essential for virulence in *C. albicans*. *Microbiology.* 2011; 157:484–495. [PubMed: 20966090]
61. Gostimskaya I, Grant CM. Yeast mitochondrial glutathione is an essential antioxidant with mitochondrial thioredoxin providing a back-up system. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2016; 94:55–65. [PubMed: 26898146]
62. Lee JC, Straffon MJ, Jang TY, Higgins VJ, Grant CM, et al. The essential and ancillary role of glutathione in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* analysed using a grande *gsh1* disruptant strain. *FEMS Yeast Res.* 2001; 1:57–65. [PubMed: 12702463]

63. Bourbonloux A, Shahi P, Chakladar A, Delrot S, Bachhawat AK. Hgt1p, a high affinity glutathione transporter from the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J Biol Chem*. 2000; 275:13259–13265. [PubMed: 10788431]
64. Thakur A, Kaur J, Bachhawat AK. Pgt1, a glutathione transporter from the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*. *FEMS Yeast Res*. 2008; 8:916–929. [PubMed: 18662319]
65. Desai PR, Thakur A, Ganguli D, Paul S, Morschhauser J, et al. Glutathione utilization by *Candida albicans* requires a functional glutathione degradation (DUG) pathway and OPT7, an unusual member of the oligopeptide transporter family. *J Biol Chem*. 2011; 286:41183–41194. [PubMed: 21994941]
66. Bertoti R, Vasas G, Gonda S, Nguyen NM, Szoke E, et al. Glutathione protects *Candida albicans* against horseradish volatile oil. *J Basic Microbiol*. 2016
67. Maras B, Angiolella L, Mignogna G, Vavala E, Maccone A, et al. Glutathione metabolism in *Candida albicans* resistant strains to fluconazole and micafungin. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9:e98387. [PubMed: 24896636]
68. Lemar KM, Aon MA, Cortassa S, O'Rourke B, Muller CT, et al. Diallyl disulphide depletes glutathione in *Candida albicans*: oxidative stress-mediated cell death studied by two-photon microscopy. *Yeast*. 2007; 24:695–706. [PubMed: 17534841]

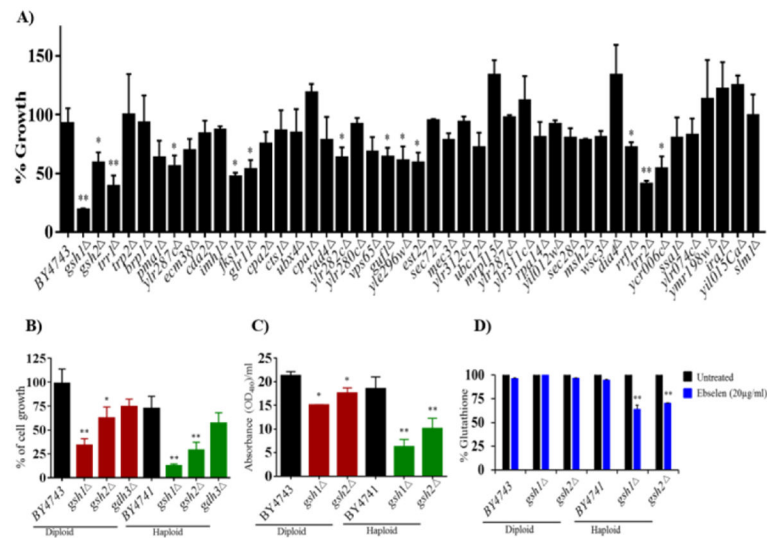
### Highlights

- Ebselen exhibits potent antifungal activity against *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* spp.
- Ebselen rapidly kills fungi within two hours of treatment
- Ebselen induces cell death by regulating GSH and ROS production
- Ebselen shows potent *in vivo* antifungal activity in *C. elegans* models of infection



**Figure 1.** Killing kinetics of ebselen. An overnight culture of *C. albicans* ATCC 10231 and *C. neoformans* NR-41291 were treated with  $5 \times$  of ebselen, fluconazole, flucytosine and amphotericin (in triplicate) in RPMI-MOPS and incubated at  $35^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Samples were collected at indicated time points and plated onto YPD plates. Plates were incubated for 24–48 h prior to counting the colony forming units (CFU).





