

# Mating-Type-Specific Ribosomal Proteins Control Aspects of Sexual Reproduction in Cryptococcus neoformans

Giuseppe Ianiri, Yufeng Francis Fang, Tim A Dahlmann, Shelly Applen Clancey, Guilhem Janbon, Ulrich Kück, Joseph Heitman

### ▶ To cite this version:

Giuseppe Ianiri, Yufeng Francis Fang, Tim A Dahlmann, Shelly Applen Clancey, Guilhem Janbon, et al.. Mating-Type-Specific Ribosomal Proteins Control Aspects of Sexual Reproduction in Cryptococcus neoformans. Genetics, 2020, 214 (3), pp.635-649. 10.1534/genetics.119.302740. pasteur-02651450

## HAL Id: pasteur-02651450 https://pasteur.hal.science/pasteur-02651450

Submitted on 10 Jun 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Mating-type specific ribosomal proteins control aspects of sexual reproduction in Cryptococcus neoformans
2	m Cryptococcus neojormans
3	
4	
5 6	Giuseppe Ianiri <sup>1#</sup> , Yufeng "Francis" Fang <sup>1</sup> , Tim A. Dahlmann <sup>2</sup> , Shelly Applen Clancey <sup>1</sup> , Guilhem Janbon <sup>3</sup> , Ulrich Kück <sup>2</sup> , and Joseph Heitman <sup>1*</sup>
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12 13 14 15	<sup>1</sup> Department of Molecular Genetics and Microbiology, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, NC, 27710, USA. <sup>2</sup> Allgemeine und Molekulare Botanik, Ruhr-Universität Bochum, 44780, Bochum, Germany. <sup>3</sup> Unité Biologie des ARN des Pathogènes Fongiques, Département de Mycologie, Institut Pasteur, Paris, 75015, France.
16 17	*Present address: Department of Agricultural, Environmental and Food Sciences, University of Molise, 86100, Campobasso, Italy
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25 26 27 28 29 30	*Address correspondence to Joseph Heitman, Department of Molecular Genetics and Microbiology, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina, United States of America. Phone +1 (919) 684-2824. Fax (919) 684-2790. Email heitm001@duke.edu

#### Abstract

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

The MAT locus of Cryptococcus neoformans has a bipolar organization characterized by an unusually large structure, spanning over 100 kb. MAT genes have been characterized by functional genetics as being involved in sexual reproduction and virulence. However, classical gene replacement failed to achieve mutants for five MAT genes (RPL22, RPO41, MYO2, PRT1, RPL39), indicating that they are likely essential. In the present study, targeted gene replacement was performed in a diploid strain for both the  $\alpha$  and a alleles of the ribosomal genes RPL22 and RPL39. Mendelian analysis of the progeny confirmed that both RPL22 and RPL39 are essential for viability. Ectopic integration of the *RPL22* allele of opposite *MAT* identity in the heterozygous  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta$  or  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta$  mutant strains failed to complement their essential phenotype. Evidence suggests that this is due to differential expression of the RPL22 genes, and an RNAi-dependent mechanism that contributes to control RPL22a expression. Furthermore, via CRISPR/Cas9 technology the *RPL22* alleles were exchanged in haploid *MATα* and *MATa* strains of C. neoformans. These RPL22 exchange strains displayed morphological and genetic defects during bilateral mating. These results contribute to elucidate functions of C. neoformans essential mating type genes that may constitute a type of imprinting system to promote inheritance of nuclei of both mating types.

#### Introduction

Infectious diseases cause significant morbidity and mortality worldwide in both developed and developing countries. Fungal infections are common in humans and impact the majority of the world's population, but are often underestimated (BROWN *et al.* 2012). The *Cryptococcus* species complex includes basidiomycetous fungal pathogens that can cause lung infections and life-threatening meningoencephalitis in both normal and immunocompromised patients, accounting for approximately 1 million annual infections globally and almost 200,000 annual mortalities (RAJASINGHAM *et al.* 2017). The available drugs to treat *Cryptococcus* infections are amphotericin B, 5-flucytosine, and azoles. These drugs are characterized by limited spectrum, toxicity, unavailability in some countries, and emergence of drug resistance (BROWN *et al.* 2012).

In fungi, the mechanisms that govern sexual reproduction are controlled by specialized regions called mating type (*MAT*) loci. The genomic organization of the *MAT* loci can differ among fungi. The tetrapolar mating type includes two *MAT* loci, the P/R locus encoding pheromones and pheromone receptor genes defining sexual identity and mate recognition, and the HD locus encoding homeodomain transcription factors that govern post-mating developmental processes. In the tetrapolar system the P/R and HD loci are located on different chromosomes and segregate independently during meiosis, hence generating recombinant *MAT* systems. Conversely, in the bipolar mating system both the P/R and the HD loci are linked on the same chromosome, and recombination in this region is suppressed. A variant of the bipolar system is a mating conformation called pseudobipolar, in which the P/R and the HD loci are located on the same chromosome but unlinked, thus allowing (limited) recombination (COELHO *et al.* 2017).

C. neoformans has a well-defined sexual cycle that is controlled by a bipolar MAT system that is derived from an ancestral tetrapolar state. The C. neoformans MAT locus evolved in a unique configuration as it spans over 100 kb and contains more than 20 genes that control cell identity, sexual reproduction, infectious spore production, and virulence. The two opposite C. neoformans MATα and MATa alleles include divergent sets of the same genes that evolved by extensive remodeling from common ancestral DNA regions. Both the MATα and MATa allele contain five predicted essential genes: RPO41, PRT1, MYO2, RPL39, and RPL22 (LENGELER et al. 2002; FRASER et al. 2004). Rpo41 is a mitochondrial RNA polymerase that transcribes mitochondrial genes and also synthesizes RNA primers for mitochondrial DNA replication (SANCHEZ-SANDOVAL et al. 2015). Prt1 is a subunit of the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 (eIF3) that

plays a critical role in translation (BEZNOSKOVA *et al.* 2015). Myo2 is a myosin heavy chain type V that is involved in actin-based transport of cargos and is essential in *S. cerevisiae* (JOHNSTON *et al.* 1991). Rpl39 and Rpl22 are ribosomal proteins.

This study focused on the MAT ribosomal proteins, demonstrating that both RPL39 and RPL22  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha$  alleles are essential in C. neoformans. Because Rpl22 in yeast and vertebrates has been found to play specialized functions and extra-ribosomal roles (GABUNILAS AND CHANFREAU 2016; KIM AND STRICH 2016; ZHANG et~al.~2017; ABRHAMOVA et~al.~2018), we aimed to characterize the functions of the C.  $neoformans~RPL22\alpha$  and  $RPL22\alpha$  genes. We found that ectopic integration of an RPL22 allele failed to complement the essential phenotype due to the mutation of the RPL22 allele of opposite mating type. We found differential expression of the C.  $neoformans~RPL22\alpha$  and  $RPL22\alpha$  genes during mating, and discovered an RNAi-mediated mechanism that contributes to control  $RPL22\alpha$  expression. Next, using the CRISPR/Cas9 technology, RPL22 alleles were exchanged in haploid  $MAT\alpha$  and  $MAT\alpha$  strains of C. neoformans~and this resulted in morphological and genetic defects during bilateral mating. In summary, these studies reveal a novel role for diverged essential ribosomal proteins in controlling fungal sexual reproduction.

#### Materials and methods

96

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

- 97 **Strains and culture conditions.** The strains utilized in the present study are listed in table S1.
- 98 Heterozygous mutants were generated in the diploid *C. neoformans* strain AI187 (*MATα/MATa*
- 99 *ade2/ADE2 ura5/URA5*) according to a previously developed strategy (IANIRI AND IDNURM 2015).
- 100 C. neoformans strain AI187 was generated through the fusion of strains JF99 (MATa ura5) and
- 101 M001 (MATα ade2) (IDNURM 2010). For transformation of haploid C. neoformans strains, we
- employed H99α and KN99a (NIELSEN et al. 2003). All of the strains were maintained on yeast
- extract-peptone dextrose (YPD) agar medium.
- Molecular manipulation of *C. neoformans*. For the generation of heterozygous mutants, 1.5 kb regions flanking the genes of interest were amplified by PCR and fused with the *NAT* marker
- through *in vivo* recombination in *S. cerevisiae* as previously described (IANIRI AND IDNURM 2015).
- Split-marker gene replacement alleles were amplified from S. cerevisiae transformants with
- primers JOHE43263/ALID1229 and JOHE43264/ALID1230 in combination with ai37 and
- JOHE44324, respectively. The amplicons were precipitated onto gold beads and transformed into
- 110 C. neoformans with a Bio-Rad particle delivery system (TOFFALETTI et al. 1993); W7
- 111 hydrochloride was added to YPD + 1 M Sorbitol to increase the efficiency of homologous
- 112 recombination (ARRAS AND FRASER 2016). Transformants were selected on YPD + NAT and
- screened for homologous recombination events by PCR with primers external to the replaced
- regions in combination with primers specific for the *NAT* marker, and with gene-specific internal
- primers. The primers used are listed in Table S2.

For complementation experiments, a region of 2397 bp including the *RPL*22α gene with its promoter and terminator was amplified by PCR from *C. neoformans* H99α genome and cloned in pCR<sup>TM</sup>2.1 according to the manufacturers' instructions. Similarly, a region of 2648 bp including the *RPL*22a gene with its promoter and terminator was amplified by PCR from *C. neoformans* KN99a genome and cloned in pCR<sup>TM</sup>2.1 according to manufacturers' instruction. Plasmids were recovered from *E. coli* TOP10 and sequenced to identify error-free clones (Table S2). Sequence confirmed plasmids were digested with SpeI-XhoI and SpeI-NotI to obtain regions including the *RPL*22α and *RPL*22a genes, respectively. These fragments were purified and subcloned within the pSDMA57 plasmid for safe haven complementation (ARRAS *et al.* 2015) digested with the same enzymes. The recombinant plasmids were recovered from *E. coli* TOP10, linearized with AscI,

PacI, or BaeI, and transformed through biolistic in *C. neoformans* heterozygous mutants GI56  $(RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta)$  and GI81  $(RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta)$  as described above. *C. neoformans* transformants were selected on YPD + neomycin G418, and subjected to DNA extraction and PCR analyses to identify transformants having the correct insert within the safe haven region (ARRAS *et al.* 2015).

The recently-developed TRACE technology (Transient CRISPR/Cas9 coupled with electroporation) (FAN AND LIN 2018) was utilized for the generation of the  $5'\Delta$  *RPL22a* strain GI228 and the *RPL22* exchange alleles. For  $5'\Delta$  *RPL22a*, a homology directed repair (HDR) template consisting of 1.5 kb sections flanking the region upstream *RPL22a* targeted by sRNA was fused with the *NAT* marker through *in vivo* recombination in *S. cerevisiae* as described above.

