## Genetic and Immunological Dissection of Host Susceptibility to

## Cryptococcus neoformans Infection

### Mitra Shourian

Department of Experimental Medicine McGill University Montreal, QC, Canada

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## To my beloved parents, Parviz and Tahereh To Mojtaba, Shaghaiegh and Mahla

I am blessed and grateful beyond words to have you in my life...

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#### Abstract

*Cryptococcus neoformans,* the major cause of human cryptococcosis, is an encapsulated yeast that is ubiquitously distributed in the environment. In individuals with a defective immune response, uncontrolled replication of *C. neoformans* in the lung may result in dissemination to other parts of the body with a tropism for the brain. Notably, not all immune compromised hosts develop disease following cryptocococcal infection while some individuals deemed immune competent exhibit severe illness; therefore, it is believed that yet uncharacterized genetic factors play an important role in determining the susceptibility to progressive infection. The overall aim of this Ph.D. project was to dissect the genetic and immunological aspects of host susceptibility to *C. neoformans* by applying both forward and reverse genetic methods in a well-established and clinically relevant mouse model of infection.

Our laboratory previously identified *Cnes2* on mouse chromosome 17 (31.1 Mb) as a region associated with susceptibility to progressive *C. neoformans* 52D infection, using genome-wide linkage analysis between susceptible C57BL/6N and resistant CBA/J mouse strains and lung fungal burden as a quantitative trait. By constructing a congenic strain on the C57BL/6N background (B6.CBA-*Cnes2*), I validated and characterized the role of *Cnes2* locus during the host response. Phenotypic analysis of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice 35 days after *C. neoformans* infection showed a significant reduction of fungal burden in the lung and spleen compared to C57BL/6N mice. The immune response of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* congenic mice was characterized by a significantly higher expression of type 1 cytokines and greater numbers of lung neutrophils, antigen-presenting cells, and Th1 CD4<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes compared to that in C57BL/6N mice. Taken together, these findings demonstrated that the *Cnes2* interval is a potent regulator of host defense and differential Th1/Th2 polarization following *C. neoformans* infection.

With the goal of identifying the underlying susceptibility genes encoded within the *Cnes2* locus that regulate the host response to *C. neoformans* infection, we generated four sub-congenic strains (*Cnes2.1-Cnes2.4*). Analysis of lung fungal burden, cell infiltration, and histopathology indicated that two sub-intervals within *Cnes2* regulate susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection: *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4*. In addition, we conducted an extensive *in silico* candidate gene analysis using publicly available genome browsers and we identified 2 protein coding genes within *Cnes2.2*.

(*Fpr3 and Fpr-rs4*) and 10 protein coding genes within *Cnes2.4* (*Notch3, Ager, H2-Ab1, Myo1f, Ubash3a, Tap1, H2-Eb1, H2-Oa, C5b and Lst1*) as potential candidate genes. This data provides a foundation for further detailed investigation of the causative genes and variants that mediate host resistance to cryptococcal infection.

IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  are pro-inflammatory cytokines that are highly induced following *C. neoformans* infection. The final goal of the last chapter of this thesis was to determine the role of IL-1RI (a common receptor for IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$ ) signaling in cryptococcal infection by applying reverse genetic approaches. Our findings demonstrate that IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice (on the BALB/c background) have a significantly higher fungal burden in the lungs and brain as well as a significantly higher mortality when compared to WT mice. In IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice, *C. neoformans* 52D infection is associated with lung eosinophilia, elevated airway mucus secretion, greater recruitment of M2 macrophages and CD4<sup>+</sup> Th2 cells, as well as significantly fewer lung neutrophils and Th17 cells at early and late time points post-infection. Taken together, our analysis shows that IL-1R plays an essential role in protection against lethal *C. neoformans* infection by triggering a complex innate and adaptive immune response and raises the possibility that modulation of this signaling axis could be a potential therapeutic strategy.

#### Résumé

*Cryptococcus neoformans*, la principale cause de la cryptococcose humaine, est une levure encapsulée répartie de façon omniprésente dans l'environnement. Chez les individus atteints d'une réponse immunitaire défectueuse, la réplication incontrôlée de *C. neoformans* dans le poumon peut entraîner la dissémination dans d'autres parties du corps avec un tropisme pour le cerveau. Notamment, les hôtes immunodéprimés ne développent pas tous de maladie après une infection cryptococcique alors que certaines personnes avec un système immunitaire jugé compétent présentent une maladie grave; par conséquent, des facteurs génétiques encore non-caractérisés pourraient jouer un rôle important dans la détermination de la susceptibilité à une infection progressive. Le but général de ce projet de doctorat était de disséquer les aspects génétiques et immunologiques de la susceptibilité de l'hôte à *C. neoformans* en appliquant des méthodes d'investigations génétiques dans un modèle de souris bien établi et cliniquement approprié.

Notre laboratoire à précédemment identifier *Cnes2* sur le chromosome 17 de la souris (31,1 Mb) comme une région associée à la sensibilité à une infection progressive de *C. neoformans* 52D, en utilisant l'analyse de liaison génomique entre la souche de souris sensible C57BL/6N et la souche résistante CBA/J et le fardeau fongique pulmonaire comme caractéristique quantitative. En construisant une souche congénique à partir de la souche C57BL/6N (B6.CBA-*Cnes2*), j'ai validé et caractérisé le rôle du locus *Cnes2* pendant la réponse de l'hôte. L'analyse phénotypique des souris B6.CBA-*Cnes2* à 35 jours après l'infection à *C. neoformans* a montré une réduction significative du fardeau fongique dans le poumon et la rate par rapport aux souris C57BL/6N. La réponse immunitaire des souris congénitales B6.CBA-*Cnes2* a été caractérisée par une expression significativement plus élevée de cytokines de type 1 et d'un plus grand nombre de neutrophiles pulmonaires, de cellules présentatrices d'antigène et de lymphocytes Th1 CD4<sup>+</sup> comparés à ceux des souris C57BL/6N. Ensemble, ces résultats ont démontré que l'intervalle *Cnes2* est un régulateur puissant de la défense de l'hôte et de la polarisation différentielle Th1/Th2 suite à une infection par *C. neoformans*.

Dans le but d'identifier les gènes de susceptibilité sous-jacents codés dans le locus *Cnes2* qui régulent la réponse de l'hôte à une infection par *C. neoformans*, nous avons généré quatre souches sous-congéniques (*Cnes2.1-Cnes2.4*). L'analyse du fardeau fongique pulmonaire, de l'infiltration cellulaire et de l'histopathologie a indiqué que deux loci au sein de *Cnes2* régulent la sensibilité à

l'infection à *C. neoformans: Cnes2.2* et *Cnes2.4*. En outre, nous avons mené une vaste analyse de gènes candidats *in silico* à l'aide de navigateurs de génome accessibles au public et nous avons identifié 2 gènes de codage de protéines dans *Cnes2.2* (*Fpr3* et *Fpr-rs4*) et 10 gènes de codage de protéines dans *Cnes2.4* (*Notch3, Ager, H2 -Ab1, Myolf, Ubash3a, Tap1, H2-Eb1, H2-Oa, C5b* et *Lst1*) en tant que gènes candidats potentiels. Ces données fournissent une base pour une étude détaillée approfondie des gènes responsables et des variantes qui servent de médiation à la résistance de l'hôte à une infection cryptococcique.

Enfin, l'objectif du dernier chapitre de cette thèse était de déterminer le rôle de la signalisation IL-1RI (récepteur commun pour IL-1 $\alpha$  et IL-1 $\beta$ ) dans une infection cryptococcique en appliquant des approches génétiques inverses. L'IL-1 $\alpha$  et l'IL-1 $\beta$  sont des cytokines pro-inflammatoires fortement induites suite à une infection par *C. neoformans*. Nos résultats démontrent que les souris IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> (souche BALB/c) ont un fardeau fongique significativement plus élevé dans les poumons et le cerveau ainsi qu'une mortalité significativement plus élevée en comparaison aux souris WT. Chez les souris IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup>, l'infection par *C. neoformans* 52D est associée à l'éosinophilie pulmonaire, à la sécrétion de mucus des voies respiratoires élevées, à un recrutement plus important de macrophages M2 et de cellules CD4<sup>+</sup> Th2, ainsi qu'à un nombre significatif de neutrophiles et de cellules Th17 à des points-temps précoces et tardifs post-infection. Notre analyse montre que l'IL-1R joue un rôle essentiel dans la protection contre l'infection létale de *C. neoformans* en déclenchant une réponse immunitaire innée et adaptative complexe et soulève la possibilité que la modulation de cet axe de signalisation puisse être une stratégie thérapeutique potentielle.

#### **Contribution of Authors and Statement of Originality**

This thesis is structured based on a manuscript format, consisting of one published (chapter 2), one under review (chapter 4) and one will be submitted later (chapter 3).

Unless otherwise stated, Mitra Shourian designed and performed all experiments, analyzed and interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscripts. Dr. Salman Qureshi conceived the studies, contributed to the design of experiments and interpretation of the data, provided crucial guidance and advice, and extensively edited all manuscripts.

Chapter 2 – The *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 regulates host defense against cryptococcal infection through pleiotropic effects on host immunity. *Infection and Immunity* Authors: Mitra Shourian, Adam Flaczyk, Isabelle Angers, Barbara C. Mindt, Jörg H. Fritz, Salman T. Qureshi.

**Contributions:** Adam Flaczyk assisted in performing intracellular cytokine staining presented in Figure 2.8. Isabelle Angers conducted all congenic mouse breeding and genotyping, and Barbara C. Mindt performed ELISA of serum antibody presented in Figure 2.9. Jörg H. Fritz provided valuable feedback in drafting the manuscript.

**Scientific contributions:** For the first time, this work shows the significant role of the *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 in regulating host response to *C. neoformans* infection.

## Chapter 3 – Phenotypic analysis of *Cnes2* sub-congenic mice reveals two different intervals associated with resistance to *C. neoformans 52D* infection. *Manuscript in preparation*.

Authors: Mitra Shourian, Isabelle Angers, Salman T. Qureshi.

**Contributions:** Isabelle Angers conducted breeding and generation of sub-congenic mice, genotyping and assisted with *in silico* candidate gene analysis.

**Scientific contributions:** This work shows for the first time that two separate regions within *Cnes2* interval on mouse chromosome 17 regulate the host response to *C. neoformans* infection. Using *in silico* analysis, in total of 12 candidate genes are proposed for further investigations.

# Chapter 4 – Essential role of IL-1RI signaling in protection against *Cryptococcus neoformans* 52D infection. *Under revision*

#### Authors:

Mitra Shourian, Ben Ralph, Isabelle Angers, Donald C. Sheppard, Salman T. Qureshi **Contributions:** Isabelle Angers conducted breeding, generation, and genotyping of mice,
Benjamin Ralph performed the IL-1 alpha ELISA assay presented in Figure 4.3. **Scientific contributions:** For the first time this study indicates that IL-1RI-dependent signaling is necessary for host resistance against progressive cryptococcal infection. Deficient IL-1 signaling broadly impairs the innate and adaptive host immune response against *C. neoformans*.

# Chapter 1 Introduction

#### 1.1. Cryptococcosis as a global health threat

#### 1.1.1. Importance of invasive fungal diseases

The incidence of invasive fungal diseases associated with more than 1.3 million global mortality has increased during the past several decades (2, 4, 5). This increase is attributable to the rising numbers of people with weakened immune systems who are at risk for the development of serious fungal infections. The risk factors for invasive mycoses include blood and marrow transplantation (BMT), solid-organ transplantation, major surgery (especially gastrointestinal surgery); AIDS, neoplastic disease, advanced age, prematurity, and immunosuppressive therapy (4, 5). More than 90% of all reported fungal-related deaths result from species that belong to one of the following four genera: Cryptococcus, Candida, Aspergillus, and Pneumocystis. Recently, it has been estimated that more people die from the 10 top invasive fungal diseases than tuberculosis or malaria (6). Because of similarities between eukaryotic fungi and humans, treatment of fungal infections is more difficult compared to bacterial and viral infections, and therefore fewer antifungal drugs are available (3). In addition to delays in diagnosis, antifungal therapy has been less successful because of toxicity, a narrow spectrum of activity, detrimental drug interactions, the development of drug resistance, and treatment cost (7). A better understanding of the key mechanisms of host immunity to fungi and greater knowledge of infection risk factors will be important for future development of new and more effective approaches to preventing and treating fungal diseases (3, 7).

#### 1.1.2. Epidemiology of Cryptococcus sp.

*Cryptococcosis*, also known as cryptococcal disease, is mainly caused by *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Cryptococcus gattii*. Human cryptococcosis was first identified in 1894 but the disease only became widely recognized with the onset of the AIDS pandemic in the 1980s, and it became a common AIDS-associated illness in patients with greatly reduced T-cell function (5-8% of HIV-infected persons) (8, 9). Cryptococcosis most commonly presents as a disseminated disease characterized by meningoencephalitis, skin lesions, and/or fungemia (10, 11). Isolated pneumonia that precedes these systemic manifestations can also occur; however, cryptococcal pneumonia is underdiagnosed because it manifests with nonspecific respiratory symptoms.

Pulmonary infection has been reported in 10-55% of patients with HIV-associated cryptococcal meningitis (12, 13). Development of pulmonary cryptococcosis as a sole manifestation of disease is more common in non-immunocompromised patients compared to immunocompromised hosts (14).

The advent of combination antiretroviral therapy along with fluconazole therapy in mid-1990s helped to reduce the incidence of cryptocccosis; however, in parts of the developing world where access to antiretroviral therapy (ART) and antifungal therapy are limited, it remains an important clinical problem (8, 15, 16). In addition, even with antifungal therapy, one-third of patients with cryptococcal meningitis still have a positive CSF culture at 10 weeks and acute mortality has remained at 35-40%, both in resource-rich and resource-poor settings (8, 17, 18). In 2009, the global burden of cryptococcal meningitis among persons living with HIV/AIDS was estimated to be 950,000 cases with approximately 625,000 deaths annually (9). The majority of disease burden is in sub-Saharan Africa where the mortality rate may exceed deaths from tuberculosis (720,000 cases; range, 144,000 to 1.3 million) (9). In Uganda, the prevalence of serum cryptococcal antigen among patients with a CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell count  $\leq 100$  cells/ $\mu$ L has been reported to be 8.8 percent (19). Significant morbidity and mortality has been also reported in Southeast Asia and the USA (20) (Figure 1.1). According to a report in 2015 by US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the annual incidence of cryptococcosis is currently 0.4-1.3 cases per 100,000 persons in the general population, 2 to 7 cases per 1,000 AIDS patients, and 0.3 to 5.3 cases per 100 transplant patients (1). Another report in 2015 from analysis of stored serum samples of HIV-infected persons during 1986-2012 indicated the overall prevalence of cryptococcal antigen was 2.9 percent (1, 21).

Although cryptococcosis is mainly caused by *C. neoformans* in individuals with cell-mediated immune deficiencies, *C. gattii* predominantly causes disease in persons with apparently normal immune systems (72 to 100%) (22). Worldwide, *C. gattii* infections have mainly occurred in Papua New Guinea, Australia, and South America. Recent outbreaks of *C. gattii* infection have occurred in British Columbia, Canada (218 cases reported during 1999 – 2007) and in the US Pacific Northwest (96 cases reported during 2004 – 2011) (22-27). In fact, in more developed countries, *C. gattii* infection occurs mainly in non-HIV infected individuals including transplant recipients, patients who are receiving immunosuppressive agents such as glucocorticosteroids, cytotoxic chemotherapy, TNF- $\alpha$  inhibitors, and other disease modifying agents, and a heterogeneous group

of patients with underlying disorders such as organ failure syndromes, innate immunologic problems, common variable immunodeficiency, and hematologic disorders (14). In addition, 17%-22% of cases of cryptococcosis occur in phenotypically normal or otherwise clinically non-immunocompromised patients (14, 28). Despite the development of antifungal therapy, cryptococcal disease in HIV-negative hosts continues to be associated with extensive morbidity and mortality. In a study of 207 patients from 2012, 86 (42%) were HIV-positive, 42 (20%) were transplant recipients, and 79 (38%) were HIV-negative/non-transplant (28, 29).



**Figure 1.1.** A: global burden of HIV-related cryptococcal meningitis. B: Causes of death in sub-Saharan Africa, excluding HIV/AIDS. Taken from Ref (1) with permission.

#### 1.2. The pathogen Cryptococcus

#### **1.2.1.** Taxonomy

*C. neoformans* is a spherical yeast with a diameter of 4-6 µm that is classified in the phylum basidiomycota which also includes mushrooms, wood-rotting fungi, and several common plant pathogens (3). *Cryptococcus sp.* is surrounded by a thick polysaccharide capsule and is often referred to as "sugar-coated yeast" (30). It was first described as human pathogen in 1894 by pathologist Otto Busse and surgeon Abraham Buschke and given the name "*Saccharomyces-like*" and *Saccharomyces neoformans;* however, in 1901 Jean-Paul Vuillemin renamed the organism to *Cryptococcus neoformans* (31). The genus *Cryptococcus contains around* 37 species; however, the vast majority of human infections are caused by *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Cryptococcus* 

*gattii.* Based on antigenic specificity of the capsule, these two species are further classified into different varieties and serotypes. *C. neoformans* includes three varieties, *C. neoformans* var. *grubii* (serotype A), *C. neoformans* var. *neoformans* (serotype D), and a hybrid (serotype AD) while *Cryptococcus gattii* includes serotypes B and C (Figure 1.2) (32, 33). *C. neoformans* var. *grubii* (serotype A) and *C. neoformans* var. *neoformans* (serotype D) generally cause disease in immunocompromised patients and are responsible for 70-95% and 5-15% of clinical infections, respectively. *C. gattii (serotype B)* is responsible for less than 1% of infections, has a tropism for individuals with normal immune responses, and is believed to be clinically more virulent than *C. neoformans* (3, 34-36). Recently, based on whole genome sequence analysis, division of *C. neoformans* into two separate species (*C. neoformans* and *C. deneoformans*) and *C. gattii* into a total of five species (*C. gattii, C. bacillisporus, C. deuterogattii, C. tetragatti,* and *C. decagattii*) has been proposed (8). Nevertheless, it is currently recommended to use "*C. neoformans* species complex" and "*C. gattii* species complex" as these seven species are not yet known to be clinically distinguishable, and more detailed studies with a larger number of isolates are needed to identify the clinical and biological relevance of the new species (37).



**Figure 1.2. Evolution of the** *C. neoformans* **species complex.** The *Cryptococcus* species complex contains at least two subspecies, *C. neoformans* and *C. gattii*, which diverged from a common ancestor. They are further divided into four serotypes consisting of at least nine molecular types. Solid, thin, and dashed lines indicate the prevalence of the respective serotype in each molecular type. Taken from Ref (2) with permission.

*C. neoformans* does not require a host to reproduce or survive in the environment, and therefore it is considered as an accidental human pathogen (10, 38). In the environment, *C. neoformans* has been found distributed worldwide and mainly associated with soils, several tree species, pigeon droppings, and urban environments. In contrast, *C. gattii* is mainly found in tropical and sub-tropical areas on decaying material and wood from eucalyptus trees; although recently it has been also isolated from other tree species, environmental sources, and geographical areas (2, 39-41). Both *C. neoformans* and *C. gattii* can survive and replicate in free-living amoebae and soil nematodes and many of the *C. neoformans* genes that are required for human disease are also required for infection, survival, and killing of amoebae, nematodes, and insects (8). Cryptococcosis occurs in domestic animals such as cats, dogs, cattle, pigs, guinea pigs, rabbits, horses, sheep, and goats, and also in wild animals such as birds, koalas, ferrets, mice, and foxes (42). In both animals and humans, *Cryptococcus* can reside in organs such as the skin, eyes, heart, bones, joints, lungs, prostate gland, urinary tract, and central nervous system. With some rare exceptions, animal to animal or human to human transmission has not been described (2).

#### 1.2.3. Life cycle

*C. neoformans* is mainly isolated from the environment as a poorly encapsulated cell and from patients as a budding yeast; however, it can also undergo dimorphic transition to a filamentous growth form with two different differentiation pathways: mating and monokaryotic fruiting. *C. neoformans* cells isolated from the environment and cultured in the laboratory have two forms, MATa and MATa. MATa is the mating type isolated from clinical samples and is more virulent than MATa. The filamentous cell type that is generated from mating between MATa and MATa contains both nuclei as a dikaryon and produces chains of haploid spores following nuclear fusion, meiosis, and sporulation. In contrast, sexual reproduction between the same mating type can also produce a filamentous cell as a monokaryon, which also generates spores. Monokaryotic fruiting is observed mainly in MATa type (2, 3, 8, 27, 43) (Figure 1.3).



**Figure 1.3. Model of** *C. neoformans* **life cycle.** In response to nutrient limitation, a and  $\alpha$  yeast cells secrete peptide pheromones that trigger cell–cell fusion. The resulting dikaryon initiates filamentous growth. The two parental nuclei migrate coordinately in the dikaryotic hyphae and as each septum forms to separate the cells, one nucleus is transferred to the penultimate hyphal cell through a clamp connection. At the stage of basidium development, the two nuclei fuse and undergo meiosis to produce four meiotic products that undergo mitosis and bud from the surface of the basidium to produce chains of basidiospores. During monokaryotic fruiting, cells of one mating type, for example,  $\alpha$  cells, become diploid cells  $\alpha/\alpha$ , either by endoduplication or by nuclear fusion following fusion of two cells. The diploid monokaryotic hyphae form rudimentary clamp connections, but these are not fused to the preceding cell. At the stage of basidium development, meiosis occurs and haploid basidiospores are produced in four chains. Taken from Ref (3) with permission.

#### **1.2.4. Virulence factors**

*Cryptococcus* contain several virulence factors that are required to reside in the environment and survive within the host. The principal virulence factors are a polysaccharide capsule, melanin production, the ability to grow physiological temperature and low pH, and the secretion of extracellular enzymes (11, 44) (Table1.1). It has been shown that *Cryptococcus* virulence factors are exported to the host environment by extracellular vesicles (EVs), also named as "virulence bags" (45). EVs contain capsule components, nucleic acids, and many virulence-associated proteins and enzymes including laccase and urease. Cryptococcal EVs have shown to be biologically and immunologically active and are important for cell-cell communication, pathogenesis and regulation of the host response (45-49).

Morphological adaptation and formation of "Titan cells" is also one of virulence-associated characteristic of *C. neoformans. Cryptococcus sp.* can enlarge its capsule size during infection which helps to avoid phagocytosis and the stressful intracellular host environment. Titan cells with a diameter of 12-100  $\mu$ m have been observed mainly in the lungs of infected mice by different cryptococcal strains (both serotype A and D, including standard laboratory strains such as H99 or 24067, and clinical isolates). These enlarged cells have been detected in polypoid and uninucleate forms, meaning that they are result of DNA replication without cell division (27, 50-53). In addition to well-known cryptococcal virulence factors, recent studies have found the transcription regulation networks and new enzymes associated with cryptococcal virulence, resistance, and survival in the host and environment including a zinc transporter (*Zip1*), isopropyl malate dehydrogenase (*Leu1*), inositol polyphosphate kinase (*Kcs1*), membrane high affinity Cch1-Mid1 calcium channel (*CMC*) and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub> zinc finger transcription factor (*Usv101*) (54-57).

Table 1.1. C. neoformans Virulence Factors.

Cha	aracteristic	Description/function	Refs
Polysaccharide Capsule		The most distinctive feature of <i>C. neoformans</i> , mostly composed of glucuronoxylomannan (GXM) and galactoxylomannan (GalXM); it prevents phagocytosis, quenches free radical bursts, interferes with immune responses and protects the fungus from desiccation.	(44, 58-65)
Melanin		Accumulates in the <i>C. neoformans</i> cell wall; considered to be a powerful antioxidant that also protects against UV radiation, heat and cold, and contributes to acquired resistance against to the antifungal drugs.	(44, 66-68)
Growth at physiological temperature and tolerance of low pH		Survival and persistence in the host and environment.	(69-74)
	Urease	Benefits the fungus in the environment by converting urea to a usable nitrogen source and plays a role in fungal migration across the blood-brain barrier.	(44, 75, 76)
Inzymes	Superoxide dismutase	Facilitates growth within macrophages by protection of the fungus against superoxide.	(44, 77)
Extracellular I	Phospholipases	Promote fungal invasion of host tissue by hydrolysis of phospholipids in lung surfactant and the plasma membrane; contributes to fungal survival by maintenance of cell wall integrity and provision of nutrients.	(78, 79)
	Proteases	Proteolytic activity; degrade immunologically important proteins, contribute to tissue invasion, colonization, and suppression of host immune response.	(80, 81)

#### 1.3. Human Cryptococcosis

#### **1.3.1.** Pulmonary infection

Exposure to *C. neoformans* is common because most people develop cryptococcal antibodies by school age (82). It is hypothesized that the initial exposure occurs through inhalation of spores or small desiccated yeast cells also known as propagules  $(1-5 \ \mu m \text{ in size})$  that enter the lower respiratory tract (8). In mouse models of infection there is some evidence that spores could be effective infectious particles and cause morbidity and mortality equivalent to parental yeast strains, but the interaction of spores and yeast cells with the host immune cells are different (83). In contrast to *C. neoformans* yeast cells, spores can be phagocytosed by macrophages in culture in the absence of opsonization; however, opsonized yeast that are phagocytosed by activated macrophages are more resistant to macrophage killing mechanisms compared to phagocytosed spores (83-85).

In an immunocompetent host, *Cryptococcus sp.* may be cleared by immune cells or stay in the lung inside macrophages and multinucleated giant cells in granulomas and establish latent infection until the host immune status changes from immunocompetent to immunocompromised (53, 72, 86). Most patients with pulmonary cryptococcosis are asymptomatic or have non-specific signs and symptoms of pneumonia with cough, scant mucoid sputum, pleuritic chest pain, fever, and dyspnea; however, life-threatening pneumonia with respiratory failure can occur, mainly in immunocompromised individuals (39, 87).

#### 1.3.2. Cryptococcal meningitis (CM)

Although *Cryptococcus sp.* can infect any organ in the body, it shows a clear preference for the central nervous system (CNS). Cryptococcal meningitis can occur following a primary infection of the lung or by reactivation and dissemination of latent pulmonary infection upon subsequent immunosuppression. The reasons for the CNS tropism are not known; however, the brain may provide preferred substrates for *C. neoformans* growth and survival or it may function as a niche that protects the organism from certain elements of the host immune response. In addition, during systemic infection specific receptors on neuronal cells may preferentially attract *Cryptococcus sp.* to the brain and divert them from other tissues (2). Based on experimental observations, *C.* 

*neoformans* can cross the Blood Brain Barrier (BBB) by three different mechanisms: 1) Paracytosis: *C. neoformans* uses enzymes such as protease and urease to enhance migration through endothelial cell tight junctions 2) Transcytosis: Endothelial cells lining the blood vessels in the brain internalize the fungus and transmigrate it through the cytoplasm to reach the brain tissue. 3) Trojan horse: Phagocytic cells that have engulfed *C. neoformans* cross the endothelium and transfer the organism to the brain by a hitch-hiking mechanism (8, 27). Meningoencephalitis is the main clinical presentation for *C. neoformans* infections, occurring in 90% of HIV-positive and 70% of HIV-negative individuals (88). In the HIV-positive patient, cryptococcal meningitis is a late opportunistic infection that usually occurs when the CD4<sup>+</sup> T-lymphocyte count falls below 50-100 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. Overwhelming cryptococcal infection of the meninges and brain tissue results in high intracranial pressure and is universally fatal if not treated. The clinical signs and symptoms may vary; fever, headache, fatigue, and visual problems are more frequently observed in the HIV-positive subjects, while altered mental status is more common among HIV-negative individuals (8, 15, 39, 89).

#### **1.3.3. Diagnosis and treatment**

Conventional diagnosis of cryptococcosis in suspected individuals is achieved by direct examination and identification of the fungus by microscopy and culture of infected tissues and detection of cryptococcal antigen (CrAg) in body fluids such as sputum, CSF and urine. Rapid diagnostic methods include detection of cryptococcal antigen by Latex Agglutination test, lateral flow immunochromatographic assay (LFA), or enzyme immunoassay (EIA) on cerebral spinal fluid or serum (90, 91). A positive CrAg result may precede clinical signs or symptoms by several weeks to months and has potential utility for screening of high-risk individuals or for initiation of pre-emptive therapy. The antifungal drug regimen that is recommended for the initial treatment of cryptococcal meningitis is a combination of intravenous liposomal amphotericin B and flucytosine. If flucytosine is unavailable, the combination of amphotericin B and a high dose of fluconazole is a recommended alternative (90, 92, 93). The fungicidal effect of amphotericin B is mediated by binding to ergosterol; this interaction creates pores that results in leakiness of the fungal cell membrane and induction of cell death through oxidative damage (8). Amphotericin B is expensive and not easily available in resource-limited areas; in addition, it may cause life-threatening and toxic side effects such as renal failure which requires further monitoring and

hospitalization (94). AmBisome<sup>®</sup> is an alternative liposomal formulation of amphotericin B with less toxic effects; however, it is more expensive (78, 95). Fluconazole is less effective than the combination of amphotericin B and flucytosine, but it is important for maintenance treatment to prevent recurrence of cryptococcal meningitis in recovering patients (15). Sertraline, which is an antidepressant drug, has recently been shown to have *in vitro* antifungal activity and is effective during experimental cryptococcosis. It is now in clinical trials, either alone or as an adjuvant, and could be a potentially inexpensive alternative for therapy of cryptococcal infection (96-99). Finally, monoclonal antibodies such as GXM IgG1 and recombinant interferon gamma have been used as adjuvants in clinical trials of cryptococcal meningitis therapy in HIV-infected patients (10, 93, 100). Administration of recombinant interferon in addition to standard treatment resulted in improved cryptococcal clearance; however, no significant difference in mortality has been observed (101, 102).

#### 1.4. Immune response to cryptococcal infection

#### **1.4.1. Innate immune response**

When *Cryptococcus sp.* enters the lung, its first interaction is with pulmonary epithelial cells. *In vitro* studies have shown that cryptococci can adhere to pulmonary epithelial cells, be internalized and activate them to release cytokines and chemokines such as IL-8 and CXCL1 (103-106) Alveolar macrophages are most likely the first phagocytes and antigen presenting cells (APCs) that encounter *Cryptococcus sp.* in the lung (107-109). Macrophages alone are unable to clear the infection and an adaptive immune response and granuloma formation is required in protective response against cryptococcal infection (110). Depending on the immune status of the host and cytokine milieu, macrophages can polarize to M1 or M2 phenotypes (10, 111-113). IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$  and LPS are the most responsible stimuli for M1 macrophage polarization (114). M1-polarized macrophages (classically activated), produce high levels of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species and pro-inflammatory cytokines, promote protective Th1 immune responses, and have stronger fungicidal properties compared to the M2 phenotype. The hallmark of M1 activation is the production of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) which acts on arginine and reduces it to citrulline and nitric oxide (NO). Exposure to Th2-type cytokines such as IL-4 and IL-13 leads to the differentiation of M2 (alternatively activated) macrophages which are less fungicidal and non-

protective against cryptococcal infection. The classical markers of M2 macrophage activation are chitinase-like 3 (*Ym1*), found in inflammatory zone (*Fizz1*), mannose receptor (*Cd206*) and arginase-1 (*Arg1*) (111-113, 115, 116). In general, experimental pulmonary infection with highly virulent *Cryptococcus* strains result in induction of strong Th2-type responses and polarization of M2 skewed macrophages (10).

