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1	Alginate Oligosaccharides Modify Hyphal Infiltration of Candida albicans in an In Vitro Model of
2	Invasive Human Candidosis
3	
4	Abbreviated Running Headline: Altering In Vitro Hyphal Invasion
5	
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21 Abstract

Aims: A novel alginate oligomer (OligoG CF-5/20) has been shown to potentiate antifungal therapy
against a range of fungal pathogens. The current study assessed the effect of this oligomer on *in vitro*virulence factor expression and epithelial invasion by *Candida* species.

25 Methods and Results: Plate substrate assays and epithelial models were used to assess Candida albicans (CCUG 39343 and ATCC 90028) invasion, in conjunction with confocal laser-scanning 26 Expression of candidal virulence factors was determined 27 microscopy and histochemistry. biochemically and by quantitative PCR (qPCR). Changes in surface charge of C. albicans following 28 OligoG treatment were analysed using electrophoretic light scattering. OligoG induced marked 29 alterations in hyphal formation in the substrate assays and reduced invasion in the epithelial model 30 (p<0.001). Significant dose-dependent inhibition of phospholipase activity in *C. albicans* was evident 31 32 following OligoG treatment (p<0.05). Whilst OligoG binding failed to affect alterations in surface-33 charge (p>0.05), qPCR demonstrated a reduction in phospholipase-B (PLB2) and SAPs (SAP4 and 34 SAP6) expression.

35 Conclusion: OligoG CF-5/20 reduced *in vitro* virulence factor expression and invasion by *C. albicans*.
36 Significance and Impact of the Study: These results, and the previously described potentiation of
37 antifungal activity, define a potential therapeutic opportunity in the treatment of invasive candidal
38 infections.

39

40 Keywords

41 Virulence, Biofilms, Antimicrobials, Infection, Fungi

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46 Introduction

The incidence of human fungal infections has risen annually with increasing numbers of 47 immunocompromised patients (Miceli et al. 2011), in-dwelling prosthetic devices (Chen et al. 2011; 48 Silva et al. 2012), broad-spectrum antibiotic use and cytotoxic/immunosuppressive therapy. Candida 49 50 species (Pfaller and Diekema 2007) are responsible for >50% of systemic fungal infections (Lass-Floerl 2009) and are the most frequently-reported human nosocomial fungal pathogens. In health, Candida 51 exist as harmless commensal organisms on the skin-surface, oral mucosa and gastrointestinal tract 52 (Lass-Floerl 2009). Candida are, however, opportunistic pathogens in both local- and systemic 53 infection; the latter being associated with both significant mortality (estimated at 30%) (Lass-Floerl 54 55 2009) and high treatment costs (Ramage et al. 2005; Leroy et al. 2009).

56 Candida readily form biofilms on epithelial and material surfaces which exhibit resistance to 57 antifungals including polyenes and azoles (Kuhn et al. 2002). Once a candidal biofilm is formed in 58 vivo, elimination generally demands removal of the substratum which supports the biofilm. However, 59 removal of medical devices is often impossible, due to the patient's underlying medical condition and/or 60 the anatomic location of the biofilm (Ramage et al. 2006). Following adhesion and biofilm formation, 61 the ability of *Candida* (especially *Candida albicans*) to undergo morphological alteration and secrete 62 hydrolytic enzymes facilitates invasion and contributes to their pathogenicity (Mayer et al. 2013). The 63 invasion of host-tissue in the pathogenesis of candidal infection is a complex combination of physical, 64 mechanical and enzymatic events, which are both host- and microorganism-dependent. Whilst adhesion 65 to host tissues and morphogenesis contributes to candidal virulence (Yang 2003), virulence factor production is also associated with Candida invasion (Shimizu et al. 1996). 66

Intact human epithelium acts as a considerable physical and chemical barrier against *Candida*spp. infection. *Candida* spp. possess several discrete mechanisms to increase their dermal
pathogenicity, with the expression of surface proteins, e.g. adhesins and invasins facilitating attachment
(Nobile *et al.* 2006), and biofilm formation supporting persistence (Finkel and Mitchell 2011).
Moreover, yeast-to-hyphal transition facilitates enzymatically-induced tissue invasion (Mayer *et al.*2013), and thigmotropism (contact sensing) directs site-specific invasion (Kumamoto 2008). *Candida*

species are highly metabolically adaptable, having the ability to adapt to changes in environmental pH
and nutritional availability, as well as having a robust stress-response mechanism (Mayer *et al.* 2013).