For the generation of the RPL22 exchange alleles, we developed a dual CRISPR/Cas9 system to exchange the two different RPL22 alleles alone, and insert selectable markers (NAT or NEO) separately in the Safe Haven 2 (SH2) region. HDR templates were generating by fusing ~1.0 kb fragments flanking the RPL22 genes with the ORF of the opposite RPL22 gene. For the generation of a chimeric  $cRPL22\alpha$  (c = chimeric), the N-terminal region of  $RPL22\alpha$  (from nucleotide 1 to 268) and the C terminal region of  $RPL22\alpha$  (from nucleotide 253 to 600) were combined together by PCR, fused with ~1.0 kb regions flanking the  $RPL22\alpha$  gene, and employed as an HDR template. All HDR templates were assembled using overlap PCR as described in (DAVIDSON et al. 2002).

Specific guide RNAs (gRNA) were designed according to (FANG *et al.* 2017) using EuPaGDT (http://grna.ctegd.uga.edu/) available on FungiDB (https://fungidb.org/fungidb/). Complete gRNAs were generated by one-step overlap PCR, in which a bridge primer that comprises the 20 nucleotide gRNA guide sequences was utilized to integrate the U6 promoters (amplified from *C. deneoformans* XL280 genomic DNA) and the gRNA scaffold [amplified from the plasmid pYF515 (FANG *et al.* 2017)]. *CAS9* was amplified from pXL1-Cas9 (FAN AND LIN 2018). Safe Haven 2 (SH2) sequence was obtained from (UPADHYA *et al.* 2017). All PCR-amplifications were conducted using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (NEB). *C. neoformans* was transformed with *CAS9*, gRNAs, and HDR templates in through electroporation following the previously reported protocol (FAN AND LIN 2018). Transformants were screened for homologous recombination events by PCR as previously indicated.

Genetic analyses and scanning electron microscopy of reproductive structures. The heterozygous strains generated were grown on Murashige-Skoog (MS) medium to induce meiosis

and sporulation. Haploid *C. neoformans* mutants were crossed with *C. neoformans* WT strains of compatible mating type (H99 *MAT* $\alpha$  and KN99**a** *MAT***a**) on MS medium and monitored for the formation of sexual structures. Spores were micromanipulated and allowed to germinate onto YPD agar for 3 to 4 days at 30°C, and then tested for the segregation of the genetic markers. For the heterozygous strains the markers were nourseothricin resistance (NAT<sup>R</sup>) or sensitivity (NAT<sup>S</sup>), ura5/URA5, ade2/ADE2,  $MAT\alpha/MATa$ , plus neomycin G418 resistance (NEO<sup>R</sup>) or sensitivity (NEO<sup>S</sup>) for the complementing strains. For the haploid strains they were either NAT<sup>R</sup>-NAT<sup>S</sup> or NEO<sup>R</sup>-NEO<sup>S</sup>, and  $MAT\alpha$  or MATa. The analyses were performed by spotting 2  $\mu$ l of cell suspensions onto YPD + nourseothricin (100  $\mu$ g/ml) or neomycin (100  $\mu$ g/ml), YNB + adenine (20 mg/L) or YNB + uracil (40 mg/L). The mating type was scored by crossing haploid progeny to strains KN99**a** and H99 on MS media supplemented with adenine and uracil, and by evaluating the formation of sexual structures by microscopy (IDNURM 2010; IANIRI AND IDNURM 2015). For NAT<sup>R</sup> colonies the mating type was confirmed by PCR with primers JOHE39201-JOHE39202 (MATa) and JOHE39203-JOHE39204 ( $MAT\alpha$ ).

For strain YFF116 (rpl22a:: $RPL22\alpha$  NEO), genetic segregation of the MAT and NEO markers was carried out by crossing YFF116 x H99 $\alpha$  on MS, and by dissecting recombinant progeny as described above. Progeny that germinated were subjected to 10-fold serial dilution on YPD, YPD + neomycin, and hydroxyurea (125 mM). To evaluate the consequences of the rpl22a:: $RPL22\alpha$  genetic modification in unilateral and bilateral mating without the influence of the NEO marker, NEOS MATa progeny were crossed both with H99 $\alpha$  and the YFF92 strain.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed at the North Carolina State University Center for Electron Microscopy, Raleigh, NC, USA. Samples were prepared for SEM as previously described (Fu and Heitman 2017). Briefly, a small MS agar block containing hyphae was excised and fixed in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer, pH = 6.8, containing 3% glutaraldehyde at  $4^{\circ}$ C for several weeks. Before imaging, the agar block was rinsed with cold 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer, pH = 6.8 three times and post-fixed in 2% osmium tetroxide in cold 0.1 M cacodylate buffer, pH = 6.8 for 2.5 hours at  $4^{\circ}$ C. Then the block was critical-point dried with liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and sputter coated with 50 Å of gold/palladium with a Hummer 6.2 sputter coater (Anatech). The samples were viewed at 15KV with a JSM 5900LV scanning electron microscope (JEOL) and captured with a Digital Scan Generator (JEOL) image acquisition system.

RT-qPCR analysis during mating and statistical analysis. For RT-qPCR analysis of RPL22 expression during mating, strains were grown overnight in liquid YPD, and cellular density was adjusted to 1 x 10<sup>9</sup> CFU/mL. Equal amounts of each cellular suspension of strains to be analyzed were mixed, and 5 spots of 300 µl were placed onto one plate of MS agar per day of incubation. Control conditions were the single strains on YPD agar (2 spots of 300 µl per day of incubation). Every 24 h, cells were scraped off the MS plate, washed once with sterile water, lyophilized, and kept at -80°C until RNA extraction. RNA extraction was performed with the standard TRIzol protocol following the manufacturers' instructions (RIO et al. 2010). Extracted RNA was treated with DNase and purified with an RNA clean and concentration kit (Zymo Research). Then, 3 µg of purified RNA were converted into cDNA via the Affinity Script QPCR cDNA synthesis kit (Agilent Technologies). cDNA synthesized without the RT/RNase block enzyme mixture was utilized as a control for genomic DNA contamination. Approximately 500 pg of cDNA were utilized to measure the relative expression level of target genes through quantitative real-time PCR (RT-qPCR) using the Brilliant III ultra-fast SYBR green QPCR mix (Agilent Technologies) in an Applied Biosystems 7500 Real-Time PCR System. A control without template RNA was included for each target. Technical triplicates and biological triplicates were performed for each sample. Gene expression levels were normalized using the endogenous reference gene GDP1 and determined using the comparative  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

To determine whether the relative gene expression levels between strains of the same mating reaction in the same day of incubation (for example,  $RPL22\alpha$  and RPL22a expression in WT H99 $\alpha$  x KN99a cross after 48 h of incubation) exhibited statistically significant differences (p<0.05, p<0.01, p<0.001), the unpaired student's t-test with Welch's correction was applied. To compare the results of different strains in different mating reactions, ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was applied. Because in these comparisons we were interested in monitoring the changes in gene expression following genetic manipulation, only statistically significant differences (p<0.05, p<0.01, p<0.001) were displayed for the expression levels of the same gene on the same day of incubation in separate mating reactions (for example, RPL22a expression in WT H99 $\alpha$  x KN99a cross compared to RPL22a expression in  $rdp1\Delta$  x  $rdp1\Delta$  bilateral cross after 48 h of incubation). Statistical analyses were performed using the software PRISM8 (GraphPad, https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/).

- 217 **RNA structure modeling.** RNA structure modeling was conducted with RNAfold (LORENZ *et al.*
- 218 2011) with default settings.
- sRNA data processing. Small RNA (sRNA) sequencing libraries from C. neoformans WT H99  $\times$
- 220 KN99a cross and  $rdp1\Delta$  bilateral cross are as described in (WANG et al. 2010). The adapters
- 221 sequences (5-prime: GTTCAGAGTTCTACAGTCCGACGATC; 3-prime:
- TCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTGT) were removed by using cutadapt v1.9 (MARTIN 2011) and
- 223 trimmed reads were mapped with bowtie v1.2.2 (LANGMEAD et al. 2009) against the MATa
- 224 (AF542528.2) and MATα (AF542529.2) loci from C. neoformans strains 125.91 and H99,
- respectively (LENGELER et al. 2000). Mapping was performed by allowing a single nucleotide
- 226 mismatch and up to five alignments within both mating type loci, and the H99α genome.
- Furthermore, reads showing a single perfect match were considered in order to identify their
- 228 genetic origin. Read counts were calculated with SAMtools' depth function and by using custom
- made Perl scripts (LI et al. 2009; DAHLMANN AND KÜCK 2015). The read counts were normalized
- against tRNA mapping reads (tRNA read counts per 100,000 reads). The normalization factors for
- 231 the WT mating and the  $rdp1\Delta$  mating were calculated with 1.386 and 0.728, respectively.
- 232 Chemical genetic screen and phenotypic analysis. Phenotypic analysis was performed for all
- the strains listed in table S1 with the standard 10-fold serial dilution method. Tested conditions
- and stresses included: temperatures of 4°C, 25°C, 30°C, 37°C, 38°C, 39°C; antifungal drugs, such
- as amphotericin B (AmB, 1.5 µg/mL), 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC, 100 µg/mL), fluconazole (FLC, 20
- 236 μg/mL), FK506 (1 μg/mL), rapamycin (1 μg/mL); cell wall and plasma membrane stressors, such
- as YPD and YP supplemented with NaCl (1.5 M and 1 M, respectively) and sorbitol (2M and 1.5
- 238 M, respectively), caffeine (10 mM), calcofluor white (4 mg/mL), Congo Red (0.8%); genotoxic,
- oxidative, nitrosative and other stress-inducing agents, such as ethidium bromide (10 µg/mL),
- sodium nitrite (NaNO<sub>2</sub>, 1.5 mM), UV (150 µJ x cm<sup>2</sup>), hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, 3 mM),
- 241 cycloeximide (0.15 µg/mL), dithiothreitol (DTT, 15 mM), hydroxyurea (125 mM), tunicamycin
- 242 (0.7 μg/mL), benomyl (2.5 μg/mL), cadmium sulphate (CdSO<sub>4</sub>, 30 μM). Unless indicated, plates
- 243 were incubated at 30°C for 3 to 6 days and photographed.

Data Availability Statement. Strains and plasmids are available upon request. The authors affirm
 that all data necessary for confirming the conclusions of the article are present within the article,
 figures, and tables.

#### Results

The *MAT* ribosomal genes *RPL22* and *RPL39* are essential. Both the α and a alleles of the five predicted *MAT* essential genes (*RPL39*, *RPL22*, *MYO2*, *RPO41*, *PRT1*) were identified in the genomes of *C. neoformans* H99α and KN99a, and were subjected to targeted mutagenesis in the *C. neoformans* diploid strain AI187 according to the strategy reported by Ianiri and Idnurm with minor modifications (IANIRI AND IDNURM 2015). Briefly, cassettes for targeted gene replacement were generated by *in vivo* recombination in *S. cerevisiae*, and amplified by PCR to perform targeted mutagenesis via split-marker coupled with the use of the non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) inhibitor W7 hydrochloride (Fu *et al.* 2006; ARRAS AND FRASER 2016). These modifications were critical to increase the rate of homologous recombination, and allowed the generation of heterozygous mutants for both the *MAT*α and *MAT*a alleles of the *RPL39*, *RPL22*, and *MYO2* genes. Despite these modifications, heterozygous mutants for *RPO41* and *PRT1* were not obtained. This study reports the genetic analysis of mutants for the *MAT* ribosomal genes *RPL39* and *RPL22*, and further focuses on the characterization of the *RPL22* gene.