The complex interaction of macrophages with Cryptococcus sp. leads to a variety of different outcomes: 1) intracellular killing of the fungus, 2) lysis of macrophages and release of the fungus, 3) nonlytic exocytosis of Cryptococcus sp. and survival of macrophages (72). Once phagocytosed, an ingested Cryptococcus is placed into a phagosome that is formed through the invagination of the surface membrane. Cryptococcus sp. can regulate phagosomal maturation which facilitates its intracellular survival and proliferation. Pathogen degradation is mediated by fusion of the phagosome with host lysosomes. Cryptococcus sp. can damage the phagolysosome; the exact mechanism is not well understood but may involve phospholipase enzymes and mechanical damage from capsule enlargement (72, 117). Rapid replication of virulent C. gattii in phagocytes is a virulence trait that contributes to the development of disease in immune competent individuals (8, 27). Nonlytic escape of Cryptococcus from phagocytes, named "vomocytosis" or phagosome extrusion/expulsion, occurs by merging of the phagosomal and plasma membranes which result in lateral transfer of Cryptococcus between host cells (118-120). It has been shown that repeated cycles of actin polymerization (actin flashes), which are dependent on classical WASP-Arp2/3 complex-mediated actin filament nucleation, form dynamic actin cages around the phagosome and inhibit cryptococcal expulsion in response to phagosome permeabilization (121). Vomocytosis has been observed in vivo and facilitates release of Cryptococcus sp. once it has crossed the BBB (110, 118-120, 122). It is hypothesized that Cryptococcus sp. disseminates to the CNS via the bloodstream and crosses the BBB within macrophages using a Trojan Horse mechanism (123-127).

Dendritic Cells (DCs) are the most efficient element of the host immune system for presentation of cryptococcal antigen to T cells and their activation is critical for host protection. DCs phagocytose and kill *Cryptococcus sp.* by oxidative and non-oxidative mechanisms (128, 129). Cathepsin B, a lysosomal enzyme, inhibits cryptococcal growth within DCs (130). *Cryptococcus sp.* can block DC maturation by shedding its polysaccharide capsule during infection and reduce

the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines (8). Internalization of *Cryptococcus sp.* by DCs occurs mainly through complement and antibody-mediated opsonization (131). The cryptococcal capsule activates the alternative pathway of complement; however, mannose binding lectin (MBL) can bind to the fungal cell wall and activate the lectin pathway (132-134). Mannose receptors on DCs can bind cryptococcal mannoproteins, trigger DC activation and maturation, induce the expression of MHC class and costimulatory molecules (CD40, CD80, and CD86), and mediate phagocytosis. TLR9 can recognize cryptococcal DNA and activate DCs to produce IL-12p40. TLR2 and TLR4 are not important for uptake of *C. neoformans* or activation of DCs by the fungus (108, 135-139). A protective immune response against pulmonary *C. neoformans* infection is also associated with recruitment and activation of Ly6C<sup>+</sup> monocyte-derived (CD11b<sup>+</sup>) DCs in a CCR2-dependent manner (140-143).

In addition to macrophages and DCs, isolated neutrophils from human samples were shown to kill *C. neoformans* by oxidative and non-oxidative mechanism and enhance granuloma formation (144-146). Nevertheless, *in vivo* depletion of neutrophils during the early phase of infection in a mouse model resulted in less inflammatory damage and increased survival. In addition, neutrophil depletion in immunized mice did not affect the pulmonary fungal burden, indicating that neutrophils are not required for clearance (147, 148).

Eosinophilic infiltration of the lung has been observed both in humans and mouse models of cryptococcal infection and is associated with a failure of fungal clearance, increased lung pathology, and a non-protective immune response (149-151). Eosinophil recruitment during C. *neoformans* infection is dependent on IL-5 production (151, 152). Mice that are deficient in eosinophils display a reduced Th2 and an enhanced Th1/Th17 immune response following C. *neoformans* infection (153). In contrast, rat peritoneal eosinophils phagocytose opsonized C. *neoformans*, present cryptococcal antigen and might be involved in the protective immune response following infection (154, 155).

Natural Killer (NK) cells are important during the early phase of the immune response to *C*. *neoformans* and both human and mouse NK cells can kill *C. neoformans* using perforin (a calciumdependent pore-forming cytolytic granzyme) rather than granulysin (156-158). NK cells have also been shown to be key in the immune response to cryptococcal granulomas with the ability to continue perforin degranulation in acidic environment (159). Expression of the NK receptor (NKp30) is important for direct recognition of *C. neoformans* and its reduced expression in HIVinfected patients is associated with defective perforin secretion and diminished anticryptococcal activity (158, 160). The number of NKT cells is increased early in the lungs following intratracheal infection of mice with *C. neoformans*. NKT cell recruitment and accumulation in the lung is dependent on Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1 (MCP-1) and increases Th1 immune response by producing IFN- $\gamma$  (161, 162).

#### **1.4.2. Adaptive immune response:**

CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells play a crucial role in cell-mediated immunity against C. neoformans in mice and humans. CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells kill C. neoformans by releasing granulysin and play a dominant role compared to CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells for macrophage and granulocyte recruitment to the lung and fungal clearance (16, 163-170). Patients with severe T-cell deficiency are at higher risk for development of C. neoformans infection (171, 172) and protection is associated with development of Th1 type CD4<sup>+</sup> cells (10, 16, 17, 168-170). Expression of IFN- $\gamma$  and TNF- $\alpha$  by CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells of HIV+ patients with cryptococcal meningitis is related to survival and fungal clearance (173-175). In experimental models of cryptococcal infection, a Th1 type response characterized by secretion of IL-2, IL-12, IFN- $\gamma$ , and TNF- $\alpha$  enhances internalization and killing of *Cryptococcus sp.* by phagocytes, induces M1 polarization of macrophages and promotes fungal clearance (176, 177). In contrast, a Th2 type response characterized by secretion of IL-4, IL-5, IL-10, and IL-13 is associated with eosinophilia, induction of M2 polarized macrophages, dissemination of the fungus and immunopathology (62). T regulatory cells are induced in the lung and suppress the deleterious effect of Th2 cells following C. neoformans infection (178). Compared to Th1, Th17-type responses characterized by IL-17A, IL-21, IL-22, IL-23, and TGF-B production have been suggested to play an important but secondary role in protection against C. neoformans (179). For example, inhibition of IL-17A expression and signaling has no effect on M1 macrophage polarization and survival of mice infected with C. neoformans (180, 181).

 $CD8^+$  T cells also play an important role in the host immune response to *C. neoformans* infection by mediating an increase in pulmonary  $CD4^+$  T cells, macrophages, and neutrophils (167).  $CD8^+$ cells can kill *C. neoformans* through  $CD4^+$ -dependent upregulation and release of granulysin; however, recruitment of  $CD8^+$  T cells to the lung occurs independently of  $CD4^+$  cells (182, 183). Production of IFN- $\gamma$  by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells also inhibits the growth and survival of *C. neoformans* within macrophages independently of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells and depletion of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells reduces survival in experimental models of cryptococcal infection (184, 185).

Gamma delta T-cells ( $\gamma\delta$  T) also have been shown to accumulate to the lung early after infection and play a down-modulatory role in the development of a Th1 response. Depletion of  $\gamma\delta$  T has resulted in increased IFN- $\gamma$  synthesis by draining lymph node cells and enhanced cryptococcal clearance through induction of Th1-mediated responses in the lung (186). Increased expression of IL-17A by  $\gamma\delta$  T cells has been observed in neutrophil-depleted mice during pulmonary infection with *C. neoformans* strain H99 $\gamma$ . (147).

B cells also play an important role in protective immune response in experimental models of cryptococcal infection. X-linked immunodeficient (XID) mice, which lack B-1 cells and natural IgM, exhibit reduced yeast uptake by macrophages, increased dissemination to the brain, and significantly more enlarged extracellular *C. neoformans* cells in the lung during pulmonary infection compared to control mice. There is also evidence that HIV-infected patients that have lower serum levels of GXM-reactive IgM are more susceptible to cryptococcosis (187-191). In addition, IgG2 (the predominant GXM-binding IgG subclass) is also reduced in individuals with HIV/AIDS (10).

#### 1.4.3. Immune Reconstitution Inflammatory Syndrome (IRIS)

A successful immune response to cryptococcal infection requires an intricate balance between Th1, Th17, and Th2 responses that regulates fungal growth and prevents immunopathology caused by dysregulated inflammation (8, 10). Cryptococcosis in HIV patients, solid organ transplant recipients, and pregnancy may be associated with the development of cryptococcal IRIS. Cryptococcal IRIS is caused by recovery of cryptococcus-specific immune responses and results in exaggerated host inflammation (192). There are two types of cryptococcal IRIS: 1) Paradoxical cryptococcal IRIS that occurs during immune recovery and presents as a deterioration or recurrence of clinical disease in the same or new site even with successful antifungal therapy, and 2) unmasking cryptococcal IRIS that begins shortly after initiation of ART in patients with no prior diagnosis of cryptococcosis and may be its first manifestation. Paradoxical cryptococcal IRIS has been reported in 10–45% of ART-naive HIV-positive patients with cryptococcal meningitis, and

approximately 60% of IRIS cases occur within the first month of ART (89). Earlier ART initiation has been associated with significant excess mortality (193). The exact immune response associated with poor outcomes is not well known; however, increased CSF cellular infiltrate, macrophage/microglial activation, and T helper 2 responses within the central nervous system have been associated with mortality (89, 194). A paradoxical immune response characterized by defects in macrophage activation and immune-mediated host cell damage can also occur in non-HIV cryptococcal meningitis and is associated with severe neurological disease (195, 196).



Figure 1.4: The immune response to *C. neoformans*. Opsonized *C. neoformans* is phagocytosed by macrophages and DCs in the lungs. DCs will kill *C. neoformans* by oxidative and non-oxidative mechanisms, undergo maturation to present cryptococcal antigens to  $CD4^+$  T cells, and initiate a T-helper response. A Th1 response directs the protective host immunity against *C. neoformans*. Th1-type cytokines trigger enhanced uptake and killing by neutrophils and dendritic cells, induce macrophages to polarize to a classically activated M1 phenotype, and recruit monocytes to the site of infection where they promote clearance of the organism. A Th17 response also has been shown to be associated with protection against *C. neoformans*. A Th2 response is associated with significant chemotaxis of eosinophils to the lungs, the induction of alternately activated M2 macrophages, and dissemination of the pathogen.

#### 1.5. Genetic Susceptibility to Cryptococcal Infection

Risk factors associated with cryptococcosis other than HIV infection include solid organ transplantation, CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell lymphopenia, prolonged corticosteroid or immunosuppressive treatment, hematological malignancies, diabetes mellitus, cirrhosis, sarcoidosis, pregnancy, liver disease, and apparently immune competent individuals (10, 88, 197). Up to 20% of cases of cryptococcosis occur in phenotypically "normal" or apparently immunocompetent patients without any known risk factors for infection susceptibility (14). Recent *C. gattii* outbreaks in British Columbia and US Pacific Northwest has occurred mainly among non-HIV+ patients, emphasizing the importance of understanding risk factors for susceptibility to infection in healthy individuals (25, 198). Environmental exposure and genetic susceptibility could be the dominant risk factors and some studies have reported this possibility (199-213).

The contribution of human genetic variation and susceptibility to cryptococcosis has been analyzed in several cohorts. For example, mutations in CD40L that cause X-linked hyper-IgM syndrome have been associated with disseminated cryptococcosis (214-219). Mutations in interleukin-12R have been associated with susceptibility to cryptococcal infection (220) and a trend for susceptibility to *C. gattii* has been linked to the HLA B\*5601 genotype (221). Fc gamma receptors (Fc $\gamma$ R) and mannose-binding lectin (MBL) polymorphisms have been reported to increase susceptibility to cryptococcal meningitis (222-224) and a dectin-2 polymorphism is associated with pulmonary cryptococcosis in HIV-uninfected Chinese patients (225). In HIV-infected patients, humoral immunity in general and a polymorphism in FCGR3A are both associated with susceptibility to cryptococcal infection (226, 227).

#### **1.6. Mouse Models of Infection**

Investigation of genetic susceptibility in human has several limitations including the selection of comparable cases and controls to limit the effect of confounding variables, the requirements for a large sample size and independent replication, and the need to control for environmental factors (228, 229). Considering these limitations, an alternative approach to identification and validation of the genetic causes of susceptibility to infections such as cryptococcosis is the use of animal models. Several factors must be considered when choosing a suitable species for genetic

investigations including the potential for controlled breeding or other experimental manipulations, the associated expenses, the ability to perform tissue and time-specific molecular phenotyping, the availability of gene-editing tools and the similarity or relevance to humans (230). Compared to other animal species, there are several advantages of a mouse model including the availability of numerous well-characterized inbred and genetically engineered strains with reproducible responses to infection that are relatively inexpensive to purchase and maintain, extensive immunologic and genetic tools and databases for detailed phenotypic and genotypic analysis, and virtually complete conservation of orthologous protein coding sequences with humans (42, 231-235). The use of laboratory mice has been extremely successful for dissection of host response to various infectious diseases including the identification of causal susceptibility genes and their variants (236, 237).

Two major strategies, termed forward and reverse genetic analysis, have been used in mouse models to identify molecules and biochemical pathways that affect the host response to infection with viral, parasitic, fungal, and bacterial pathogens.

#### 1.6.1. Forward genetic analysis

In forward genetics, a variable phenotype in natural populations or randomly mutagenized stocks is measured and the causal sequence variants are identified by positional cloning or candidate gene analysis (230, 238). Propelled by rapid technological development, forward genetic dissection and functional analysis of clinically relevant mouse models of infection has been established as a powerful and highly tractable approach to analyze the role of genetic susceptibility in host immune defense (204, 236, 239). This approach has been successful for the study of a variety of infectious diseases and has uncovered novel genes, proteins, and signaling pathways that play critical roles in the immune response to a diverse array of microbial pathogens (236).

#### QTL mapping

Quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis is a statistical method that associates complex traits of interest with genotypic data that segregates in an experimental cross to identify and localize specific chromosomal regions that regulate the observed phenotypic variation. Several types of molecular markers are used in QTL analysis, including single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs),

simple sequence repeats (SSRs, or microsatellites), restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs), and transposable element positions. To perform QTL analysis using inbred mice, homozygous parental strains that differ in one or more traits of interest are crossed to generate heterozygous (F1) individuals that are subsequently intercrossed to produce an F2 generation that is amenable to genetic and phenotypic analysis. Markers that are linked to a QTL that influences the trait of interest will segregate more frequently with the trait values, whereas unlinked markers will not show a significant association with the phenotype(s) under consideration (240).

#### **Interval Specific Congenic Strains**

Although the QTL mapping approach occasionally identifies a single causal gene or other single structural, regulatory, or functional element that controls the phenotypic trait under study, in most cases additional genetic and functional studies are needed. Biological validation and dissection of the QTL in Interval Specific Congenic Strains (ISCS; also termed congenic strains) is one the most frequent methods used for the purpose (241). Congenic mouse strains have played a pivotal role in the genetic analysis of complex diseases including phenotypes that may be under the control of both environmental and multiple genetic factors such as type 1 diabetes, multiple sclerosis, obesity, and cancer (242). Congenic strains are derived by repeated backcrossing of the donor strain to the recipient strain with selection for the differential chromosomal segment corresponding to the mapped QTL and continuing until the integrity of the host strain background has been restored. Prior to establishing homozygosity of the desired congenic interval through brother-sister mating, a genome scan is conducted to determine if further backcrossing is required to remove any contaminating genomic fragments. The result of congenic breeding is to create a mosaic structure with a segment of genetic material from one parent on the genetic background of the other parent. The amount of donor strain genome is reduced by 50% with each generation, therefore after a minimum of 10 backcross generation a congenic strain is 99.90% identical to the recipient inbred strain except for the loci of interest (241). Marker-assisted selection also known as "speed congenics" can be used to reduce the number of backcross generations as few as five generations by selection of appropriate breeders (243). Congenic strains will normally carry differential regions of 10-20 Mb in size unless specific efforts are made to reduce the size of the differential segment. The genetic interval of a congenic line can be reduced and refined by identification of new recombinants during further backcrossing. The availability of sub-phenotypes for

characterization is often critical to the fine dissection of the trait of interest. Analysis often starts with the most robust and basic phenotype before proceeding to more subtle analysis of subphenotypes. Phenotyping methods often employed range from histology, behavioral studies, and the evaluation of physiological parameters to metabolomics and transcriptional profiling (242, 244-246).

#### Forward genetic approaches to cryptococcal infection

Genetic regulation of susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal infection among inbred mice has been reported in several forward genetic studies. For example, at the hemolytic complement (Hc)locus on chromosome 2, inbred mouse strains with the  $Hc^0$  allele that encodes a defective form of complement component 5 have decreased survival following intravenous cryptococcocal challenge (247). Mutation of the X-linked Bruton Tyrosine Kinase (Btk<sup>xid</sup>) in CBA/N mice causes absence of the mature B cell population and agammaglobulinemia and confers susceptibility to intravenous C. neoformans infection. Susceptibility in CBA/N mice was associated with increased spleen and brains weights, increased fungal burden in liver and spleen, and shorter survival time following infection (248). Immunoglobulin heavy chain (IgH) -linked genes on the telomeric region of mouse chromosome 12 have been associated with effectiveness of the host response against C. neoformans infection. The less resistant phenotype of BALB/c compared to C.B-17 mice (BALB/c strain congenic for C57BL/6 Immunoglobulin heavy chain) was associated with higher lung fungal burden, lower levels of IFN-y, higher levels of the Th2 cytokines and significantly greater serum levels of IgM, IgG1, IgG2a, and IgG3 anti-cryptococcal Abs (249). Using MHC congenic mice, liver-specific susceptibility to intraperitoneal injection of the H99 cryptococcal strain has been linked to the H- $2^{k/k}$  haplotype (250). Spontaneous mutation of the *nu* locus on mouse chromosome 11, which encodes a member of the winged-helix domain family of transcription factors, results in hairless athymic mice with T cell-deficiency and has been associated with increased fungal burden and dissemination following intratracheal and intraperitoneal C. neoformans infections (166, 251). Finally, inbred mice with the beige mutation on mouse chromosome 13 have shown increased susceptibility to C. neoformans infection. The beige mutation in mice models human Chediak-Higashi syndrome and leads to defective and reduced bactericidal activity of granulocytes and severe deficiency of natural killer NK cell function (252).
In our laboratory, a well-established and clinically relevant model of intratracheal infection with the *C. neoformans* 52D strain has been used to investigate the genetic determinants of susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal pneumonia in susceptible C57BL/6J and resistant CBA/J inbred mice. A QTL analysis for cryptococcal pneumonia susceptibility in a segregating F2 population identified two significant QTL in the female F2 intercross that are located on chromosome 1 (*Cnes1*), and chromosome 17 (*Cnes2*), respectively and a third QTL on distal chromosome 17 in the male F2 intercross (*Cnes3*) (207). Two additional QTL associated with susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal pneumonia have been identified on chromosome 1 (*Cnes4*) and chromosome 9 (*Cnes5*) in a separate F2 population derived from susceptible C3H/HeN and resistant CBA/J mice that share the same  $H-2^k$  haplotype (253).

### 1.6.2. Reverse genetic analysis

Reverse genetic analysis starts with the identification of one or more sequences that are amenable to modification by genetic engineering techniques such as homologous recombination in embryonic stem cells. Modification of specific nucleotide sequences is followed by analysis of the impact of these changes on the phenotypes of interest (230, 238). To analyze host-pathogen interactions, the gene(s) of interest are usually chosen using direct or indirect evidence that links the sequence to pathogenesis or immune response to infection. The role of an individual gene in phenotypes of interest may be tested by infecting mice carrying a desired modification (usually a loss-of-function mutation due to deletion) at the corresponding locus.

### **Reverse genetic approaches to cryptococcal infection**

Susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal infection has been extensively studied using reverse genetic approaches in mouse models (Table 1.3). These investigations have greatly increased our understanding of the contribution of individual cytokines, chemokines, and cell populations to a protective immune response. The overall conclusion arising from these studies indicates a crucial role for pro-inflammatory innate and Th1 adaptive cell-mediated immune response for protection and clearance of cryptococcal infection. Some of the major findings using reverse genetic approaches to analyze host resistance in cryptococcal infection are listed in Table 1.3.

Knockout	Description	Refs
Gene		
MyD88	Decreased survival correlating with increased numbers of lung CFU and	(254, 255)
	serum and lung GXM levels.	
TLR2/4	Diminished cryptococcal clearance associated with reduced TNF-alpha, IL-	(139, 254,
	12 and IFN-gamma expression in TLR2 <sup>-/-</sup> but not TLR4 <sup>-/-</sup> mice.	255)
TLR9	Profoundly impaired pulmonary clearance during the adaptive phase of the	(256)
	immune response, defects in Th polarization, diminished macrophage	
	accumulation and activation.	
CCR2	Prolonged pulmonary infection, significant dissemination to the spleen and	(142, 143,
	brain, markedly impaired recruitment of cDCs and macrophages,	237, 238)
	development features of Th2 responses.	
MCP1	Diminished recruitment of NKT and NK cells to the lungs.	(161)
MIP-1a	Dramatically decreased survival, increased C. neoformans burden in the	(250)
	lungs, greater number of eosinophils, extremely high levels of serum IgE,	(239)
	switch of immune response to a Th2 phenotype.	
CCR5	Defects in leukocyte recruitment to the brain, decreased elimination of	(260)
	cryptococcal polysaccharide from the brain, no defects in lung leukocyte	
	recruitment, pulmonary clearance, or delayed-type hypersensitivity.	
IFN-γ/R	Increased susceptibility associated with increased pulmonary and brain	(261)
	fungal burden.	(202)
IL-12p35/40	Decreased survival; infected IL-12p40 <sup>-/-</sup> mice died earlier and developed	(263)
	higher organ burdens than IL-12p35 <sup>-/-</sup> mice. Susceptibility of both IL-	
	$12p35^{-/-}$ and IL- $12p40^{-/-}$ mice was associated with Th2 polarization.	
IL-1/18R	Decreased survival time in IL-18R <sup>-/-</sup> mice.	(264)
TNF-α	Reduced survival, increased fungal burden, reduced polymorphonuclear	(265)
	leukocyte infiltrate in the brain, lower levels of IL-6 in lungs and brain, IL-	
	$1\beta$ and KC in brain and spleen.	

Table1.2. Reverse genetic studies in *Cryptococcus* infection using knockout mice.

IL-4/10	Decreased fungal burden, absent of pulmonary eosinophilia.	(266)
IL-4R	Reduced delayed-type hypersensitivity responses, lower fungal burden in the	(267)
	lung.	
IL-4Ra	Decreased fungal control during the early phase of infection.	(268)
IL-17A	Impaired late fungal clearance, reduced intracellular containment of the	(269)
	organism within lung macrophages, reductions in CD11c <sup>+</sup> CD11b <sup>+</sup> myeloid	
	cells, B cells, and CD8 $^+$ T cells, nonsignificant trend in the reduction of lung	
	neutrophils.	
IL23p19	No effect on pulmonary or brain fungal burden; however, reduced survival	(180)
IL-17RA	of <i>IL-23p19<sup>-/-</sup></i> mice compared to <i>IL-17RA<sup>-/-</sup></i> mice.	
STAT1	Increased pulmonary fungal burden and brain dissemination, increased	(270, 271)
	mortality, shift from Th1 to Th2 cytokine bias, pronounced lung	
	inflammation, and defective classical macrophage activation, inability to	
	control intracellular cryptococcal proliferation by macrophages.	
Scavenger	Improved fungal clearance, decreased accumulation of eosinophils and	(272)
RA	greater accumulation of CD4 $^+$ T cells and CD11b $^+$ dendritic cells, decreased	
	expression of Th2 cytokines in lung, diminished serum IgE, increased	
	hallmarks of classical pulmonary macrophage activation.	
Dectin-2	Increased Th2 response and mucin production.	(273)
Mannose R	Decreased survival, higher lung fungal burden.	(136)
sIgM	Increased mortality and higher blood and brain CFUs, comparable lung CFU,	(191)
	reduced Th1 polarization	
γδ T cells	Promote fungal clearance, increased serum levels of IFN-γ.	(186)
Surfactant	Longer mean time to death and decreased fungal burden.	(151, 274)
PR D		
T1/ST2	Improved survival, decreased fungal burden in the lungs, spleen, and brain,	(275, 276)
	decreased early production of IL-5 and IL-13 by lung type 2 innate lymphoid	
	cells.	
C3/factor B	Increased fungal burden, decreased survival.	(277)

### 1.7. Thesis rationale and specific aims

The general goal of my thesis is to dissect the genetic and immunological aspects of host susceptibility to the fungal pathogen *C. neoformans*. I have approached this objective by applying both forward and reverse genetic methods followed by immunological characterization of immune responses in an established mouse model of infection.

**Chapter 2:** The *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 was previously associated with susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection. The aim of this chapter is to confirm the role of *Cnes2* interval on host susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection. To reach this goal, *Cnes2* congenic mice were generated by transferring the *Cnes2* chromosomal interval from the resistant CBA/J donor to the susceptible C57BL/6 recipient background by repeated backcrossing. The host resistance phenotype and immune responses were analyzed following infection.

**Chapter 3:** The aim of this chapter is to dissect the *Cnes2* interval into the underlying smaller genetic regions which regulate the host response to *C. neoformans* infection. To reach this goal, a panel of sub-congenic mice were generated. The host resistance phenotype and immune response of each sub-congenic line were analyzed following infection. An extensive *in silico* analysis using publicly available genome browsers was conducted to identify the most possible candidate genes in implicated regions.

**Chapter 4:** IL-1 alpha (IL-1 $\alpha$ ) and IL-1 beta (IL-1 $\beta$ ) are pro-inflammatory cytokines that are highly induced following *C. neoformans* infection. The aim of this chapter is to determine the role of IL-1RI signaling, a common receptor for IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$ , in cryptococcal infection using a reverse genetic approach. IL-1RI-deficient mice (IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup>) were generated on the Balb/c background and the host resistance phenotype and immune responses of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> and wild type mice were analyzed following cryptococcal infection.

# Chapter 2

# The *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 regulates host defense against cryptococcal infection through pleiotropic effects on host immunity.

### Infection and Immunity, 2015

Mitra Shourian,<sup>a,b</sup> Adam Flaczyk,<sup>a,b</sup> Isabelle Angers,<sup>a,b</sup> Barbara C. Mindt,<sup>c</sup> Jörg H. Fritz,<sup>c</sup> Salman T. Qureshi<sup>a,b</sup>#

Meakins-Christie Laboratories, Department of Medicine and Division of Experimental Medicine, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada<sup>a</sup>

Department of Critical Care and Research Institute of the McGill University Health Centre, Montréal, Québec, Canada<sup>b</sup>

Complex Traits Group, Departments of Microbiology and Immunology, and Physiology, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada<sup>c</sup>

Running Head: Cnes2 regulates host defense against Cryptococcus

#Address correspondence to Salman T. Qureshi, salman.qureshi@mcgill.ca

## **Preface to Chapter 2**

To identify the underlying factors that regulate the progression and outcome of *C. neoformans* infection, quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis in an experimental cross between susceptible C57BL/6 and resistant CBA/J mice was used to define three significant chromosomal intervals (*Cnes1, Cnes2,* and *Cnes3*) that are associated with control of lung fungal burden (207). In this chapter, to validate and characterize the role of *Cnes2* during the host response, we constructed a congenic strain on the C57BL/6 background (B6.CBA-*Cnes2*) and analyzed the host susceptibility phenotype and immune response following *C. neoformans* Infection.

#### 2.1. Abstract

The genetic basis of natural susceptibility to progressive *Cryptococcus neoformans* infection is not well understood. Using C57BL/6 and CBA/J inbred mice we previously identified three chromosomal regions associated with *C. neoformans* susceptibility (*Cnes1, Cnes2, Cnes3*). To validate and characterize the role of *Cnes2* during the host response we constructed a congenic strain on the C57BL/6 background (B6.CBA-*Cnes2*). Phenotypic analysis of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice 35 days after *C. neoformans* infection showed a significant reduction of fungal burden in the lungs and spleen with higher pulmonary expression of IFN- $\gamma$  and IL-12, lower expression of IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13, and an absence of airway epithelial mucus production compared to C57BL/6. Multiparameter flow cytometry of infected lungs also showed a significantly higher number of neutrophils, exudate macrophages, CD11b<sup>+</sup> dendritic cells, and CD4<sup>+</sup> cells in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* compared to C57BL/6 mice. The activation state of recruited macrophages and dendritic cells was also significantly increased in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice. Taken together these findings demonstrate that the *Cnes2* interval is a potent regulator of host defense, immune responsiveness, and differential Th1/Th2 polarization following *C. neoformans* infection.

### 2.2. Introduction

Cryptococcus neoformans is a basidiomycete fungus that can cause severe and potentially lifethreatening pneumonia, meningitis, and disseminated disease in the immunocompromised host with an estimated annual death toll of 625,000 (9, 27, 278). The pulmonary manifestations of C. *neoformans* infection vary from asymptomatic nodular disease to severe acute respiratory distress syndrome and are strongly influenced by the quality and magnitude of the immune response (279). Notably, not all immune compromised hosts develop disease following cryptococcal infection while some immune competent individuals exhibit severe illness (29, 280, 281); therefore, it is believed that genetic factors play an important role in determining the susceptibility to progressive infection. Case-control studies in mainly non-HIV infected patients have associated mannosebinding lectin (MBL) deficiency and functional polymorphisms in members of the low-affinity Fc-gamma receptor family with cryptococcal infection (222-224, 226). Nonetheless, such variation was observed in a minority of cases, signifying an important gap in the knowledge of heritable factors that predispose the host to cryptococcal disease. Comprehensive elucidation of the genetic basis for cryptococcal susceptibility would facilitate the identification of individuals at high risk for infection and increase our understanding of the underlying mechanisms of disease pathogenesis but is hindered by the requirement for large, homogenous study cohorts and adequate clinical sample acquisition.

Spontaneous mutation or naturally occurring variation involving several genetic loci that are crucial to host immunity have been reported to confer increased susceptibility to murine cryptococcal disease. For example, the  $Hc^{0}$  allele on mouse chromosome 2 that causes a deficiency of the C5 complement component was among the first mutations to be associated with severe *C. neoformans* infection (247, 282). Another study showed that CBA/N XID mice that lack a late-maturing B cell population due to a mutation of the X-linked Bruton agammaglobulinemia tyrosine kinase (*Btk*) are also highly susceptible to intravenous *C. neoformans* infection (248). Conversely, the C.B-17 congenic strain that bears the Ig H chain-containing region of chromosome 12 from C57BL/Ka mice on a BALB/c background exhibited enhanced pulmonary clearance of *C. neoformans* following intratracheal infection (249). A spontaneous mutation of the *nu* locus on mouse chromosome 11 that encodes the forkhead box N1 transcription factor results in a hairless athymic state with abrogation of T cell-mediated immunity and has also been associated with

increased fungal burden and dissemination following intraperitoneal *C. neoformans* infection (166, 283). Finally, a potential role for the histocompatibility complex (H-2) in murine susceptibility to intraperitoneal *C. neoformans* infection has also been reported using congenic mice (250).

Susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal infection has been extensively studied using reverse genetic approaches in mouse models and these investigations have greatly increased our understanding of the host response to this pathogen (62, 284, 285). For example, genetically engineered defects of a variety of cytokines, chemokines or their receptors, as well as several microbial pattern recognition receptors have been shown to alter the activation, recruitment, and differentiation of leukocytes during cryptococcal infection (286). Following inhalation, resident lung dendritic cells (DC) and alveolar macrophages (AM) are the first immune cells that encounter C. neoformans, and several studies have shown they are able to phagocytose C. neoformans in vivo (129, 287). Upon contact with Cryptococcus, DC and AM also produce pro-inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α, Interleukin (IL)-1β and IL-6 that are required for the generation of protective immunity (177, 288, 289). Resistance to cryptococcal infection is dependent on recruitment of antigen-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes to the site of infection, and Thelper 1 (Th1)/T-helper 17 (Th17) polarization of the adaptive immune response characterized by the cytokines interferon-γ, IL-12, IL-17(A), and IL-22 (269, 290-294). Effector cells such as NK cells and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells also produce perforin/granulysin that kills extracellular C. neoformans as well as host cells bearing intracellular cryptococci (183, 295). Equally important to host defense is a classical pattern of macrophage activation that aids in the elimination of cryptococcal cells (270, 296, 297). In contrast, susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal disease is characterized by a Th2 pattern of cytokine expression, lung eosinophilia, goblet cell metaplasia, and alternative macrophage activation (153, 275, 298).

Beyond the well-characterized contribution of spontaneous mutations or specifically engineered defects that alter immunity against *C. neoformans*, there is emerging evidence that genetic susceptibility to cryptococcal infection in the apparently normal host is a complex trait (207, 253). For example, a previous study demonstrated that C57BL/6 mice develop a lung fungal burden that is 1000-fold higher than the CBA/J inbred strain five weeks following direct intratracheal infection with moderately virulent *C. neoformans* 52D (152). Infected C57BL/6 mice subsequently develop disseminated disease and succumb to the infection while CBA/J mice can progressively clear the

fungus. Detailed analysis of susceptible C57BL/6 mice following experimental pulmonary infection clearly demonstrated a distinct Th2 pattern of adaptive immunity that contrasts with the Th1 response of resistant CBA/J mice (299). To identify the underlying factors that regulate the progression and outcome of *C. neoformans* infection, quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis in an experimental cross between susceptible C57BL/6 and resistant CBA/J mice was used to define three significant chromosomal intervals (*Cnes1, Cnes2*, and *Cnes3*) that are associated with control of lung fungal burden (207).

A tractable approach to confirm the biological validity of a quantitative trait locus is to generate interval specific congenic mice (ISCS) that bear the corresponding chromosomal segment from a donor strain on the recipient background (246). Comparative analysis of the ICSC and recipient strain can then be used to confirm the autonomous contribution of the congenic segment to the phenotype of interest. Here we report that the *Cnes2* QTL derived from chromosome 17 of the CBA/J inbred strain has a major effect on control of lung fungal burden and disseminated cryptococcal infection in the C57BL/6 background. Specifically, at day 35 post-infection B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice had a lung fungal burden that was more than 100-fold lower than that of C57BL/6 inbred mice. Compared to C57BL/6, the immune response of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* congenic mice was characterized by a significantly higher expression of Type 1 cytokines and greater numbers of lung neutrophils, antigen-presenting cells, and Th1-polarized CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes. Taken together, these data demonstrate that one or more genes within the *Cnes2* locus regulate pulmonary host defense through pleiotropic effects on the inflammatory and immune response following *C. neoformans* infection (253, 300).

### 2.3. Materials and Methods

#### Mice

C57BL/6 and CBA/J mice were purchased from Harlan Laboratories (Indianapolis, IN, USA), and subsequently bred and maintained in our SPF facility. The B6.CBA-*Cnes2* congenic line was created by intercrossing C57BL/6 and CBA/J inbred mice to generate F1 progeny that were successively backcrossed to C57BL/6 for 7 generations. Breeder mice for each backcross were selected for CBA alleles in the *Cnes2* interval and a high percentage of C57BL/6 alleles throughout the rest of the genome as determined by a low-density genome scan. The *Cnes2* SNP markers rs13482444 (6.9 Mb), rs13482930 (26.8 Mb) and rs13460774 (35.1 Mb) were genotyped by Taqman real-time PCR (Life Technologies) using the ABI Prism 7500 Real-Time PCR System (Life Technologies). The genome scans were carried out by TCAG (The Center for Applied Genomics, Toronto, ON) using the Illumina's Mouse Low-Density Linkage panel. At the 7<sup>th</sup> generation, mice with a 100% C57BL/6 background were intercrossed to obtain a homozygous congenic line (Supplementary Figure 2.1). All animals were approved by the McGill University animal care and use committee. All experimental groups in this report include an equal number of male and female mice.

#### Cultures of C. neoformans

*C. neoformans* 52D (ATCC no. 24067) was grown and maintained on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA; BD, Becton Dickinson and Company). To prepare an infectious dose, a single colony was suspended in Sabouraud dextrose broth (BD) and grown to early stationary phase (48 h) at room temperature on a rotator. The stationary culture was then washed with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), counted on a hemacytometer and diluted to  $2 \times 10^5$  CFU per ml in sterile PBS. The fungal concentration of the experimental dose was confirmed by plating a dilution of the inoculum on SDA and counting the CFU after 72 hours of incubation at room temperature.

#### Intratracheal infection with C. neoformans

For intratracheal administration of *C. neoformans,* mice were anesthetized with 150 mg/kg of ketamine (Ayerst Veterinary Laboratories) and 10 mg/kg of xylazine (Bayer) intraperitoneally. A small skin incision was made below the jaw along the trachea, and the underlying glands and

smooth muscle were separated. Infection was performed by intratracheal injection of 50 ul PBS with  $10^4$  *C. neoformans* suspension (2 ×  $10^5$  CFU/ml) through a 22-gauge catheter via a 1-ml tuberculin syringe. The incision was closed using the 9mm EZ Clip wound closing kit (Stoelting) and mice were monitored daily following surgery.

#### **Organ isolation and CFU assay**

After mice were euthanized by CO<sub>2</sub>, their infected lungs, spleen and brain were excised and placed in sterile, ice-cold PBS. Tissues were then weighed and homogenized using a glass tube and pestle attached to a mechanical tissue homogenizer (Glas-Col) and then plated at various dilutions on Sabouraud dextrose agar. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 72 hours and CFU were counted.

#### Histopathological analysis

Following euthanasia, lungs were perfused with ice-cold PBS via the right ventricle of the heart. Using 10% buffered formalin acetate (Fisher Scientific) the lungs were inflated to a pressure of 25 cm H<sub>2</sub>O and fixed overnight. Subsequently lungs were embedded in paraffin, sectioned at 5  $\mu$ m, and stained with hematoxylin-eosin (H&E), periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) or mucicarmine reagents at the Histology Facility of the Goodman Cancer Research Centre (McGill University). Representative photographs of lung sections were taken using a BX51 microscope (Olympus), QICAM Fast 1394 digital CCD camera (QImaging) and Image-Pro Plus software version 7.0.1.658 (Media Cybernetics).

#### Bronchoalveolar lavage harvest

At the designated time points, an incision was made below the jaw to expose the trachea. A 22gauge catheter was inserted into the airway and secured in place by a string. A total of 4 volumes of 500  $\mu$ L of ice-cold PBS were instilled via the catheter and subsequently aspirated. The bronchoalveolar lavage fluid was then spun at 1200 rpm for 10 minutes and the supernatants were stored at -80°C for subsequent analysis. The cell pellet was counted using a Beckman Coulter particle counter (Beckman Coulter), and spun onto slides at a concentration of 5 x 10<sup>5</sup> cells/slide using a cytospin (Shandon). Following Diff-Quik staining (Dade Behring), differential cell counts of macrophages, lymphocytes, neutrophils, and eosinophils were obtained by counting a total of 300 cells per slide in duplicate. The average percentage was multiplied by the total cell count to obtain the total cell number for each leukocyte population.

#### **Flow cytometry**

Lungs were excised using sterile technique and placed in RPMI (Gibco, Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Wisent). Subsequently lungs were minced using surgical blades, and incubated with 1 mg/mL collagenase (Sigma) at 37°C for one hour. Following incubation, lung pieces were passed through a 16G needle and filtered through a 70 µm cell strainer (BD). Red blood cells were removed using 1X ACK lysis buffer before counting the cells using a Beckman Coulter Z1 particle counter. Fc receptors were blocked with the addition of unlabeled anti-CD16/32 antibodies (93; eBioscience, eBio) and single cell suspensions were stained with the following fluorescence-conjugated anti-mouse monoclonal antibodies purchased from eBio, BD, and BioLegend (BL): CD45-V500 (30-F11; BD), B220-FITC (RA3-6B2; eBio), CD3e-FITC (145-2C11; eBio), CD4-V450 (GK1.5; eBio), CD8-PerCP (53-6.7; BD), CD11b-APC (M1/70; BD), CD11c-FITC (N418; eBio), MHCII-PE-Cy7 (M5/114.15.2; eBio), Ly6G-V450 (clone 1A8; BL), F4/80-PE (clone BM8; eBio), CD86-PE (GL1; eBio), CD40-PerCp/Cy5.5 (3/23; BL), CD80-PE (16-10A1; eBio), CD69-PE/Cy7 (H1.2F3; BL), CD44-PE (IM7; eBio) and CD25-APC (PC61; BL). Nonviable cells were excluded using fixable viability dye eFluor780 reagent (eBio). Data were acquired using a FACS LSR-II flow cytometer (BD) and analyzed using Flow Jo version X software (Tree Star).

#### **Pulmonary macrophage isolation**

The leukocyte population was enriched for macrophages by positive selection using magnetic beads labeled with F4/80 antibody (Stemcell Technologies) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Fungal burden was determined by lysis of the macrophages using sterile deionized water, followed by serial dilution and plating on SDA agar for 48 h at 37°C.

#### Intracellular flow cytometry

For intracellular cytokine staining of T cells, lungs were processed as above and lymphocytes were isolated using a 40/70 Percoll gradient (Sigma). Cells were plated and stimulated for 4 hours with 0.1  $\mu$ L/mL Phorbol 12-Myristate 13-Acetate (PMA) and 1  $\mu$ L/mL calcium ionophore (Ionomycin; BD) in the presence of Brefeldin A (GolgiPlug; BD) for the final three hours. Cells were then washed and blocked with  $\alpha$ -CD16/32 antibodies (93; eBio) and stained with a surface antibody cocktail consisting of  $\alpha$ -CD3-PE-Cy7 (145-2C11; BD),  $\alpha$ -CD4-V450 (GK1.5; eBio),  $\alpha$ -CD8-

PerCP (53-6.7; BD) and  $\alpha$ -CD45-V500 (30-F11; BD). The cells were then fixed, permeabilized, and stained with IL-13-PE-Cyanine7 (eBio13A), IL-5-PE (TRFK5; BL) IFN- $\gamma$  (XMG1.2; BL) and IL-4-APC (11B11; BL). Data were acquired using a FACS LSR-II flow cytometer (BD) and analyzed using Flow Jo software (Tree Star) with gating determined by fluorescence-minus-one (FMO) controls.

#### Total lung cytokine and chemokine production

Mice were euthanized and lungs flushed with 10 mL of ice-cold PBS. Whole lungs were homogenized in 2 mL PBS with Halt Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (Fisher Scientific) using a sterilized glass tube and pestle attached to a mechanical tissue homogenizer (Glas-Col) and spun at 12,000 rpm for 20 minutes. Supernatants were collected and aliquots were stored at -80°C for further analysis. Cytokine and chemokine contents of whole lung protein samples were analyzed using DuoSet ELISA kits (R & D Systems): TNF- $\alpha$  (DY410), IL-6 (DY406), IL-1 $\beta$  (DY401), CCL2/MCP-1 (DY479), IL-12/IL-23P40 (DY2398), IFN- $\gamma$  (DY485), CXCL1/KC (DY453), CCL3/MIP-1 $\alpha$  (DY450), CXCL2/MIP-2 $\alpha$  (DY452), IL-4 (DY404), IL-5 (DY405), IL-13 (DY413) and IL-17A (DY421).

#### **Quantitative PCR**

For lung RNA extraction, 4 mm diameter lung pieces were collected in RNAlater solution ( Life Technologies), homogenized in lysis buffer using a tissue homogenizer (Fisher Scientific) and processed using an RNeasy kit. Using 40 ng of RNA, a reverse transcription reaction was performed using the ABI high capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Life Technologies). Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed with an ABI Prism 7500 Real time PCR system (Life Technologies). Each reaction well contained 10  $\mu$ L TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix (Life Technologies), 5  $\mu$ L RNase-free water (Wisent), 1  $\mu$ L of Taqman probes (Life Technologies) and 40 ng of cDNA template in 4  $\mu$ L of water. The probes used were *IL4* (Mm00445259\_m1), *Arg1* (Mm00475988\_m1), *Retnla/Fizz1* (Mm00445109\_m1), *Nos2* (Mm00440502\_m1) and  $\beta$ -*actin* (Part no. 401846) as a housekeeping gene. Results were calculated using the change-incycling-threshold method (2<sup>- $\Delta\Delta$ Ct</sub>) relative to the expression of  $\beta$ -*actin* and presented as fold induction relative to unstimulated samples.</sup>

### **Determination of serum antibody levels**

Blood was harvested via cardiac puncture and spun down in a gel tube to obtain serum. The concentration of total serum IgE, IgG subclasses, and IgM was determined by ELISA (BL) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

### Statistical analysis

For all experiments the mean and standard error of mean (SEM) are shown. To test the significance of single comparisons, an unpaired Student's t-test was applied (with a threshold P value of <0.05), unless otherwise stated. All statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism software version 5 (GraphPad Software Inc).

### 2.4. Results

# B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice display a decreased fungal burden in the lung, brain, and spleen following *C. neoformans* infection.

To evaluate the influence of the *Cnes2* congenic segment derived from CBA/J mice on *C. neoformans* infection (Figure 2.1A), we first analyzed the pulmonary fungal burden of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* and C57BL/6 mice at weekly intervals after intratracheal infection (Figure 2.1B). Comparable growth of *C. neoformans* was observed at day 7 post-infection in both strains of mice, suggesting that the *Cnes2* congenic segment did not have a marked effect the initial host response to *C. neoformans*. In C57BL/6 mice the cryptococcal load reached a plateau of  $10^7$  CFU at day 14 post-infection and remained stable up to day 35 post-infection. In contrast, a significant reduction in pulmonary fungal burden was observed in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice beginning at day 21 post-infection and was more pronounced at day 35 post-infection (Figure 2.1B). Remarkably, the lung CFU in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice was more than 100-fold lower compared to C57BL/6 mice at day 35 post-infection (Log<sub>10</sub> CFU 4.68 ± 0.20 vs.  $6.87 \pm 0.22$ , p < 0.001) and was similar to the published phenotype of the CBA inbred strain (207). Collectively, these data show that the *Cnes2* congenic interval makes a significant contribution to the control of cryptococcal growth in mouse lungs.

As infection of the brain and other organs is a serious and potentially fatal consequence of pulmonary cryptococcal disease, we also examined whether the *Cnes2* congenic segment derived from CBA/J altered the dissemination rate to these extrapulmonary sites. Analysis of CFU from infected C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice showed a comparable rate of dissemination to the brain at day 7 to day 21 post infection (data not shown); however, at day 35 post-infection B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice demonstrated a trend towards reduction in the rate of brain dissemination (4/12 vs. 6/12; Figure 2.1C) and cerebral fungal burden (Log<sub>10</sub> CFU 1.02  $\pm$  0.44 vs. 1.95  $\pm$  0.59, *p* = 0.22; Figure 2.1C) compared to C57BL/6 mice. Dissemination of *C. neoformans* from the lung to the spleen was also comparable between inbred and congenic strains at day 14 post-infection (data not shown). At day 21 post-infection, all of the C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice had detectable fungal growth in the spleen, however, the CFU values were significantly lower in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* strain compared to C57BL/6 mice (Log<sub>10</sub> CFU 2.29  $\pm$  0.21 vs. 3.00  $\pm$  0.09, *p* < 0.05) and this difference was also observed at day 35 post-infection (Log<sub>10</sub> CFU 1.69  $\pm$  0.32 vs. 2.80  $\pm$  0.07, *p* < 0.05; Figure 2.1C). Therefore, at later time points, B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice have

highly resistant lung phenotype and a reduction of fungal growth in extrapulmonary target organs compared to C57BL/6 mice.

# B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice have an altered pattern of pulmonary inflammation following C. *neoformans* infection.

In order to determine the effect of *Cnes2* on lung pathology after *C. neoformans* challenge, we analyzed tissue sections from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* and C57BL/6 mice at serial time points after infection. Staining with H&E at day 7 and day 14 post-infection demonstrated no clear differences between the two strains (data not shown). At day 35 post-infection, H&E staining revealed diffusely increased inflammatory infiltration in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice compared to C57BL/6 mice (Figure 2.2C, D). Mucicarmine staining of C57BL/6 lungs at day 35 post-infection revealed numerous extracellular *C. neoformans* that were heavily encapsulated (Figure 2.2E) while only a few intracellular cryptococci could be observed in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* lungs (Figure 2.2F). Finally, at day 14 post-infection abundant mucus secretion and goblet cell metaplasia were observed in the airways of C57BL/6 mice (Figure 2.2A) but were notably absent from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* airways (Figure 2.2B). Collectively, the lung histology demonstrates that B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice have enhanced leukocyte recruitment and diminished signs of type 2 airway inflammation that is associated with markedly fewer extracellular cryptococci at day 35 post-infection.

# Differential mucosal inflammatory response of C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice following *C. neoformans* infection

To determine if the enhanced fungal clearance was associated with an altered mucosal inflammatory response, leukocytes in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) of C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice were enumerated at day 3, 7, 14, and 21 post-infection. Comparison of both strains showed a similar increase in the total number of leukocytes from day 3 to day 14 and a similar decline at day 21 (Figure 2.3A). Differential staining showed that B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice had a significantly higher number of BALF macrophages at day 21 post-infection relative to the C57BL/6 strain (Figure 2.3B). Furthermore, B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice exhibited a significantly higher

number of neutrophils at day 7 and day 14 post-infection (Figure 2.3C) while C57BL/6 mice had a significant higher number of eosinophils at day 14 and day 21 (Figure 2.3D).

# *Cnes2* regulates pulmonary cytokine and chemokine expression following *C. neoformans* challenge

Several studies have shown that susceptible C57BL/6 mice develop a Th2 pattern of adaptive immunity following C. neoformans infection while resistant CBA/J mice mount a Th1 response associated with classical macrophage activation that is crucial for fungal clearance (152, 166, 301, 302). Therefore, we sought to determine if B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice display a heritable tendency towards Th1 or Th2 immune polarization following C. neoformans infection. Accordingly, we quantified the expression of pro-inflammatory mediators (IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$ ), Th1-type cytokines (IL-12 and IFN- $\gamma$ ), chemokines (KC, MIP-1 $\alpha$ , and MIP-2 $\alpha$ ) and Th2-type cytokines (IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13) in total lung homogenates of C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice after cryptococcal challenge. At day 3 post-infection, there were no significant differences in the expression of these mediators between the two strains; however, at day 7 and day 14 the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, and TNF- $\alpha$ ) was significantly higher in B6.CBA-Cnes2 compared to C57BL/6 mice (Figure 2.4A and data not shown). At day 14 post-infection a significantly higher expression of both Th1-associated cytokines (IL-12 and IFN-γ) (Figure 2.4B) and chemokines (KC, MIP-1 $\alpha$ , and MIP-2 $\alpha$ ) (Figure 2.4C) as well as a significantly lower expression of Th2-associated cytokines (IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13) (Figure 2.4D) was detected in lung homogenates of B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice compared to C57BL/6 mice. Pulmonary expression of IL-17A did not differ between the resistant B6.CBA-Cnes2 and the susceptible C57BL/6 mice at day 14 post-infection (Figure 2.4B). Taken together, these findings demonstrate that the Cnes2 congenic interval regulates the expression of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines that are associated with the development of a Th1-associated pattern of adaptive immunity following C. neoformans infection.

# *B6.CBA-Cnes2* mice exhibit increased recruitment of neutrophils, exudate macrophages and dendritic cells to the lung during *C. neoformans* infection

To characterize the effect of *Cnes2* congenic interval on the cellular immune response during *C*. neoformans infection, flow cytometry analysis of whole-lung digests was performed on C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice at serial time points. Comparison of uninfected C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice showed relatively few inflammatory cells in the lungs with no significant differences between the strains (Figure 2.5E-H, day 0). The total number of resident AM (identified as autofluorescent CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>-</sup>MHCII<sup>low</sup> cells) was also comparable between C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice prior to infection and at all time points post-infection (data not shown). Quantification of CD11b<sup>+</sup>Ly6G<sup>+</sup> neutrophils (Figure 2.5A) showed a significant increase in B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice relative to C57BL/6 at day 7 and day 14 after C. neoformans infection with an equivalent reduction in both strains at day 21 and day 28 (Figure 2.5E). In contrast, C57BL/6 mice had a significantly greater number of CD11b<sup>+</sup>SSC<sup>high</sup> eosinophils (Figure 2.5B) in the lung at day 7 compared to B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice and this strain-dependent difference was sustained up to day 28 postinfection (Figure 2.5F). Inflammatory monocyte-derived CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup> macrophages, otherwise referred to as ExM, and inflammatory DC are both recruited to the mouse lung following C. neoformans infection and have crucial roles in pathogen elimination and antigen presentation (142, 296). These two myeloid cell populations may be distinguished by flow cytometry since ExM are inherently autofluorescent and have intermediate surface expression of MHCII while inflammatory DC lack autofluorescence and express high levels of MHCII (296, 303). Compared to C57BL/6 mice, the B6.CBA-Cnes2 strain had a significantly higher number of lung ExM at day 21 and day 28 post-infection. In addition, B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice had a higher number of lung inflammatory DC compared to C57BL/6 mice at day 14 post-infection and this difference was sustained up to day 28 post-infection. Taken together, these findings indicate that the Cnes2 congenic segment has a significant effect on lung recruitment of inflammatory myeloid cell subsets after C. neoformans infection including ExM and DC that are both crucial to cryptococcal clearance. In contrast, C57BL/6 lungs are characterized by the development of a persistent eosinophilia that is associated with an inability to clear cryptococcal infection (152, 167).

# Exudate macrophages and inflammatory DC from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice display enhanced activation and effector phenotypes following *C. neoformans* infection

To determine the activation status of CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup> macrophage and DC populations that had been recruited to the site of cryptococcal infection, comparative flow cytometry analysis of isolated lung cell preparations from C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice was performed at day 21 post-infection. After gating on CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup> macrophage and DC populations, the surface expression of costimulatory molecules (CD40, CD80, and CD86) was determined by analysis of fluorescence intensity plots (Figure 2.6A). Consistent with a robust Th1 response, B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice developed higher surface expression of the CD40 and CD80 maturation markers, with similar expression of CD86, compared to C57BL/6 mice (Figure 2.6B). To evaluate the pattern of pulmonary macrophage polarization in infected C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice, the expression of the classical activation marker nitric oxide synthase (Nos2) and the alternative activation markers arginase-1 (Arg1) and found in inflammatory zone-1 (Fizz1) was compared by quantitative reverse transcription PCR analysis. At day 14 post-infection, significantly higher induction of Fizz1 and a trend towards higher Arg1 expression was observed in C57BL/6 relative to B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice; in contrast, a significantly greater expression of Nos2 was observed in B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice compared to C57BL/6 (Figure 2.6C). To characterize the antifungal activity of macrophages at the primary site of C. *neoformans* infection,  $F4/80^+$  cells were isolated from the lungs of C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice by positive selection using antibody labeled magnetic beads at day 21 post-infection and subsequently lysed for determination of fungal burden. Interestingly, a significantly lower growth of cryptococci was observed in macrophage lysates derived from B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice compared to the lysates derived from C57BL/6 mice (Figure 2.6D).

# **B6.CBA-***Cnes2* mice have an increased number of lung CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells following *C*. *neoformans* infection

As lymphocytes are necessary for effective clearance of *C. neoformans*, we sought to compare Band T-cell populations in the lungs of infected C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice. No differences in the number of pulmonary B cells were observed between the two strains at any time point postinfection (data not shown). Conversely, B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice showed a higher number of pulmonary CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes relative to C57BL/6 at day 21 and day 28 post-infection (Figure 2.7A). No difference in the frequency or absolute number of lung CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was observed between the two strains at day 21 post-infection; however, B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice had a significant increase in this population at day 28 post-infection (Figure 2.7B). Expression of the surface markers CD25 and CD44 (for activated/memory T cells), CD69 (for early activation) and CD62L (for naive T cells) at day 21 post-infection was similar between B6.CBA-*Cnes2* and C57BL/6 mice (Figure 2.7C).

# Pulmonary CD4+ T cells from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice show diminished Th2 cytokine production in response to *C. neoformans* infection

Analysis of whole lung lysates from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* and C57BL/6 mice showed significant differences in the expression of Th1- and Th2-associated cytokines during *C. neoformans* infection (Figure 2.4). To determine whether altered T-cell polarization could explain this difference, analysis of cytokine production by CD4<sup>+</sup> cells was performed at day 21 post-infection. Single-cell suspensions from infected C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* lungs were restimulated with PMA and ionomycin to increase cytokine production and stained for intracellular IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13. B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice had a significantly lower frequency of IL-4<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup>, IL-5<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup>, and IL-13<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup> cells compared to C57BL/6, while the frequency of IFN- $\gamma$ <sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup> cells was comparable between the two strains (Figure 2.8B).

# B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice have a selective increase of serum IgG<sub>3</sub> antibody following C. *neoformans* infection

To determine whether B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice develop an altered humoral response to *C*. *neoformans*, the total serum IgM, IgE, and IgG subclasses was determined at day 21 post-infection. The level of IgG<sub>3</sub> was significantly increased in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice compared to C57BL/6 while the level of all other antibodies was comparable between the two strains (Figure 2.9).

#### 2.5. Discussion

The host genetic factors that underpin natural susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection are poorly characterized (304). A precise understanding of the molecular and cellular mechanisms of protective immunity against this invasive fungal pathogen would advance the understanding of disease pathogenesis and could also be valuable for the development of prevention strategies as well as prediction of disease risk and response to therapy. Previous studies using a well-established model of intratracheal infection with *C. neoformans* 52D demonstrated that C57BL/6 mice developed a lung fungal load that was over 1000 times greater than that of CBA/J mice at day 35 post-infection (152). The wide spectrum of naturally occurring resistance was subsequently demonstrated for a panel of 10 inbred mouse strains (253). Further analysis showed that susceptibility to progressive fungal infection in C57BL/6 mice was associated with lung eosinophilia and a Th2-biased adaptive immune response while resistance in CBA/J mice was characterized by Th1-mediated immunity (152, 207). Forward genetic analysis of this strain combination demonstrated that host resistance segregated as a complex trait that was regulated by three significant *C. neoformans* susceptibility loci (*Cnes1*, *Cnes2*, *Cnes3*) (207).

To determine whether the *Cnes* loci that segregate between C57BL/6 and CBA/J mice have an autonomous biological effect on resistance against pulmonary cryptococcal infection, we have generated interval specific congenic mouse strains by introgression of each of the linked chromosomal regions from resistant CBA/J mice onto the susceptible C57BL/6 genetic background. The *Cnes2* QTL was prioritized for further analysis based on a highly significant peak LOD score of 7.30 that was estimated to explain 15.9% of the overall phenotypic variance in lung fungal burden among female mice. Comprehensive phenotypic and functional analysis of the host response clearly demonstrates that the B6.CBA-*Cnes2* congenic strain is highly resistant to cryptococcal infection and mounts a robust immune response that resembles the parental CBA/J phenotype. Nonetheless, comparison of the predicted effects of *Cnes2* locus and the observed phenotype of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* was equally evident in both males and females in the current study. Second, at 35 days post-infection the marked reduction in lung fungal burden of this congenic strain was similar to that of resistant inbred CBA/J mice that encodes the *Cnes1*, *Cnes2*, *and Cnes3* QTLs. These two interesting observations are not entirely surprising, since the penetrance and

phenotypic effects of a donor strain congenic interval may be influenced by complex interactions with the recipient genetic background (305). Accordingly, both the presence of an extremely resistant phenotype and its expression in female as well as male B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice may be attributable to the absence of interacting or epistatic factors from the CBA/J background that suppress *Cnes2* function in males, or the presence of *Cnes2* modifier genes in the C57BL/6 background (306).

It is interesting to note that pulmonary growth and organ dissemination of *C. neoformans* was comparable between C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice during the early phase of infection. This contrasts with later time points when B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice had significantly diminished growth of *C. neoformans* in the lungs and spleen as well as a trend towards reduced growth in the brain. Clinical observations and experimental data have shown that uncontrolled infection of the respiratory tract precedes the development of disseminated infection and/or meningitis. The mechanisms by which *C. neoformans* reaches and actually enters the brain following its escape from the lung are complex and not fully understood; these include intravascular trapping followed by paracellular or transcellular migration or transmigration within circulating phagocytes (307). The data presented here suggest that *Cnes2* restricts progressive infection by enhancing the pulmonary and systemic immune response. Despite the recognized pattern of disease progression, control of cryptococcal growth in the lung does not always correlate with reduced brain dissemination, as was observed in IL-4/IL-13 knockout mice that mounted an effective Th1/Th17 pulmonary immune response but were not protected against cryptococcal meningitis (294).

The host mounts a highly complex immune response to cryptococcal infection that begins with phagocytosis by resident AM (308, 309). Subsequent production of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines leads to recruitment of activated ExM and antigen-presenting DC that facilitate the selection, activation, and differentiation of  $CD4^+$  T cells. A variety of other cell types including granulocytes, innate lymphoid cells, and B cells have also been implicated in the host response to *C. neoformans* (286). To gain insight into the mechanisms that underlie the protective effects of the *Cnes2* interval on host defense, we performed a comparative analysis of inflammatory mediator expression and immune cell recruitment, activation, and differentiation during the course of pulmonary cryptococcal infection between C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice.

Analysis of bronchoalveolar lavage and whole lung cell preparations showed that B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice have fewer eosinophils and more neutrophils compared to C57BL/6 at day 7 post-infection with the greatest strain difference at day 14. C57BL/6 mice continued to have significantly more lung eosinophils at day 28; however no differences were observed in neutrophil numbers after day 14. Following intratracheal C. neoformans infection, genetically susceptible C57BL/6 mice were shown to have marked IL-5 dependent eosinophil recruitment that was associated with crystal deposition and airway epithelial damage (152). Eosinophils were also shown to produce IL-4 that promotes Th2 responses and contributes to immunopathology during pulmonary cryptococcal infection (153). Conversely, despite the ability to internalize and kill C. neoformans in vitro (146, 310), there is relatively little evidence that neutrophils contribute to protective host defense. In one study, antibody-mediated neutrophil depletion was associated with higher levels of Th1- and Th2associated cytokines and prolonged survival after pulmonary infection (148). A more recent report showed that neutrophil depletion was dispensable for fungal clearance and was associated with higher levels of production of IL-17A production by  $\gamma\delta^+$  T cells (147). Thus, it is possible that the reduction in pulmonary eosinophils, rather than the transient increase in neutrophil recruitment, may contribute to the resistant phenotype of in B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice.