**Figure 2.**

Glutathione as a potential target of ebselen. (A and B) The percent growth of yeast cells ( $OD_{600}$  after 24 h) incubated with ebselen ( $2\mu\text{g/ml}$ ) in YPD broth was determined in relation to the DMSO treatment. The results are presented as means  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 3$ ). (C) Saturated cultures of yeast cells were diluted to 1:5 and grown for 2.5 h. The cells were sonicated and amount of glutathione was determined using glutathione assay kit. The absorbance measured using spectrophotometer indicates the glutathione production in each strain. (D) Yeast cells were treated with ebselen ( $20\mu\text{g/ml}$ ) for 2.5 h and the glutathione concentration was measured as indicated above. The results are expressed as percent glutathione production relative to untreated control groups. Statistical analysis was calculated using the two-tailed Student's *t* test. *P* values of (\* *P* < 0.05) (\*\* *P* < 0.01) are considered as significant.

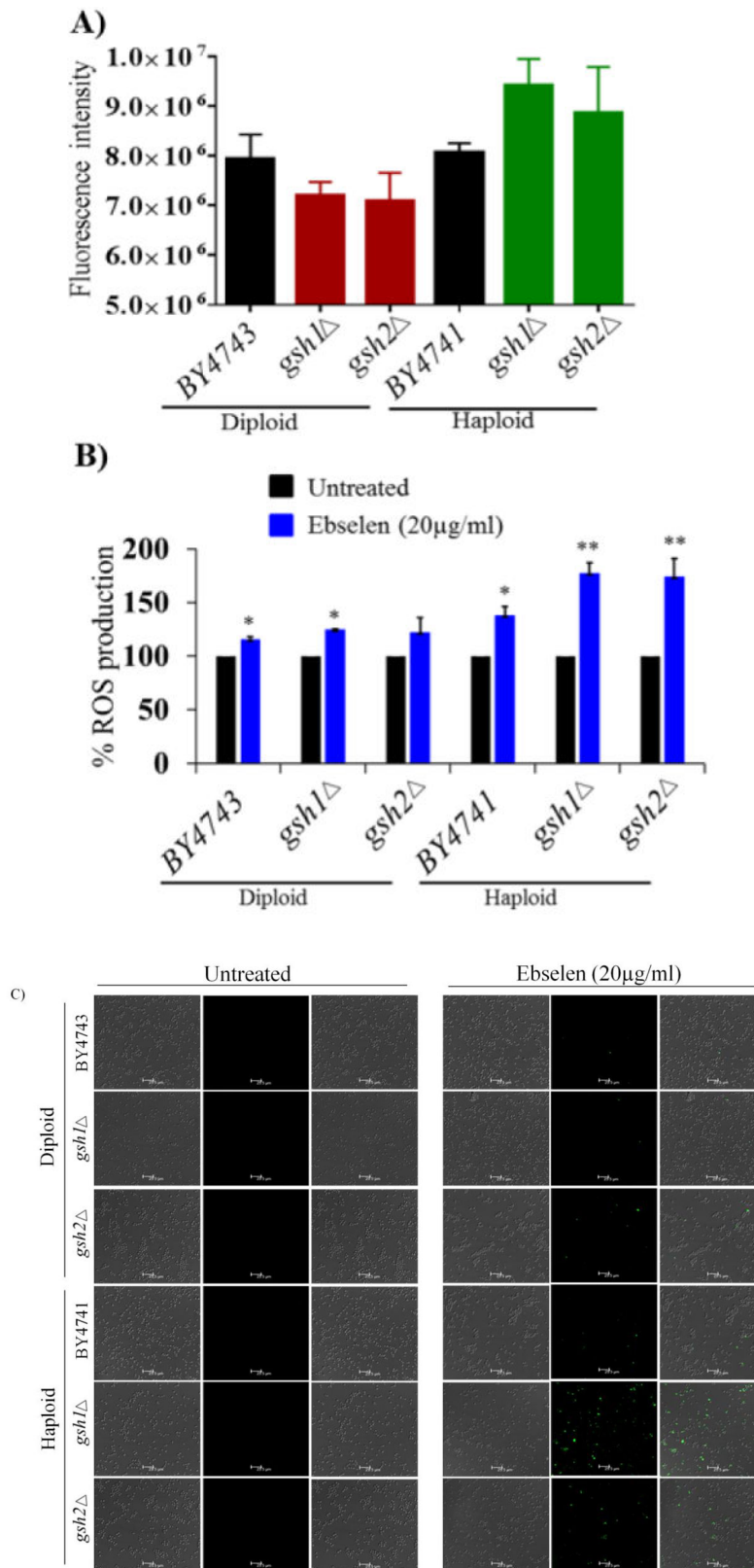


Figure 3.