Heterozygous mutants were confirmed by PCR analyses, and then transferred onto MS medium supplemented with adenine and uracil and allowed to undergo meiosis, sporulation, and basidiospore production. Spores were micromanipulated on YPD agar and subjected to phenotypic analysis to assess the segregation of the four available markers (*URA5*, *ADE2*, *MAT*, *NAT*). Because the predicted essential genes were deleted by insertion of the *NAT* marker, the absence of NAT<sup>R</sup> progeny indicates an essential gene function. The other 3 markers were tested to exclude defects in meiosis: while the *URA5/ura5* and *ADE2/ade2* loci were expected to segregate independently, the segregation of the *MAT* region was expected to be linked to the mutated alleles, with progeny being only *MATa* when derived from *MATa* heterozygous deletion mutants, and only *MATa* when derived from *MATa* heterozygous deletion mutants.

Heterozygous mutants for the *MAT* ribosomal proteins Rpl39 and Rpl22 produced basidiospores that displayed a rate of germination ranging from 36% to 41% (Table 1). Mendelian analysis of the progeny confirmed that both the *MATa* and *MATa* alleles of Rpl39 and Rpl22 encode an essential function (Table 1). Figure 1 shows an example of the genetic analysis performed on progeny derived from strains GI233 (*RPL39a/rpl39a* $\Delta$ ) and GI56 (*RPL22a/rpl22a* $\Delta$ ). As expected, in all cases the progeny inherited only one *MAT* allele, which is the opposite of the mutated gene. One exception is that one NAT<sup>R</sup> progeny was obtained from

sporulation of the heterozygous  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22a\Delta$ ; further PCR analysis revealed that this strain has the mutated  $rpl22a\Delta NAT$  and an extra copy of the  $RPL22\alpha$  gene, suggesting that its NAT resistance is likely due to an euploidy of chromosome 5 (1n + 1) where the MAT locus resides.

The *C. neoformans RPL22* alleles are highly similar. The *RPL22a* and *RPL22a* genes share 83% identity at the DNA level, and the encoded proteins differ in 5 amino acids that are located in the N-terminal region (Fig. S1 A, B). With the exception of intron 1 that is 132 bp for *RPL22a* and 116 bp for *RPL22a*, both of the *C. neoformans RPL22* genes contain 4 exons and 3 introns of identical length. Intron 1 shares ~75% nucleotide identity, intron 2 shares ~75% nucleotide identity, and intron 3 shares ~60% nucleotide identity (Fig. 2A). *In silico* analysis of intron features revealed a canonical NG|GTNNGT motif at the donor sites for both *RPL22a* and *RPL22a*, and both canonical and non-canonical acceptor motifs CAG|G/C for *RPL22a* and YAG|Y/G for *RPL22a*. Four branch sites were predicted for each *RPL22* gene, with the canonical motif CTRAY being more represented (Fig. 2B). Note that the vertical bar represents the exon–intron junction, and Y and R indicate nucleotides with pyrimidine and purine bases, respectively. The length of the predicted polypyrimidine tracts ranged from 9 to 33 nt, and they differed only in intron 1 (Fig. 2A).

The rpl22a mutant was not complemented by the RPL22a allele. We sought to determine whether the Rpl22 MAT proteins play a specialized role in C. neoformans. The first approach was based on the heterologous expression of RPL22a or RPL22a in the heterozygous mutants  $RPL22a/rpl22a\Delta$  (strain GI81) and  $RPL22a/rpl22a\Delta$  (strain GI54). Briefly, the RPL22 genes including promoters and terminators were cloned into plasmid pSDMA57 for safe haven complementation with the NEO selectable marker (ARRAS  $et\ al.\ 2015$ ); the empty plasmid served as the control. NAT and NEO double drug resistance coupled with PCR analyses to confirm safe haven integration and lack of plasmid catenation were the basis to select transformants for analysis; in some cases, integration at the safe haven was not achieved, and a heterozygous mutant with ectopic integration of the plasmid was chosen for analysis.

Complementing heterozygous strains were sporulated on MS media, and segregation of the five markers available (*NEO*, *NAT*, *MAT*, *URA5*, *ADE2*) was determined in the germinated progeny. The criteria for the successful complementation of the mutant phenotype were: 1) presence of both NAT<sup>R</sup> and NEO<sup>R</sup> markers in which the progeny's *MAT* region segregated with

the mutated  $rpl22\Delta NAT$  allele – this indicates that the ectopic integration of the RPL22-NEO allele was able to confer viability in progeny that inherited the essential gene rpl22 deletion 2) absence of only NAT<sup>R</sup> progeny, because those that inherit the  $rpl22\Delta NAT$  allele are inviable; 3) presence of NEO<sup>R</sup> progeny that, together with progeny sensitive to NAT and NEO, inherited the MAT allele that contains the non-mutated copy of RPL22. Progeny that were both MATa and MATa were expected to be NAT<sup>R</sup> and either aneuploid or diploid.

Results from the complementation experiments in the heterozygous mutants are summarized in Table 2. For the heterozygous  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22a\Delta$  (GI56), ectopic introduction of a WT copy of RPL22a (strain GI151) was able to restore viability in the progeny, with the generation of three NAT<sup>R</sup> and NEO<sup>R</sup> progeny that were MATa (Fig. 3). Several attempts with both biolistic and electroporation of plasmid pSDMA57 +  $RPL22\alpha$  in strain GI56 yielded a low number of transformants, a high percentage of plasmid catenation, and lack of integration at the safe haven. Nevertheless, in two independent experiments 2 heterozygous  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22a\Delta + RPL22\alpha$  mutants (strains GI102 and GI154) with a single ectopic copy of the plasmid pSDMA57 +  $RPL22\alpha$  were isolated. Genetic analysis of basidiospores dissected from strain GI102 revealed surprising findings, with no NEO<sup>R</sup> progeny and two NAT<sup>R</sup> progeny that had an extra copy of  $MAT\alpha$ , which includes the  $RPL22\alpha$  gene and explains their NAT resistance (Fig. 3). Regarding transformant GI154, out of 20 spores that germinated, only one was solely NAT<sup>R</sup> and three were both NAT<sup>R</sup> and NEO<sup>R</sup>, and all were both MATa and  $MAT\alpha$ . These results indicated that the  $RPL22\alpha$  gene did not complement the rpl22a mutation. Finally, sporulation of strain GI104 bearing the empty plasmid pSDMA57 also produced one spore that was both MATa and  $MAT\alpha$  (Fig. 3).

Integration of  $RPL22\alpha$  at the safe haven (strain GI86) restored viability in progeny derived from the heterozygous  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta$  mutant, with the generation of four NAT<sup>R</sup> and NEO<sup>R</sup> strains that were  $MAT\alpha$ . For  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta + RPL22\mathbf{a}$ , none of the transformants obtained had the plasmid integrated at the safe haven. Several transformants having a single ectopic copy of the plasmid were sporulated on MS media, but none was able to form basidiospores for genetic analysis; a representative strain (GI150) is included in Table 2. These results indicate that  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta + RPL22\mathbf{a}$  complementing strains failed to sporulate and hence we could not assess proper functional complementation through genetic analysis of the meiotic progeny. Finally, as expected introduction of the empty plasmid in  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta$  (strain GI83) did not restore progeny viability.

*RPL22***a** expression is regulated by the RNAi pathway. Next, we sought to determine the expression levels of the *RPL22* genes during mating (H99 x KN99**a**) on MS medium in comparison to vegetative growth on YPD agar. While after 24 h of incubation both *RPL22* genes were expressed at a similar level, at 48 h *RPL22* $\alpha$  expression drastically decreased and remained lower than that of *RPL22***a** up to 96 h (Fig. 4A). Expression of *RPL22***a** was also higher than *RPL22* $\alpha$  during vegetative growth on YPD, reflecting the results obtained during mating (Fig. S2). These results indicate that the two *RPL22* alleles are differentially expressed, with *RPL22***a** expression being higher than *RPL22* $\alpha$  during both vegetative growth and mating.

What are the mechanisms that control RPL22 expression? Our hypothesis was that inefficiently spliced introns of  $RPL22\alpha$  could trigger RNA interference (RNAi) through the SCANR complex with subsequent silencing of the gene (DUMESIC *et al.* 2013). Analysis of intron retention (IR) and the splicing pattern of  $RPL22\alpha$  in several conditions revealed that intron 1 of  $RPL22\alpha$  is subject to IR, whereas there is minimal IR for introns 2 and 3 (Fig. S3). Mapping small RNA data from an H99 $\alpha$  x KN99a cross against the MATa and  $MAT\alpha$  regions, we found that no reads mapped against the RPL22 genes, including intronic regions and intron-exon junctions. This observation argues against the hypothesis that there is a direct role of RNAi in governing RPL22 gene expression.

Interestingly, analysis of the region surrounding the *RPL22* genes revealed that more than 54,989 sRNA reads map to the 2.2 kb region upstream of the *RPL22*a gene, which includes the *LTR11* and *LTR14* elements, and a candidate long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) predicted based on BLAST analyses. Several sRNA mapping parameters were tested to evaluate whether the sRNA reads map to multiple locations in the genome of *C. neoformans*, allowing us to determine the origin of sRNA reads that were mapped to the 5' upstream region of *RPL22*a. We found that the majority of the reads originated from the 5' upstream region of the *RPL22*a gene, while others originated from regions of the genome distant from *MAT* corresponding to the lncRNAs CNAG\_12037 and CNAG\_13142, and the region upstream of the lncRNA CNAG\_12435.

Analysis of the region upstream of the  $RPL22\mathbf{a}$  gene in an  $rdp1\Delta$   $MAT\alpha$  x  $rdp1\Delta$  MATa bilateral cross revealed a drastic reduction in sRNA reads (Fig. 4B), consistent with a role for RNAi in governing these sRNA. We then performed RT-qPCR of the  $rdp1\Delta$  x  $rdp1\Delta$  bilateral cross, and found that  $RPL22\mathbf{a}$  expression was lower than  $RPL22\alpha$  expression at 72 h and 96 h of incubation (Fig. 4C). Compared to a WT H99 $\alpha$  x KN99 $\mathbf{a}$  cross,  $RPL22\mathbf{a}$  expression was overall

lower whereas that of  $RPL22\alpha$  was higher (Fig. S4A). Increased expression of  $RPL22\alpha$  in the  $rdp1\Delta$  mutant bilateral cross corroborates previous findings (WANG et al. 2010), although  $RPL22\alpha$  expression seems to be indirectly regulated by RNAi because no sRNA map to the regions surrounding the  $RPL22\alpha$  gene (Fig S5).