Non-resident ExM are derived from circulating Ly- $6C^{high}$  monocytes in a CCR2-dependent manner. These CD11b<sup>+</sup> cells have a classical activation phenotype and are highly fungicidal compared to AM (296). In addition, DC are considered to be primary antigen presenting cells and have been shown to promote T cell proliferation and activation during cryptococcal infection (128, 129, 141). At day 21 post-infection, the number of DC and ExM was higher in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* lungs compared to C57BL/6 mice and both of these myeloid cell subsets showed higher expression of the surface activation markers CD40 and CD80. Comparative analysis of lung macrophage polarization at day 14 showed significantly higher expression of the classical activation marker *Nos2* in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice, while C57BL/6 exhibited a significant increase in *Fizz1* expression and a trend towards higher *Arg1* expression. *Ex vivo* analysis at day 21 post-infection also showed a significant reduction of viable cryptococci in isolated lung macrophages from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice directly contribute to improved host defense; however, it is likely that several distinct myeloid and lymphoid cell populations are collectively responsible for the overall reduction in whole lung CFU at this time point. Nevertheless, compared to C57BL/6, the resistant

phenotype of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice can be attributed, at least in part, to its positive influence on the recruitment, activation, and polarization of monocyte-derived macrophages. These results are also consistent with other studies demonstrating that increased recruitment of classical activated lung ExMs correlates with improved fungal clearance and a reduction in fungal dissemination (269, 270, 296, 297, 311, 312).

Following C. neoformans infection it has been shown that early cytokine signals produced by innate cells such as resident AM are crucial to the development of effective adaptive immune responses (313). Specifically, a Th1/Th17 cytokine profile is shown to activate macrophage anticryptococcal activities while a Th2 profile is associated with cryptococcal dissemination and host damage (113, 116, 166, 297). Comparison of lung cytokine and chemokine profiles showed that the B6.CBA-*Cnes2* strain had higher expression of pro-inflammatory mediators (IL-6, IL-1 $\beta$ , and TNF- $\alpha$ ) compared to C57BL/6 mice at day 7 and day 14 post-infection. B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice also expressed higher levels of Th1-associated cytokines (IFN-γ and IL-12) and chemokines (KC, MIP-1 $\alpha$ , and MIP-2 $\alpha$ ) compared to the C57BL/6 strain at day 14 post-infection. Both CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells produce pro-inflammatory cytokines in response to cryptococcal exposure (314). Compared to C57BL/6, the lungs of B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice also contained a greater number of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells at day 21 and day 28 post-infection and higher number of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells at day 28 postinfection. Intracellular staining at day 14 and day 21 post-infection also showed that CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in C57BL/6 lungs produced significantly higher Th2-associated cytokines (IL-4, IL-5 and IL-13) compared to those in B6.CBA-Cnes2 lungs. No significant difference in the frequency of IFN- $\gamma^+$ CD4 T cells was observed between two strains nor was there any difference in the number of B cells between the two strains (data not shown). Accordingly, it appears that Cnes2 congenic interval regulates the number and function of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells but does not significantly affect total B cell accumulation in the lungs of mice that have been infected with C. neoformans 52D. The current observations do not exclude a functional role for B lymphocytes in cryptococcal host defense since previous studies have shown an association between B cell responses and fungal clearance (187, 191). In fact, quantification of serum antibody levels at day 21 post-infection showed a selective increase in the level of IgG<sub>3</sub> in B6.CBA-Cnes2 compared to C57BL/6 mice. Although the mechanism of antibody-mediated protection against C. neoformans is extremely complex, this observation is consistent with a previous report showing a protective effect of a IgG<sub>3</sub> monoclonal antibody against glucuronoxylomannan in C57BL/6 x 129/Sv mice (315). Despite the fact that IgE antibody levels generally reflect the balance between Th1 and Th2 responses, the equivalent serum levels between C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice was not unexpected since the CBA/J inbred strain does not regulate this isotype during *C. neoformans* infection (316).

Taken together, the data presented in this report demonstrates pleiotropic effects of the *Cnes2* locus on the host immune response to pulmonary *C. neoformans* infection. Although the exact regulatory mechanisms remain to be defined, based on the observation that the phenotypic differences between B6.CBA-*Cnes2* and C57BL/6 mice are most evident between day 7 and day 21 post-infection, we hypothesize that the underlying genetic factors encoded by the *Cnes2* locus function during the afferent phase of the host response. We speculate that the enhanced recruitment of ExM and DC may arise from key differences in the inflammatory microenvironment of the infected lung and that these activated myeloid cell subsets may directly facilitate cryptococcal clearance while promoting lymphocyte polarization to a sterilizing Th1 pattern (111).

The Cnes2 region spans 31.1 Mb of mouse chromosome 17 and contains 482 annotated protein coding genes. A comparative analysis of the C57BL/6 and CBA/J mouse genome sequences indicates that 128 of these genes contain either a non-synonymous single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the protein coding region, a stop codon variation, or a splice-site SNP. There are several genes with a clearly recognized role in the immune response including tumor necrosis factor (*Tnf*), lymphocyte antigen 6 complex (Lv6g), chemokine C-C motif receptor 6 (Ccr6), complement factor B (*Cfb*), lymphotoxin A and B (*Lta*, *Ltb*), peptidoglycan recognition protein 2 (*Pglyrp2*), formyl peptide receptor 1 (Fpr1); however, none of these have a difference in the predicted protein sequence between C57BL/6 and CBA/J. It is possible that the *Cnes2* interval contains one or more regulatory variants that affect the level or pattern of gene expression and modulate immune function (317). Well-known mechanisms of transcriptional regulation include non-coding DNA variation within cis-regulatory elements such as proximal promoters and distal enhancers or expression of a variety of non-coding RNA species (318, 319). Regulatory variants have a diverse mode of action and may act locally or at a distance to modulate a range of epigenetic processes, often in a highly context-specific manner (320). Such complexity makes functional characterization of regulatory variants a challenging pursuit; nevertheless, indirect evidence for their role in differential C. neoformans susceptibility could be obtained by comparative gene

expression analysis at serial time points following infection in purified C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 lung cell populations that have been implicated in host defense by this study. Genes with a significantly different spatial/temporal pattern or level of expression could provide an entry point for identification of causal regulatory variants and their mechanism of action through further molecular experimentation. The mouse major histocompatibility complex (H-2) is a highly polymorphic region that encodes molecules responsible for antigen presentation, and a portion of this complex is located at the telomeric end of the Cnes2 congenic interval (207). Using a panel of congenic mice the  $H-2^{k/k}$  haplotype was associated with susceptibility to intraperitoneal cryptococcal infection; however, this route of infection does not necessarily reflect the pulmonary host response and the role of genes that are linked to the H-2 complex could not be excluded in this study (250). The peak LOD score position of the Cnes2 locus is approximately 20Mb proximal to the H-2 (290) and suggests that the causative genes are not located in this complex; nevertheless, it is theoretically possible that polymorphic sequences encoded at the distal end of the congenic CBA/J segment could contribute to the resistant phenotype of B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice. Thus, it is clear that further studies, including the creation of B6.CBA-Cnes2 sub-congenic mice, will be required to identify the strongest candidate genes for host resistance to progressive cryptococcal infection.

## Figures

Figure 2.1: The *Cnes2* chromosomal interval restricts *C. neoformans* pulmonary infection and dissemination to the brain and spleen. (A) Schematic representation of the *Cnes2* congenic interval on chromosome 17 flanked by marker rs13460774 (3.4Mb) and marker 13482963 (35.5Mb). C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice were infected intratracheally with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D and fungal burden in the (B) lungs at 7, 14, 21, and 35 dpi and (C) brain and spleen at 35 dpi was determined by plating tissue homogenates on Sabouraud dextrose agar. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM with n = 6–8 mice/group and are representative of two independent experiments. \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001, using an unpaired Student's t-test (B) and Mann–Whitney U test (C).



Figure 2.2: B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice develop an altered pattern of pulmonary inflammation following C. neoformans infection. C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice were infected with  $10^4$  CFU of C. neoformans 52D. At 35 dpi lungs were fixed, excised, embedded in paraffin, and stained with PAS (A and B), H&E (C and D), or mucicarmine (E&F). The airway epithelial mucus stains red with PAS. The cryptococcal cell wall stains red with mucicarmine. Each image is representative of n=3 mice/group.



Figure 2.3: Increased airway neutrophilia, decreased eosinophilia, and enhanced macrophage accumulation in C57BL/6.CBA-Cnes2 airways following C. neoformans infection. Airway leukocytes were isolated by bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) from C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice at 3, 7, 14, and 21 dpi following intratracheal infection with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of C. neoformans 52D and the total cell number was determined by a Z1 particle counter (A). Leukocyte subsets were identified by Diff-Quik staining of BALF cell suspensions on cytospin slides and the absolute number of cells for each leukocyte subset (B-D) was determined by multiplying the percentage of each cell type by the total number of leukocytes. n = 4-6 mice/strain/time point; \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p <0.001.



Figure 2.4: B6.CBA-*Cnes2* lungs have a heightened inflammatory response to *C. neoformans* infection characterized by increased expression of Th1 cytokines and chemokines. Whole lung protein was collected at 7 (A) or 14 (B-D) dpi with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D. ELISA was performed to determine the level of (A) pro-inflammatory mediators, (B) Th1/Th17-type cytokines, (C) chemokines, and (D) Th2-type cytokines. The expression of lung IL-4 mRNA was determined by quantitative RT-PCR (E). Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM with n = 4-6 mice per group and are representative of two independent experiments. \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 using an unpaired Student's t-test.



Figure 2.5: B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice display greater accumulation of neutrophils, exudate macrophages, and CD11b<sup>+</sup> dendritic cells in the lungs following *C. neoformans* infection. Lung cell suspensions from infected C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice were stained with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry as described in Materials and Methods. The gating strategy for (A) neutrophils (CD11b<sup>+</sup>Ly6G<sup>+</sup>), (B) eosinophils (CD11b<sup>+</sup>SSC<sup>hi</sup>), (C) ExM (autofluorescence<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup>) and (D) DC (autofluorescence<sup>-</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup>) at 14 dpi is shown. Absolute numbers of neutrophils, eosinophils, ExM, and DC in the lung at 0, 7, 14, 21, and 28 dpi are displayed (E-H). Values represent the mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 4-6 mice/group/time point). Data were pooled from two independent experiments. \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001, using an unpaired Student's t-test.





Figure 2.6: Pulmonary macrophages and dendritic cells of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice develop a stronger classical activation phenotype in response to *C. neoformans* infection. (A) The surface expression of costimulatory molecules by ExM (autofluorescence<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>) and pulmonary DC (autofluorescence<sup>-</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>) were analyzed at 21 dpi using flow cytometry. C57BL/6, gray filled lines; B6.CBA-*Cnes2*, white filled solid lines; uninfected mice, dashed lines. (B) The bar graph displays the mean fluorescence intensity of positive cells derived from total CD11c<sup>+</sup> CD11b<sup>+</sup> macrophages and DC (C) The expression of classical (*Nos2*) and alternative (*Arg1, Fizz1*) activation markers by total adherent pulmonary macrophages was evaluated by qRT-PCR at 14 dpi. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 4-6 mice). (D) Macrophages were isolated from the lungs of C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice at 21 dpi and intracellular cryptococci enumerated. Data were pooled from two independent experiments. \*p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001, using an unpaired Student's t-test.



Figure 2.7: The lungs of B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice contain a greater number of T lymphocytes during the adaptive immune response against *C. neoformans*. Lung cell suspensions from infected mice were stained with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry as described in Materials and Methods. (A, B) The total number of CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> cells in the lungs at 0, 7, 14, 21, and 28 dpi is shown. (C) Surface expression of effecter (CD44), early activation (CD69), and naïve (CD62L) markers on CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> cells are displayed at 21 dpi; C57BL/6, gray filled dashed lines; B6.CBA-*Cnes2*, white filled solid lines. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 4-6 mice/group). Data were pooled from two independent experiments. \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, using an unpaired Student's t-test.



Figure 2.8: Decreased Th2 type cytokine expression by CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells from B6.CBA-*Cnes2* lungs infected with *C. neoformans*. (A) Representative flow cytometry plots of lung lymphocytes from individual mice harvested at 21 dpi and restimulated with PMA/ionomycin followed by intracellular staining for IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13. Numbers shown are the percentage of cells in each gate relative to total cells in each plot and are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM with n = 4-6 mice/group. (B) The frequency of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells expressing IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 per mouse at 21 dpi is shown. Values represent means  $\pm$  SEM with n = 4-6 mice. Data were pooled from two independent experiments. \*p < 0.05, using an unpaired Student's t-test.




Figure 2.9: Characterization of serum antibody responses following *C. neoformans* infection of C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice. The level of total IgE, IgG subclasses, and IgM is shown at 21 dpi. Data were pooled from two independent experiments. \*p < 0.05, using an unpaired Student's t-test.



### Supplementary Figure 2.1. Breeding strategy for congenic mice.

A) Schematic representation of the sequential backcrossing of CBA/J donor alleles (in white) onto the C57BL/6 recipient background (in black). At each generation, the genomic DNA of at least 2 males was sent for a low density genome scan. The male with the best background percentage was selected for the next generation. B) Time course required to obtain 100% B6 background for the B6.CBA-*Cnes2* congenic lines. Each generation required an average of 70 days (21days gestation period and 49 days for maturation of the male). (adapted from www.jax.org)





Supplementary Figure 2.2: Gating strategy used for flow cytometry analysis.

# **Chapter 3**

# Phenotypic analysis of *Cnes2* sub-congenic mice reveals two different intervals associated with resistance to *C. neoformans* infection

## Mitra Shourian,<sup>a,b</sup> Isabelle Angers,<sup>a,b</sup> Salman T. Qureshi<sup>a,b</sup>

Meakins-Christie Laboratories, Department of Medicine and Division of Experimental Medicine, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada<sup>a</sup>

Department of Critical Care and Research Institute of the McGill University Health Centre, Montréal, Québec, Canada<sup>b</sup>

## **Preface to Chapter 3**

Using genome-wide linkage analysis between susceptible C57BL/6N and resistant CBA/J mouse strains and lung fungal burden as a quantitative trait, we previously identified a significant association between the *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 and susceptibility to progressive *C. neoformans* 52D infection. Subsequently, to confirm the biological role of this QTL, we created a unique interval specific congenic mouse strain by transferring the *Cnes2* locus from CBA/J to the C57BL/6N background by repeated backcrossing. We then characterized the immune response of *Cnes2* mice following cryptococcal infection at different time intervals. Analysis of lung fungal burden, cell infiltration, cytokine/chemokine expression, and histopathology confirmed a strong and pleiotropic effect of the *Cnes2* locus on host susceptibility to cryptococcal infection (321). The *Cnes2* locus spans 31.1 Mb of mouse chromosome 17 and contains 482 annotated protein-coding genes which poses a challenge for identification of the causal candidate genes and variants that regulate host resistance. In this chapter, we aimed to reduce the complexity of the *Cnes2* interval by further development and characterization of sub-congenic strains.

#### **3.1.** Abstract

With the goal of definitively identifying the underlying susceptibility genes encoded within the Cnes2 locus that regulate the host response to C. neoformans infection, we generated four subcongenic strains (Cnes2.1-Cnes2.4) that contain overlapping CBA donor regions on a C57BL/6N background. Phenotypic analysis of fungal burden and cell recruitment allowed us to reduce the size of underlying QTL to 20 Mb by elimination of 17.5 Mb from the centromeric portion of the Cnes2 interval, as the presence of this segment did not confer any significant differences in host resistance compared to control C57BL/6N mice. In addition, we found that two separate chromosomal intervals, Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4, independently regulate lung fungal burden and cell recruitment at day 35 post-infection with C. neoformans (Log<sub>10</sub>:  $6.520 \pm 0.088$  in C57BL/6N vs  $5.796 \pm 0.081$ , p<0.0001 in Cnes2.2 and  $5.434 \pm 0.121$ , p<0.0001 in Cnes2.4). Flow cytometry analysis demonstrated that the total number of CD45<sup>+</sup> cells was higher in both sub-congenic strains at day 21 post-infection. At this timepoint the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 subcongenic strains both showed significantly higher lung DCs and ExMs compared to control mice. In Cnes2.4 mice ExMs and DCs expressing the M1 phenotype (iNOS<sup>+</sup>) were significantly higher compared to control mice. Furthermore, Cnes2.4 mice showed significantly higher numbers of neutrophils and CD4<sup>+</sup> cells compared to control mice. Surprisingly, we observed that the Cnes2.4 strain had a 30% mortality by day 35 post-infection despite a significantly lower fungal burden in the lung at 21 and 35 days post-infection. Taken together, these data indicate that Cnes2 locus harbors at least two distinct intervals that regulate susceptibility to C. neoformans infection. To complement the functional data, we conducted an extensive in silico analysis using publicly available genome browsers. Based on the identification of single nucleotide polymorphisms within conserved protein coding regions or exon splice sites that are predicted to have a deleterious functional consequence, we identified 2 protein coding genes within Cnes2.2 (Fpr3 and Fpr-rs4) and 10 protein coding genes within Cnes2.4 (Notch3, Ager, H2-Ab1, Myo1f, Ubash3a, Tap1, H2-Eb1, H2-Oa, C5b and *Lst1*) as plausible candidates. This data provides a foundation for further detailed investigation of the causative genes and variants that mediate host resistance to cryptococcal infection.

### **3.2. Introduction**

Based on recent data, infection with Cryptococcus sp. represents the most prevalent lifethreatening fungal infection in the world, killing up to 600000 individuals each year, mainly in Sab-Saharan Africa (9, 15). Although cryptococcosis occurs mainly in immunocompromised patients, up to 20% of cases develop phenotypically normal or non-immunocompromised individuals (14, 28). The incidence of cryptococcosis in immunocompetent individuals, coupled with the fact that not all HIV-infected patients develop the disease, signifies the importance of investigating other risk factors for susceptibility. Such knowledge will improve the ability to predict which populations are predisposed to infection and could facilitate the development of targeted therapeutic interventions. A handful of case reports and cohort studies have investigated the role of human genetic susceptibility to cryptococcal infection (10, 208-210), but very few human population-based studies have directly investigated this issue (227). For example, in HIVnegative individuals, FCyR (FCGR2A, 3A and 3B genes) and mannose-binding lectin (MBL) polymorphisms have been reported to increase susceptibility to cryptococcal infection (222-224). In HIV-infected patients, allelic polymorphisms of FCyRIII were correlated with a 20-fold increased risk of *Cryptococcus sp.* infection in homozygous individuals (226). Conversely, a study in the Papua New Guinean population did not reveal a significant association of HLA genotype with susceptibility to cryptococcal infection (221). These epidemiologic studies are a valuable approach for identifying inherited factors that may influence immunity to infectious diseases but their scope is quite limited.

In most cases, host resistance to infection is recognized to be a highly complex trait under multigenic control (236). Accordingly, comprehensive elucidation of the factors that underlie susceptibility to infection requires several complementary approaches. Forward genetic analysis using mouse models is a powerful and well-established strategy to study the fundamental basis of natural variation in complex phenotypic traits and disease (reviewed in chapter 1). Among the classical inbred strains, C57BL/6 mice are one of the most susceptible, and the CBA/J strain has been reported to be highly resistant, to cryptococcal infection. To model the process of human infection, we have used a direct intratracheal method for administration of *C. neoformans* 52D and conducted genome-wide linkage analysis in a [C57BL/6N X CBA/J] F2 population using lung fungal burden as a complex trait. This analysis revealed two significant Quantitative Trait

Loci (QTL) in the female F2 population: Cnes1 on chromosome 1, and Cnes2 on chromosome 17 (207). To confirm the role of each QTL on host susceptibility, we developed interval-specific congenic mice for Cnes1 and Cnes2 on the C57BL/6 genetic background. As quantification of lung fungal burden reflects the overall outcome of an innate and adaptive immune response, we also measured other phenotypes such as lung cell recruitment and cytokine/chemokine expression following infection to fully elucidate the potential role of each identified QTL on host resistance. Compared to C57BL/6N mice, the B6.CBA-Cnes1 congenic strain had a significantly lower lung fungal burden at 35 days post-infection; however, no significant differences in several inflammatory phenotypes were detected at various time intervals (data not shown). In contrast, transfer of the Cnes2 locus (B6.CBA-Cnes2) was sufficient to reduce fungal burden in the lung by more than 100-fold ( $\log_{10}$  CFU, 4.68± 0.20 versus 6.87± 0.22; p≤ 0.001) compared to the inbred C57BL/6N strain. Further detailed phenotypic analysis of B6.CBA-Cnes2 mice revealed a strong and pleiotropic effect of the Cnes2 segment on host immune response (321). The Cnes2 region spans 31.1 Mb of mouse chromosome 17 and contains 482 annotated protein-coding genes that make it extremely challenging to efficiently identify causal sequences and variants. The aim of the present study was to reduce the complexity of the Cnes2 interval by further development and characterization of sub-congenic strains. Here we report the confinement of the Cnes2 segment to a  $\sim$ 23 Mb interval using a panel of unique sub-congenic strains and have identified two subintervals (Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4) that act separately to confer resistance to infection. Furthermore, we have refined the list of candidate genes by extensive in silico analysis using publicly available genome browsers. Uncovering the causal genes that regulate host susceptibility has the potential to guide the development of new management strategies for human cryptococcal disease.

#### 3.3. Material and Methods

Generation of sub-congenic lines: C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Harlan Laboratories (Indianapolis, IN, USA) and subsequently bred and maintained in our specific-pathogen-free (SPF) facility. The B6.CBA-Cnes2 congenic strain was generated as previously described (16). A series of overlapping sub-congenic strains were created by crossing a homozygous *Cnes2* mouse with C57BL/6 to generate F1 progeny that were intercrossed or backcrossed to C57BL/6 mice. The resulting F2 or N2 mice were genotyped for a series of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the interval to identify recombination events. Mice that showed recombination within the Cnes2 interval were selectively outcrossed to C57BL/6 to generate males and females that were subsequently mated to create homozygous sub-congenic lines for phenotypic analysis. All the known SNPs in the Cnes2 region between the C57BL/6N and CBA/J strains were identified by searching dbSNPs using the MGI online tool (<u>http://www.informatics.jax.org/snp</u>). This list was compared to the list of commercially available Mouse TaqMan Pre-Designed SNP Genotyping Assays from Applied Biosystems (ABI) to select the markers that would be used to genotype the progeny. The SNP markers were genotyped by TaqMan (Life Technologies) using the ABI Prism 7500 real-time PCR system (Life Technologies). A schematic representation of sub-congenic lines (B6.CBA-Cnes2.1 to -Cnes2.4) and the markers used for genotyping are shown in Figure 3.1. All experiments were performed with 7- to 9-week old gender matched mice. All animals were maintained in compliance with the Canadian Council on Animal Care and all experimental protocols were reviewed and approved by the McGill University Animal Care Committee.

#### Cultures of C. neoformans

*C. neoformans* 52D (ATCC 24067) was grown from glycerol stocks and maintained on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) (Becton Dickinson). To prepare an infectious dose, a single colony was suspended in Sabouraud dextrose broth and grown to early stationary phase (48 h) at room temperature on a rotator. The stationary phase culture was then washed with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), counted on a hemacytometer, and diluted to  $2 \times 10^5$  CFU per ml in sterile PBS. The fungal concentration of the experimental dose was confirmed by plating a dilution of the inoculum on SDA and counting the CFU after 72 h of incubation at room temperature.

Intratracheal infection with *C. neoformans*. For intratracheal administration of *C. neoformans*, mice were anesthetized with 150 mg/kg of ketamine (Ayerst Veterinary Laboratories) and 10

mg/kg of xylazine (Bayer) intraperitoneally. A small skin incision was made below the jaw along the trachea, and the underlying glands and smooth muscle were separated. Infection was performed by intratracheal injection of 50 $\mu$ l of sterile PBS containing 10<sup>4</sup> or 10<sup>5</sup> CFU (for survival experiments) of *C. neoformans* through a 22-gauge catheter mounted on a 1ml tuberculin syringe. The incision was closed using the 9-mm EZ clip wound closing kit (Stoelting), and mice were monitored daily following surgery.

**Tissue isolation and CFU assay.** After mice were humanely euthanized with CO<sub>2</sub>, the lungs, spleen, and brain were excised and placed in sterile, ice-cold PBS. The tissues were then homogenized using a glass tube and pestle attached to a mechanical tissue homogenizer (Glas-Col), and plated at various dilutions on Sabouraud dextrose agar. Agar plates were incubated at 37°C for 72 h, and CFU were counted. For survival analyses, mice were inoculated as stated above and monitored twice daily for up to 120 days post-infection.

**Histopathological analysis.** Following euthanasia, lungs were perfused with ice-cold PBS via the right ventricle of the heart. The lungs were inflated to a pressure of 25 cm H<sub>2</sub>O and fixed overnight in 10% buffered formalin acetate (Fisher Scientific). Subsequently lungs were embedded in paraffin, sectioned at 5 $\mu$ m, and stained with hematoxylin-eosin (H&E), periodic acid-Schiff (PAS), or mucicarmine reagents at the Histology Facility of the Goodman Cancer Research Centre (McGill University). Representative photographs of lung sections were taken using a BX51 microscope (Olympus), QICAM Fast 1394 digital charge-coupled device (CCD) camera (QImaging), and Image-Pro Plus software version 7.0.1.658 (Media Cybernetics).

**Flow cytometry.** Lungs were excised using sterile technique and placed in RPMI (Gibco, Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Wisent). Subsequently lungs were minced using surgical blades and incubated with 1 mg/ml collagenase (Sigma) at 37°C for 1 h. Following incubation, lung pieces were passed through a 16-gauge needle and filtered through a 70µm cell strainer (BD). Red blood cells were removed using ACK lysis buffer before the cells were counted using a Beckman Coulter Z1 particle counter. Fc receptors were blocked with the addition of unlabeled anti-CD16/32 antibodies (93; eBioscience [eBio]) and single-cell suspensions were stained with the following fluorescence-conjugated anti-mouse monoclonal antibodies purchased from eBio, BD, and BioLegend (BL): CD45-V500 (30-F11; BD), B220-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) (RA3-6B2; eBio), CD3e-FITC (145-2C11; eBio), CD4-V450 (GK1.5; eBio), CD8-

peridinin chlorophyll protein (PerCP) (53-6.7; BD), CD11b-allophycocyanin(APC)(M1/70; BD),CD11c-FITC(N418; eBio), MHCII-phycoerythrin (PE)-Cy7 (M5/114.15.2; eBio), Ly6G-V450 (clone 1A8; BL), F4/80-PE (clone BM8; eBio), CD86-PE (GL1; eBio), CD40- PerCp/Cy5.5 (3/23; BL), CD80-PE (16-10A1; eBio) (add TFs, iNos, CD206). Non- viable cells were excluded using fixable viability dye eFluor780 reagent (eBio). Data were acquired using a fluorescence-activated cell sorter (FACS) LSR-II flow cytometer (BD) and analyzed using Flow Jo versionX software (TreeStar).

**Intracellular flow cytometry.** For intracellular cytokine staining of T-cells, lungs were processed as described above. Cells were plated and stimulated for 4h with 0.1 μl/ml phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) and 1 μl/ml calcium ionophore (Ionomycin; BD) in the presence of brefeldin A (GolgiPlug; BD) for the final 3h. Cells were then washed, blocked with anti-CD16/32 antibodies (93; eBio), and stained with a surface antibody cocktail consisting of anti-CD3-PE-Cy7 (145-2C11; BD), anti-CD4-V450 (GK1.5; eBio), anti-CD8-PerCP (53-6.7; BD), and anti-CD45-V500 (30- F11; BD). Cells were then fixed, permeabilized, and stained with IL-13-PE-Cyanine7 (eBio13A), IFNγ (XMG1.2; BL), and IL-17-APC (17B7; BL). Data were acquired using a FACS LSR-II flow cytometer (BD) and analyzed using Flow Jo software (TreeStar), with gating determined with fluorescence-minus-one (FMO) controls.

**Statistical analysis.** For all experiments, the mean and standard error of mean (SEM) are shown. To test the significance of single comparisons, an unpaired Student t test was applied (with a threshold P value of  $\leq 0.05$ ), unless otherwise stated. All statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism software version 6 (GraphPad Software Inc.).

#### Candidate gene prioritization in the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 intervals

Initially, a list of all variants including SNPs, indels and SVs with polymorphisms between C57BL/6NJ and CBA/J were acquired from Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute Mouse SNP viewer (<u>https://www.sanger.ac.uk/sanger/Mouse/SnpViewer/rel-1303</u>). Subsequently, reference SNP ID numbers (rs#) in separate lists for SNPs and indels were entered in input form to Variant Effect Predictor (VeP); <u>http://www.ensembl.org/info/docs/tools/vep/index.html</u>. The data from Vep were categorized based on variant impact level (high, moderate, low and modifier) and consequence (missense variant, start/stop lost variant, splice donor/acceptor variant, frameshift variant, synonymous variant, etc.). Variants with high impact and variants with moderate impact and a

deleterious effect (SIFT score  $\leq 0.05$ ) were chosen for further analysis. Finally, protein coding genes affected by deleterious variants were prioritized as candidate genes. The top candidates were chosen based on the expression pattern and functional information acquired from various databases (MGI, NCBI, Genecards, PubMed).

#### 3.4. Results

Generation of sub-congenic mice and fungal burden analysis following C. neoformans infection: Previously we showed that the *Cnes2* locus clearly regulates lung fungal burden and susceptibility to progressive C. neoformans infection (321). To precisely identify the chromosomal segments that encode causative alleles underlying *Cnes2*, a series of four overlapping sub-congenic strains were created, as described in the material and methods section: B6.CBA-Cnes2.1 (Cnes2.1) that spans from 3.4 to 16.2 Mb (length = 17.5 Mb), B6.CBA-Cnes2.2 (Cnes2.2) that spans from 16.2 to 27.6 Mb (length = 11.4 Mb), B6.CBA-Cnes3 (Cnes2.3) that spans from 22.8 to 27.6 Mb (length = 4.8 Mb), and B6.CBA.Cnes2.4 (Cnes2.4) that spans from 27.6 to 35.5 Mb (length = 7.9 mMb) and includes part of H-2 complex (Figure 3.1). In the current study, we first evaluated the homozygous sub-congenic lines for lung fungal burden at 35 days post-infection as this was the phenotypic trait used for QTL mapping in the original study that had been validated in Cnes2 congenic mice (207, 321). To accomplish this, mice were intratracheally infected with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of C. neoformans 52D and lungs, brains and spleens were harvested for CFU enumeration (Figure 3.2). Our results revealed that the Cnes2.1 interval at the centromeric region of Cnes2 has no effect on lung fungal burden. Cnes2.3 mice also showed no meaningful differences in lung CFU compared to C57BL/6; however, Cnes2.2 had a significantly reduced lung fungal burden compared to C57BL/6 mice (log<sub>10</sub> CFU:  $5.79 \pm 0.08$  vs  $6.52 \pm 0.08$ , p<0.0001) (Figure 3.2A). Cnes2.2 also showed a trend towards reduced brain dissemination compared to C57BL/6 mice at day 35 (2/11 vs 6/12 mice,  $\log_{10}$  CFU: 0.7679 ± 0.51 vs 1.954 ± 0.59) (Figure 3.2B). Therefore, by excluding a contribution of the Cnes2.3 segment to host defense, we refined the critical interval for Cnes2.2 from 11.4 Mb to 6.6 Mb. In addition to Cnes2.2, mice with the Cnes2.4 sub-congenic interval also showed a significantly lower lung fungal burden at day 35 post-infection compared to C57BL/6 mice (log<sub>10</sub> CFU:  $5.43 \pm 0.12$  vs  $6.52 \pm 0.08$ , p<0.0001). CFU analysis showed no significant differences in brain fungal load or proportion of mice with brain dissemination between Cnes2.4 and C57BL/6 mice (Figure 3.2B). The fact that individual sub-congenic intervals did not have a significant effect on brain dissemination at 35 days post-infection was not surprising, as the entire Cnes2 interval also did not change the pattern of brain dissemination compared to C57BL/6 mice at this time point (Figure 3.2B). Notably, Cnes2.4 mice had a 30% mortality rate by day 35 post-infection despite having a significantly lower fungal burden in the lungs and spleen (Figure 3.2C, D). No mortality was seen in Cnes2.2 and C57BL/6 mice; however, previously we had also

noticed a 13% mortality rate in *Cnes2* mice at 35 days post-infection (Figure 3.2D) despite having a lower fungal burden in the lungs, brain and spleen (321). To determine whether the observed mortality in *Cnes2.4* mice was associated with impaired pathogen control, we investigated tissue fungal burden at 18 days post-infection, just before the onset of mortality. Interestingly, fungal burden analysis showed significantly fewer CFU in the lungs of the *Cnes2.4* sub-congenic strain compared to C57BL/6 mice (Figure 3.2E). CFU analysis of the brain and spleen showed no significant differences between the two strains, although a higher proportion of *Cnes2.4* mice developed brain dissemination compared to C57BL/6 mice (4/7 vs 2/8 mice) (Figure 3.2F, G).