Secretion of hydrolases is important for the pathogenicity of *C. albicans* and is mediated by three main enzyme classes: secreted aspartyl proteinases (SAPs), phospholipases (PL) and lipases (Mayer *et al.* 2013). Distinct SAPS genes are known to facilitate active penetration of the cross-linked epithelial barrier of the skin (Schaller *et al.* 2000). Increased expression of PL has been associated with antifungal resistance (Ying and Chunyang 2012), whilst secretion of SAPs have been implicated in systemic infections (Sanglard *et al.* 1997).

Previous studies demonstrated the ability of a low molecular weight alginate, OligoG CF-5/20 81 (OligoG), to modify bacterial biofilm assembly and reduced resistance to antimicrobial therapy (Khan 82 83 et al. 2012; Powell et al. 2013; Roberts et al. 2013; Powell et al. 2014). More recently, the ability of 84 OligoG to inhibit growth and biofilm formation of *Candida* and *Aspergillus* spp. has been demonstrated (Tøndervik et al. 2014). These changes were associated with significantly increased sensitivity to 85 antifungal agents and marked decreases in hyphal formation (Tøndervik et al. 2014). The extent to 86 which these changes modulate binding to-, and invasion of, mucosal surfaces by fungal pathogens 87 88 remains unknown.

Candidal adhesion and invasion was investigated using an *in vitro* organotypic keratinocyte
 model in the presence and absence of OligoG. Substrate assays and real-time PCR were employed to
 investigate the mechanisms responsible for the observed changes.

92

93 Materials and methods

94 Strains and routine culture media

C. albicans CCUG 39343 (clinical isolate) and *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 (reference strain for antifungal
susceptibility testing) and *C. glabrata* ATCC 2001 (non-hyphal producing control) were used in this
study. *Candida* were grown at 37°C for 18 h on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA, Oxoid) or in liquid

culture using Sabouraud dextrose broth (SAB, Lab M). The alginate oligomer, OligoG CF-5/20, was
prepared as previously described (Khan *et al.* 2012).

100

101 Growth curves

102 *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 was grown overnight in Yeast Nitrogen Base (YNB; BD Diagnostics, 103 Cowley, UK) medium supplemented with 0.5% (w/v) glucose at 37°C. The culture was diluted to 5 x 104 10^6 cells ml⁻¹ and placed in 96-well microtiter plates \pm 0.2, 2 and 6% OligoG (w/v) at 37°C for 24 h, 105 with a YNB \pm OligoG blank. Optical density was measured at 600 nm (Fluostar Omega plate reader; 106 BMG LABTECH).

107

108 Hyphal invasion assay

109 Yeast Peptone Dextrose (YPD) agar was prepared (Roberts and Fink 1994) $\pm 0.2\%$, 2% and 6% OligoG. 110 Plates were dried (1 h) at room temperature prior to use. Overnight cultures of C. albicans ATCC 90028 were grown in YPD broth at 37°C whilst shaking. Candida (20 μ l $\simeq 1 \times 10^7$ cells ml⁻¹ in YPD 111 medium) were deposited on to the YPD agar surface (n=3) and incubated for 72 h at 37°C, followed by 112 72 h at room temperature. Hyphal agar invasion was examined after rinsing the colonies from the agar 113 surface with deionized water (Roberts and Fink 1994). Assays were conducted in triplicate in three, 114 115 independent, experiments. Photographs employed the same focal length. Agar samples were stained using hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) to study hyphal invasion of the epithelium. Light microscopy 116 117 images (x100 objective lens) of control and OligoG-treated samples were taken.