We also performed RT-qPCR during a bilateral cross between mutants for the SCANR complex component Gwc1, and found strong downregulation [fold change (FC) < 0.5)] of both RPL22a and RPL22α (Fig. 4D; Fig. S4B). Lastly, we used the recently-developed CRISPR/Cas9 technology to accurately delete the MAT region in C. neoformans KN99a that is upstream of RPL22a and that is targeted by the abundant sRNA. The strain generated was named GI288 (5'\Delta RPL22a), and a schematic representation of the strategy is shown in Fig. S6A. RT-qPCR expression analysis during mating revealed that RPL22a expression remained higher than RPL22α, except at 72 h of incubation (Fig. 4E). As compared to RPL22 expression during the WT cross, RPL22a was strongly downregulated in the GI228 (5'Δ RPL22a) x H99α cross at 48 h and 72 h of incubation, while expression of RPL22α remained unchanged (Fig. S6B). Interestingly, expression of RPL22a during the GI288 (5' $\Delta$  RPL22a) x H99 $\alpha$  cross mirrors that of RPL22a during the rdp1 $\Delta$ bilateral cross, in accord with an RNAi-dependent mechanism regulating RPL22a expression (Fig. S6C). Despite the downregulation of RPL22a, the GI228 mutant strain does not display any morphological defect during vegetative growth, and its ability to mate with H99 and generate viable progeny was not compromised; as expected, genetic analysis of progeny derived from the GI228 x H99 cross showed co-segregation of NAT with MATa (data not shown).

RPL22 exchange allele strains exhibit sexual reproduction defects. We next sought to determine whether functional complementation of the RPL22 genes could be achieved by replacing either of them with the opposite RPL22 allele at the native locus within the MAT loci. To this end, we generated exchange alleles of RPL22α and RPL22a by means of CRISPR/Cas9, whose use was critical due to suppressed recombination within MAT. Because the RPL22 genes share a high level of identity (83%) (Fig. S1), specificity of the gene replacement was achieved by designing two specific guide RNA (gRNA) molecules that determined the sites for homologous recombination. Transformation was performed by electroporation with the simultaneous introduction of the three gRNAs [at the 5′ and 3′ of the RPL22 gene, and one for the Safe Haven 2 (SH2)], the homology-directed repair (HDR) RPL22 gene, and selectable markers NAT or NEO, which were introduced in the Safe Haven 2 (SH2) region to avoid unnecessary ectopic mutations

that could interfere with the resulting phenotype. Recipients for transformations were the most isogenic strains available for *C. neoformans* serotype A, H99 (*MATα*) and KN99**a** (*MATa*) (NIELSEN *et al.* 2003; JANBON *et al.* 2014; FRIEDMAN *et al.* 2018).

402

403

404

405

406 407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

In two independent transformation attempts, precise gene replacement of RPL22a with RPL22a at its native location within the  $MAT\alpha$  locus of H99 and correct integration of NAT in the SH2 were readily obtained. This resulted in the generation of rpl22\alpha::RPL22\alpha SH2::NAT mutant strains (YFF92) that differ from their parental strain at only the RPL22 gene. A schematic representation of the exchange strains generated is shown in Figure S7. Conversely, via the same strategy (i.e. two gRNA at the 5' and 3' of the RPL22) an RPL22a exchange allele strain could not be isolated. Because the RPL22 genes differ in only 5 amino acids that are located in the N-terminal region (Fig. S1, S7), to replace *RPL22a* with the Rpl22α coding gene a different strategy based on CRISPR/Cas9 was employed. In this approach we generated a chimeric *RPL22α* (c*RPL22α*) HDR template, which consisted of the N-terminus of  $RPL22\alpha$  fused with the C-terminus of RPL22a, and this was introduced into C. neoformans strain KN99a together with new gRNAs designed to target the 5' region of RPL22a (Fig 5A; Fig. S7). Several independent rpl22a::RPL22a<sup>N</sup>-RPL22a<sup>C</sup> SH2::NEO exchange strains were obtained, and one (strain YFF113) was chosen for further experiments. Allele exchange strains YFF92 and YFF113 were used in unilateral and bilateral crosses to evaluate both their MAT-specificity and the phenotypic consequence due to the absence of one RPL22 gene. In the presence of only RPL22a (cross KN99a x YFF92α) or RPL22α (cross H99α x YFF113a), the strains displayed no altered morphology and had WT mating ability, spore germination, independent segregation of the markers, and uniparental inheritance of mitochondria (Fig. 5B; File S2; Table 3). These results indicate that the absence of one Rpl22 allele does not affect mating efficiency or meiosis when the other allele is present in the native location within MAT. Interestingly, RT-qPCR revealed a higher level of expression of the chimeric cRPL22α gene in the KN99a background compared to that of RPL22a in the H99 background at 72 h and 96 h of incubation, hence displaying an opposite trend compared to the WT cross (Fig. 5D; Fig. S8A).

Because the approach utilized to generate strain YFF113 was successful, we employed the same gRNA to replace the RPL22a gene with a native copy of the RPL22a gene. After several unsuccessful attempts, we obtained one rpl22a::RPL22a strain (YFF116) with the NEO marker integrated ectopically in the genome, and not in the SH2 locus as planned (Fig. 6A; Fig. S7). Similar to findings presented above, in the presence of only the RPL22a gene (cross H99a x

YFF116a) no morphological and genetic defects were observed (Fig. 6C; File S2; Table 3). Remarkably, bilateral crosses of strains with exchanged RPL22 genes (YFF92 $\alpha$  x YFF116a) exhibited a high percentage of irregular basidia (Fig. 6D). High resolution scanning electron microscopy revealed that the majority of the basidia had no basidiospores, while others had a morphology defect (Figure 6E-F; File S3), and a low number had irregular basidiospore chains collapsed on the basidia (Figure 6G; File S3). The formation of clamp connections was not affected (Figure 6H; File S3). Basidiospores germinated from cross YFF92 $\alpha$  x YFF116a displayed a low germination rate (12%) and irregular segregation of the meiotic markers, with 3 progeny being MATa- $RPL22\alpha$ , no RPL22a- $MAT\alpha$  progeny, and 4 progeny being both  $MAT\alpha$  and MATa, hence aneuploid or diploid (Table 3). RT-qPCR analysis during YFF92 x YFF116 mating revealed low expression (FC < 1) of both RPL22 genes from 24 h to 96 h (Fig. 6B; Fig. S8B).

To confirm that this defect was due to the rpl22a:: $RPL22\alpha$  exchange allele and to exclude any influence of the NEO marker, 3 NEO<sup>S</sup> MATa F1 progeny (SEC876, progeny 7; SEC884, progeny 15; SEC889, progeny 20) obtained from the H99 $\alpha$  x YFF116a cross were backcrossed with both H99 $\alpha$  and YFF92 $\alpha$ . Corroborating the results obtained with strain YFF116, progeny SEC876, SEC884, and SEC889 displayed normal mating with H99 $\alpha$ , but when crossed with the the exchange allele strain YFF92 all three exhibited morphological defects remarkably similar to the YFF116 parent (Fig. S10B).

Phenotypic analysis of *rpl22* mutant strains. Heterozygous deletion mutants and exchange strains (Table S1) were tested for altered phenotypic traits (see Materials and Methods for details). Of the 28 stresses tested, few phenotypic differences among the isolates were observed on FLC, YP + NaCl, caffeine, 39°C and 4°C (Fig. S9). Exchange strain YFF116 (*rpl22a*::*RPL22α NEO*) displayed sensitivity to hydroxyurea compared to its parental strain KN99a (Fig. S9), but genetic analysis of the markers revealed that this was due to the ectopic integration of NEO (Fig. S10A).

#### Discussion

A previous study reported that the *MAT* locus of *C. neoformans* contains five genes (*RPL39*, *RPL22*, *MYO2*, *RPO41*, *PRT1*) that encode proteins required for viability (FRASER *et al.* 2004). The essential nature of these genes was inferred based on the inability to mutate them in a

haploid strain of *C. neoformans*. In addition to *C. neoformans*, *Candida albicans* is the only other fungus known to encode essential genes within the *MAT* locus (HULL *et al.* 2000; SRIKANTHA *et al.* 2012). It is likely that one function of *MAT*-essential genes is to constrain recombination and serve as a genetic buffer constraining loss of portions of the *MAT* locus, although they might also serve other functions related to development, sexual reproduction, and virulence.

Here the functions of the  $\alpha$  and **a** *MAT* specific alleles encoding the *C. neoformans* ribosomal proteins Rpl22 and Rpl39 were characterized. Given suppressed recombination within the *C. neoformans MAT* loci, mutation of the *RPL22* and *RPL39* genes was challenging. Heterozygous mutants for these genes were successfully generated through the combined use of a biolistic split marker approach and the compound W7 to inhibit non-homologous end joining and enhance homologous recombination (FU *et al.* 2006; ARRAS AND FRASER 2016). Through deletions in the *C. neoformans*  $\mathbf{a}/\alpha$  diploid strain AI187 and Mendelian analysis of recombinant F1 progeny obtained following sexual reproduction and spore dissection, we demonstrated that both the  $\alpha$  and  $\mathbf{a}$  alleles of the *RPL22* and *RPL39* genes are essential (Table 1; Fig. 1). Conversely, in *S. cerevisiae* the *RPL22* and *RPL39* orthologs are not required for viability (STEFFEN *et al.* 2012; KIM AND STRICH 2016), indicating evolutionary divergence of essential ribosomal genes between Ascomycetous and Basidiomycetous yeasts.

The ribosome was thought to be a constant, conserved, uniform protein translation machine. Recent studies have revealed novel and unexpected findings for the ribosome, in particular complex heterogeneity and specialized activity that confers regulatory control in gene expression (WARNER AND MCINTOSH 2009; NARLA AND EBERT 2010; XUE AND BARNA 2012). While in mammals ribosomal proteins are encoded by single genes, in yeasts, plants, and flies, ribosomal proteins are encoded by several genes. A remarkable example is the model yeast *S. cerevisiae*, in which, following a genome duplication event, 59 of the 78 ribosomal proteins are encoded by two retained gene copies and share high sequence similarity, but are in most cases not functionally redundant, and have been found to play specialized functions [(XUE AND BARNA 2012) and references within it]. Specialized ribosomes have been identified also in plants, flies, zebrafish, and mice (KOMILI *et al.* 2007; MCINTOSH AND WARNER 2007; XUE AND BARNA 2012), but it is not known whether they exist in microbial pathogens.