In summary, using fungal burden analysis we identified the presence of two non-overlapping subcongenic intervals that contribute to the enhanced host resistance phenotype of the *Cnes2* congenic mice: *Cnes2.2* located between 16.2 Mb and 22.8 Mb and *Cnes2.4* that spans 27.6 Mb to 35.5 Mb. Each of these sub-congenic intervals regulates lung fungal burden but does not significantly alter brain dissemination at day 35 post-infection. Interestingly, the enhanced host defense phenotype of *Cnes2.4* sub-congenic mice is associated with an increased mortality rate compared to C57BL/6.

# Flow cytometry analysis of myeloid lung cell recruitment and activation in sub-congenic mice following *C. neoformans* infection

We previously showed that the *Cnes2* congenic interval has a significant effect on lung cell recruitment and activation following *C. neoformans* infection. *Cnes2* congenic mice displayed greater accumulation of neutrophils, exudate macrophages, and CD11b<sup>+</sup> dendritic cells in the lungs following *C. neoformans* infection compared to C57BL/6 mice. In contrast, eosinophils were significantly lower in *Cnes2* congenic compared to control mice. As the myeloid cell difference between congenic *Cnes2* and control mice was mainly seen 14 and 21 days after infection, we decided to analyze the lung cell recruitment pattern in sub-congenic mice at 14 and 21 days post-infection with *C. neoformans* (Figure 3.3 and 3.4). At 14 days post-infection, flow cytometry analysis showed no significant differences in the total number of CD45<sup>+</sup> cells, neutrophils, or eosinophils between the *Cnes2.2* or *Cnes2.4* sub-congenic strains and control mice; however, the *Cnes2.4* strain did show a trend towards a higher number of neutrophils and lower eosinophils compared to C57BL/6 mice. The total number of DCs and ExMs were also similar between both sub-congenic strains and control mice at day 14 post-infection. To evaluate the activation state of

recruited DCs and ExMs, the surface expression of costimulatory molecules (CD40, CD80, CD86) was characterized by flow cytometry. Compared to C57BL/6 controls, DCs from Cnes2.4 subcongenic mice showed a trend towards higher expression of CD80 but not CD40 or CD86. No differences were observed in the expression of costimulatory molecules on ExMs from Cnes2.4 and control mice at day 14 post-infection. No significant differences in lymphocyte recruitment were observed between either sub-congenic strain and control mice except for a higher number of CD8<sup>+</sup> cells in mice. Taken together, these data indicate that there were modest differences in cell recruitment and activation in the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 sub-congenic strains compared to control mice at day 14 post-infection. Similar to Cnes2 mice, both Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 sub-congenic strains had a significantly higher number of CD45<sup>+</sup> cells in the lung compared to C57BL/6 at 21 days post-infection. Specifically, the Cnes2.4 strain had a significantly higher number of lung neutrophils (CD11b<sup>+</sup> Ly6G<sup>+</sup>) while both sub-congenic strains had significantly fewer lung eosinophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup> CD11b<sup>+</sup> Ly6G<sup>-</sup> SSC<sup>hi</sup>). The number of DCs (CD11c<sup>+</sup> CD11b<sup>+</sup> MHCII<sup>+</sup> AF<sup>-</sup>) and ExMs (CD11c<sup>+</sup> CD11b<sup>+</sup> MHCII<sup>+</sup> AF<sup>+</sup>) was also significantly higher in both Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 sub-congenic strains compared to C57BL/6 mice; however, the difference was more prominent for Cnes2.4. By qRT-PCR analysis we previously showed that Cnes2 macrophages express higher classical (M1; Nos2) and lower alternative (M2; Arg1, Fizz1) activation markers compared to control mice. Here we examined the expression of iNOS and CD206 as representative M1 vs M2 markers by flow cytometry (Figure 3.5). Like the Cnes2 congenic strain, the frequency and total number of DCs and ExMs that expressed iNOS (M1 phenotype) was significantly higher in *Cnes2.4* compared to control mice. In contrast, the frequency, but not the total number, of DCs and ExMs that expressed CD206 (M2 phenotype) was significantly lower in both Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 mice. Expression of these markers on AMs was similar among all strains; however, C57BL/6 mice showed a trend towards more CD206-expressing AMs compared to congenic mice at day 21 post-infection.

# Flow cytometry analysis of lymphoid lung cell recruitment and polarization in sub-congenic mice following *C. neoformans* infection

We previously showed that *Cnes2* mice display a significantly higher number of CD4<sup>+</sup> cells at 21 days post-infection. Flow cytometry analysis at 21 days post-infection showed a significantly

higher number of CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> cells in the lungs of *Cnes2.4* mice that resembled the phenotype of *Cnes2* congenic mice (Figure 3.6). PMA/Ionomycin stimulation of leukocytes isolated from infected lungs followed by intracellular cytokine staining showed a significantly higher number of CD4<sup>+</sup>IFN $\gamma^+$  T-cells in *Cnes2.4* compared to control mice; however, there was no difference in the number of Th2 or Th17 cells. Finally, there was also significantly fewer B220<sup>+</sup> cells in *Cnes2.4* compared to control mice strain did not show any significant differences in the lung lymphoid cell populations compared to control mice.

In summary, the flow cytometry analysis revealed increased myeloid cell recruitment in both *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* (DCs and ExMs) and increased lymphoid cell recruitment in *Cnes2.4* mice. No significant alterations in cell recruitment were observed in the *Cnes2.1* or *Cnes2.3* strains that failed to exhibit a reduction in lung fungal burden.

#### Lung histological analysis of sub-congenic mice following C. neoformans infection.

Following infection with *C. neoformans*, histopathological analysis of *Cnes2* lungs showed more inflammation compared to C57BL/6 mice. Here, we analyzed differences in lung histopathology between *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* sub-congenic mice and the C57BL/6 strain at day 35 post-infection (Figure 3.7). Staining with H&E did not show clear differences between *Cnes2.2* and C57BL/6 mice; however, the lungs of *Cnes2.2* mice had slightly more cell infiltration in certain areas. In contrast, the *Cnes2.4* strain showed confluent cellular inflammation throughout most of the lung which resembled *Cnes2* congenic mice. Staining with mucicarmine identified numerous heavily encapsulated extracellular *C. neoformans* organisms in the lung parenchyma and airways of C57BL/6 mice; these findings were consistent with the significant difference in lung fungal burden between these two strains. *Cnes2.2* lung sections also showed less extracellular *C. neoformans* in the tissue compared to control mice, however the difference was not as pronounced as *Cnes2.4* mice. PAS staining did not demonstrate a significant difference in mucus secretion between *Cnes2.2* or *Cnes2.4* sub-congenic and C57BL/6 mice at 35 days post-infection (data not shown).

#### Candidate gene prioritization in the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 intervals

Based on tissue fungal burden and lung cell recruitment/polarization analysis, the host resistance phenotypes in the *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* sub-congenic strains were attributable to non-overlapping 6.6 Mb (16.2 - 22.8) and 7.9 Mb (27.6 - 35.5) segments of *Cnes2* locus (Figure 3.1). According to the mouse genome informatics website (MGI), there are total of 103 genes, including 77 protein coding genes and 23 non-coding RNA genes, in the *Cnes2.2* interval. The *Cnes2.4* interval contains a total of 380 genes, including 228 protein coding genes and 124 non-coding RNA genes. A list of protein coding genes in the *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* intervals with functional or expression annotations that are related to the immune system is summarized in supplementary Table 3-2, respectively. Several QTLs associated with other immune phenotypes and disease susceptibility/resistance have also been mapped to these intervals, suggesting that the underlying genes or variants encoded within *Cnes2.2* and/or *Cnes2.4* may have broad regulatory functions (Supplementary Table 3.3 and 3.4).

The integration of comprehensive bioinformatics resources including public sequence and expression databases with experimental forward genetic data is a powerful way to narrow a QTL interval (322). Identifying the genetic polymorphisms in the region of interest between parental strains used in QTL mapping is a useful approach to find the candidate genes underlying a QTL (323). Thus, to characterize the known genetic variation between resistant CBA/J and susceptible C57BL/6 strains within the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 intervals, we conducted an extensive in silico analysis using publicly available mouse genome databases. A schematic overview of the approach used to find potential candidate genes is shown in Figure 3.8. As described in material and methods, a list of all variants including SNPs, indels and SVs with polymorphisms between C57BL/6NJ and CBA/J was obtained from Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute Mouse SNP viewer. No major structural variants were found in the Cnes2.2 or Cnes2.4 regions. All reference (rs) SNPs were stratified and filtered according to their predicted functional consequence and location using Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor (VeP). The VeP determines the effect of any variants (SNPs, insertions, deletions, copy number structural variants) on genes, transcripts, and protein sequence, as well as regulatory regions. Based on the VeP analysis, among a total of 12140 uploaded SNPs in the Cnes2.2 interval (including intronic and intergenic variants), 8677 were transcript and 399 were regulatory feature variants. In the Cnes2.4 interval, among a total of 155767 uploaded SNPs,

146798 were transcript and 6034 were regulatory feature variants. A summary of the VeP analysis for *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* variants (SNPs and indels) is shown in supplementary Figure 3.2.

As determined by Ensembl, variants are categorized into four groups based on severity of the predicted consequence: High, Moderate, Low and Modifier. High impact variants are expected to have a disruptive impact on the protein structure or function and include splice acceptor/donor, stop gained/lost, start lost, transcript amplification/ablation and frameshift variants. Moderate impact variants are non-disruptive variants that might alter protein function and include in-frame insertion/deletion and missense variants. For missense mutations, the SIFT algorithm predicts whether the amino acid substitution is damaging to the protein structure; a score of >0.05 is considered tolerated and a score of  $\leq 0.05$  is deleterious (324).

A list of variants with high and moderate impact in *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* and their affected genes is shown in supplementary Table 3.5 and 3.6, respectively. Moderate impact variants with a SIFT score lower than or equal to 0.05 are highlighted as variants with deleterious effect. In summary, the candidate gene analysis indicated that the *Cnes2.2* interval contains 3 high impact variants (stop gained) in 3 genes and 12 missense variants with deleterious effect in a total of 12 genes (supplementary Table 3.5A). In addition, there are 2 high impact indels affecting 2 genes, and 1 in-frame deletion in the *Cnes2.2* interval (supplementary Table 3.5B). Among a total of 14 protein coding genes that are affected by these variants, 2 could be considered as top candidate genes based on their annotated expression and function: *Fpr3* and *Fpr-rs4* (Table 3.1 and Table 3.3)

The *Cnes2.4* interval contains 10 variants with high impact (among 10 genes) and 46 missense variants with a deleterious effect (among 31 genes). In addition, it has 3 indels (among 3 genes) with high impact (splice acceptor and frameshift) and 5 in-frame deletion variants (among 4 genes) (supplementary Table 3.6). In total, 36 protein coding genes were affected by these variants of which 10 could be considered as top candidate genes based on their expression pattern and predicted function related to the immune system: *Notch3*, Ager, *H2-Ab1*, *Myo1f*, *Ubash3a*, *Tap1*, *H2-Eb1*, *H2-Oa*, *C5b* and *Lst1* (Table 3.2 and Table 3.3).

#### **3.5.** Discussion

We previously associated the *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 with susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection (321). Since the chromosomal region spanned by this locus was extremely broad (3.4-35.5 Mb; 611 protein coding genes) and not easily amenable to focused candidate gene analysis, in this study we narrowed the *Cnes2* interval by developing and analyzing sub-congenic mouse strains. The sub congenic lines were created by backcrossing *Cnes2* mice to the C57BL/6J background with marker-assisted selection of *Cnes2* sub-intervals for 7 generations. Four homozygous sub-congenic lines were phenotypically analyzed following *C. neoformans* infection. Compared to C57BL/6J mice we didn't observe any significant difference in fungal burden or lung cell infiltration in either the *Cnes2.1* or the *Cnes2.3* sub-congenic line (Figure 2 and data not shown). Therefore, these phenotypic analyses helped us to reduce the length of the *Cnes2* segment from 32 to 14 Mb which decreased the number of protein coding genes under consideration from 611 to 351 (Figure 8).

Furthermore, based on our phenotypic analysis, we identified two non-overlapping intervals in Cnes2 segment that independently control susceptibility to C. neoformans infection. These intervals were designated as Cnes2.2 (defined by markers at 16.2 to 23.8 Mb) and Cnes2.4 (defined by markers at 26.8 and 35.5 Mb). In both Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 lines we did not observe any significant differences in lung fungal burden and cell recruitment at 14 days post-infection; however, *Cnes2.4* showed a trend towards more neutrophils and fewer eosinophils in the lungs compared to C57BL/6J mice at this time point (Figure 3). At 21 days post-infection, there were significantly fewer eosinophils in both Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 compared to C57BL/6 mice and Cnes2.4 displayed a significantly higher number of neutrophils in the lung compared to C57BL/6J mice (Figure 4). Antigen-presenting cells including ExMs and inflammatory DCs, which are considered one of the most important cell types recruited to the lung following infection (142, 296), were significantly higher in both sub-congenic lines compared to C57BL/6J strain at 21 days post-infection (Figure 4). Notably, our analysis indicates that the influence of the Cnes2.4 on both lung fungal burden and cell recruitment is much greater compared to the Cnes2.2 interval. Importantly, for all phenotypes that were analyzed, none of the sub-congenic lines displayed the complete resistant phenotype of *Cnes2* mice following infection (Figure 2.6). While the *Cnes2* congenic region from the CBA/J strain reproduced the donor background phenotypes faithfully

(321), reduction in the length of the congenic interval attenuated such phenotypic effects. This observation is not entirely surprising since it has been observed that phenotypic effects often diminish as the genetic interval is reduced, particularly when the original effect is due to a combination of several genes (325).

Remarkably, following infection with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of C. neoformans, a 30% mortality was observed in Cnes2.4 mice at 35 days post-infection. Cnes2 mice also display 13% mortality at the same time point. Importantly, fungal burden analysis at 18 days post-infection suggested that morbidity and mortality was not associated with increased pathogen load, as Cnes2.4 mice had significantly fewer CFU in the lung compared to C57BL/6J mice with 100% survival rate (Figure 3.2). In contrast to Cnes2 and Cnes2.4 mice, we did not observe any mortality in the CBA/J parental strain infected with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C.neoformans* 52D (data not shown); this could be explained by the fact that genetic background interactions may lead to the suppression of the mortality phenotype in CBA/J mice while generation of sub-congenic strains is accompanied by an increase in the penetrance of the trait caused by genes within the donor interval (325). In summary, both the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 sub-congenic intervals regulate lung fungal burden but have a limited effect on spleen and brain dissemination. This is consistent with a previous report showing that the robust Th1/Th17 immune responses and classically activated macrophages are not sufficient to provide protection against lethal dissemination of C. neoformans into the CNS (294). Clarification of the exact relationship between pathogen load and/or dissemination and mortality in the Cnes2 and Cnes2.4 strains will require further analysis of the spleen and brain fungal burden combined with detailed immunological characterization among a larger number of mice with signs of illness just before mortality (18-21 days post-infection).

The observed mortality in both *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* mice could be explained by dysregulated inflammation in the lung and/or brain following cryptococcal infection. Indeed, an excessive host immune response to infection could be harmful and may cause significant tissue damage and pathology (326, 327). Although we have no direct evidence of tissue injury, the fact that these mice controlled the lung fungal load suggests that mortality is a consequence of the host immune response. Histological and flow cytometry analysis of the lung tissue from infected *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* mice revealed a significant increase in the influx of highly reactive inflammatory cells including DCs and ExMs (Figure 3.4). In influenza, monocyte-derived dendritic cells and exudate

macrophages produce induced pulmonary immune pathology and mortality (328). Interestingly, CCR2<sup>-/-</sup> mice that have reduced recruitment of monocyte-derived DCs and ExMs are protected from pulmonary fibrosis, weight loss and death in the acute lung injuries caused by fluorescein isothiocyanate and bleomycin (329, 330). Excessive recruitment and presence of phagocytic cells, particularly macrophages, could also lead to cryptococcal brain dissemination. It has been suggested that cryptococci may require macrophages or monocytes to cross the blood-brain barrier (BBB) through a "Trojan horse" mechanism. Increased phagocytic uptake of *Cryptococcus* is a potential mechanism for fungal spread and some studies have provided evidence for the role of these cells in fungal dissemination (123, 125, 226, 307, 331-334). Despite these findings, the exact mechanism of "Trojan horse" dissemination is still unknown and needs further investigation using *in vivo* models.

The heightened inflammation in *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* congenic mice infected with *C. neoformans* could be a model for immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome (IRIS). This life-threatening inflammatory reaction occurs in some HIV-infected patients during antiretroviral therapy (ART) and is caused by an overreaction of the newly reconstituted immune system to residual pathogen antigen (8, 195, 335, 336). In non-HIV cryptococcal meningitis, a highly-activated antigen-presenting dendritic cell population within the CSF, accompanied by a highly active T-lymphocyte population with potentially damaging inflammatory cytokine responses has been identified (195). Further investigations will be required to prove that excessive tissue damage and immunopathology caused by inflammatory cells and heightened cytokine/chemokine responses are responsible for the observed mortality in *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* mice.

In summary, this study identified two distinct sub-congenic intervals within *Cnes2* that mediate host resistance against *C. neoformans* infection. It is likely that genes within *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* regulate different aspects of the host immune response. Compared to C57BL/6J mice the *Cnes2.2* strain has a moderate inflammatory response that leads to a significantly lower lung fungal burden. Based on the phenotypic and candidate gene analysis, the *Cnes2.2* interval regulates the function or migration of phagocytic leukocytes. In contrast, *Cnes2.4* mice display a vigorous inflammatory response that leads to more effective pathogen clearance from the lung; however, this outcome is associated with subsequent mortality.

In silico analysis of the Cnes2.2 and Cnes2.4 intervals is one approach to facilitate the prioritization of potential candidate genes for further analysis. In this study protein-coding genes were chosen based on the high and moderate impact variants; however, this does not exclude other variants, such as synonymous mutations or those in regulatory regions, from future consideration (337, 338). Haplotype analysis to identify common polymorphisms in the Cnes2 interval between known resistant and susceptible strains to C. neoformans infection could also help to prioritize allelic variants for further analysis. The next critical step in candidate gene analysis is to perform a comparative gene expression studies of lung stromal tissue and infiltrating cell populations between parental C57BL/6N and CBA/J mice in addition to congenic Cnes2, Cnes2.2, and Cnes2.4 strains, both before and at different time points after C. neoformans challenge. This comparative analysis will allow the identification expression differences for genes within the Cnes2 congenic interval/sub-interval, as well as for genes that do not necessarily map to the congenic interval but are involved in downstream pathways that mediate host resistance. Finally, genes that exhibit significant nucleotide sequence and/or expression variation will be functionally characterized to confirm their role in host resistance using genetically modified mice with specific nucleotide substitutions or targeted mutations that confer a loss or gain of function. Sequences with definitive evidence for causality may provide a deeper understanding of host genetic susceptibility to cryptococcal, and potentially other fungal infections, and may lead to the discovery of targets for improved antifungal therapies.

# Figures

**Figure 3.1. Breakdown of B6.CBA-***Cnes2* **into sub-congenic lines:** Schematic outline of subcongenic strains (B6.CBA-*Cnes2.1 to Cnes2.4*) which were generated by backcrossing the *Cnes2* mice to the parental C57BL/6J strain and subsequently intercrossing the offspring. Each bar represents a congenic line that defines the approximate mega base (Mb) position of the interval region. The black portions of each bar represent the regions homozygous for the B6 alleles (the background strain), the white portions represent the congenic regions for the CBA alleles (donor strain) and the gray portions represent the transitional regions that were not genotyped.



Cnes2-1: centromere-rs33887570 Cnes2-2: rs107729440-rs4231404 Cnes2-3: rs32135983-rs4231404 Cnes2-4: rs4231404-rs13482963 Figure 3.2. Tissue fungal burden and survival analysis of sub-congenic mice following *C. neoformans* infection. C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* sub-congenic mice were infected intratracheally with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D and fungal burden in the lungs, brains and spleens at 35 days post-infection (A-C) and 18 days post-infection (E-G) was determined by plating tissue homogenates on Sabouraud dextrose agar. Mice were observed for up to 35 days for survival analysis (D). Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM, \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001, using an unpaired Student's t-test (A, E, G), log-rank test (D) and Mann–Whitney U test (B, C, F).



Day 35 post-infection





Figure 3.3. FACS analysis of lung cell recruitment in sub-congenic mice at 14 days postinfection. C57BL/6 and B6.CBA-*Cnes2* sub-congenic mice were infected intratracheally with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D. At 14 days post-infection lung cell suspensions were stained with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry as described in materials and methods. Absolute number of CD45<sup>+</sup> cells, neutrophils, eosinophils, DCs and ExM in the infected lungs is shown (A-E). Surface expression of costimulatory molecules by total CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>, DCs and ExM were examined. Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of positive cells is shown (F-H). Absolute number of CD4<sup>+</sup>, CD8<sup>+</sup> and B220<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes is shown (I-K). Data are representative of two independent experiments (n= 4 to 6 mice/strain) and are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001.





Figure 3.4. FACS analysis of lung myeloid cell recruitment in sub-congenic mice at 21 days post-infection. Absolute number of CD45<sup>+</sup> cells, eosinophils, neutrophils, DCs and ExM in the infected lungs at 21 days post-infection is shown (A-E). Representative plot for eosinophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>Ly6G-SSC<sup>hi</sup>) (F), neutrophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup>CD11b<sup>+</sup>Ly6G<sup>+</sup>) (G), and total inflammatory CD11c<sup>+</sup>MHCII<sup>+</sup> DCs and ExMs (H) is shown. Data are representative of two independent experiments (n= 4 to 6 mice/strain) and are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001.





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Figure 3.5. Activation phenotype of lung AMs, ExMs and DCs in sub-congenic mice at 21 days post-infection. The expression of classical (iNos) and alternative (CD206) activation markers by macrophages and DCs was evaluated by flow cytometry at 21 days post-infection. Absolute number and frequency of DC, ExMs and AMs expressing CD206/iNOS is shown (A-F). A representative plot of CD206<sup>+</sup> and iNOS<sup>+</sup> cells gated on total CD11c<sup>+</sup> myeloid cells is presented (G). Data are representative of two independent experiments (n= 4 to 6 mice/strain) and are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001.





Figure 3.6. Lung lymphoid cell recruitment and polarization in sub-congenic mice at 21 days post-infection. Lung cell suspensions from infected mice at 21 days post-infection were stimulated with PMA-ionomycin and analyzed with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and intracellular cytokine staining as described in materials and methods. The absolute number of CD3<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup>, CD3<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup> and B220<sup>+</sup> cells is shown (A). Absolute number of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells expressing IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-13 and IL-17 at 21 days post-infection. Data are representative of two independent experiments (n= 4 to 6 mice/strain) and are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001 (using an unpaired Student t test).



Figure 3.7. Histological analysis of C57BL/6, *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* infected lungs at 35 days post-infection. Mice were infected with  $10^4$  CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D, lungs were harvested at 35 days post-infection and paraffin fixed section were stained with mucicarmine (A) and H&E (B). Staining with mucicarmine, which specifically stains the cryptococcal cell wall, confirms lung fungal burden analysis at 35 days post infection. H&E staining revealed clearly increased inflammatory infiltration in *Cnes2.4* compared to C57BL/6 and *Cnes2.2* mice at 35 days post-infection.



Figure 3.8: Schematic overview of the *in-silico* analysis used for identifying potential candidate genes in the *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* intervals. As described in material and methods, a list of all polymorphic variants between C57BL/6NJ and CBA/J mice in each interval was acquired from the Sanger SNP viewer. Using variant effect predictor (VeP), the data were categorized based on variant effects. Protein coding genes with high impact variants and deleterious effect were selected for further analysis. The top candidate genes were selected based on functional and expression information gained from gene databases (MGI, PubMed, etc.).



**Table 3.1. List of protein coding genes in the** *Cnes2.2* **interval with deleterious or high impact variants.** Genes with known expression/function related to immune system are highlighted in A (red).

SYMBOL	Name	Α
Chd1	chromodomain helicase DNA binding protein 1	
Fpr3	formyl peptide receptor 3	
Fpr-rs4	formyl peptide receptor, related sequence 4	
Riok2	RIO kinase 2 (yeast)	
Vmn2r107	vomeronasal 2, receptor 107	
Vmn1r225	vomeronasal 1 receptor 225	
Vmn1r231	vomeronasal 1 receptor 231	
Vmn2r108	vomeronasal 2, receptor 108	
Vmn2r103	vomeronasal 2, receptor 103	
Vmn2r99	vomeronasal 2, receptor 99	
Vmn2r90	vomeronasal 2, receptor 90	
Vmn2r109	vomeronasal 2, receptor 109	
Zfp758	zinc finger protein 758	
Zfp97	zinc finger protein 97	

**Table 3.2. List of protein coding genes in the** *Cnes2.4* **interval with deleterious or high impact variants.** Genes with known expression/function related to immune system are highlighted in A (red).

Symbol	Name	Α
Notch3	notch 3	
Ager	advanced glycosylation end product-specific receptor	
H2-Ab1	histocompatibility 2, class II antigen A, beta 1	
Notch4	notch 4	
Rgl2	ral guanine nucleotide dissociation stimulator-like 2	
Myo1f	myosin IF	
Btnl2	butyrophilin-like 2	
Col11a2	collagen, type XI, alpha 2	
Ly6g6d	lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus G6D	
Umodl1	uromodulin-like 1	
Cpne5	copine V	
Sapcd1	suppressor APC domain containing 1	
Btnl4	butyrophilin-like 4	
Btnl6	butyrophilin-like 6	
Tnxb	tenascin XB	
Ubash3a	ubiquitin associated and SH3 domain containing, A	
Mdga1	MAM domain containing glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor 1	
Ly6g6e	lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus G6E	
C4a	complement component 4A (Rodgers blood group)	
Tap1	transporter 1, ATP-binding cassette, sub-family B (MDR/TAP)	
H2-Eb1	histocompatibility 2, class II antigen E beta	
H2-Eb2	histocompatibility 2, class II antigen E beta2	
H2-Ke6	H2-K region expressed gene 6	
H2-Oa	histocompatibility 2, O region alpha locus	
H2-Ob	histocompatibility 2, O region beta locus	
H2-Q2	histocompatibility 2, Q region locus 2	
Uhrf1bp1	UHRF1 (ICBP90) binding protein 1	
Zfp870	zinc finger protein 870	
Morc2b	microrchidia 2B	
Rab44	RAB44, member RAS oncogene family	
Msh5	mutS homolog 5	
Cfb	complement factor B	
Cyp4f	cytochrome P450, family 4, subfamily f	
Daxx	Fas death domain-associated protein	
Prrc2a	proline-rich coiled-coil 2A	
Lst1	leukocyte specific transcript 1	
Table 3.3. List of top candidate genes in the *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* intervals with description of KO mice phenotype and gene ontology. information are taken from MGI, Genecards and NCBI genes.

Symbol	Phenotype of KO mice/ disease	Gene Ontology
Cnes2.2		
Fpr3/ Fpr-rs4	The formyl peptide receptor family, Including Fpr1 are Gi-protein-coupled receptors that are expressed mainly by mammalian phagocytic leukocytes. FPRs are involved in antibacterial host defence and inflammation.	G-protein coupled receptor activity, complement receptor mediated signaling pathway, leukocyte migration.
Cnes2.4		1
Notch 3	Thymus hyperplasia, increased thymocyte number, abnormal T cell differentiation, increased double-negative T cell number, enlarged spleen, enlarged lymph nodes.	Negative regulation of cell differentiation.
H2-Ab1	Homozygotes for targeted null mutations exhibit depletion of mature CD4+ T cells, deficiency in cell-mediated immune responses, and increased susceptibility to viral infections.	Antigen processing and presentation, B cell affinity maturation, positive regulation of T-helper 1 type immune response, etc.
Myo1f	Mice homozygous for a knock-out allele exhibit impaired neutrophil migration and adhesion.	Neutrophil mediated immunity, regulation of innate immune response.
Ubash3a	Homozygous null mice are viable and healthy with no abnormalities detected in any of the hematopoietic lineages.	Negative regulation of T cell receptor signaling pathway.
Tap1	Mice homozygous for targeted mutations that inactivate the gene are deficient in antigen presentation, surface class I antigens, and CD4-8+ T cells.	Adaptive immune response, protection from natural killer cell mediated cytotoxicity.
H2-Eb1	Increased granulocyte number, increased monocyte cell number.	Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen via MHC class II, response to interferon-gamma, etc.

H2-Oa	Homozygous inactivation of this gene results in abnormal antigen presentation via MHC class II. Mice homozygous for a knock-out allele show enhanced selection of CD4+ single positive thymocytes. Mice homozygous for a different knock-out allele show increased serum IgG1 levels.	Antigen processing and presentation, regulation of T cell differentiation.
Cfb	Homozygotes for targeted null mutations lack the alternative complement pathway, and have reduced overall complement activity.	Complement activation, immune system process.
Lst1	Mice homozygous for a knock-out allele are slightly more susceptible to viral infections.	Immune system process, regulation of lymphocyte proliferation.
Ager	Decreased dendritic cell number, abnormal cytokine secretion, abnormal immune system physiology.	Positive regulation of dendritic cell differentiation, positive regulation of activated T cell proliferation.

**Supplementary Figure 3.1. Summary statistics and histogram of VeP analysis** for uploaded *Cnes2.2* SNPs (A), *Cnes2.2* indels (B), *Cnes2.4* SNPs (C) and *Cnes2.4* indels (D).