118

119 Reconstituted human epithelium model

Reconstituted human oral epithelium (RHE) tissue was obtained from SkinEthic Laboratories (Nice, France). RHE tissues (n=5) were placed in 6-well tissue culture plates with 1 ml of SkinEthic maintenance medium \pm 0.2% OligoG (w/v). *Candida albicans* ATCC 90028, cultured on SDA at 37°C for 24 h, was inoculated into YNB medium supplemented with 0.5% glucose (w/v) for 12 h at 37°C under gentle agitation. The cell-suspension was centrifuged and washed (x3) with phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Following direct counting using a hemocytometer, $50 \ \mu l$ of $2 \ x \ 10^6$ cells ml⁻¹ was added to the surface of each RHE and incubated for 1, 3, 6 or 12 h at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere with $5\% \ CO_2$. Non-infected controls were included in all experiments. The RHE were then rinsed (x2) in PBS to remove planktonic cells and bisected. Half was fixed in 10% (v/v) formalin prior to being embedded in paraffin wax, with the remainder used immediately for LIVE/DEAD[®] staining (Molecular Probes-Invitrogen, Paisley, UK).

131

132 Confocal laser scanning LIVE/DEAD[®] staining of RHE

133 RHE samples from each time-point were placed on microscope slides and 100 μ l of LIVE/DEAD[®] stain 134 (containing 25 μ mol l⁻¹ SYTO[®] 9 and 15 μ mol l⁻¹ propidium iodide) applied directly to the tissue, as 135 previously described (Boros-Majewska *et al.* 2015). Treated samples were incubated for 30 min at 136 37°C in the dark prior to transfer to clean glass slides. RHE samples were covered with Vectashield[®] 137 mounting medium and confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) performed (n=3) using a Leica 138 TCS SP2 AOBS spectral confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany).

139

140 Periodic Acid-Schiff staining

141 RHE sections (5 μ m) were stained using Periodic Acid-Schiff (PAS) stain to study hyphal invasion of 142 the epithelium. Light microscopic images (x100 objective lens) of control and 0.2%-treated OligoG 143 samples (n=144) were taken (10 images/section), and the depth of invasion (\geq 3 per image) was analysed 144 by direct measurement, using ImageJ software.

145

146 Phospholipase (PL) activity plate assay

147 *Candida albicans* ATCC 90028 and *C. albicans* CCUG 39343 (with *C. glabrata* ATCC 2001 used as 148 a negative control) were screened for extracellular PL activity after growth on egg-yolk agar 149 (Samaranayake *et al.* 1984). Experiments employed OligoG in the overnight culture medium (prior to 150 inoculation of the egg-yolk agar) and OligoG incorporated into the egg yolk agar at 0.2, 2 and 6% (w/v) 151 without CaCl₂. Static overnight cultures in SAB were diluted 100-fold into fresh SAB \pm 0.2%, 2% and 152 6% (w/v) OligoG for 18 h at 37°C. A standard inoculum of the test *Candida* (5 µl \approx 10⁷ cfu ml⁻¹) was deposited onto the egg-yolk agar and dried at room temperature. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 3-7 days; the diameter of the precipitation zone around the colony was then measured (n=3) and PL activity (P_z value) expressed as the ratio of the colony diameter to the total diameter of the colony and precipitation zone (Price *et al.* 1982).

157

158 Secreted aspartyl protease (SAP) activity plate assay

Candida albicans ATCC 90028, *C. albicans* CCUG 39343, and *C. glabrata* ATCC 2001 were screened
for SAP production after growth on modified YNB medium (de Menezes Thiele *et al.* 2008). Briefly,
1.5% agar (Sigma; w/v) and 0.2% glucose (w/v) was autoclaved followed by the addition of filter
sterilized 1.17% YNB without ammonium sulfate, 0.2% bovine serum albumin (Sigma; w/v) and 0.01%
Vitox (Oxoid; v/v). The inoculum preparation and analysis was identical to that described in the PL
activity assay.

165

166 Hemolysis plate assay

167 Sheep-blood SDA, supplemented with 3% glucose, was prepared $\pm 0.2\%$, 2% and 6% OligoG. Static 168 overnight cultures of C. albicans CCUG 39343, C. albicans ATCC 90028 and C. glabrata ATCC 2001 169 were incubated at 37°C in SAB. Cultures were diluted 100-fold into SAB \pm 0.2, 2 and 6% OligoG and re-incubated for 18 h at 37°C. The overnight culture was centrifuged at 2,000 g for 5 min and re-170 suspended in water to 1 x 10^7 cells ml⁻¹; a 5µl inoculum was placed on each plate (n=3). Plates were 171 incubated at 37°C (48 h) and hemolysis production calculated by dividing the diameter of the colony 172 by the total colony diameter (including the translucent periphery), to determine the hemolytic index, Hi 173 (Yigit et al. 2011; Deorukhkar et al. 2014). Controls included Streptococcus pyogenes (clinical strain; 174 beta hemolytic), S. pneumoniae (ATCC 49619; alpha hemolytic) and Staphylococcus epidermidis 175 (ATCC 14990; negative control) grown in Mueller-Hinton broth. 176