A number of studies have converged to reveal diverse and specialized roles for the Rpl22 ribosomal paralogs in yeasts and vertebrates. In *S. cerevisiae*, haploid *rpl22*a mutants are cold

sensitive, and display reduced invasive growth and a longer doubling time compared to rpl22b (STEFFEN et al. 2012; KIM AND STRICH 2016). Moreover, rpl22a mutations perturb bud site selection and cause random budding, while rpl22b mutations do not, and overexpression of RPL22B in rpl22a mutants fails to restore bud site selection (KOMILI et al. 2007). Vertebrates also express Rpl22 paralogs, called Rpl22 and Rpl22-like1 (RPL22-11). Mice lacking RPL22 are viable and have specific αβ T-cell developmental defects, likely attributable to compensation by Rpl22-11 in other tissues (ANDERSON et al. 2007). Recent studies in both yeast and mammals suggest an extraribosomal role for Rpl22 paralogs in binding target mRNAs and regulating their expression (Gabunilas and Chanfreau 2016; Zhang et al. 2017; Abrhamova et al. 2018). From an evolutionary viewpoint, it is important to highlight that in C. neoformans the RPL22 gene is present as a single copy and it is not the result of a genome duplication event in contrast to S. cerevisiae. Instead, the C. neoformans RPL22 gene was relocated to within the MAT locus concurrent with the transition from tetrapolar to bipolar, and because of the suppressed recombination in this region, the two RPL22α and RPL22a alleles underwent a different evolutionary trajectory that generated differences between them (COELHO et al. 2017; SUN et al. 2017). Therefore, technically they are alleles rather than paralogs. In this study we sought to determine whether the Rpl22 MAT alleles play any specialized role in *C. neoformans*.

We found that  $RPL22\alpha$  was not able to complement the essential phenotype due to mutations of  $RPL22\mathbf{a}$ , whereas ectopic introduction of  $RPL22\mathbf{a}$  in  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta$  resulted in sporulation failure. Conversely, viability was restored in progeny derived from heterozygous  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta + RPL22\alpha$  and  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta + RPL22\mathbf{a}$  strains (Fig. 3; Table 2). In a parallel approach we ectopically inserted an RPL22 allele into a C. neoformans haploid strain, and then attempted to mutate the native opposite MAT copy. Also in this case deletion mutants could not be recovered, further supporting the observation of a failure of complementation between the two C. neoformans RPL22 alleles (data not shown). We further demonstrate that during both mitotic growth and sexual reproduction  $RPL22\mathbf{a}$  expression is much higher than  $RPL22\alpha$  (Fig. 4A, Fig. S2). Considering that the heterozygous mutants  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta$  and  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta$  are viable, we propose two possible models to explain the lack of complementation. The first is a model involving an expression effect in which differential expression levels of the two RPL22 alleles at ectopic locations might hamper functional complementation; the second is a model involving position effect in which each RPL22 allele has to be in its own MAT locus.

We determined that an RNAi-mediated mechanism regulates *RPL22a* expression and that it involves a region located upstream of *RPL22a* that includes the *LTR11* and *LTR14* elements and a predicted lncRNA; when this upstream region is silenced by sRNA, expression of *RPL22a* is enhanced. Conversely, in the absence of sRNA (i.e. in an RNAi mutant background), or when the sRNA-targeted region was deleted (Fig. S6A), *RPL22a* expression was strongly decreased (Fig. 4 B – E, Fig. S4, Fig. S6). This is a novel and intriguing epigenetic mechanism of gene expression regulation within the *MATa* locus of *C. neoformans*. Examples of LTR elements silenced by sRNA have been described also in plants and mammals as a mechanism of genome protection (ŠURBANOVSKI *et al.* 2016; MARTINEZ *et al.* 2017; SCHORN *et al.* 2017; MARTINEZ 2018). There are also other locations within the *MATa* locus that are characterized by *LTR* elements that are also robustly targeted by sRNA in an RNAi-dependent manner (Fig. 4B), and future studies will elucidate their impact on the gene expression, mating, and genome stability.

While we found differential expression between the RPL22a and  $RPL22\alpha$  genes, and have identified epigenetic regulation of RPL22a expression, the approaches employed did not enable us to define whether the Rpl22 alleles play specific cellular roles. We then applied a newly developed CRISPR approach to generate haploid isogenic C. neoformans strains exchanging the MATRPL22 genes:  $MAT\alpha$ -RPL22a (strain YFF92 $\alpha$ ) and MATa-RPL22a (strain YFF116a) (Fig. S7). Unilateral crosses involving  $MAT\alpha$ -RPL22a x KN99a, and H99 $\alpha$  x MATa- $RPL22\alpha$ , exhibited sexual reproduction features similar to the wild type cross H99 $\alpha$  x KN99a, including dikaryotic hyphae, clamp connections, basidia, and basidiospore chains (Figs. 5-6, File S2). Conversely, the bilateral cross  $MAT\alpha$ -RPL22a x MATa- $RPL22\alpha$  (cross YFF92 $\alpha$  x YFF116a) produced regular hyphae and clamp connections, but with irregular basidia and few or no spores that were characterized by a low germination and viability following microdissection, suggesting a defect in nuclear fusion, meiosis, or sporulation (Fig. 6, File S3). This is likely due to the drastic reduction of both RPL22a and  $RPL22\alpha$  expression (Fig. 6B).

Lastly, we have also generated a chimeric  $cRPL22\alpha$ -MATa (YFF113) exchange strain of *C. neoformans* to initially test the phenotypic consequences of exchanging Rpl22, with a focus on the 5 amino acid differences located in the N-terminal region of the protein (Fig. 5; Fig. S7). While this exchange strain does not display any morphological or phenotypic defects (Fig. 5; Fig. S9), its analysis turned out to be of interest with respect to the mechanisms of regulation of  $RPL22\alpha$ . The strains MATa- $cRPL22\alpha$  (YFF113) and MATa- $RPL22\alpha$  (YFF116) both encode an Rpl22 $\alpha$ 

protein, yet they display very different RPL22 expression patterns and distinct phenotypes (Fig. S8C, Fig S9). In S. cerevisiae introns play a crucial role for RPL22 expression, with Rpl22 playing an extraribosomal role in inhibiting the splicing of the RPL22B pre-mRNA transcript through direct binding of its intron (GABUNILAS AND CHANFREAU 2016; ABRHAMOVA et al. 2018). Moreover, this mechanism of autoregulation seems to be conserved also in *Kluyveromyces lactis*, a Saccharomycotina species that did not undergo the whole genome duplication event and retains only one copy of the RPL22 gene (SCANNELL et al. 2007). Similar mechanisms might operate to control expression of C. neoformans RPL22a. Considering the high expression of the chimeric cRPL22α but not RPL22α (Fig. S8C), one could hypothesize that their different introns could potentially have a regulatory role in  $RPL22\alpha$  expression. The two Rpl22 $\alpha$ -coding genes in strains MATa-cRPL22α (YFF113) and MATa-RPL22α (YFF116) differ only in the 3' region, which for strain YFF113 is from RPL22a and includes introns 2 and 3. Intron 1, which is the largest and most divergent between the RPL22 genes (Fig. 2; Figs. S7, S11), is the same in the RPL22α and  $cRPL22\alpha$  allele and can therefore be excluded. Introns 2 of  $RPL22\alpha$  and  $RPL22\alpha$  share high sequence similarities and have the same intronic features (Fig. 2; Fig. S11). Introns 3 share lower sequence similarities, and the main differences are found in pre-mRNA secondary structure and nucleotide composition in the region between the branch site location and the 3' acceptor site (Fig. 2; Fig S11), which is known to affect splicing and gene expression (GAHURA et al. 2011; PLASS et al. 2012; ZAFRIR AND TULLER 2015). Furthermore, another issue could also be that the canonical branch site of intron 3 of *RPL22*α might be too close to the donor site with inhibition of the lariat formation, while intron 3 of RPL22a has a possible more distal canonical branch site (Fig. 2). Based on these observations, we speculate that intron 3 of RPL22α might be a candidate for regulatory function.

Our findings, such as the absence of morphological defects of heterozygous *RPL22/rpl22* mutants, the lack of cross complementation between the *RPL22* alleles, and the morphological and genetic defect of exchange strain MATa-*RPL22* $\alpha$ , may support a model in which the two *RPL22 MAT* essential genes operate as a type of imprinting system to ensure fidelity of sexual reproduction to enforce coordinate segregation of the opposite *MAT* nuclei in the dikaryotic hyphae.

556557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Alexander Idnurm for critical comments on the manuscript.

### **FUNDING INFORMATION**

This work was supported by NIH/NIAID R01 grant AI50113-15 and by NIH/NIAID R37 MERIT award AI39115-21 (to J.H.) and grant KU 517/15-1 (U.K.) from the German Research Foundation (DFG). Joseph Heitman is Co-Director and Fellow of the CIFAR program "Fungal Kingdom: Treats and Opportunities".

#### References

- Abrhamova, K., F. Nemcko, J. Libus, M. Prevorovsky, M. Halova *et al.*, 2018 Introns provide a platform for intergenic regulatory feedback of *RPL22* paralogs in yeast. PLoS One 13: e0190685.
- Anderson, S. J., J. P. Lauritsen, M. G. Hartman, A. M. Foushee, J. M. Lefebvre *et al.*, 2007 Ablation of ribosomal protein L22 selectively impairs αβ T cell development by activation of a p53-dependent checkpoint. Immunity 26: 759-772.
- Arras, S. D., J. L. Chitty, K. L. Blake, B. L. Schulz and J. A. Fraser, 2015 A genomic safe haven for mutant complementation in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. PLoS One 10: e0122916.
- Arras, S. D., and J. A. Fraser, 2016 Chemical inhibitors of non-homologous end joining increase targeted construct integration in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. PLoS One 11: e0163049.
- Beznoskova, P., S. Wagner, M. E. Jansen, T. von der Haar and L. S. Valasek, 2015 Translation initiation factor eIF3 promotes programmed stop codon readthrough. Nucleic Acids Res 43: 5099-5111.
- Brown, G. D., D. W. Denning, N. A. Gow, S. M. Levitz, M. G. Netea *et al.*, 2012 Hidden killers: human fungal infections. Sci Transl Med 4: 165rv113.
- Coelho, M. A., G. Bakkeren, S. Sun, M. E. Hood and T. Giraud, 2017 Fungal Sex: The Basidiomycota. Microbiol Spectr 5(3). FUNK-0046-2016..
- Dahlmann, T. A., and U. Kück, 2015 Dicer-dependent biogenesis of small RNAs and evidence for microRNA-like RNAs in the penicillin producing fungus *Penicillium chrysogenum*. PLOS One 10: e0125989.
- Davidson, R. C., J. R. Blankenship, P. R. Kraus, M. de Jesus Berrios, C. M. Hull *et al.*, 2002 A PCR-based strategy to generate integrative targeting alleles with large regions of homology. Microbiology 148: 2607-2615.
- Dumesic, P. A., P. Natarajan, C. Chen, I. A. Drinnenberg, B. J. Schiller *et al.*, 2013 Stalled spliceosomes are a signal for RNAi-mediated genome defense. Cell 152: 957-968.
- Fan, Y., and X. Lin, 2018 Multiple applications of a transient CRISPR-Cas9 coupled with electroporation (TRACE) system in the *Cryptococcus neoformans* species complex. Genetics 208: 1357-1372.
- Fang, Y., L. Cui, B. Gu, F. Arredondo and B. M. Tyler, 2017 Efficient genome editing in the oomycete *Phytophthora sojae* using CRISPR/Cas9. Curr Protoc Microbiol 44: 21a.21.21-21a.21.26.
- Fraser, J. A., S. Diezmann, R. L. Subaran, A. Allen, K. B. Lengeler *et al.*, 2004 Convergent evolution of chromosomal sex-determining regions in the animal and fungal kingdoms. PLoS Biol 2: e384.
- Friedman, R. Z., S. R. Gish, H. Brown, L. Brier, N. Howard *et al.*, 2018 Unintended side effects of transformation are very rare in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics 8: 815-822.
- Fu, C., and J. Heitman, 2017 *PRM1* and *KAR5* function in cell-cell fusion and karyogamy to drive distinct bisexual and unisexual cycles in the *Cryptococcus* pathogenic species complex. PLoS Genet 13: e1007113.
- Fu, J., E. Hettler and B. L. Wickes, 2006 Split marker transformation increases homologous integration frequency in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Fungal Genetics and Biology 43: 200-212.
- Gabunilas, J., and G. Chanfreau, 2016 Splicing-mediated autoregulation modulates Rpl22p expression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. PLoS Genet 12: e1005999.