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Category	Count	Consequences (all)		Coding consequence	Coding consequences
/ariants processed	7604		intron_variant: 37%		
Variants filtered out	0		<ul> <li>intergenic_variant: 21%</li> <li>non_coding_transcript_variant: 16%</li> </ul>		
Novel / existing variants	12 (0.2) / 7592 (99.8)		<ul> <li>upstream_gene_variant: 11%</li> </ul>		
Overlapped genes	210		downstream_gene_variant: 10%		• s
Overlapped transcripts	347		<ul> <li>regulatory_region_variant: 3%</li> <li>non coding transcript exon variar</li> </ul>		• s
Overlapped regulatory features	123		missense_variant: 1%		
В			Others		
Category	Count	Consequences (all)		Coding consequence	Coding consequences
Variants processed	1253		intron_variant: 37%		
Variants filtered out	0		<ul> <li>intergenic_variant 22%</li> <li>unstream gene variant 14%</li> </ul>		
Novel / existing variants	0 (0.0) / 1253 (100.0)		<ul> <li>downstream_gene_variant: 11%</li> </ul>		
Overlapped genes	193		non_coding_transcript_variant: 10%		• fr
Overlapped transcripts	292		<ul> <li>regulatory_region_variant: 3%</li> <li>non_coding_transcript_exon_variar</li> </ul>		• 0
Overlapped regulatory features	44		3_prime_UTR_variant: 1%		
			<ul> <li>NMD_transcript_variant: 1%</li> <li>Others</li> </ul>		

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Category	Count	Consequences (all)	<ul> <li>Johns under the PM</li> </ul>	Coding consequences
Variants processed	21049		<ul> <li>Intron_variant: 45%</li> <li>downstream_gene_variant: 18%</li> </ul>	
Variants filtered out	0		<ul> <li>upstream_gene_variant: 18%</li> </ul>	
Novel / existing variants	35 (0.2) / 21014 (99.8)		non_coding_transcript_variant: 7%	synonymous_variant.5
Overlapped genes	638		<ul> <li>regulatory_region_variant: 4%</li> <li>NMD_transcript_variant: 2%</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>missense_variant: 40%</li> <li>stop_gained: 0%</li> </ul>
Overlapped transcripts	2083		<ul> <li>intergenic_variant: 2%</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>stap_gamed.org</li> <li>start_lost: 0%</li> </ul>
Overlapped regulatory features	994		non_coding_transcript_exon_variar	
D	Count	Conservation (all)	- Outris	Catina anna anna
Variants processed	3043	Consequences (an)	intron variant 40%	coung consequences
Variants filtered out	0		<ul> <li>upstream_gene_variant: 18%</li> </ul>	
Novel / existing variants	0 (0.0) / 3043 (100.0)		<ul> <li>downstream_gene_variant: 16%</li> <li>non_coding_transcript_variant: 7%</li> </ul>	
Overlapped genes	601		regulatory_region_variant 3%	inframe_deletion: /1%     frameshift_variant: 21%
Overlapped transcripts	1968		<ul> <li>INMD_transcript_variant: 2%</li> <li>intergenic_variant: 2%</li> </ul>	coding_sequence_varia
Overlapped regulatory features	489		3_prime_UTR_variant: 1%     non_coding_transcript_exon_variar     Others	

Supprementary rubic citt cites and protein county gene insu	Supplementary	Table 3.1.	Cnes2.2	protein	coding	gene list.
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Symbol	Name	Immune system related
Fpr1	formyl peptide receptor 1	*
Fpr2	formyl peptide receptor 2	*
Fpr3	formyl peptide receptor 3	*
Fpr-rs4	formyl peptide receptor, related sequence 4	
Fpr-rs7	formyl peptide receptor, related sequence 7	
Pkmyt1	protein kinase, membrane associated tyrosine/threonine 1	
Ppp2r1a	protein phosphatase 2, regulatory subunit A, alpha	*
Riok2	RIO kinase 2 (yeast)	
Tnfrsf12a	tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 12a	*
Vmn1r	vomeronasal 1 receptor (genes)	
Vmn2r	vomeronasal 2, receptor (genes)	
Zfp	zinc finger protein (genes)	
Zscan10	zinc finger and SCAN domain containing 10	*

### Supplementary Table 3.2. List of protein coding genes within Cnes2.4.

Symbol	Name	Immune system related
H2-Ab1	histocompatibility 2, class II antigen A, beta 1	*
Pacsin1	protein kinase C and casein kinase substrate in neurons 1	*
Myo1f	myosin IF	*
Notch3	notch 3	*
Pram1	PML-RAR alpha-regulated adaptor molecule 1	*
<b>Pi16</b>	peptidase inhibitor 16	*
TNF alpha	tumor necrosis factor alpha	*
Lta	lymphotoxin A	*
Ltb	lymphotoxin B	*
Tap1	transporter 1, ATP-binding cassette, sub-family B (MDR/TAP)	*
C4b	complement component 4B (Chido blood group)	*
Pglyrp2	peptidoglycan recognition protein 2	*
H2-DMa	histocompatibility 2, class II, locus DMa	*
Ehmt2	euchromatic histone lysine N-methyltransferase 2	*
Stk38	serine/threonine kinase 38	*
Lst1	leukocyte specific transcript 1	*
Cfb	complement factor B	*
Psmb9	proteasome (prosome, macropain) subunit, beta type 9 (large multifunctional peptidase 2)	*
Cdkn1a	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1A (P21)	*
H2-D1	histocompatibility 2, D region locus 1	*
Tapbp	TAP binding protein	*
Rnf8	ring finger protein 8	*
Def6	differentially expressed in FDCP 6	*
H2-Aa	histocompatibility 2, class II antigen A, alpha	*
Pknox1	Pbx/knotted 1 homeobox	*
Abcg1	ATP-binding cassette, sub-family G (WHITE), member 1	*
H2-Ob	histocompatibility 2, O region beta locus	*
H2-Oa	histocompatibility 2, O region alpha locus	*
H2-Q2	histocompatibility 2, Q region locus 2	*
Tap2	transporter 2, ATP-binding cassette, sub-family B (MDR/TAP)	*
Gpsm3	G-protein signalling modulator 3 (AGS3-like, C. elegans)	*
Pim1	proviral integration site 1	*
H2-K1	histocompatibility 2, K1, K region	*
Srsf3	serine/arginine-rich splicing factor 3	*

Rasal3	RAS protein activator like 3	*
Tff2	trefoil factor 2 (spasmolytic protein 1)	*
	proteasome (prosome, macropain) subunit, beta type 8 (large	
Psmb8	multifunctional peptidase 7)	*
<u>Hmga1</u>	high mobility group AT-hook 1	*
Ager	advanced glycosylation end product-specific receptor	*
Aif1	allograft inflammatory factor 1	*
<b>P</b> pard	peroxisome proliferator activator receptor delta	*
Neul	neuraminidase 1	*
Ppt2	palmitoyl-protein thioesterase 2	*
Cyp4f14	cytochrome P450, family 4, subfamily f, polypeptide 14	*
Nkx2-5	NK2 homeobox 5	*
Hsf2bp	heat shock transcription factor 2 binding protein	*
Cd320	CD320 antigen	*
Angptl4	angiopoietin-like 4	*
<i></i>	immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motif (ITIM)	
G6b	containing platelet receptor	*
Cpne5	copine V	*
Hspalb	heat shock protein IB	*
Cbs	cystathionine beta-synthase	*
Brd2	bromodomain containing 2	*
Spdef	SAM pointed domain containing ets transcription factor	*
<u> </u>	trefoil factor 3, intestinal	*
Pbx2	pre B cell leukemia homeobox 2	*
Daxx	Fas death domain-associated protein	*
Sik1	salt inducible kinase 1	*
<u>C2</u>	complement component 2 (within H-2S)	*
Ly6g6f	lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus G6F	*
<i>Ly6g6e</i>	lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus G6E	*
Ly6g6d	lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus G6D	*
Actl9	actin-like 9	
Bak1	BCL2-antagonist/killer 1	
Btbd9	BTB (POZ) domain containing 9	
Btnl6	butyrophilin-like 6	
Cbs	cystathionine beta-synthase	
Cyp4f13	cytochrome P450, family 4, subfamily f, polypeptide 13	
Cyp4f17	cytochrome P450, family 4, subfamily f, polypeptide 17	
Ephx3	epoxide hydrolase 3	
Fgd2	FYVE, RhoGEF and PH domain containing 2	
Ggnbp1	gametogenetin binding protein 1	
Gm10045	predicted pseudogene 10045	
Ip6k3	inositol hexaphosphate kinase 3	

Itpr3	inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate receptor 3	
Mdga1	MAM domain containing glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor 1	
Morc2b	microrchidia 2B	
Pnpla1	patatin-like phospholipase domain containing 1	
Rab44	RAB44, member RAS oncogene family	
Ubash3a	ubiquitin associated and SH3 domain containing, A	
Uhrf1bp1	UHRF1 (ICBP90) binding protein 1	
Umodl1	uromodulin-like 1	
Wdr4	WD repeat domain 4	
Wiz	widely-interspaced zinc finger motifs	
Zfp870	zinc finger protein 870	

Symbol	Name	Immune system Related	Respiratory system related
Lmr1	leishmaniasis resistance 1	*	
Lmr7	leishmaniasis resistance 7	*	
Leci2	leukocyte endothelial cell interactions 2	*	
Ceat1	chronic experimental autoimmune thyroiditis 1	*	
Lfnq4	lung function QTL 4		*
Bhr3	bronchial hyperresponsiveness 3		*
Radpf1	radiation pulmonary fibrosis 1		*

### Supplementary Table 3.3. QTLs mapped to the *Cnes2.2* locus.

### Supplementary Table 3.4. QTLs mapped to the *Cnes2.4* locus.

Symbol	Name	Immune system related	Respiratory system related
Hbnr2	Heligmosomoides bakeri nematode resistance 2	*	
Lmr1	leishmaniasis resistance 1	*	
Tir9	trypanosome infection response 9	*	
Char3	P. chabaudi malaria resistance QTL 3	*	
Mbis4	Mycobacterium bovis-induced systemic lupus erythematosus 4	*	
Sles1	systemic lupus erythmatosus suppressor 1	*	
Bbaa28	B.burgdorferi-associated arthritis 28	*	
Asbb3	autoimmune susceptibility in C57BL/6J and BALB/c 3	*	
Sst5	susceptibility to tuberculosis 5	*	
Tir7	trypanosome infection response 7	*	
Ssial4	susceptibility to sialadenitis 4	*	
Lbw1	lupus NZB x NZW 1	*	
Lmr7	leishmaniasis resistance 7	*	
Sm2	susceptibility to Schistosoma mansoni infection 2	*	
Pas2	pulmonary adenoma susceptibility 2		*
Radpf1	radiation pulmonary fibrosis 1		*
Blmpf1	bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis 1		*
Pas19	pulmonary adenoma susceptibility 19		*
Lfnq4	lung function QTL 4		*
Pas2	pulmonary adenoma susceptibility 2		*
Bhr3	bronchial hyperresponsiveness 3		*

**Supplementary Table 3.5: List of variants in the** *Cnes2.2* **interval with high and moderate impact.** A: SNPs and B: indels. Variants with deleterious SIFT score are highlighted in blue.

Α

Variant	Location	Consequence	Impact	SYMBOL	ΒΙΟΤΥΡΕ	SIFT
rs46111484	17:17911708-17911708	stop_gained	HIGH	Gm7535	protein_coding	-
rs51820294	17:20355816-20355816	stop_gained	HIGH	Vmn2r107	protein_coding	-
rs47297925	17:20890513-20890513	stop_gained	HIGH	Vmn1r231	protein_coding	-
Variant	Location	Consequence	Impact	SYMBOL	BIOTYPE	SIFT
rs243550800	17:17145276-17145276	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp97	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs52004897	17:17145501-17145501	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp97	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs51959128	17:17145505-17145505	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp97	protein_coding	deleterious((0.04)
rs46574447	17:17145514-17145514	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp97	protein_coding	tolerated(0.09)
rs46228392	17:17145576-17145576	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp97	protein_coding	tolerated(0.77)
rs108126182	17:17265852-17265852	missense_variant	MODERATE	LOC102640673	protein_coding	-
rs237332378	17:17378510-17378510	missense_variant	MODERATE	Chd1	protein_coding	deleterious((0.02)
rs237332378	17:17378510-17378510	missense_variant	MODERATE	Riok2	protein_coding	deleterious((0.02)
rs49928915	17:17387327-17387327	missense_variant	MODERATE	Chd1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.81)
rs49928915	17:17387327-17387327	missense_variant	MODERATE	Riok2	protein_coding	tolerated(0.81)
rs47492665	17:17387329-17387329	missense_variant	MODERATE	Chd1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.97)
rs47492665	17:17387329-17387329	missense_variant	MODERATE	Riok2	protein_coding	tolerated(0.97)
rs257186443	17:17712756-17712756	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r90	protein_coding	deleterious((0.02)
rs33755033	17:17733625-17733625	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r90	protein_coding	tolerated(0.43)
rs33755032	17:17733709-17733709	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r90	protein_coding	tolerated(0.07)
rs248739740	17:17734015-17734015	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r90	protein_coding	tolerated(0.19)
rs50121023	17:17911058-17911058	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm7535	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs51500948	17:17911367-17911367	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm7535	protein_coding	tolerated(0.13)
rs49014309	17:17911684-17911684	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm7535	protein_coding	deleterious((0.02)
rs255396460	17:18021801-18021801	missense_variant	MODERATE	Fpr-rs4	protein_coding	tolerated(0.72)
rs33055109	17:18022309-18022309	missense_variant	MODERATE	Fpr-rs4	protein_coding	deleterious((0.02)
rs46182873	17:18061994-18061994	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r124	protein_coding	tolerated(0.12)
rs107740022	17:18062778-18062778	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r124	protein_coding	tolerated(0.83)
rs224621759	17:19380221-19380221	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r99	protein_coding	deleterious((0.02)
rs107930176	17:19591123-19591123	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r101	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs29532525	17:19793483-19793483	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r103	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs232227301	17:19812441-19812441	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r103	protein_coding	deleterious((0.01)
rs51044590	17:20113727-20113727	missense_variant	MODERATE	Fpr-rs7	protein_coding	tolerated(0.24)
rs49243834	17:20356660-20356660	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r107	protein_coding	tolerated(0.32)
rs33502424	17:20462969-20462969	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r108	protein_coding	tolerated(0.34)
rs50308311	17:20471016-20471016	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r108	protein_coding	tolerated(0.09)
rs45997263	17:20471360-20471360	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r108	protein_coding	deleterious((0.04)
rs48082876	17:20502438-20502438	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn1r225	protein_coding	deleterious((0.01)
rs33298471	17:20541341-20541341	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r109	protein_coding	deleterious((0)
rs29505286	17:20555081-20555081	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r109	protein_coding	tolerated(0.83)
rs234331073	17:20583156-20583156	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r110	protein_coding	tolerated(0.52)
rs33393752	17:20596214-20596214	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r110	protein_coding	tolerated(0.47)
rs29499374	17:20596220-20596220	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn2r110	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs33558668	17:20736079-20736079	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vmn1r227	protein_coding	-
rs250251895	17:21020790-21020790	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp160	protein_coding	tolerated(0.24)
rs107665156	17:21094698-21094698	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm6811	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs13479576	17:21990830-21990830	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp943	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs246813193	17:22339900-22339900	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp944	protein_coding	tolerated(0.42)
rs33768715	17:22374870-22374870	missense variant	MODERATE	Zfp758	protein coding	deleterious((0.01)

### B

Variant	Location	Consequence	IMPACT	SYMBOL	ΒΙΟΤΥΡΕ	SIFT
rs235073749	17:17395081-1739509	splice_donor_variant	HIGH	Gm26873	lincRNA	-
rs235151182	17:20375749-2037575	frameshift_variant	HIGH	Vmn2r107	protein_coding	-
Variant	Location	Consequence	IMPACT	SYMBOL	ΒΙΟΤΥΡΕ	SIFT
rs257608955	17:17970889-1797090	inframe_deletion	MODERATE	Fpr3	protein_coding	-

**Supplementary Table 3.6: List of variants in the** *Cnes2.4* **interval with high and moderate impact.** A: SNPs and B: indels. Variants with deleterious SIFT score are highlighted in blue.

Variant	Location	Consequence	IMPACT	SYMBOL	BIOTYPE	SIFT
rs 33622206	17:27884606-27884606	splice_donor_variant	HIGH	Uhrf1bp1	protein_coding	-
s46779183	17:29465343-29465343	splice_donor_variant	HIGH	Gm36199	IncRNA	-
s47347152	17:33909179-33909179	splice_donor_variant	HIGH	BC051226	antisense	-
s50972829	17:33977869-33977869	splice_donor_variant	HIGH	H2-K2	misc_RNA	-
s107815810	17:34241132-34241132	start_lost	HIGH	H2-Ob	protein_coding	-
s47704390	17:34422101-34422101	splice_donor_variant	HIGH	BC051142	protein_coding	-
s108391400	17:34515435-34515435	stop_gained	HIGH	Btnl6	protein_coding	-
245337516	17:34816264-34816264	splice_acceptor_variant	HIGH	C4a	protein_coding	-
51170361	17:34856932-34856932	stop_gained	HIGH	Cfb	protein_coding	-
225181922	17:35046234-35046234	stop_gained	HIGH	Msh5	protein_coding	-
ariant	Location	Consequence	IMPACT	SYMBOL	BIOTYPE	SIFT
33435921	17:27707905-27707905	missense_variant	MODERATE	Pacsin1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.44)
47514860	17:27707988-27707988	missense_variant	MODERATE	Pacsin1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.7)
33421366	17:27876824-27876824	missense variant	MODERATE	Uhrf1bp1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
33166239	17:27876949-27876949	missense variant	MODERATE	Uhrf1bp1	protein coding	deleterious(0.01)
33350456	17:27880171-27880171	missense variant	MODERATE	Uhrf1bp1	protein coding	tolerated(0.51)
33139124	17:27880297-27880297	missense variant	MODERATE	Uhrf1bp1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
33278086	17:27886729-27886729	missense variant	MODERATE	Uhrf1bp1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
3482936	17:28219802-28219802	missense variant	MODERATE	Def6	protein coding	tolerated(1)
33120907	17:28689906-28689906	missense variant	MODERATE	SIc26a8	protein coding	-
51672228	17:28818349-28818349	missense variant	MODERATE	Brof3	protein coding	-
33095675	17:28829077-28829077	missense variant	MODERATE	Brpf3	protein coding	-
33610017	17:28881088-28881088	missense variant	MODERATE	Pnpla1	protein coding	tolerated low confidence(0.57)
33145938	17:28881365-28881365	missense_variant	MODERATE	Pnpla1	protein_coding	tolerated low confidence(0.66)
3296443	17.28881407-28881407	missense variant	MODERATE	Pnpla1	protein_coding	deleterious low confidence(0.00)
22220442	17.28881418-28881418	missense variant	MODERATE	Pnpla1	protein_coding	tolerated low confidence(0.08)
20/07282	17:20121002-20121002	missense_variant	MODERATE	Rab44	protein_coding	
19076601	17.29121002-29121002	missense_variant	MODERATE	Rab44	protein_coding	-
48070004	17.20128155-20128155	missense_variant	MODERATE	Rab44	protein_coding	deleterious (0)
22272600	17.29130133-29130133	missense_variant	MODERATE	Rab44	protein_coding	tolorated(0.12)
2215202	17.29159234-29159234	missense_variant	MODERATE	CopoE	protein_coding	deleterious (0.02)
53513552	17.29139393-29139395	missense_variant	MODERATE	Cm10045	protein_coding	deleterious(0.02)
0145905	17.29506142-29506142		MODERATE	Gm10045	protein_couling	-
58304027	17:29308232-29308232	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm10045	protein_coding	-
0400072	17:29308393-29308393	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm10045	protein_coding	-
29499072	17:29327435-29327435	missense_variant	MODERATE	P110	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.31)
47046273	17:29303701-29303701	missense_variant	MODERATE	Fguz	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.31)
45096428	17:29376181-29376181	missense_variant	MODERATE	Fguz	protein_coding	- telerated(0,28)
45986438	17:29378330-29378330	missense_variant	MODERATE	Fguz	protein_coding	tolerated(0.38)
33606398	17:29857637-29857637	missense_variant	MODERATE	IVIOga 1	protein_coding	deleterious(0.03)
13482943	17:30299545-30299545	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btbd9	protein_coding	tolerated(0.97)
108666242	1/:309/1916-309/1916	missense_variant	MODERATE	Umodi1	protein_coding	deleterious(U)
51939115	17:30973738-30973738	missense_variant	MODERATE	Umodi1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.61)
49660269	17:31231442-31231442	missense_variant	MODERATE	Ubash3a	protein_coding	-
33318475	17:31235548-31235548	missense_variant	MODERATE	Ubash3a	protein_coding	deleterious(0.02)
400000099 20E01100	17.31512174-31512174	missense_variant	MODERATE	Wur4	protein_coding	tolerated(0.67)
29501189	17:31017253-31017253	missense_variant	MODERATE	CDS Notoh2	protein_coding	tolerated(0.5)
33035352	17:32143508-32143508	missense_variant	MODERATE	NOLCHS	protein_coding	
331/5238	17:32144588-32144588	missense_variant	MODERATE	Notch3	protein_coding	tolerated(0.82)
47006251	17:32147425-32147425	missense_variant	MODERATE	Notch3	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
333/5563	1/:32158/12-32158712	missense_variant	MODERATE	Notch3	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
4///8998	17:32189403-32189403	missense_variant		Epnx3	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(1)
33220232	1/:32367917-32367917	missense_variant	MODERATE	Wiz	protein_coding	tolerated(0.42)
13482951	1/:32527912-32527912	missense_variant	MODERATE	Cyp4f17	protein_coding	deleterious(0.03)
50978141	17:32882681-32882681	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp870	protein_coding	deleterious_low_confidence(0.02
6348359	17:32883762-32883762	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp870	protein_coding	deleterious (0.03)
6348807	17:32883809-32883809	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp870	protein_coding	tolerated(0.11)
6349359	17:32883888-32883888	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp870	protein_coding	-
51550896	17:32884058-32884058	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp870	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
46149805	17.32925361-32925361	missense variant	MODERATE	Cvn4f13	protein coding	deleterious(0.05)

rs48657382	17:32925723-32925723	missense_variant	MODERATE	Cyp4f13	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs46720992	17:32929955-32929955	missense_variant	MODERATE	Cyp4f13	protein_coding	tolerated(0.31)
rs108415077	17:32930009-32930009	missense_variant	MODERATE	Cyp4f13	protein_coding	deleterious (0.03)
rs13459151	17:32941145-32941145	missense variant	MODERATE	Cyp4f13	protein coding	tolerated(0.35)
rs33295720	17:33065434-33065434	missense variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein coding	deleterious(0)
rs33705121	17:33065600-33065600	missense variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein coding	deleterious (0.01)
rs33198676	17:33065797-33065797	missense variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs33635759	17:33065945-33065945	missense variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(0.24)
rs33265776	17:33066010-33066010	missense variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(0.24)
rc 40652172	17:22066007 22066007	missonso_variant	MODERATE	4021501E00Rik	protein_coding	tolerated low confidence(0.61)
rc 10002211	17.22066259 22066259	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated_IOW_connuence(0.01)
1340003344	17.33000338-33000338	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501L09Kik	protein_coding	deleterieus (0.02)
1549325851	17:33066460-33066460	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09RIK	protein_coding	deletenous(0.03)
1548746725	17:33000514-33000514	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09RIK	protein_coding	
rs47300064	17:33066580-33066580	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09RIK	protein_coding	
rs51515157	1/:33066584-33066584	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(0.43)
rs45754480	17:33066643-33066643	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(0.26)
rs51505881	17:33066767-33066767	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(0.73)
rs51449637	17:33066790-33066790	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs46118679	17:33066994-33066994	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	deleterious (0.02)
rs33123603	17:33067588-33067588	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	deleterious (0.01)
rs33387399	17:33067615-33067615	missense_variant	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	tolerated(0.26)
rs33493422	17:33136776-33136776	missense_variant	MODERATE	Morc2b	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.25)
rs13482953	17:33137236-33137236	missense_variant	MODERATE	Morc2b	protein_coding	deleterious(0)
rs48346592	17:33302765-33302765	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp955b	protein_coding	tolerated(0.4)
rs29519555	17:33335363-33335363	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp81	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs52049521	17:33335550-33335550	missense_variant	MODERATE	Zfp81	protein_coding	tolerated(0.22)
rs33082684	17:33386458-33386458	missense variant	MODERATE	Zfp101	protein coding	tolerated(0.61)
rs33308662	17:33433796-33433796	missense variant	MODERATE	Actl9	protein coding	tolerated(0.12)
rs33470805	17:33433799-33433799	missense variant	MODERATE	Actl9	protein coding	tolerated(0.71)
rs108153512	17:33594296-33594296	missense variant	MODERATE	Mvo1f	protein coding	deleterious(0)
rs107636198	17:33602015-33602015	missense variant	MODERATE	Mvo1f	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs48088473	17:33640771-33640771	missense variant	MODERATE	Pram1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs33399614	17:33644700-33644700	missense variant	MODERATE	Pram1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs108205122	17:33885197-33885197	missense variant	MODERATE	Kifc1	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs108847027	17:33885858-33885858	missense variant	MODERATE	Kifc1	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rc 22670144	17:22011549 22011549	missonso_variant	MODERATE	Davy	protein_coding	tolorated(1)
rc226E900E	17.33911346-33911346	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tanhn	protein_coding	tolerated(0.71)
1555056005	17.33920100-33920100	missense_variant	MODERATE		protein_couling	tolerated(0.49)
1550014799	17:33932340-33932340	missense_variant	MODERATE	RgIZ	protein_coding	lolerated(0.92)
rs108172451	17:33933621-33933621	missense_variant	MODERATE	Kgiz Wdr46	protein_coding	deleterious(0.04)
1555462445	17.33940933-33940933	missense_variant	MODERATE	Wdr46	protein_coding	tolerated_IOW_conndence(I)
1515401460	17.33943360-33943360	missense_variant	MODERATE	Wul40	protein_couling	tolerated(0.67)
150358227	17.33948905-33948905	missense_variant		WUI40	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
1540297313	17:33949330-33949336	missense_variant	NODERATE	vvur4b	protein_coding	
rs49040959	17:33949338-33949338	missense_variant	MODERATE	Wdr46	protein_coding	tolerated(0.56)
rs46278643	17:33958622-33958622	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vps52	protein_coding	tolerated(0.42)
rs108184866	17:33961173-33961173	missense_variant	MODERATE	Vps52	protein_coding	tolerated(0.76)
rs33490761	17:33996613-33996613	missense_variant	MODERATE	Н2-К1	protein_coding	-
rs33344611	17:33997122-33997122	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	-
rs33583118	17:33997124-33997124	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(1)
rs227657521	17:33997127-33997127	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.74)
rs33280712	17:33997130-33997130	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.13)
rs108394490	17:33997434-33997434	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(1)
rs33293753	17:33997536-33997536	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.17)
rs50410315	17:33999279-33999279	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.12)
rs47645309	17:33999362-33999362	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.26)
rs8237941	17:33999499-33999499	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	deleterious_low_confidence(0.04
rs8237969	17:33999740-33999740	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(1)
rs258038992	17:33999758-33999758	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.39)
rs220276184	17:33999807-33999807	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein coding	tolerated low confidence(0.62)
rs108811653	17:33999859-33999859		MODERATE	H2-K1	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.09)

rs51419043	17:33999950-33999950	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein coding	deleterious low confidence(0.03
rs108403127	17:34000034-34000034	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-K1	protein coding	tolerated low confidence(0.16)
rs49854621	17.34021862-34021862	missense variant	MODERATE	Ring1	protein coding	tolerated low confidence(0.85)
rs 20538025	17:3/027/82_3/027/82	missense_variant	MODERATE	H7-Ke6	protein_coding	deleterious (0)
rc 12460125	17:24027621 24027621	missonso_variant	MODERATE		protoin_coding	telerated(1)
rc 12492057	17.24020001 24020001	missense_variant	MODERATE	SIc2027	protein_coding	tolorated(1)
1515462957	17.34050404-34050404	missense_variant	MODERATE		protein_couling	tolerated(0.48)
1551544304	17:34051801-34051801	missense_variant	MODERATE		protein_coding	
rs108271195	17:34058912-34058912	missense_variant	MODERATE	Colliaz	protein_coding	deleterious (0.04)
rs10///0/21	17:34060883-34060883	missense_variant	MODERATE	Col11a2	protein_coding	-
rs52524928	17:34060927-34060927	missense_variant	MODERATE	Col11a2	protein_coding	-
rs50664936	17:34064107-34064107	missense_variant	MODERATE	Col11a2	protein_coding	-
rs13465922	17:34092487-34092487	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Oa	protein_coding	tolerated(0.13)
rs107864498	17:34093947-34093947	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Oa	protein_coding	deleterious (0.01)
rs29537293	17:34137130-34137130	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-DMa	protein_coding	tolerated(0.28)
rs46850624	17:34147859-34147859	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-DMb2	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs47444840	17:34148553-34148553	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-DMb2	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs107773684	17:34148580-34148580	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-DMb2	protein coding	tolerated(0.37)
rs46675833	17:34153438-34153438	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-DMb1	protein coding	tolerated(0.55)
rs50974609	17:34155592-34155592	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-DMb1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs108028778	17.34157248-34157248	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-DMb1	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs 107906207	17:3/157275_3/157275	missense variant	MODERATE		protein_coding	tolerated(0.3)
rc109271522	17.24157275-54157275	missense_variant			protein_coding	tolerated(0.5)
107619321	17.34159043-34159045	missense_variant	MODERATE		protein_coding	tolerated(0.05)
rs107618331	17:34159932-34159932	missense_variant	MODERATE	HZ-DIVIDI	protein_coding	tolerated(0.95)
rs46967024	17:34183092-34183092	missense_variant	MODERATE	PSmb9	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs8242301	17:34189492-34189492	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.4)
rs8242314	17:34190620-34190620	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.34)
rs8242352	17:34192956-34192956	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.12)
rs3023450	17:34193620-34193620	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap1	protein_coding	deleterious(0)
rs33481450	17:34201249-34201249	missense_variant	MODERATE	Psmb8	protein_coding	tolerated(0.76)
rs48553326	17:34205464-34205464	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap2	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(1)
rs3023453	17:34205553-34205553	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap2	protein_coding	deleterious_low_confidence(0.04
rs16797607	17:34211985-34211985	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap2	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs8258631	17:34214091-34214091	missense_variant	MODERATE	Tap2	protein_coding	tolerated(0.21)
rs8258631	17:34214091-34214091	missense_variant	MODERATE	Gm15821	protein_coding	-
rs107815810	17:34241132-34241132	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ob	protein coding	deleterious(0.04)
rs107918950	17:34243469-34243469	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ob	protein coding	deleterious(0)
rs51014158	17:34243516-34243516	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ob	protein coding	tolerated(0.2)
rs33422582	17.34244101-34244101	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ob	protein coding	-
rs 29521642	17:34244102-34244102	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ob	protein_coding	tolerated low confidence(0.42)
rs 108/0/306	17:3/253888_3/253888	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ob	protein_coding	
rc1096E0960	17.24252600-5425260	missense_variant			protein_coding	- tolorated(0.12)
13108030800	17.34203304-34203304		MODERATE		protein_couling	deleterieus (0.02)
rs108367066	17:34263396-34263396	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-AD1	protein_coding	deleterious(0.03)
rs249227964	17:34264772-34264772	missense_variant	MODERATE	HZ-ADI	protein_coding	tolerated(0.08)
rs232662853	1/:34264/82-34264/82	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs243195174	17:34264788-34264788	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	deleterious (0.05)
rs251232353	17:34264823-34264823	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.07)
rs107595512	17:34264866-34264866	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs108861703	17:34264886-34264886	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.82)
rs243280705	17:34264947-34264947	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	deleterious (0.02)
rs212127444	17:34265000-34265000	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.25)
rs230460846	17:34265001-34265001	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.41)
rs107916351	17:34265013-34265013	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.16)
rs46283069	17:34267345-34267345	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein coding	tolerated(0.21)
rs50772011	17:34267943-34267943	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Ab1	protein coding	tolerated(0.33)
rs108782685	17:34284329-34284329	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Aa	protein coding	tolerated(0.43)
rs 245672706	17.34284344_24284323	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Aa	protein_coding	tolerated(0.55)
rc 721961617	17.2/28/2/7 2/20/2/7	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Aa	protein_coding	tolerated(0.07)
13231001012	11.34204347-34204347	IIII3SEIISE_Valialit	NODERATE	112-Ma	protein_coung	
15245/00111	17.24204240 24204240	micconco verient	MODEDATE		protoin codinc	toloratod(0.47)
	17:34284348-34284348	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Aa	protein_coding	tolerated(0.47)
rs47178192	17:34284348-34284348 17:34284376-34284376	missense_variant missense_variant	MODERATE MODERATE	H2-Aa H2-Aa	protein_coding protein_coding	tolerated(0.47) tolerated(0.62)