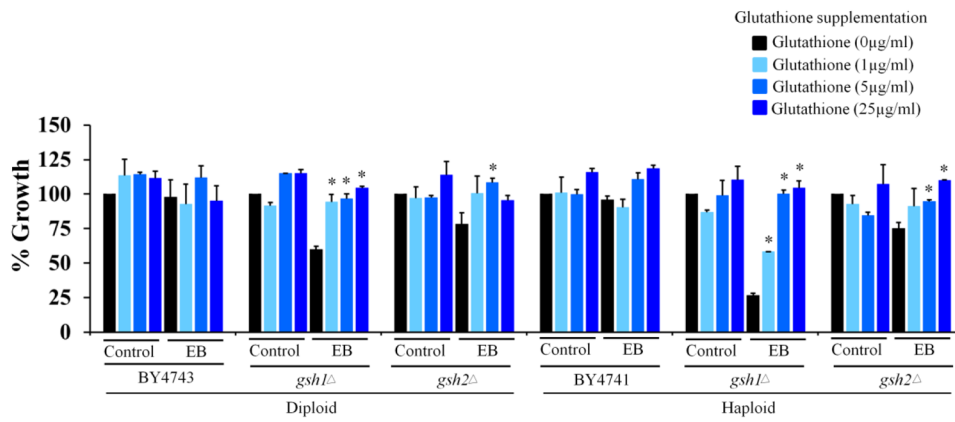
Depletion of glutathione by ebselen leads to ROS production in yeast cells. (A) Wild type and deletion strains of *S. cerevisiae* cells were grown in the presence of carboxy-H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA dye and the intensity of fluorescence produced was measured using spectrophotometer. (B and C) Yeast cells were grown in the presence of ebselen (20 µg/ml) for 2.5 h and incubated with carboxy-H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA dye to determine the glutathione production by spectrophotometer or Leica confocal laser scanning microscopy. The results are expressed as percent glutathione in ebselen treated cells in relative to untreated control groups (B). Green fluorescence indicates the ROS production in yeast cells (C). Statistical analysis was calculated using the two-tailed Student's *t* test. *P* values of (\* *P* 0.05) (\*\* *P* 0.01) are considered as significant.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

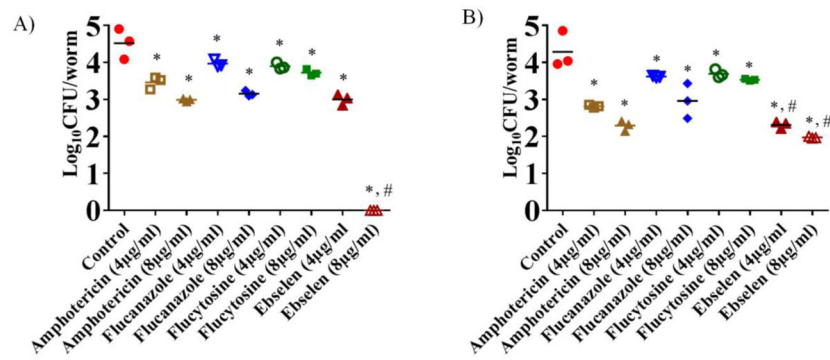
Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript



**Figure 4.**

Supplementation of L- glutathione restored the cell growth. Wild type and deletion strains of *S. cerevisiae* cells were grown and in the absence (or) presence of indicated concentration of ebselen and glutathione and the percent growth rate ( $OD_{600}$  after 24 h) was determined by using spectrophotometer. Statistical analysis was calculated using the two-tailed Student's *t* test. *P* values of (\* *P* 0.05) (\*\* *P* 0.01) are considered as significant.