- 640 Gahura, O., C. Hammann, A. Valentova, F. Puta and P. Folk, 2011 Secondary structure is required 641 for 3' splice site recognition in yeast. Nucleic Acids Res 39: 9759-9767.
- Hull, C. M., R. M. Raisner and A. D. Johnson, 2000 Evidence for mating of the "asexual" yeast *Candida albicans* in a mammalian host. Science 289: 307-310.
- Ianiri, G., and A. Idnurm, 2015 Essential gene discovery in the basidiomycete *Cryptococcus* neoformans for antifungal drug target prioritization. mBio 6: e02334-02314.
- Idnurm, A., 2010 A tetrad analysis of the basidiomycete fungus *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Genetics 185: 153–163.
- Janbon, G., K. L. Ormerod, D. Paulet, E. J. Byrnes, V. Yadav *et al.*, 2014 Analysis of the genome and transcriptome of *Cryptococcus neoformans* var. *grubii* reveals complex RNA expression and microevolution leading to virulence attenuation. PLoS Genet 10: e1004261.
- Johnston, G. C., J. A. Prendergast and R. A. Singer, 1991 The *Saccharomyces cerevisiae MYO2* gene encodes an essential myosin for vectorial transport of vesicles. J Cell Biol 113: 539-551.
- Kim, S. J., and R. Strich, 2016 Rpl22 is required for *IME1* mRNA translation and meiotic induction in *S. cerevisiae*. Cell Div 11: 10.
- Kol, G., G. Lev-Maor and G. Ast, 2005 Human-mouse comparative analysis reveals that branchsite plasticity contributes to splicing regulation. Hum Mol Genet 14: 1559-1568.
- Komili, S., N. G. Farny, F. P. Roth and P. A. Silver, 2007 Functional specificity among ribosomal proteins regulates gene expression. Cell 131: 557-571.
- Langmead, B., C. Trapnell, M. Pop and S. L. Salzberg, 2009 Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome. Genome Biology 10: R25.
- Lengeler, K. B., D. S. Fox, J. A. Fraser, A. Allen, K. Forrester *et al.*, 2002 Mating-type locus of *Cryptococcus neoformans*: a step in the evolution of sex chromosomes. Eukaryotic Cell 1: 704-718.
- Lengeler, K. B., P. Wang, G. M. Cox, J. R. Perfect and J. Heitman, 2000 Identification of the *MATa* mating-type locus of *Cryptococcus neoformans* reveals a serotype A *MATa* strain thought to have been extinct. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 14455-14460.
- 668 Li, H., B. Handsaker, A. Wysoker, T. Fennell, J. Ruan *et al.*, 2009 The sequence alignment/map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25: 2078-2079.
- Lorenz, R., S. H. Bernhart, C. Honer Zu Siederdissen, H. Tafer, C. Flamm *et al.*, 2011 ViennaRNA package 2.0. Algorithms Mol Biol 6: 26.
- Martin, M., 2011 Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads. 2011 17: 3.
- Martinez, G., 2018 tRNA-derived small RNAs: New players in genome protection against retrotransposons. RNA Biol 15: 170-175.
- Martinez, G., S. G. Choudury and R. K. Slotkin, 2017 tRNA-derived small RNAs target transposable element transcripts. Nucleic Acids Res 45: 5142-5152.
- McIntosh, K. B., and J. R. Warner, 2007 Yeast ribosomes: variety is the spice of life. Cell 131: 450-451.
- Narla, A., and B. L. Ebert, 2010 Ribosomopathies: human disorders of ribosome dysfunction. Blood 115: 3196-3205.
- Nielsen, K., G. M. Cox, P. Wang, D. L. Toffaletti, J. R. Perfect *et al.*, 2003 Sexual cycle of *Cryptococcus neoformans* var. *grubii* and virulence of congenic **a** and αisolates. Infect Immun 71: 4831-4841.

- Plass, M., C. Codony-Servat, P. G. Ferreira, J. Vilardell and E. Eyras, 2012 RNA secondary structure mediates alternative 3'ss selection in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. RNA 18: 1103-1115.
- Rajasingham, R., R. M. Smith, B. J. Park, J. N. Jarvis, N. P. Govender *et al.*, 2017 Global burden of disease of HIV-associated cryptococcal meningitis: an updated analysis. Lancet Infect Dis 17: 873-881.
- Rio, D. C., M. Ares, Jr., G. J. Hannon and T. W. Nilsen, 2010 Purification of RNA using TRIzol (TRI reagent). Cold Spring Harb Protoc 2010: pdb.prot5439.
- Sanchez-Sandoval, E., C. Diaz-Quezada, G. Velazquez, L. F. Arroyo-Navarro, N. Almanza-Martinez *et al.*, 2015 Yeast mitochondrial RNA polymerase primes mitochondrial DNA polymerase at origins of replication and promoter sequences. Mitochondrion 24: 22-31.
- Scannell, D. R., G. Butler and K. H. Wolfe, 2007 Yeast genome evolution--the origin of the species. Yeast 24: 929-942.
- Schorn, A. J., M. J. Gutbrod, C. LeBlanc and R. Martienssen, 2017 LTR-retrotransposon control by tRNA-derived small RNAs. Cell 170: 61-71.e11.
- Schwartz, S., E. Hall and G. Ast, 2009 SROOGLE: webserver for integrative, user-friendly visualization of splicing signals. Nucleic Acids Res 37: W189-192.

703

704 705

706

707

708

709

- Schwartz, S. H., J. Silva, D. Burstein, T. Pupko, E. Eyras *et al.*, 2008 Large-scale comparative analysis of splicing signals and their corresponding splicing factors in eukaryotes. Genome Res 18: 88-103.
- Srikantha, T., K. J. Daniels, C. Pujol, N. Sahni, S. Yi *et al.*, 2012 Nonsex genes in the mating type locus of *Candida albicans* play roles in a/alpha biofilm formation, including impermeability and fluconazole resistance. PLoS Pathog 8: e1002476.
- Steffen, K. K., M. A. McCormick, K. M. Pham, V. L. MacKay, J. R. Delaney *et al.*, 2012 Ribosome deficiency protects against ER stress in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Genetics 191: 107-118.
- Sun, S., V. Yadav, R. B. Billmyre, C. A. Cuomo, M. Nowrousian *et al.*, 2017 Fungal genome and mating system transitions facilitated by chromosomal translocations involving intercentromeric recombination. PLOS Biology 15: e2002527.
- Abrhamova, K., F. Nemcko, J. Libus, M. Prevorovsky, M. Halova *et al.*, 2018 Introns provide a platform for intergenic regulatory feedback of *RPL22* paralogs in yeast. PLoS One 13: e0190685.
- Anderson, S. J., J. P. Lauritsen, M. G. Hartman, A. M. Foushee, J. M. Lefebvre *et al.*, 2007
  Ablation of ribosomal protein L22 selectively impairs αß T cell development by activation
  of a p53-dependent checkpoint. Immunity 26: 759-772.
- Arras, S. D., J. L. Chitty, K. L. Blake, B. L. Schulz and J. A. Fraser, 2015 A genomic safe haven for mutant complementation in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. PLoS One 10: e0122916.
- Arras, S. D., and J. A. Fraser, 2016 Chemical inhibitors of non-homologous end joining increase targeted construct integration in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. PLoS One 11: e0163049.
- Beznoskova, P., S. Wagner, M. E. Jansen, T. von der Haar and L. S. Valasek, 2015 Translation initiation factor eIF3 promotes programmed stop codon readthrough. Nucleic Acids Res 43: 5099-5111.
- Brown, G. D., D. W. Denning, N. A. Gow, S. M. Levitz, M. G. Netea *et al.*, 2012 Hidden killers: human fungal infections. Sci Transl Med 4: 165rv113.
- Coelho, M. A., G. Bakkeren, S. Sun, M. E. Hood and T. Giraud, 2017 Fungal Sex: The Basidiomycota. Microbiol Spectr 5(3). FUNK-0046-2016.

- Dahlmann, T. A., and U. Kück, 2015 Dicer-dependent biogenesis of small RNAs and evidence for microRNA-like RNAs in the penicillin producing fungus *Penicillium chrysogenum*. PLOS One 10: e0125989.
- Davidson, R. C., J. R. Blankenship, P. R. Kraus, M. de Jesus Berrios, C. M. Hull *et al.*, 2002 A PCR-based strategy to generate integrative targeting alleles with large regions of homology. Microbiology 148: 2607-2615.
- Dumesic, P. A., P. Natarajan, C. Chen, I. A. Drinnenberg, B. J. Schiller *et al.*, 2013 Stalled spliceosomes are a signal for RNAi-mediated genome defense. Cell 152: 957-968.
- Fan, Y., and X. Lin, 2018 Multiple applications of a transient CRISPR-Cas9 coupled with electroporation (TRACE) system in the *Cryptococcus neoformans* species complex. Genetics 208: 1357-1372.
- Fang, Y., L. Cui, B. Gu, F. Arredondo and B. M. Tyler, 2017 Efficient genome editing in the oomycete *Phytophthora sojae* using CRISPR/Cas9. Curr Protoc Microbiol 44: 21a.21.21-21a.21.26.
- Fraser, J. A., S. Diezmann, R. L. Subaran, A. Allen, K. B. Lengeler *et al.*, 2004 Convergent evolution of chromosomal sex-determining regions in the animal and fungal kingdoms. PLoS Biol 2: e384.
- Friedman, R. Z., S. R. Gish, H. Brown, L. Brier, N. Howard *et al.*, 2018 Unintended side effects of transformation are very rare in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics 8: 815-822.
- Fu, C., and J. Heitman, 2017 *PRM1* and *KAR5* function in cell-cell fusion and karyogamy to drive distinct bisexual and unisexual cycles in the *Cryptococcus* pathogenic species complex. PLoS Genet 13: e1007113.
- Fu, J., E. Hettler and B. L. Wickes, 2006 Split marker transformation increases homologous integration frequency in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Fungal Genetics and Biology 43: 200-212.
- Gabunilas, J., and G. Chanfreau, 2016 Splicing-mediated autoregulation modulates Rpl22p expression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. PLoS Genet 12: e1005999.