177

178 RNA extraction and Real-Time-PCR (qPCR)

179 RNA was extracted from *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 cultured as described above. Cultures were adjusted 180 to $1.0 \ge 10^8$ cells ml⁻¹ in PBS and centrifuged (12000 g, 2 min) before being re-suspended in 0.5 ml 181 RNAlater® and stored at -20 $^{\circ}$ C until required. Cells were pelleted (12000 x g, 2 min) and re-suspended 182 in lysis buffer (RLT buffer, QIAgen, Crawley, UK) containing 1% (v/v) beta-mercaptoethanol. Cells 183 were then lysed using a Mini-Bead-Beater-8 for a total of 4 min (at 2 min intervals with 1 min on ice). Resultant supernatants were transferred to fresh tubes, and the cell-debris pelleted by centrifugation. 184 185 Total nucleic acid was extracted from the supernatant using 500 µl phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol 186 (25:24:1) (Sigma-Aldrich, Pool, UK). Total RNA was recovered from the aqueous layer after DNase I treatment using the RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN). Gel electrophoresis was used to check purity and 187 integrity of the total RNA, and RNA concentration was measured spectrophotometrically (NanoVue, 188 GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK) and standardized to 300 ng ml⁻¹. Reverse transcription reactions 189 190 for cDNA synthesis were performed using a total RNA template of (300 ng ml⁻¹), 40 µmol of random 191 nonamer primers (PrimerDesign Ltd) and molecular grade water in a final reaction volume of 10 µl. An annealing step of 5 min at 65°C was performed, samples were cooled on ice and added to the 192 extension mix; 4 µl of 4 x NanoScript2 buffer, 1 µl dNTP mix (10 mM), NanoScript2 enzyme at 1.5 µl 193 194 (Primer Design, Southampton, UK), and 2.5 µl of molecular grade water and a final volume of 20 µl 195 was incubated at 25°C for 5 min and then at 42°C for 20 min.

196 The primers used in the qPCR analysis were based on previous findings, and are shown in Table 1. Primer specificity was tested on extracted genomic DNA. Regions amplified were secreted aspartyl 197 198 proteinases SAP4, SAP5 and SAP6 and phospholipases PLB1 and PLB2, with ACT1 serving as a reference control for C. albicans. PCR was performed in 96-well plates in an ABI 7000 instrument 199 200 (Life Technologies). Each 25 µl reaction contained 2 µl cDNA, 12.5 µl (x2) of SYBR-Green PCR master mix (PrecisionPlus Mastermix; Primer Design, Southampton, UK), 0.5 ul of each primer (10 201 202 mM), made up to 25 µl with molecular grade water. The thermal cycle profile comprised of initial 203 denaturation at 95°C for 2 min, 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15s, primer annealing at 58°C for 204 15s, and primer extension at 72°C for 30s. A final extension at 72°C for 2 min was performed, followed by a final cooling step at 4°C. A dissociation stage at 60°C was used to generate a melting-curve for 205 206 verification of the amplified product. After qPCR, the threshold was adjusted according to the amplification curves of all evaluated genes. Comparison between groups was based on the cycle 207

208 number at which both the target and reference genes reached threshold cycle (Ct) fluorescence. 209 Analysis of relative gene expression was according to the $\Delta\Delta$ CT method (Bustin *et al.* 2009).