rs108109771	17:34284522-34284522	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Aa	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs51434336	17:34305957-34305957	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Eb1	protein_coding	deleterious(0.04)
rs33342125	17:34309660-34309660	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Eb1	protein coding	tolerated(0.43)
rs50132005	17:34309834-34309834	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Eb1	protein coding	tolerated(0.65)
rs33173284	17:34309841-34309841	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Eb1	protein coding	tolerated(0.36)
rs33420323	17:34309852-34309852	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Fb1	protein coding	tolerated(0.2)
rs29518325	17:34325755-34325755	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Fh2	protein_coding	deleterious(0)
rs45786693	17:34334376-34334376	missense variant	MODERATE	H2-Eb2	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rc 40041515	17.24224412 24224412	missonso variant	MODERATE		protein_coding	tolerated(1)
1549941313	17.34334413-34334413	missense_variant	MODERATE		protein_coding	torerated(1)
1551319403	17:34330420-34330420	missense_variant	MODERATE		protein_coding	-
r\$49265145	1/:343388/8-343388/8	missense_variant	MODERATE	HZ-EDZ	protein_coding	deleterious_low_confidence(0)
rs29502799	1/:34343/14-34343/14	missense_variant	MODERATE	Н2-Еа-рѕ	protein_coding	-
rs48758718	17:34347462-34347462	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Ea-ps	protein_coding	-
rs33281739	17:34358084-34358084	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl2	protein_coding	deleterious(0.04)
rs33666306	17:34358117-34358117	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl2	protein_coding	deleterious (0.04)
rs50071031	17:34363519-34363519	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl2	protein_coding	tolerated(0.56)
rs46192952	17:34363537-34363537	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl2	protein_coding	deleterious (0.03)
rs107609151	17:34377959-34377959	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.5)
rs13482958	17:34381084-34381084	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl1	protein_coding	tolerated(0.16)
rs33426892	17:34457450-34457450	missense_variant	MODERATE	BC051142	protein_coding	-
rs49977333	17:34460076-34460076	missense_variant	MODERATE	BC051142	protein_coding	deleterious_low_confidence(0)
rs50218359	17:34472368-34472368	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl4	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs48488783	17:34472624-34472624	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl4	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs46085868	17:34472636-34472636	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl4	protein coding	deleterious(0)
rs 33389488	17:34472696-34472696	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl4	protein_coding	tolerated(0.42)
rs 33550576	17:34472050 34472050	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl/	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rc 109210426	17.24507049 24507049	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btol6	protein_coding	deleterious low confidence(0.01
15108519420	17.34507946-54507946	missense_variant	MODERATE	Duilo	protein_coung	telerated law confidence(0.01
15108769382	17:3450/987-3450/987	missense_variant	MODERATE	Buillo	protein_coding	tolerated_IOW_confidence(0.6)
rs10/93406/	17:34508035-34508035	missense_variant	MODERATE	Bthi6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.59)
rs48141160	17:34508068-34508068	missense_variant	MODERATE	Bthl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.23)
rs4/86/628	17:34508228-34508228	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.75)
rs47289933	17:34508368-34508368	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.51)
rs108106217	17:34508396-34508396	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.6)
rs229345218	17:34508899-34508899	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.79)
rs108213795	17:34513643-34513643	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.27)
rs49003639	17:34513661-34513661	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs257003719	17:34514047-34514047	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.24)
rs51696402	17:34514077-34514077	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs48992697	17:34514128-34514128	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.51)
rs217260305	17:34514155-34514155	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
rs46505847	17:34514402-34514402	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs214685089	17:34514414-34514414	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein coding	deleterious(0.02)
rs247407291	17:34514496-34514496	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein coding	tolerated(0.58)
rs50576946	17:34515429-34515429	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein coding	tolerated(1)
rs215934976	17:34515434-34515434	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.52)
rc/8110203	17:34515434 34515434	missense variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.52)
rc107727212	17.34515445-54515445	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btol6	protein_coding	tolerated(0.07)
15107757212	17.34515477-54515477	missense_variant	MODERATE	Duilo	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
1549770915	17:34515478-34515478	missense_variant	MODERATE	BUILO	protein_coding	
rs107892072	17:34515500-34515500	missense_variant	MODERATE	Bthib	protein_coding	deleterious(0.02)
rs108657364	1/:34515563-34515563	missense_variant	MODERATE	Btnl6	protein_coding	tolerated(1)
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		-		· · ·	0	```

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rs226420083	17:35345176-35345176	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Q2	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.76)
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rs48809372	17:35383016-35383016	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Q4	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(1)
rs218228737	17:35383094-35383094	missense_variant	MODERATE	H2-Q4	protein_coding	tolerated_low_confidence(0.16)

Variant	Location	Consequence	IMPACT	SYMBOL	ΒΙΟΤΥΡΕ	SIFT
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rs222438566	17:35188379-35188380	frameshift_variant	HIGH	Lst1	protein_coding	-
rs239381499	17:35345698-35345699	frameshift_variant	HIGH	H2-Q2	protein_coding	-
Variant	Location	Consequence	IMPACT	SYMBOL	BIOTYPE	SIFT
rs218848588	17:28905681-28905684	inframe_deletion	MODERATE	4930539E08Rik	protein_coding	
rs235277251	17:33065334-33065337	inframe_deletion	MODERATE	4921501E09Rik	protein_coding	
rs241036860	17:33912659-33912662	inframe_deletion	MODERATE	Daxx	protein_coding	
rs220101824	17:34092468-34092477	inframe_deletion	MODERATE	H2-Oa	protein_coding	
rs244364491	17:35150280-35150283	inframe_deletion	MODERATE	Prrc2a	protein_coding	

### **Chapter 4**

## Essential role of IL-1RI signaling in protection against

### Cryptococcus neoformans infection

Manuscript under revision

### Mitra Shourian<sup>1,2</sup>, Ben Ralph<sup>3,4</sup>, Isabelle Angers<sup>2,5</sup>, Donald C. Sheppard<sup>3,4,6</sup>, Salman T. Qureshi<sup>1,2,5,6 \*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Division of Experimental Medicine, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada

<sup>2</sup> Meakins-Christie Laboratories, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada.

<sup>3</sup> Program in Infectious Diseases and Immunology in Global Health, Centre for Translational Biology, The Research Institute of the McGill University Health Center (RI-MUHC), Montréal, Québec, Canada.

<sup>4</sup> Department of Microbiology and Immunology, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada

<sup>5</sup> Program in Translational Research in Respiratory Diseases and Department of Critical Care, The Research Institute of the McGill University Health Center (RI-MUHC), Montréal, Québec, Canada

<sup>6</sup> Department of Medicine, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada

\* Corresponding author: Dr. Salman T. Qureshi, salman.qureshi@mcgill.ca.

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### **Preface to Chapter 4**

In chapter 2 of my thesis, I showed that IL-1 $\beta$  is one of the proinflammatory cytokines that is highly induced in resistant *Cnes2* congenic mice following infection. Previous work in our lab also has reported higher expression of this cytokine in the lungs of resistant SJL/J compared to susceptible C57BL/6 mice following *C. neoformans* 52D infection. Although production of IL-1 $\beta$ in our and other studies has been associated with protection against cryptococcal infection, there is no study that has demonstrated a causal effect. Genetically engineered deficiency of IL-1RI, a common signaling receptor for both II-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$ , on the C57BL/6 genetic background did not significantly alter host susceptibility to *Cryptococcus* H99 infection; however, a caveat of this study is the fact that wild type C57BL/6 mice with intact IL-1RI function are extremely susceptible to H99 infection. Therefore, to rigorously examine the effect of IL-1R signaling on *Cryptococcus* infection, we generated IL-1R knockout mice on the resistant BALB/c background and analyzed the host susceptibility phenotype and immune response following *C. neoformans* 52D infection.

#### 4.1. Abstract

Interleukin-1 alpha (IL-1 $\alpha$ ) and IL-1 beta (IL-1 $\beta$ ) are pro-inflammatory cytokines that are induced following Cryptococcus. neoformans infection and activate the IL-1 Receptor type I (IL-1RI). To establish the role of IL-1RI signaling in cryptococcal infection, we analyzed wild type (WT) and IL-1RI-deficient (IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup>) mice on the BALB/c background. IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice had significantly reduced survival compared to WT mice after intratracheal challenge with C. neoformans 52D. Microbiological analysis showed a significant increase in the lung and brain fungal burden of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> compared to WT mice beginning at week 1 and 4 post-infection, respectively. Histopathology showed that IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice exhibit greater airway epithelial mucus secretion and prominent eosinophilic crystals that were absent in WT mice. Susceptibility of IL-1RI-/- mice was associated with significant induction of a Th2-biased immune response characterized by pulmonary eosinophilia, M2 macrophage polarization, and recruitment of CD4<sup>+</sup> IL-13<sup>+</sup> T cells. Expression of pro-inflammatory (IL-1α, IL-1β, IL-6, TNFα, MCP-1), Th1-associated (IFNγ, IL-12) and Th17-associated (IL-17) cytokines was significantly reduced in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> lungs compared to WT. WT mice also had higher expression of KC/CXCL1 and sustained neutrophil recruitment to the lung; however, antibody-mediated depletion of these cells showed that they were dispensable for lung fungal clearance. In conclusion, our data indicate that IL-1RI signaling is required to activate a complex series of innate and adaptive immune responses that collectively enhance host defense and survival following C. neoformans infection.

#### 4.2. Introduction

*Cryptococcus neoformans* is an encapsulated yeast that is estimated to cause approximately 1 million cases of meningitis throughout the world each year (32). In healthy individuals, inhalation of infectious propagules is usually contained in the lung, but among those with a defective immune response, uncontrolled replication may result in dissemination to other parts of the body with a tropism for the brain (15, 17). Severe cryptococcal disease occurs primarily in patients with uncontrolled HIV/AIDS and is also found in solid organ transplant recipients, those receiving exogenous immunosuppression, patients with primary or acquired immunodeficiency, and increasingly among immunologically normal hosts (14, 195, 280, 339).

The pattern of cytokine expression is a crucial determinant of the pathogenesis of cryptococcal infection (17, 115, 116, 340, 341). Th1-type cytokines (IL-12 and IFN $\gamma$ ) promote phagocytosis by dendritic cells and polarize macrophages towards a classically activated phenotype (M1), thereby increasing fungal clearance (262, 289, 342, 343). On the other hand, Th2-type cytokines (IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13) are associated with a significant eosinophil chemotaxis to the lungs and induction of alternatively activated (M2) macrophages that facilitate cryptococcal proliferation and dissemination (267, 298, 344). Finally, there is accumulating evidence that Th17-type cytokines (IL-17 and IL-23) also contribute to protection against *C. neoformans* infection (269, 294, 345, 346).

The mechanisms that initiate and regulate the innate immune response against *C. neoformans* infection are not fully understood. The interaction of *C. neoformans* with host cells triggers production of several pro-inflammatory cytokines including TNF $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-1 (347-350). Both IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  are induced during cryptococcal infection *in vitro* (210, 347, 348, 351-353) and *in vivo* (139, 191, 264, 354-356) in a NLRP3-dependent manner, and internalization of opsonized encapsulated cryptococci has been shown to activate the canonical NLRP3–ASC–caspase-1 and non-canonical NLRP3–ASC–caspase-8 inflammasome (353, 357). The magnitude of IL-1 expression between inbred mice with different genetic backgrounds has also been associated with natural resistance or susceptibility to progressive cryptococcal infection (354). Following intratracheal infection with *C. neoformans* 52D, the level of IL-1 $\beta$  expression was 11-fold higher in the lungs of resistant SJL/J inbred mice compared to the susceptible C57BL/6 inbred strain. A subsequent analysis of wild type and IL-1R deficient mice on the C57BL/6 genetic background

did not identify significant differences in survival or fungal dissemination following intranasal infection with *C. neoformans* H99; however, at day 12 post-infection the IL- $1R^{-/-}$  mice had a modest elevation of lung fungal burden (264).

Given the essential role for cytokine-mediated inflammation and the evidence for IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$ induction in response to C. neoformans, we hypothesized that the contribution of IL-1R-dependent signaling to host defense may have been underestimated by infection of wild type and IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice on the susceptible C57BL/6 genetic background with a highly virulent C. neoformans strain. To test this hypothesis, we performed intratracheal inoculation of inbred BALB/c mice and IL-1R<sup>-</sup> <sup>1-</sup> mice on the same genetic background with C. neoformans 52D and analyzed fungal burden and immune responses at serial time points. This approach was chosen to model the process of natural infection in a relatively resistant host with a moderately virulent cryptococcal strain. Our findings demonstrate that IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice had a significantly higher fungal burden in the lungs and brains as well as a significantly higher mortality compared to BALB/c mice. In IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice, C. neoformans 52D infection was associated with heightened lung eosinophilia, elevated airway mucus secretion, and greater recruitment of M2 macrophages and CD4<sup>+</sup> Th2 cells along with significantly fewer lung neutrophils, DCs, Th1, and Th17 cells. Taken together, this study shows that IL-1R-dependent signaling plays an essential role in protection against lethal C. neoformans infection by triggering a complex innate and adaptive immune response and raises the possibility that modulation of this signaling axis could be a potential therapeutic strategy.

#### 4.3. Materials and Methods

**Mice.** Inbred BALB/c mice were purchased from Charles River and maintained in our facility. IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice were purchased from Jackson Labs and backcrossed to BALB/c for 10 generations. Mice were provided with sterile food and water, and cared for according to the Canadian Council on Animal Care guidelines. All experiments were performed using 7- to 9-week old male mice. Mice were humanely euthanized with CO<sub>2</sub> upon completion of experiments, and every effort was made to minimize suffering. All experimental protocols were reviewed and approved by the McGill University Animal Care Committee.

*C. neoformans*. *C. neoformans* 52D (ATCC 24067) was grown and maintained on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) (BD, Becton Dickinson and Company). To prepare an infectious dose, a single colony was suspended in Sabouraud dextrose broth (BD) and grown to early stationary phase (48 h) at room temperature on a rotator. The stationary phase culture was then washed with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), counted on a hemocytometer, and diluted to  $2 \times 10^5$  CFU per ml in sterile PBS. The fungal concentration of the experimental dose was confirmed by plating a dilution of the inoculum on SDA and counting the CFU after 72 h of incubation at room temperature.

Intratracheal infection with *C. neoformans*. For intratracheal administration of *C. neoformans*, mice were anesthetized with 150 mg/kg of ketamine (Ayerst Veterinary Laboratories) and 10 mg/kg of xylazine (Bayer) intraperitoneally. A small skin incision was made below the jaw along the trachea, and the underlying glands and muscle were separated. Infection was performed by intratracheal injection of  $10^4$  *C. neoformans* in 50µl PBS through a 22-gauge catheter via a 1-ml tuberculin syringe. The incision was closed using the 9-mm EZ clip wound closing kit (Stoelting CO), and mice were monitored daily following surgery.

**Tissue isolation and CFU assay.** After mice were euthanized with CO<sub>2</sub>, their lungs, spleen, and brain were excised and placed in sterile, ice-cold PBS. Tissues were then homogenized using a glass tube and pestle attached to a mechanical tissue homogenizer (Glas-Col), and plated at various dilutions on Sabouraud dextrose agar. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 72 h, and CFU were counted. For survival analyses, mice were inoculated as stated above and monitored twice daily for up to 110 days post-infection.

**Histopathological analysis.** Following euthanasia, lungs were perfused with ice-cold PBS via the right ventricle of the heart. Using 10% buffered formalin acetate (Fisher Scientific), the lungs were inflated to a pressure of 25 cm H<sub>2</sub>O and fixed overnight. Subsequently, lungs were embedded in paraffin, sectioned at  $5\mu$ m, and stained with hematoxylin-eosin (H&E), periodic acid-Schiff (PAS), or mucicarmine reagents at the Histology Facility of the Goodman Cancer Research Centre (McGill University). Representative photographs of lung sections were taken using a BX51 microscope (Olympus), QICAM Fast 1394 digital charge-coupled device (CCD) camera (QImaging), and Image-Pro Plus software version 7.0.1.658 (Media Cybernetics).

**Flow cytometry.** Lungs were excised using sterile technique and placed in RPMI (Gibco, Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Wisent). Subsequently lungs were minced using surgical blades and incubated with 1 mg/ml collagenase (Sigma) at 37°C for 1 h. Following incubation, lung pieces were passed through a 16-gauge needle and filtered through a 70 $\mu$ m cell strainer (BD). Red blood cells were removed using ACK lysis buffer before the cells were counted using a Beckman Coulter Z1 particle counter. Fc receptors were blocked with the addition of unlabeled anti-CD16/32 antibodies (93; eBioscience), and single-cell suspensions were stained with the following fluorescence-conjugated anti-mouse monoclonal antibodies purchased from eBioscience (eBio), BD, and BioLegend (BL): CD45 (30-F11), B220 (RA3-6B2), CD3e (145-2C11), CD4 (GK1.5), CD8 (53-6.7), CD49b (DX5),  $\gamma\delta$  TCR (GL3), CD11b (M1/70), CD11c (N418), MHCII (M5/114.15.2), Ly6G (1A8), F4/80 (BM8), CD86 (GL1), CD40 (3/23), CD80 (16-10A1), Nos2 (CXNFT), CD206 (C068C2). Non-viable cells were excluded using fixable viability dye reagent (eBio). Data were acquired using a LSR-II flow cytometer (BD) and analyzed using Flow Jo software.

**Intracellular flow cytometry**. For intracellular cytokine staining of T-cells, lungs were processed as described above. Cells were plated in 96 well plates and stimulated for 4 h with phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) and calcium ionophore (Ionomycin) in the presence of brefeldin A (GolgiPlug) for the final 3 h. Cells were then washed, blocked with anti-CD16/32 antibodies, and stained with a surface antibody cocktail consisting of anti-CD3 (145-2C11), anti-CD4 (GK1.5;), anti-CD8(53-6.7), and anti-CD45(30- F11). Cells were then fixed, permeabilized, and stained with IL-13 (eBio13A), IFNγ (XMG1.2), and IL-17(17B7). Data were acquired using a LSR-II flow

cytometer with gating determined by fluorescence-minus-one (FMO) controls and analyzed using FlowJo software.

Total lung cytokine and chemokine production. Mice were euthanized and lungs flushed with 10 ml of ice-cold PBS. Whole lungs were homogenized in 2 ml PBS with Halt protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Fisher Scientific) using a sterilized glass tube and pestle attached to a mechanical tissue homogenizer (Glas-Col) and spun at 12,000 rpm for 20 min. Supernatants were collected, and aliquots were stored at -80°C for further analysis. The following cytokines and chemokines in whole-lung protein samples were analyzed using DuoSet enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits (R&D Systems): TNF $\alpha$  (DY410), IL-6 (DY406), IL-1 $\beta$  (DY401), IL-1 $\alpha$  (DY400), MCP-1 (MJE00), IL-12/IL-23P40 (DY2398), IFN $\gamma$  (DY485), CXCL1/KC (DY453), IL- 17A (DY421) and IL-13 (DY413).

**Neutrophil depletion.** BALB/c mice received an intratracheal inoculum of  $1 \times 10^4$  CFU of *C*. *neoformans* strain 52D. Mice were treated with control or anti-1A8 antibody (Bio X Cell) one day prior to infection and daily during the study. At day 12 post-infection, lungs were excised and fungal burden were analyzed.

Statistical analysis. To test the significance of single comparisons, an unpaired Student t test was applied (with a threshold P value of  $\leq 0.05$ ), unless otherwise stated. For all experiments, the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) is shown. Survival curves were analysed by the log-rank test. All statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism software version 6 (GraphPad Software Inc.)

#### 4.4. Results

# IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice have impaired survival and an increased fungal burden in the lung, brain, and spleen following *C. neoformans* infection.

To investigate the role of IL-1RI-mediated signaling following C. neoformans 52D infection, we constructed IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice on the BALB/c background by repeated backcrossing. We challenged mice with C. neoformans 52D and measured the survival rate and tissue fungal burden. No deaths were observed in WT mice; however, IL-1RI-/- mice started to die at 40 days post-infection and had an 100% mortality rate at 72 days post-infection (Figure 1A). Microbiological analysis also showed a significant increase of fungal burden in IL-1RI-/- mice compared to the WT strain at all time points tested (Figure 1B). Importantly, a significant difference in lung fungal burden was observed at 7 days post-infection, suggesting that the IL-1RI signaling affects the initial host response to C. neoformans infection. At 35 days post-infection, there was almost a 20-fold increase of lung CFU in the IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> compared to the WT strain. Analysis of the spleen showed a trend towards higher CFU in the IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to the WT strain that reached statistical significance at day 14 post-infection (Figure 1C). Analysis of the brain showed comparable CFU in both strains at 14 days post-infection; however, at 35 days post-infection all of the WT mice had cleared the infection while 10/16 (62%) of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice still had detectable fungal growth (Figure 1D). Taken together, these data establish an essential role for IL-1R-mediated signaling in the innate and adaptive control of C. neoformans 52D pulmonary growth and organ dissemination.

# An altered pattern of pulmonary inflammation is present in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> lungs following *C*. *neoformans* infection.

The significant differences in survival and fungal burden between WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice prompted us to investigate the effect of IL-1RI signaling on lung pathology following infection with *C. neoformans* 52D. Histopathological analysis was conducted at 35 days post-infection to correspond with the greatest difference in fungal burden prior to the onset of mortality (Figure 2A-C). H&E staining revealed that WT mice displayed abundant lung leukocyte infiltration that was almost absent in the IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> strain. Notably, eosinophilic crystals that have been associated with alternatively activated macrophages in *C. neoformans* infection were clearly observed in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> lung sections but were absent in the WT. Mucicarmine staining of the cryptococcal cell wall showed that most fungi were located within WT phagocytes with only a few visible extracellular organisms in the parenchyma or airways. In contrast, IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> sections showed lung parenchyma that was filled with heavily encapsulated extracellular cryptococci. PAS staining revealed exuberant mucus secretion by airway epithelial cells in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice; however, this was not observed in the airways of WT mice. Taken together, this histopathological analysis confirmed the results of the lung fungal burden studies and demonstrated reduced inflammation with signs of Th2 polarization in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to the WT strain.

# Inflammatory cytokine and chemokine expression is decreased in the lungs of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice following *C. neoformans* infection.

To determine the effect of IL-1RI signaling on the production of soluble inflammatory mediators, WT and IL-1RI-/- mice were infected with C. neoformans 52D and the concentration of proinflammatory cytokines (IL-1a, IL-1β, TNFa, IL-6), chemokines (MCP-1, KC), Th1-associated cytokines (IFNy, IL-12), and representative Th2-associated (IL-13) and Th17-associated (IL-17) cytokines was measured in whole lung homogenates at serial time points (Figure 3). No significant differences in the expression of these mediators was observed between two strains prior to infection (data not shown). In WT mice, expression of both IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  was induced in the lungs at day 7 post-infection and continued to rise until day 14 post-infection. Compared to WT, IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice had stable and significantly lower induction of these two cytokines at day 7 and day 14 post-infection. The expression of TNFa, IL-6, MCP-1, and KC was significantly higher in WT compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at day 7 and day 14 post-infection. Significantly greater induction of IFNy, IL-12, and IL-17 was also observed in the lungs of WT mice compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> at day 7 and day 14 post-infection. IL-13 production did not differ between strains at day 7 and day 14 post-infection, although a modest increase was observed in IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to WT at day 21 post-infection. In summary, WT mice exhibited significantly greater induction of proinflammatory, Th1, and Th17 cytokines, as well as chemokines, compared to IL-1RI-/- mice; these findings demonstrate a broad effect of IL-1RI signaling on the lung inflammatory response following C. neoformans infection.

# IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice exhibit reduced neutrophil and increased eosinophil recruitment to the lungs following *C. neoformans* infection

To characterize the effect of IL-1RI signaling on the cellular immune response following *C. neoformans* infection, flow cytometry analysis of whole-lung digests was performed on WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at serial time points post-infection. Prior to infection, no significant difference was observed in the total number of lung leukocytes between the two strains. The total number of CD45<sup>+</sup> cells peaked at day 14 in both strains; however, it was significantly higher in WT compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at 14 and 21 days post-infection (Figure 4). At 7 days post-infection neutrophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup>, CD11b<sup>+</sup>, Ly6G<sup>high</sup>) were the most frequent leukocyte subset in both strains; however, their frequency and total number was significantly higher in the WT compared to the IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> strain and this pattern was maintained until 21 days post-infection. Conversely, the frequency and number of lung eosinophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup>, CD11b<sup>+</sup>, Siglec F<sup>+</sup>, SSC<sup>high</sup>) was significantly higher in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to the WT strain at 7 days post-infection and this pattern was even more pronounced at 14 and 21 days post-infection. This data suggests that IL-1R signaling plays an important role in recruitment of neutrophils during the innate and adaptive phases of the host response to *C. neoformans* 52D infection. In the absence of IL-1R, mice develop significant and sustained lung eosinophilia that is associated with a higher fungal burden.

To evaluate the functional significance of early and sustained neutrophil recruitment to the lungs of BALB/c mice following infection with *C. neoformans* 52D, the effect of antibody-mediated depletion on tissue fungal burden and lung cell infiltration was characterized. Briefly, WT mice received 200 µg of anti-Ly6G antibody (clone 1A8) in a volume of 100 µl via intraperitoneal injection 24 hours prior to infection and every other day thereafter. To capture the overall effect of neutrophil depletion during the innate and adaptive phases of immunity, lung fungal burden was determined at 12 days post-infection. Interestingly, this analysis showed that neutrophil-depleted mice had a significantly lower cryptococcal burden in the lungs compared to control mice (Figure 4G-H).

# IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice recruit fewer inflammatory DC and M1 polarized macrophages to the lung following *C. neoformans* infection.

Inflammatory monocyte-derived macrophages (ExMs) and dendritic cells (DCs) are important for protection against C. neoformans infection (142, 296). We investigated the effect of IL-1RI signaling on recruitment of ExMs and DCs by harvesting lungs at different times post-infection and analyzing cells by flow cytometry. As both ExMs and DCs express CD11b, CD11c and MHCII, we used auto-fluorescence to distinguish macrophages from DCs (296, 303) (Figure 4A). This analysis showed comparable recruitment of both cell types between the two strains at day 7 post-infection; however, WT mice had a significantly higher number of inflammatory DCs (day 14 and 21) and ExMs (day 21) compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Figure 5B, C). The macrophage polarization pattern is also important for protection against cryptococcal infection (111, 116). Classically activated macrophages (M1) that express high levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, produce high levels of reactive nitrogen and oxygen intermediates, and promote strong IL-12mediated Th1 responses are efficient killers of C. neoformans. In contrast, alternatively activated macrophages (M2) that express chitinase-like 3 (Ym1), found in inflammatory zone (FIZZ1), mannose receptor (CD206) and arginase-1 (Arg1) have reduced pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion and are less microbicidal (8, 17, 115, 358, 359). As the number of recruited macrophages peaked at day 14 post-infection in both strains, we characterized polarization at this time point using iNOS and CD206 as representative markers for M1 and M2 macrophages, respectively (Figure 5D). At 14 days post-infection, the frequency of M1 macrophages was significantly greater in WT mice compared to IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice while the frequency of M2 macrophages was greater in IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> compared to WT mice (Figure 5E). Notably, IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> macrophages showed greater upregulation of CD206 compared to WT macrophages at 14 days post-infection (Figure 5F). There was no significant difference in the total number of AMs between two strains, although there was a trend towards a higher number of AMs in WT mice compared to IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice at day 7 postinfection (data not shown). Taken together, these results indicate that IL-1RI signaling has an important role in recruitment of inflammatory DCs and macrophages and increases the ratio of M1/M2-polarized macrophages following C. neoformans infection.

### T cells are the predominant sources of IL-17 and IFN $\gamma$ in WT lungs infected with *C. neoformans* 52D

To characterize the mechanism of differential IL-17 and IFN $\gamma$  expression between WT and IL-IRI<sup>-/-</sup> lungs, we identified the main sources of these cytokines following *C. neoformans* 52D infection. Using intracellular cytokine staining, we first measured the total number of IL-17 producing cells in the lungs of WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at early (day 7) and late (day 14 and day 21) phases of infection. Compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice, WT mice showed significantly more IL-17 producing cells at 7, 14, and 21 days post-infection and a higher number of IFN $\gamma$ -producing cells at day 7 post-infection (Figure 6A-C). Several immune cell types including CD4<sup>+</sup> (Th17), CD8<sup>+</sup> T (Tc17) cells, NK cells, and iNKT cells have been shown to produce IL-17 during fungal infection (360, 361). At day 7 post-infection, intracellular cytokine staining of WT lymphocytes showed that CD4<sup>+</sup> and  $\gamma\delta$ T cells were the most common IL-17<sup>+</sup> subsets (Figure 6D). A similar pattern was observed at day 21 post-infection with CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells and  $\gamma\delta$ T cells accounting for 60% and 20%, respectively of IL-17<sup>+</sup> cells. At day 7 and day 21 post-infection, CD4<sup>+</sup> T and NK cells were the predominant IFN $\gamma$ -producing subsets (Figure 6E).

## Effect of IL-1RI signaling on the lung lymphocyte infiltration following *C. neoformans* infection

As lymphocytes are necessary for effective clearance of *C. neoformans*, we compared the recruitment of CD4<sup>+</sup> or CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells,  $\gamma\delta$ T cells, and B cells to the lungs of WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at different time points following infection. Flow cytometry analysis showed that WT mice recruit a significantly higher number of CD4<sup>+</sup> cells compared to the IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> strain at 14 and 21 days post-infection (Figure 7A). Recruitment of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was comparable between the two strains at all time points, although WT mice showed a trend towards a higher number of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells at day 21 compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Figure 7B). WT mice demonstrated increased recruitment of  $\gamma\delta$ T cells at day 14 and day 21 post-infection compared to uninfected mice; in contrast, there was no significant increase of this cell type in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice during infection (Figure 7D). No differences in the number of B cells recruited to the lungs during infection were observed between the two strains selectively

regulates T lymphocyte recruitment to the lungs during the adaptive phase of immunity against *C*. *neoformans* 52D infection.