- Gahura, O., C. Hammann, A. Valentova, F. Puta and P. Folk, 2011 Secondary structure is required for 3' splice site recognition in yeast. Nucleic Acids Res 39: 9759-9767.
- Hull, C. M., R. M. Raisner and A. D. Johnson, 2000 Evidence for mating of the "asexual" yeast *Candida albicans* in a mammalian host. Science 289: 307-310.
- Ianiri, G., and A. Idnurm, 2015 Essential gene discovery in the basidiomycete *Cryptococcus* neoformans for antifungal drug target prioritization. mBio 6: e02334-02314.
- Idnurm, A., 2010 A tetrad analysis of the basidiomycete fungus *Cryptococcus neoformans*.
   Genetics 185: 153–163.
- Janbon, G., K. L. Ormerod, D. Paulet, E. J. Byrnes, V. Yadav *et al.*, 2014 Analysis of the genome and transcriptome of *Cryptococcus neoformans* var. *grubii* reveals complex RNA expression and microevolution leading to virulence attenuation. PLoS Genet 10: e1004261.
- Johnston, G. C., J. A. Prendergast and R. A. Singer, 1991 The *Saccharomyces cerevisiae MYO2* gene encodes an essential myosin for vectorial transport of vesicles. J Cell Biol 113: 539-551.
- Kim, S. J., and R. Strich, 2016 Rpl22 is required for *IME1* mRNA translation and meiotic induction in *S. cerevisiae*. Cell Div 11: 10.
- Kol, G., G. Lev-Maor and G. Ast, 2005 Human-mouse comparative analysis reveals that branchsite plasticity contributes to splicing regulation. Hum Mol Genet 14: 1559-1568.

- Komili, S., N. G. Farny, F. P. Roth and P. A. Silver, 2007 Functional specificity among ribosomal proteins regulates gene expression. Cell 131: 557-571.
- Langmead, B., C. Trapnell, M. Pop and S. L. Salzberg, 2009 Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome. Genome Biology 10: R25.
- Lengeler, K. B., D. S. Fox, J. A. Fraser, A. Allen, K. Forrester *et al.*, 2002 Mating-type locus of *Cryptococcus neoformans*: a step in the evolution of sex chromosomes. Eukaryotic Cell 1: 704-718.
- Lengeler, K. B., P. Wang, G. M. Cox, J. R. Perfect and J. Heitman, 2000 Identification of the
   *MATa* mating-type locus of *Cryptococcus neoformans* reveals a serotype A *MATa* strain thought to have been extinct. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 97: 14455-14460.
- Li, H., B. Handsaker, A. Wysoker, T. Fennell, J. Ruan *et al.*, 2009 The sequence alignment/map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25: 2078-2079.
- Lorenz, R., S. H. Bernhart, C. Honer Zu Siederdissen, H. Tafer, C. Flamm *et al.*, 2011 ViennaRNA
   package 2.0. Algorithms Mol Biol 6: 26.
- Martin, M., 2011 Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads. 2011 17: 3.
- Martinez, G., 2018 tRNA-derived small RNAs: New players in genome protection against retrotransposons. RNA Biol 15: 170-175.
- Martinez, G., S. G. Choudury and R. K. Slotkin, 2017 tRNA-derived small RNAs target transposable element transcripts. Nucleic Acids Res 45: 5142-5152.
- McIntosh, K. B., and J. R. Warner, 2007 Yeast ribosomes: variety is the spice of life. Cell 131: 450-451.
- Narla, A., and B. L. Ebert, 2010 Ribosomopathies: human disorders of ribosome dysfunction. Blood 115: 3196-3205.
- Nielsen, K., G. M. Cox, P. Wang, D. L. Toffaletti, J. R. Perfect *et al.*, 2003 Sexual cycle of *Cryptococcus neoformans* var. *grubii* and virulence of congenic **a** and αisolates. Infect Immun 71: 4831-4841.
- Plass, M., C. Codony-Servat, P. G. Ferreira, J. Vilardell and E. Eyras, 2012 RNA secondary structure mediates alternative 3'ss selection in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. RNA 18: 1103-1115.
- 808 Rajasingham, R., R. M. Smith, B. J. Park, J. N. Jarvis, N. P. Govender *et al.*, 2017 Global burden 809 of disease of HIV-associated cryptococcal meningitis: an updated analysis. Lancet Infect 810 Dis 17: 873-881.
- Rio, D. C., M. Ares, Jr., G. J. Hannon and T. W. Nilsen, 2010 Purification of RNA using TRIzol (TRI reagent). Cold Spring Harb Protoc 2010: pdb.prot5439.
- Sanchez-Sandoval, E., C. Diaz-Quezada, G. Velazquez, L. F. Arroyo-Navarro, N. Almanza-Martinez *et al.*, 2015 Yeast mitochondrial RNA polymerase primes mitochondrial DNA polymerase at origins of replication and promoter sequences. Mitochondrion 24: 22-31.
- Scannell, D. R., G. Butler and K. H. Wolfe, 2007 Yeast genome evolution--the origin of the species. Yeast 24: 929-942.
- Schorn, A. J., M. J. Gutbrod, C. LeBlanc and R. Martienssen, 2017 LTR-retrotransposon control by tRNA-derived small RNAs. Cell 170: 61-71.e11.
- Schwartz, S., E. Hall and G. Ast, 2009 SROOGLE: webserver for integrative, user-friendly visualization of splicing signals. Nucleic Acids Res 37: W189-192.

- Schwartz, S. H., J. Silva, D. Burstein, T. Pupko, E. Eyras *et al.*, 2008 Large-scale comparative analysis of splicing signals and their corresponding splicing factors in eukaryotes. Genome Res 18: 88-103.
- Singh, A., and Y.-J. Xu, 2016 The cell killing mechanisms of hydroxyurea. Genes 7: 99.
- Srikantha, T., K. J. Daniels, C. Pujol, N. Sahni, S. Yi *et al.*, 2012 Nonsex genes in the mating type locus of *Candida albicans* play roles in a/alpha biofilm formation, including impermeability and fluconazole resistance. PLoS Pathog 8: e1002476.
- Steffen, K. K., M. A. McCormick, K. M. Pham, V. L. MacKay, J. R. Delaney *et al.*, 2012 Ribosome deficiency protects against ER stress in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Genetics 191: 107-118.
- Surbanovski, N., M. Brilli, M. Moser and A. Si-Ammour, 2016 A highly specific microRNAmediated mechanism silences LTR retrotransposons of strawberry. The Plant Journal 85: 70-82.
- Toffaletti, D. L., T. H. Rude, S. A. Johnston, D. T. Durack and J. R. Perfect, 1993 Gene transfer in *Cryptococcus neoformans* by use of biolistic delivery of DNA. J. Bacteriol. 175: 1405-1411.
- Upadhya, R., W. C. Lam, B. T. Maybruck, M. J. Donlin, A. L. Chang *et al.*, 2017 A fluorogenic *C. neoformans* reporter strain with a robust expression of m-cherry expressed from a safe haven site in the genome. Fungal Genet Biol 108: 13-25.
- Wang, X., Y. P. Hsueh, W. Li, A. Floyd, R. Skalsky *et al.*, 2010 Sex-induced silencing defends the genome of *Cryptococcus neoformans* via RNAi. Genes Dev 24: 2566-2582.
- Warner, J. R., and K. B. McIntosh, 2009 How common are extraribosomal functions of ribosomal proteins? Mol Cell 34: 3-11.
- Xue, S., and M. Barna, 2012 Specialized ribosomes: a new frontier in gene regulation and organismal biology. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 13: 355-369.
- Zafrir, Z., and T. Tuller, 2015 Nucleotide sequence composition adjacent to intronic splice sites improves splicing efficiency via its effect on pre-mRNA local folding in fungi. RNA (New York, N.Y.) 21: 1704-1718.
- Zhang, Y., M. N. O'Leary, S. Peri, M. Wang, J. Zha *et al.*, 2017 Ribosomal proteins Rpl22 and Rpl22l1 control morphogenesis by regulating pre-mRNA splicing. Cell Rep 18: 545-556

#### Figure legends

- Figure 1. The MAT locus contains essential genes encoding ribosomal proteins Rpl39 and Rpl22.
- Representative example of genetic analysis of two *C. neoformans* heterozygous mutants [GI233]
- $(RPL39\mathbf{a}/rpl39\alpha\Delta)$  and GI56  $(RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta)$ ]. The first colony in red box in the top left corner
- represents the original heterozygous mutant from which the progeny analyzed originated. The
- remaining isolates were haploid germinated spore progeny grown on control medium YPD, YPD
- + NAT, SD –uracil, and SD adenine. The MAT type of the progeny is indicated on the right panel
- 859 ( $\Delta$  indicates the heterozygous mutant).
- Figure 2. Intron analysis of *C. neoformans RPL22* genes. (A) Alignment of introns 1, 2, and 3 of
- 861 RPL22α and RPL22a. Donor and acceptor splice sites are indicated in red. Branch sites were
- predicted using a combination of the online software SROOGLE (http://sroogle.tau.ac.il/)
- 863 (SCHWARTZ et al. 2009) and SVM-BP finder
- (http://regulatorygenomics.upf.edu/Software/SVM\_BP/): branch sites based on the algorithm of
- Kol are represented in blue (Kol et al. 2005), those based on the algorithm of Schwarts are in
- purple (SCHWARTZ et al. 2008). Manual adjustments were performed based on the websites
- instructions and score prediction; both algorithms failed to identify a CTRAY canonical branch
- site of intron 3 of *RPL22a* (boxed). The polypyrimidine tracts are underlined. The percentage of
- identity is indicated in parentheses, while the length (in bp) of the introns is indicated at the end
- on each alignment. (B) Consensus sequences at the 5' splice site, the branch site, and the 3' splice
- site constructed using WebLogo 3.3. bits, binary digits (http://weblogo.threeplusone.com/).
- Underlined are the canonical donor GT and acceptor AG.
- Figure 3. RPL22a complements to restore viability of rpl22a mutants, RPL22α does not. Genetic
- analysis of *C. neoformans* complemented NEO<sup>R</sup> strains GI151, GI102, GI154 and GI104 derived
- from heterozygous mutant GI56 ( $RPL22\alpha/rpl22a\Delta$ ). The first colony in the top left corner
- 876 represents the original heterozygous mutant from which the progeny analyzed originate (red
- boxes). The mating type in NAT<sup>R</sup> colonies was scored by genetic crosses and by PCR with primers
- JOHE39201-JOHE39204. For PCR, the WT (H99 MATα and KN99a MATa) and the heterozygous
- strain that was analyzed were used as controls; the NAT<sup>R</sup> progeny is indicated with "P", and the
- number that corresponds to the position in the plate. C = negative control.