**Figure 5.**

Efficacy of ebselen in *C. albicans* (or) *C. neoformans*-infected *C. elegans*. L4-stage worms were infected with *C. albicans* or *C. neoformans* and treated with ebselen, fluconazole, flucytosine and amphotericin at a concentrations of 4 and 8 µg/ml. After 24 h, worms were lysed and plated onto YPD plates to determine the CFU per worm. Each dot represents average fungal load in each worm (n=10) per well. The results are presented as means ± SD for three wells. Statistical analysis was calculated using the two-tailed Student's *t* test. *P* value of (\*\* *P* < 0.01) are considered as significant.

Table 1

MIC of ebselen and control antifungal drugs against *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* strains

Strains	Fluconazole (µg/ml)	Flucytosine (µg/ml)	Amphotericin (µg/ml)	Ebselen (µg/ml)
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29434	4	0.125	1	1
<i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 10231	2	0.25	0.5	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29449	2	4	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29435	4	0.0625	0.5	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29448	>64	0.0625	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29437	2	0.0625	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29446	>64	0.25	0.5	1
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29453	2	0.0625	0.5	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29438	2	0.0625	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 26790	2	0.0625	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 24433	4	1	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 14053	4	0.125	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 90028	4	1	1	2
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29366	>64	0.0625	1	4
<i>C. albicans</i> NR 29367	>64	0.0625	1	2
<i>C. glabrata</i> ATCC MYA-2950	4	0.0625	1	0.5
<i>C. glabrata</i> ATCC 66032	2	0.0625	2	0.5
<i>C. tropicalis</i> ATCC 13803	2	0.125	1	2
<i>C. tropicalis</i> ATCC 1369	1	0.25	1	2
<i>C. parapsilosis</i> ATCC 22019	1	0.25	1	1
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41291	1	0.5	1	1
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41292	1	0.5	0.5	0.25
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41296	2	0.5	0.5	0.5
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41295	2	0.5	0.5	0.5
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41294	4	2	0.5	0.5
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41297	8	4	0.5	1
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41298	4	2	0.5	1
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41299	4	2	1	1
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - CBS1930	2	2	0.5	0.5
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - R265	1	1	0.5	0.5
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg40	2	0.5	0.5	0.5
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg75	8	8	0.5	2
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg81	8	4	0.5	2
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg99	8	4	1	2
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg114	8	4	1	2
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg115	8	4	1	2
<i>Cryptococcus gattii</i> - Alg127	4	4	1	2

MIC of ebselen and control antifungal drugs against *Candida* and *Cryptococcus* strains with L- glutathione supplementation

**Table 2**

Strains	Fluconazole (µg/ml)		Flucytosine (µg/ml)		Amphotericin (µg/ml)		Ebselen (µg/ml)	
	GSH (-)	GSH (+)	GSH (-)	GSH (+)	GSH (-)	GSH (+)	GSH (-)	GSH (+)
<i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 10231	2	2	0.25	0.25	0.5	0.5	2	>128
<i>C. albicans</i> - 18E	2	1	0.0625	0.0625	1	1	1	>128
<i>C. tropicalis</i> ATCC 1369	1	1	0.25	0.25	1	1	2	>128
<i>C. tropicalis</i> -ATCC 13803	2	2	0.125	0.125	1	1	2	>128
<i>C. parapsilosis</i> ATCC 22019	1	1	0.25	0.25	1	1	1	>128
<i>C. glabrata</i> ATCC MYA-2950	4	4	0.0625	0.0625	1	1	0.5	>128
<i>C. glabrata</i> LRA 85.10.75	0.5	0.5	0.0625	0.0625	2	2	1	>128
<i>C. gattii</i> - R265	1	1	1	1	0.5	0.5	0.5	>128
<i>C. gattii</i> - CBS1930	2	2	2	2	0.5	0.5	0.5	>128
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41297	8	8	4	4	0.5	0.5	1	>128
<i>C. neoformans</i> NR-41299	4	4	1	2	1	1	1	>128

(-) indicates no supplementation and (+) indicates supplementation of L- GSH (0.25mg/ml) to the growth medium