# Pulmonary CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells from IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice display diminished Th17 and increased Th2 cytokine production following *C. neoformans* infection

It has been clearly shown that a Th1/Th17 response is protective and a Th2 response is detrimental, respectively, against *C. neoformans* infection (62). To analyze the effect of IL-1R signaling on T cell differentiation during infection, we harvested lungs at serial time points, restimulated the cells with PMA/Ionomycin, and stained for intracellular IFN $\gamma$ , IL-13, and IL-17 as representative cytokines for Th1, Th2, and Th17 polarization states, respectively (Figure 8). The results demonstrate a significantly higher frequency and total number of CD4<sup>+</sup> IFN $\gamma^+$  cells in the lungs of WT compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at 7 days post-infection with a non-significant trend towards more CD4<sup>+</sup> IFN $\gamma^+$  cells at day 14 and 21. Compared to the IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> strain, WT mice showed a trend towards more CD4<sup>+</sup> IL-17<sup>+</sup> cells at day 7 with a significant increase of this cell type at day 14 and 21. In contrast, IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> lungs contained a significantly higher number of CD4<sup>+</sup> IL13<sup>+</sup> cells compared to WT lungs at 14 and 21 days post-infection. In summary, these findings demonstrate that following *C. neoformans* infection, IL-1RI signaling significantly increased Th1 differentiation during the early phase of infection and strongly promoted Th17 differentiation during the late phase of infection.

#### 4.5. Discussion

Induction of IL-1 $\alpha/\beta$  during mouse cryptococcal infection has been reported but a clear role for IL-1R-dependent signaling in the host immune response has not been demonstrated (264, 347, 352-354). Here we provide evidence that IL-1RI deficiency has deleterious effects on the outcome of pulmonary cryptococcal infection. The most significant findings of this study are: 1) IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice cannot clear moderately virulent *C. neoformans* 52D and develop progressive infection of the lungs and brain resulting in death starting at day 40 post-infection, 2) Susceptibility of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice is associated with reduced levels of proinflammatory, Th1, and Th17 cytokines, 3) IL-1RI signaling in response to *C. neoformans* infection regulates the recruitment of inflammatory DCs to the lung, contributes to M1 polarization of macrophages, and promotes Th1/Th17 differentiation of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, 4) Lung neutrophil recruitment associated with IL-1R signaling is dispensable for protection against cryptococcal infection. Taken together, these data clearly demonstrate that IL-1R-dependent signaling plays a complex and essential role in the control of progressive cryptococcal infection.

Previously, intranasal infection of C57BL/6 and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice with 2 x  $10^4$  CFU of the virulent C. neoformans H99 strain was shown to cause >90% mortality in both groups (264). In the same report, mice lacking MyD88, an intracellular adaptor for IL-1RI, IL-18R, and several Toll-like receptors, had a trend towards reduced survival but no significant difference in fungal burden compared to WT mice after C. neoformans challenge (264). Notably, two earlier studies showed that MyD88<sup>-/-</sup> mice have a significantly shorter survival time and a higher lung fungal burden compared to WT, TLR2<sup>-/-</sup> and TLR4<sup>-/-</sup> mice following C. neoformans infection (254, 255). These differences may be attributable, at least in part, to variation in the experimental methods that were used including the dose, route, and strain of C. neoformans (62, 64, 362, 363). Furthermore, inbred mouse strains also display marked differences in resistance or susceptibility to a standardized cryptococcal infection, highlighting the importance of the host genetic background in disease pathogenesis (253, 291, 321). Our data is consistent with other studies showing that BALB/c mice have a naturally resistant phenotype following respiratory infection with the moderately virulent C. neoformans 52D strain. Specifically, BALB/c mice progressively clear pulmonary C. neoformans 52D infection in association with numerous hallmarks of a protective Th1 response including tight mononuclear cell infiltrates and classically activated macrophages and do not

develop central nervous system dissemination (256, 291, 298, 316). Our observation that both IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  were strongly induced in the lungs of BALB/c mice following intratracheal infection with *C. neoformans* 52D is also consistent with earlier reports that associated the induction of IL-1 $\beta$  in lung and brain with resistance to cryptococcal infection (354, 364, 365).

IL-1 is a central mediator of inflammation and links innate and adaptive immune response mechanisms (366). Binding of IL-1 $\alpha$  or IL-1 $\beta$  to IL-1RI is followed by the recruitment of the IL-1 receptor accessory protein (IL-1RAcP) and activation of signal transduction pathways that induce the expression of IL-1 responsive genes including IL-6, monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP-1), and TNFα (367-370). Induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines followed by generation of a Th1 adaptive immune response is critical for control of cryptococcosis (116, 176, 341). Compared to the BALB/c strain, IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice had significantly reduced expression of IL-6, KC, TNFα, and MCP-1 that was associated with increased lung fungal burden at day 7 after infection. TNFa is one of the main target genes of the IL-1 signaling cascade (369, 370) and both mediators share downstream pathways that induce pro-inflammatory gene expression (371, 372). TNF $\alpha$  signaling in the afferent phase of cryptococcal infection is associated with optimal DC activation and induction of Th1/Th17 polarization and protective immunity (176, 177, 373-375). MCP1/CCR2 signaling is also responsible for the recruitment of inflammatory DCs and macrophages following cryptococcal infection (142, 257, 296). Thus, the reduced expression of proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines is one mechanism that could explain the susceptibility of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice to progressive cryptococcosis.

Following *C. neoformans* infection, DCs phagocytose and kill cryptococci by oxidative and nonoxidative mechanisms, play an important role in antigen presentation, and drive protective immune responses by secreting cytokines and chemokines (128, 129, 376, 377). Compared to other innate cell types, lung DCs express a high level of IL-1RI (78)(78)(77)(76)(77) and signaling via this receptor has been shown to promote the maturation and survival of pulmonary DCs and their CCR7-dependent migration to lymph nodes after Influenza A infection (378). At 14 and 21 days post-infection with *C. neoformans*, the total number of CD11b<sup>+</sup> DCs in the lung was significantly lower in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> compared to WT mice, suggesting that recruitment and activation of DCs in the LALNs may be regulated by IL-1R signaling in this model. The significant reduction of IL-12 expression in the lungs of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to WT at 14 days post-infection is also consistent with this possibility. In addition to DCs, inflammatory macrophages that strongly express microbicidal enzymes such as iNOS play a significant role in fungal clearance (142, 256, 296, 311). Following *C. neoformans* 52D infection we observed that lung macrophages of IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice had reduced expression of the classical activation marker iNOS and increased expression of the alternative activation marker CD206 compared to WT, a pattern that is associated with reduced fungal killing capacity. Our findings are similar to a recent study in BALB/c mice infected with *C. neoformans* 52D that correlated an elevated ratio of Arg1/iNOS expression with an increase in fungal burden and showed a reversal of this ratio during the subsequent period of fungal clearance (111).

Significantly greater neutrophil recruitment was observed in WT compared to IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> lungs beginning at an early phase of infection and continuing until day 14. Both IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  can promote neutrophil migration (379-382), and diminished neutrophil recruitment to the site of infection due to IL-1R deficiency has been associated with increased susceptibility to several bacterial and fungal infections including Legionella pneumophila, Group B Streptococcus, Citrobacter rodentium, and Candida albicans (361, 383-387). Inbred mouse strains including SJL/J, CBA/J, and BALB/c are naturally resistant to pulmonary cryptococcal infection and exhibit substantial neutrophil recruitment the lungs; however, the importance of these cells in host protection is not clear (253, 321, 354). For example, an early study of BALB/c mice given a single injection of anti-Gr-1 (anti-Ly6C/6G) antibody showed less inflammatory damage and significantly longer survival compared to controls after C. neoformans 52D infection (148). A subsequent study of BALB/c mice that had undergone prior immunization with C. neoformans strain H99y showed that neutrophil depletion with a specific anti-Ly6G antibody did not affect pulmonary fungal burden (147). Finally, a recent report showed that profound neutrophilia in type 2-deficient STAT6<sup>-/-</sup> mice on a C57BL/6 background was associated with immunopathology and exacerbation of cryptococcal disease (388). To specifically analyze the contribution of neutrophils to resistance against C. neoformans 52D, we used anti-Ly6G to deplete these cells in WT BALB/c mice throughout the course of infection (389, 390). In the absence of neutrophil recruitment we observed a significantly lower lung fungal burden at 12 days post-challenge compared to controls. This finding suggests that, despite their abundance in the lung, neutrophils may have a detrimental effect on host defense against moderately virulent C. neoformans 52D (148). Several mechanisms may explain this observation, including competition for cryptococcal antigen between neutrophils

and antigen-presenting cells, neutrophil secretion of the immunosuppressive cytokine TGF $\beta$ 1, or production of IL-1 receptor antagonist, a molecule that inhibits IL-1R signaling (387, 391-395). Further research is necessary to precisely establish the physiological mechanisms that control neutrophil recruitment during cryptococcal infection and to determine whether these cells make a positive contribution to host resistance.

In addition to reduced proinflammatory cytokines, IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice showed diminished levels of lung IFN $\gamma$  compared to WT mice at the early (day 7) and late (day 14 and 21) phases of infection. Intracellular cytokine staining identified CD4<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes as the most prominent IFN $\gamma$ -producing cell type. As very few studies have identified IL-1R expression on Th1 cells (396), induction of IFN $\gamma$  expression by CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells appears to be an indirect effect of IL-1RI signaling on DCs and possibly other cell types (378). IFN $\gamma$  plays a central role in host defence against cryptococci by enhancing the fungal internalization and killing by phagocytes (176, 177). An important role for early IFN $\gamma$  secretion and the development of a Th1 response against *C. neoformans* 52D infection was previously shown in resistant C.B-17 mice (a BALB/c strain congenic for C57BL/6 immunoglobulin heavy chain gene segment), whereas the absence of this response in the C57BL/6 strain correlated with susceptibility (341).

IL-1 is known to regulate the expression of the transcription factors IRF4 and ROR $\gamma$ t, both of which play a major role in the induction of CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> (Th17) cells in mice and humans (397-399). IL-1 signaling has been shown to be essential for development of Th17 immunity to infection with *Coccidioides sp* (400), and mice with deletions of IL-17 or IL-17R are susceptible to candidiasis, pulmonary aspergillosis, and histoplasmosis (361). The role of IL-17 during cryptococcal infection has been analyzed using mice with a C57BL/6 genetic background. In one study, IL-17RA deficiency did not impair pulmonary clearance of *C. neoformans* 52D at 1 or 6 weeks post-infection, nor did it alter survival compared to WT mice (180). Another study using IL-17A-deficient mice showed that this cytokine does contribute to fungal clearance from the lung but was not essential for 8-week survival (269). In contrast, administration of IL-23, which is essential for the differentiation of Th17 lymphocytes, led to prolonged survival and reduced fungal burden in C57BL/6 mice (346). A Th17-polarized immune response appears to facilitate the resolution of *C. neoformans* 52D infection through several mechanisms including lung recruitment of activated DCs and inflammatory macrophages, induction of IFN $\gamma$ -producing CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T

cells, and enhanced fungal containment within macrophages (269, 294, 345, 346). Compared to BALB/c, IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice display several phenotypes that may be attributable to a diminished Th17 response including reduced recruitment of DCs and inflammatory macrophages and increased recruitment of eosinophils and CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-13<sup>+</sup> cells to the lungs. Based on the marked difference between WT and IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice we speculate that IL-17 plays a non-redundant role in survival following *C. neoformans* 52D infection; however, studies of BALB/c mice that are deficient for IL-17 or IL-17RA would be required to formally test this hypothesis.

In mouse models, IL-1 signaling is protective against infection with a wide spectrum of intracellular pathogens including Leishmania amazonensis, Mycobacterium avium, Toxoplasma gondii, and Listeria monocytogenes (401-405). IL-1RI deficient mice are also highly susceptible to pulmonary challenge with Aspergillus fumigatus; in this model, IL-1 $\alpha$  has been shown to be crucial for optimal leukocyte recruitment and IL-1 $\beta$  has been shown to be essential for optimal activation of macrophage anti-fungal activity (406). It has been suggested that polymorphisms in the IL-1 gene cluster might be important in susceptibility or resistance to invasive pulmonary aspergillosis in humans (407, 408). Both IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  have also been shown to play an important role in disseminated candidiasis (409-412) and IL-1 signaling has shown to contribute to host resistance against pulmonary histoplasmosis and Coccidioides sp. infection (400, 413). The current study expands the role of IL-1 in host defense by demonstrating that IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice are highly susceptible to progressive C. neoformans infection of the lungs and brain. IL-1R deficiency in BALB/c mice results in impaired Th1/Th17 responses and the development of a Th2-biased adaptive immune response. As IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  are equally potent activators of IL-1RI signaling yet have different tissue distribution and activation kinetics, future studies that characterize mice that are deficient in either IL-1a or IL-1\beta could define the specific contribution of each cytokine in the development of protective immunity against C. neoformans infection.

### Figures

Figure 4. 1. IL-1RI signaling is required for survival and control of pulmonary fungal burden following infection with *C. neoformans*. WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice were infected intratracheally with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* strain 52D. (A) Mice were observed for up to 110 days for survival analysis (n=12 mice/strain using a log-rank test). (B-D) Fungal burden in the lung, brain, and spleen at serial time intervals was determined by plating tissue homogenates on SDA. CFU data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments. \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$ 0.01; \*\*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001, using an unpaired Student's t-test (B) and Mann–Whitney U test (C, D).


Figure 4. 2. Decreased inflammation in the lungs of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice following infection with *C. neoformans.* WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice were infected intratracheally with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D. Lungs were harvested at day 35 post-infection, perfused with PBS, embedded in paraffin and stained with H&E, mucicarmine, and PAS. Representative H&E images (A) show a significant reduction of inflammation in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> compared to WT mice; black arrow indicates the eosinophilic crystals in IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> lung. Mucicarmine staining (B) shows numerous heavily encapsulated extracellular *C. neoformans* in the airspaces of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to WT mice. Representative images of lungs stained with PAS (C) show goblet cell hyperplasia and exuberant mucus in the airways of infected IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice compared to WT mice. Each image is representative of 2 independent experiments.



Figure 4. 3. IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> lungs have decreased inflammatory cytokine and chemokine expression following *C. neoformans* infection. Whole lung protein was collected at 7, 14 and 21 days post-infection with 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* 52D. ELISA was performed to determine the level of pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and Th1/Th2/Th17-type cytokines. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments (n= 4 mice/strain/time point). \*, P  $\leq 0.05$ ; \*\*, P  $\leq 0.01$ ; \*\*\*, P  $\leq 0.001$ .



Days post-infection

Figure 4. 4. IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice have decreased neutrophil and increased eosinophil recruitment to the lungs following *C. neoformans* infection. Lung cell suspensions from uninfected and infected WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice were stained with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry as described in Materials and Methods. (A) Absolute numbers of total CD45<sup>+</sup> cells in the lungs at 0, 7, 14, 21 days post-infection, (B) representative plots of gating for neutrophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup>, CD11b<sup>+</sup>, Ly6G<sup>high</sup>) and eosinophils (CD11c<sup>-</sup>, CD11b<sup>+</sup>, Ly6G low/negative, SSC<sup>high</sup>), (C-F) Frequency and total number of neutrophils and eosinophils at day 0, 7, 14, and 21 post-infection is shown. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments (n = 4 mice/strain/time point). \*, P  $\leq$  0.05; \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001. (G-H) BALB/c mice underwent intratracheal infection with 1 × 10<sup>4</sup> CFU of *C. neoformans* strain 52D. Mice were treated with control or with anti-Ly6G antibody one day prior to infection and daily thereafter for 12 days. Lungs were excised for analysis of neutrophil recruitment and CFU. (G) The number of neutrophils and (H) fungal burden is shown (n = 8 mice/group). \*\*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001.



Figure 4. 5. IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice have fewer inflammatory DCs and M1 polarized macrophages in lung following *C. neoformans* infection. Lung cell suspensions from uninfected and infected mice were stained with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry as described in Materials and Methods. (A) Gating strategy to distinguish AMs (CD11c<sup>+</sup>, MHCII low, AF<sup>+</sup>, CD11b<sup>-</sup>), ExMs (CD11c<sup>+</sup>, CD11b<sup>+</sup>, AF<sup>+</sup>) and DCs (CD11c<sup>+</sup>, MHCII<sup>+</sup>, CD11b<sup>+</sup>, AF<sup>-</sup>) is shown. (B, C) Total number of lung DCs and ExMs at 0, 7, 14 and 21 days post-infection is shown. (D) Representative plots of M1 (CD11b<sup>+</sup>, iNOS<sup>+</sup>) and M2 (CD11b<sup>+</sup>, CD206<sup>+</sup>) polarized macrophages in WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice at 14 days post-infection. (F) Upregulation of CD206 in AMs and ExMs in IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> compared to WT mice at day 14 post-infection, IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup>, gray filled lines; WT, white filled solid lines; uninfected mice, dashed lines. (G) Mean Fluorescence Intensity of CD206 expression on macrophages in WT compared to IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice is shown. Data are shown as mean ± SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments (n=4 mice/strain/time point). \*, P ≤ 0.05; \*\*, P ≤ 0.01; \*\*\*, P ≤ 0.001.



Figure 4. 6. T cells are the predominant sources of IL-17 and IFN $\gamma$  in BALB/c lungs infected with *C. neoformans*. (A) Lung cell suspensions from uninfected and infected mice were harvested and restimulated with PMA-Ionomycin followed by intracellular staining for IL-17 and IFN $\gamma$ . (A, B) Frequency of total CD45<sup>+</sup>IFN $\gamma^+$  and CD45<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> cells at 7, 14, and 21 days post-infection. (C) Representative flow cytometry plots of lung CD45<sup>+</sup> cells from individual mice harvested at 21 days post-infection. (D, E) Frequency of IL-17 and IFN $\gamma$  producing cell types in WT mice at 7 and 21 days post-infection is shown. Data are shown as mean ± SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments (n=4 mice/strain/time point). \*\*, P ≤ 0.01; \*\*\*, P ≤ 0.001.



Figure 4. 7. Lungs of IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice display fewer CD4<sup>+</sup> and  $\gamma \delta T^+$  lymphocytes during the adaptive phase of immunity following *C. neoformans* infection. Lung cell suspensions from uninfected and infected mice were stained with fluorochrome-labeled antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry as described in Materials and Methods. (A-D) Total number of CD3<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup>, CD3<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup>, CD3<sup>+</sup>  $\gamma \delta^+$  and B220<sup>+</sup> cells in the lungs at 0, 7, 14 and 21 days post-infection. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments (n = 4 mice/strain/time point). \*\*, P  $\leq$  0.01; \*\*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001.



Figure 4. 8. Decreased Th1/Th17 type cytokine expression by CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells from IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> lungs infected with *C. neoformans*. (A) Representative flow cytometry plots of lung lymphocytes from individual mice harvested at 14 days post-infection and restimulated with PMA-ionomycin, followed by intracellular staining for IFN $\gamma$ , IL-17, and IL-13. (B) Frequency and (C-E) total numbers of CD4<sup>+</sup>IFN<sup>+</sup>, CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> and CD4<sup>+</sup>IL13<sup>+</sup> cells are shown. Data are shown as mean ± SEM and representative of 2 independent experiments (n = 4 mice/strain/time point). \*, P ≤ 0.05; \*\*, P ≤ 0.01; \*\*\*, P ≤ 0.001.



Supplementary Figure 4.1: Decreased Th17 and increased Th2 transcription factors expression by CD4+ T cells from IL-1RI-/- lungs infected with *C. neoformans.* (A) Representative flow cytometry plots of lung lymphocytes from individual mice harvested at 14 dpi followed by intracellular staining for ROR $\gamma$ t, GATA3 and FOXP3. (B-C) Frequency and total numbers of CD4+ROR $\gamma$ t+, CD4+GATA3+ and CD4+FOXP3+ cells are shown. Data are representative of two independent experiment and expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM (n = 4-6 mice/time/strain). \*\*\*, P  $\leq$  0.001.



# **Chapter 5 Final Conclusion**

I have investigated genetic and immunological factors that control the host response to *C*. *neoformans* infection by applying both forward and reverse genetic approaches in mice. My results are based on a well-established experimental model of infection based on direct intratracheal injection of the 52D strain (ATCC 24067) which accurately models the pathogenesis of human disease (167, 414).

#### 5.1. Summary

In chapter 2 of my thesis, I validated the involvement of the *Cnes2* locus on mouse chromosome 17 with host susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection. The *Cnes2* interval was previously identified by QTL mapping between C57BL/6 and CBA parental strains using lung fungal burden as a phenotypic trait. Microbiological analysis revealed a significant effect of *Cnes2* on lung fungal clearance. Furthermore, the role of *Cnes2* on host susceptibility was confirmed by additional phenotypic assays including histology and detailed analysis of the host response. The main conclusion taken from this study was that the strong effect of *Cnes2* on host susceptibility was mediated by development of a sterilizing immune response characterized by increased expression of proinflammatory and Th1 cytokine/chemokines and increased recruitment of myeloid and lymphoid cells. Therefore, this study not only confirmed the biological effect of *Cnes2* on host susceptibility, but also revealed that *Cnes2* is a pleiotropic regulatory locus.

Since *Cnes2* spans a 31.1Mb interval and contains numerous genes, the resistant phenotype observed in B6.CBA-*Cnes2* mice could be regulated by more than one gene. As the next step, which is presented in chapter 3 of my thesis, I continued this study by generating and phenotyping a series of sub-congenic lines to narrow the critical interval and uncover regions or genes associated with susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection. As in chapter 2, the effect of each interval on tissue fungal burden and lung immune response was investigated following infection. This work yielded two major findings: First, the size of *Cnes2* interval was reduced by excluding the *Cnes2.1* and *Cnes2.3* sub-intervals based on their neutral effect on fungal burden and host immune response; and second, two independent sub-intervals, *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4*, were associated with enhanced lung fungal clearance and host immune responsiveness following infection.

In chapter 4 of my thesis, I investigated the role of interleukin 1 signaling on host susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection by a reverse genetic approach. Our previous data and other studies showed that both IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  are induced in mouse strains that are resistant to cryptococcal infection; however, their role in host protection had not been definitively studied. My current data reveals the critical role of IL-1 signaling on host resistance against *C. neoformans* infection through induction of proinflammatory cytokines and the development of a Th1 and Th17 immune response.

#### 5.2. Significance of Findings

#### 5.2.1. Significance of the forward genetic studies

- Recruitment of monocyte derived DCs and ExMs to the lung following cryptococcal infection
  was strongly associated with the resistant phenotype of *Cnes2* and its effective sub-congenic
  intervals (*Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4*). This result is consistent with other studies that have
  demonstrated the critical role of DCs and ExMs in protection against *C. neoformans* infection.
  I believe that gene(s) in the *Cnes2* interval have a potentially important direct or indirect effect
  on myeloid cell recruitment/activation following infection, possibly through induction of proinflammatory cytokines/chemokines. Consistent with this hypothesis, I have shown significant
  induction of MCP-1, the critical mediator for recruitment of monocyte-derived DCs and
  macrophages, in infected lungs of *Cnes2* mice.
- 2) I observed a 13 and 30 percent mortality rate in *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* strains infected with *C. neoformans* 52D, respectively, although both strains showed a significantly lower lung fungal burden with no significant difference in brain dissemination compared to control mice. In cryptococcal infection, excessive inflammation can result in severe lung pathology and ultimately death; therefore, it is important for the host to mount an appropriately regulated immune response to the pathogen (8, 93, 270, 326, 335, 415). In general, very high levels of chemokines and cytokines have been correlated with a fatal outcome (192, 416-418). The heightened inflammation in *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* mice may be a result of altered function of proteins that regulate host responsiveness to infection. Thus, I believe that the sub-congenic

strains that I have generated will be interesting and useful models for further investigations of an excessive and dysregulated immune response against *C. neoformans* infection.

3) The current study provides strong evidence for the contribution of two sub-congenic loci on mouse chromosome 17 in host susceptibility to *C. neoformans* infection. Although the causative mouse genes and their orthologs remain to be identified, in the future their role in human disease could be established using association or case control studies. Our data advances the understanding of genetic regulation of disease pathogenesis and could unravel pathways involved in the human response to cryptococcal disease in the future (246, 419).

#### 5.2.2. Significance of the reverse genetic studies

- The significantly decreased proinflammatory cytokines and higher fungal burden in the lungs of IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice during the early phase of infection confirms the critical role of IL-1 signaling in innate immune protection against cryptococcal infection. This study highlights the important effect of the cytokine milieu on macrophage polarization during the early phase of infection and the subsequent development of an effective Th1/Th17 immune response. In the absence of IL-1 signaling, mice with pulmonary cryptococcal infection develop a non-protective Th2 immune response.
- 2) In addition to important role of proinflammatory cytokines and early induction of a Th1 response, this study provides strong evidence for a heightened Th17 immune response in the resistant BALB/c strain. As discussed in chapter 4, the role of a Th17 response in cryptococcal infection is not clear; therefore, this model could be useful in defining its contribution to the immune response against *C. neoformans* infection.
- 3) Fungal burden analysis in the brain and survival data indicate the important role of IL-1 signaling on *C. neoformans* brain dissemination.
- 4) The neutrophil depletion study clearly reveals that these cells are not required for cryptococcal clearance in the lung and brain and their absence is associated with a protective Th1, rather than Th17, immune response.
- 5) Finally, this study not only demonstrates the essential role of IL-1 signaling in protective immune response against *C. neoformans* infection, but emphasizes the importance of considering the mouse genetic background in cryptococcal studies. As mentioned in chapter 4,

a previous study using IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice did not clearly demonstrate an important role of IL-1R signaling in *C. neoformans* infection. In addition to the different cryptococcal strains used in these two studies, the divergent observations may be attributable to the genetic background of the mouse strains that were used. It is clearly recognized that a defined mutation can have markedly different phenotypes when placed on different genetic backgrounds owing to different alleles and/or effects of modifier loci in various inbred strains (420).

#### 5.3. Future Directions

#### **5.3.1.** Future directions for the forward genetic studies

- 1) To rigorously investigate the role of *Cnes2* and *Cnes2.4* on brain dissemination, inflammation, and survival after cryptococcal challenge, experiments will be required among larger groups of mice and at serial time points following intratracheal infection. In the future, intravenous or intracerebral injection of *C. neoformans* could also provide insights into intrinsic antifungal host defenses of the central nervous system. To achieve this, lung and/or brain tissue could be harvested form sick animals prior to death and analyzed for fungal burden and immunopathology with specific immunostaining/histological markers. Furthermore, myeloid cell recruitment, activation/polarization, cytokine/chemokine expression, and the pattern of adaptive immunity could be analyzed in the lungs and/or brain of infected mice. Such data would provide insight into mechanisms of severe and or fatal disease due to lung and/or brain pathology caused by excessive inflammation in *Cnes2* or *Cnes2.4* lines.
- 2) A direct effect of one or both *Cnes2* sub-congenic intervals on macrophage or DC function could be verified by *in vitro* studies. For example, bone marrow-derived macrophages and DCs from congenic and parental strains could be cultured and stimulated with *C. neoformans* under different experimental conditions. Fungal killing, phagocytosis, and expression of activation or polarization markers by flow cytometry would then be analyzed following infection. In addition, comparative gene expression analysis by microarray or RNAseq on stimulated macrophages and DCs from control and congenic strains could be useful to identify potential candidate genes in each interval.

- 3) Several other QTLs associated with inflammatory/immune phenotypes have also been mapped to the same *Cnes2* sub-congenic intervals, suggesting that the underlying genes and/or variants may have broad regulatory functions. Therefore, it would be interesting to evaluate the effect of *Cnes2* and its effective sub-congenic intervals on the host immune response against different cryptococcal strains and other fungal pathogens such as *Candida sp.* or *Aspergillus sp.* The information gained from these studies may elucidate a wide-ranging effect of the genes and their associated variants within the *Cnes2* sub-congenic intervals on host antifungal immune responses.
- 4) Candidate gene analysis: The number of causal genes or variants have been definitively identified by QTL mapping approaches is small; however, this problem is being resolved by improvements in genomic technologies, transcriptomic and proteomic data, and growing databases of sequence variation (230, 240, 244, 245, 421). In fact, forward genetic approaches have been successful in the study of several infectious diseases and have revealed genes, proteins, and signaling pathways that play critical roles in the immune response to important human pathogens (236). Thus far, I have selected the most plausible candidate genes using *in silico* analysis by identifying deleterious variants in the *Cnes2.2* and *Cnes2.4* intervals. As the next step, it would be useful to analyse the different time intervals following *C. neoformans* infection (day 0, 14 and 21) by microarray or RNAseq. In many cases, a QTL will reflect quantitative changes in the expression, rather than sequence variation, of the underlying genes (203, 204, 242).
- 5) To validate the role of candidate genes chosen by sequence and/or expression analysis in *C. neoformans* infection, generating and phenotyping of mice bearing modifications at individual genes/alleles that may cause a loss- or gain-of-function will be performed (204, 323). Definitive identification of candidate genes or key molecular pathways in mice may lead to the characterization of corresponding human genetic factors that play a role in cryptococcal infection. For example, sequence variation or differential expression of a human gene that is associated with a variable host response to infection or is correlated with the geographical distribution of disease would support a role for that gene in cryptococcal disease and could facilitate disease risk prediction and/or disease management.

#### **5.3.2.** Future directions for the reverse genetic studies

- 1) To confirm a direct effect of IL-1RI signaling on macrophage and dendritic cell activation, polarization, cytokine secretion, and phagocytosis, a preliminary experiment with peritoneal macrophages needs to be confirmed using bone marrow-derived macrophages and dendritic cells in different stimulation conditions. To study the effect of IL-1 signaling on macrophages and DCs *in vivo*, it would be also interesting to adoptively transfer bone marrow derived macrophages (BMMs) and DCs (BMDCs) from WT to IL-1R<sup>-/-</sup> mice and analyze tissue fungal burden, lung cytokine expression, and cell recruitment following infection.
- It would be interesting to perform a comparative study of the role of innate lymphoid cell populations in BALB/c and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mouse strains since they may function as innate IFN-γ and IL-17-producing cells following *C. neoformans* infection.
- 3) The effect of Th17 cells on survival and fungal burden could be analyzed by positive selection of CD4<sup>+</sup>IL17<sup>+</sup> cells from resistant WT and transferring to IL-1RI deficient mice or by administration of IL-17 to IL-1RI knockout mice. Additional studies using T cells from mice that lack IL-17 could be informative.
- 4) Fungal burden analysis in the brain and survival data signify the important role of IL-1 signaling on *C. neoformans* brain dissemination; however, an intrinsic effect in the central nervous system could be established by intravenous injection of *C. neoformans* in WT and IL-1RI<sup>-/-</sup> mice followed by assays of survival, pathology, cytokine/chemokine secretion and inflammatory cell recruitment.
- 5) As IL-1α and IL-1β are equally potent activators of IL-1RI signaling yet have different tissue distribution and activation kinetics, the availability of mice that are deficient in either IL-1α or IL-1β provides an opportunity to analyze the specific contribution of each cytokine in the development protective immunity against *C. neoformans* infection.
- 6) Further studies are needed to identify the role of neutrophil recruitment in cryptococcal infection by more detailed phenotyping analysis of neutrophil-depleted mice.

### **5.4.** Final Conclusion

In general, my thesis provides strong evidence for the contribution of genetic factors on mouse chromosome 17 to the immune response against *C. neoformans* infection and shows that an adequate and tightly regulated immune response is important for optimal protection against progressive cryptococcal infection. Furthermore, it clearly demonstrates the essential role of IL-1 signaling in *C. neoformans* infection. These findings may help to guide future immunological studies in the human host during natural infection that are needed to evaluate conserved and/or species-specific immune responses. Ultimately, such knowledge will contribute to the development of more effective antifungal therapy (196).

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