- Figure 4. RNAi contributes to control expression of RPL22a. RPL22α and RPL22a expression 881 during C. neoformans mating between WT H99 $\alpha$  x KN99 $\mathbf{a}$  cross (A),  $rdp1\Delta$  and  $gwc1\Delta$  bilateral 882 883 crosses (C, D), and GI228 x H99 cross (E) for 24, 48, 72 and 96 h of incubation. Ct values were converted to expression level (fold change) through comparison with the endogenous reference 884 GDP1 ( $\Delta\Delta$ ct analysis); asterisk indicates p <0.05 for each RPL22 $\alpha$  and RPL22 $\alpha$  comparison for 885 the same day of incubation. Note the different scales on the y axes of the graphs in A - C - D - E. 886 (B) sRNA obtained during H99α x KN99a cross (black) and rdp1Δ bilateral cross (red) were 887 888 mapped to the reference MATa locus of C. neoformans (accession number AF542528.2); genes are represented in grey in the middle panel; in blue the LTR and transposable elements. LTR11, 889 LTR14 and RPL22a of interest in this study are indicated in bold. 890
- 891 Figure 5. Construction, analysis and sexual reproduction of RPL22 exchange strains. (A) Schematic representation of the generation of the C. neoformans RPL22 exchange strains YFF92 892 and YF113. Lightning bolts in different colors denote different gRNA targeting sites. (B) Mating 893 phenotypes during crosses between H99a x KN99a, and YFF92 x KN99a, H99a x YFF113, and 894 895 YFF92 x YFF113. The scale bar is 100 µm. (C) Genetic analysis of progeny obtained from the YFF92 x YFF113 bilateral cross; note the expected 1:1 segregation of the SH2::NAT and 896 SH2::NEO markers in progeny produced from YFF92 x YFF113 cross, and the independent 897 segregation of the MAT loci, with MATa indicated in grey and MAT $\alpha$  indicated in white. (D) RT-898 qPCR of RPL22a and cRPL22α expression during the YFF92 x YFF113 cross. Asterisk indicates 899 p<0.05 for each cRPL22 $\alpha$  and RPL22a comparison for the same day of incubation. 900
- **Figure 6.** Reciprocal *RPL22* exchange strains exhibit defects in sexual reproduction. (A) 901 Schematic representation of the generation of the C. neoformans RPL22 swapped strain YFF116. 902 903 Lightning bolts in different colors denote different gRNA targeting sites. (B) RT-qPCR of RPL22a and RPL22α expression during YFF92 x YFF116 cross; asterisk indicates p<0.05 for each 904 905 cRPL22α and RPL22a comparison for the same day of incubation. (C - D) Mating phenotypes during crosses between the cross H99 x YFF116, and YFF92 x YFF116. The scale bar is 100 µm. 906 907 (E) Scanning electron microscopy of sexual structures of the YFF92 x YFF116 cross; note that the majority of the basidia are bald with no basidiospore chains. The scale bar is 10 μm. (F) Scanning 908 909 electron microscopy of an irregular basidium produced by the YFF92 x YFF116 cross. The scale bar is 10 µm. (G) Scanning electron microscopy of a basidium with a collapsed chain of 910

basidiospores produced by the YFF92 x YFF116 cross. The scale bar is 1  $\mu$ m. (H) Scanning electron microscopy of a regular unfused clump connection produced by the YFF92 x YFF116 cross. The scale bar is 1  $\mu$ m.

Table 1. Genetic analysis of *C. neoformans* heterozygous mutants for the  $MAT\alpha$  and MATa ribosomal proteins Rpl39 and Rpl22.

Genotype	Strain	Protein function	Germinated basidiospores/ dissected basidiospores	NAT-R progeny/ basidiospore germinated	Phenotype
RPL39α/rpl39 <b>a</b> Δ	GI230	Large Subunit Ribosomal	31/80 – 38.7%	0/31	Inviable
RPL39 <b>a</b> /rpl39αΔ	GI233	Protein L39	29/70 - 41.4%	0/29	Inviable
RPL22α/rpl22 <b>a</b> Δ	GI56	Large Subunit Ribosomal	23/63 – 36.5%	1/23*	Inviable
RPL22 <b>a</b> /rpl22αΔ	GI81	Protein L22	28/72 – 38.8%	0/28	Inviable

<sup>\*</sup> The NAT-R progeny obtained is likely an euploid for chromosome 5, because PCR confirmed the presence of the  $RPL22\alpha$  allele and the mutated copy of the RPL22a.

Table 2. Genetic analysis of *C. neoformans* complementing strains of heterozygous mutants  $RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta$  and  $RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta$ 

Strain	Genotype	Germinated	<i>NAT</i> -R	<i>NEO</i> -R	NAT-R+	MATa	MATα	MATa -	Phenotype
		basidiospores/			<i>NEO</i> -R			$MAT\alpha$	
		dissected							
		basidiospores							
GI86	$RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta NAT + RPL22\alpha-NEO$	19/70	0	8	4	15	4	0	Viable
GI150	$RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta NAT \\ + RPL22\mathbf{a}-NEO$	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
GI83	$RPL22\mathbf{a}/rpl22\alpha\Delta NAT$ + empty $NEO$ vector	11/63	0	7	0	11	0	0	Inviable
GI151	RPL22α/rpl22 <b>a</b> ΔNAT + RPL22 <b>a</b> -NEO	19/63	0	6	3	3	16	0	Viable
GI102	$RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta NAT + RPL22\alpha-NEO$	17/58	2*	0	0	0	15	2	Inviable
GI154	$RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta NAT + RPL22\alpha-NEO$	20/69	1*	12	3	0	16	4	Inviable
GI104	$RPL22\alpha/rpl22\mathbf{a}\Delta NAT$ + empty $NEO$ vector	10/57	0	8	1	0	9	1	Inviable

\* NAT-R progeny with 1 extra copy of *RPL22*a

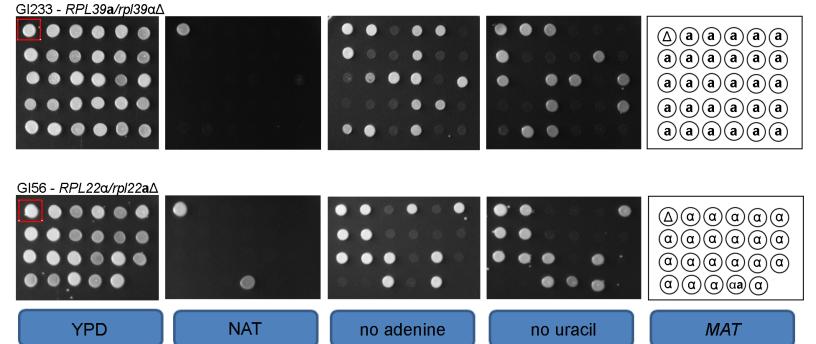
NA: not available (strain GI150 did not produce basidiospores for analysis)

In bold and underlined are the progeny with markers that indicate success of the complementation experiment

Cross	Spores dissected	Spores		MATα-RPL22α		ı	MATa - RPL22a		MATa - MATα		Mitochondria from MATa		Mitochondria from <i>MAT</i> α		
H99 x KN99 <b>a</b>	60	27		11			14		2		27		0		
YFF92 x KN99a	Spores dissected	Spores germinated		MATa RPL22					NAT-R progeny (MATa; MATα; MATa/α)		Mitochondria from MATa		Mitochondria from <i>MAT</i> α		
	60	18		9		6	3		7 (4; 2; 1)	)		18	(	)	
YFF113 x H99	Spores dissected	Spores germinat		MATa cRPL22		ATα- L220			NEO-R prog T <b>a</b> ; MATα; M	•	Mitochondria from <i>MAT</i> <b>a</b>		Mitochondria from <i>MAT</i> α		
	62	49		27		19	3		31 (16; 12;	31 (16; 12; 3)		49		0	
YFF116 x H99	Spores dissected	Spores		MATa RPL22		ATα- L220			NEO-R prog T <b>a</b> ; MATα; M	•		ndria from ATa	Mitochon MA	dria from ATα	
X II)	66	43		23		17	3		23 (10; 10;	3)	43		(	)	
YFF92 x YFF113	Spores dissec.	Spores germ.		VATa- PL22α	MATa RPL22		<i>MAT</i> <b>a</b> - <i>MAT</i> α	MAΤα	R (MATa; ;; MATa/α) (9; 5; 0)	NAT-R (MATa; MATα; MATa/α)		NEO-R NAT-R	Mito.  MATa	Mito.  MATa	
			1.4			<u> </u>			,	,	; 7; 0)				
YFF92 x YFF116	Spores dissec.	Spores germ.		ATa- PL22α	MATa RPL22		MATa - MATα		R ( $MATa$ ; ; $MATa/\alpha$ )		(MATa; MATa/α)	NEO-R NAT-R	Mitoc.  MATa	Mitoc.  MATa	
	58	7		3	0		4	1 (	1; 0; 0)	4 (0;	0; 4)	0	NA	NA	

Table 3. Genetic analysis of crosses between allele exchange strains

NA: not available



## A

Α						
Introns 1 (75.86%	identity)					
Intron 1_\alpha	gtgcgttttatttt	ttctttttgat	tttctcgtatc	ccatgtaatc	ctgattgcaa	acgt
Intron 1_a	gtgcgtttcct ******		tttctcatatc			
Intron 1_\alpha	ttgcaacattgggt	tgactggctct	tgtcctaatct	tacccatttc	cgctaatat	gactc
Intron 1_a	ttgcaattttgggt *****			tagccatttc ** *****		tctt
Intron 1_\alpha	gttttcaaac <mark>ag</mark>	132				
Intron 1_a	gtgttcaaacag ** ****	116				
Introns 2 (74.55%	identity)					
Intron 2_α	<b>gt</b> gagtgtgcccaaa					55
Intron 2_a	gtcagtacgcccgaa ** *** ***	aagttagtaga *** * * **				55
Introns 3 (60.42%	identity)					
Intron 3 a	gttagtcatgtgtaa	cacgcctgata	ttatata <b>ttaa</b>	catttctaca	<b>ig</b> 48	
Intron 3_a	gttagtaacgtgtag		ctatatactga			
В						
RPL22α [	Donor site	Bra	nch site		Acceptor	site
1.07	LIII	1.0	# + # +		10-7-7	
<b>^^</b>	<b>P</b>   <b>AT</b>	1.0			··· 🕍 🐧	