210

211 Candida cell-surface charge analysis

212 Zeta-potential analyses were performed using electrophoretic light scattering on C. albicans 39343 at pH 5, 7 and 9 and at a salt concentration of 0.01 mol 1⁻¹ NaCl. C. albicans was grown overnight in SAB 213 at 37°C, and diluted 100-fold in fresh SAB prior to culture at 37°C for 19 h at 80 rev min⁻¹. One ml of 214 the culture was washed in distilled-water (5,500 x g; 3 min). The pellet was re-suspended in 100 μ l of 215 216 0.01 mol 1^{-1} NaCl (pH 5, 7 or 9) and 20 µl added to 1 ml of the buffer ± OligoG (10%) for 20 min; the sample was washed and centrifuged (2,500 x g; 6 min). A Zetasizer Nano ZS (Malvern Instruments) 217 and disposable capillary cells (DTS1061 Malvern instruments) were employed and the resultant zeta 218 potential calculated by applying Smoluchowski's model (Wilson et al. 2001). 219

220

221 Statistical analysis

GraphPad Prism 3 was used to perform statistical analysis (GraphPad software Inc, California, USA).
Measurements of invasion in the PAS-stained RHE images were analysed using a Mann-Whitney test.
The data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by a Dunnett Multiple Comparisons test (growth
curve, SAP and PL plate assays) and Tukey Kramer multiple comparisons test (real-time PCR data).
Data represents the mean in all figures (standard deviation; Fig. 1.-5, S1-S2 and standard error of mean
in Fig. 6). p<0.05 was considered significant.

228

229 Results

230 OligoG reduced candidal growth

Growth curve studies showed that there was no change in the lag- or exponential-phases when *C*. *albicans* was grown in the presence of OligoG. However, a decrease in optical density was evident at the late-exponential growth phase (>10 h) when samples were treated with $\geq 2\%$ OligoG (Fig. 1a). 234 OligoG induced a significant dose-dependent reduction in candidal growth compared to the control (at

18 h), which was maintained throughout stationary phase (Fig. 1b; p<0.05).

236

237 OligoG reduced in vitro candidal hyphal production and invasion

The hyphal invasion agar assay confirmed that treatment with OligoG (>0.2%) induced a marked dosedependent decrease in candidal invasion (Fig. 2). A visible reduction in the ability of *C. albicans* to penetrate the agar was seen at increasing OligoG concentrations. H&E stained sections of the agar showed that considerable hyphal invasion was seen in the control samples, and interestingly this often led to a cluster of yeast cells penetrating through the agar along with the hyphae. As the concentration of OligoG increased, less hyphae were visible, with reduced yeast cell clustering within the agar, particularly at OligoG concentrations $\geq 2\%$. Alternatively, hyphal cells may have reverted to yeast cells.

Longitudinal CLSM studies of the RHE tissues showed candidal hyphal formation did not occur before 6 h (Fig. 3). However, in contrast to the control in which a vital epithelial layer was evident (depicted by viable green cells), hyphal formation was clearly evident at 6 h on the surface of the inoculated epithelial cells. Moreover, at 12 h, there was an unmistakable further increase in hyphal formation, in conjunction with greater epithelial cell death (red cells). This 12 h time point was therefore chosen as optimal for testing the RHE tissues with OligoG.

Fig. 4 shows OligoG-treated RHE sections. An intact epithelium composed of viable (green) keratinocytes in the controls (Fig. 4a), contrasted with increasing numbers of non-viable (red) keratinocytes and abundant hyphal formation in the infected RHE tissues, with a striking decrease in hyphal formation observed in the 0.2% OligoG-treated samples. No change in the ratio of live to dead cells was evident.

Quantification of hyphal invasion was conducted using PAS-stained RHE cross-sectional images (Fig. 4b). PAS images demonstrated intact stratified keratinocytes in the uninfected control. However, in the infected control, the stratified layers were clearly infiltrated with hyphae penetrating at least half way through the keratinocyte layers. Quantification of hyphal invasion of the epithelial surface in the RHE model showed a statistically significant reduction in the depth of hyphal invasion observed in the 0.2% OligoG-treated RHE tissues (p<0.05; n=144 measurements of 10 images/section with \geq 3 measurements of depth of invasion/image) compared to the untreated control, with the hyphae

seen predominantly on the tissue surface rather than invading the underlying keratinocytes.

264

265 Production of the virulence factor phospholipase was reduced in the presence of OligoG

Standard egg-yolk plates showed that phospholipase (PL) production by *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 cells pre-treated with OligoG was significantly decreased, but only at the 5 day time point using 6% OligoG (Fig. 5; p<0.05). Slight strain variations were evident, with no significance seen following OligoG pretreatment with strain CCUG39343. However, incorporating OligoG into the egg-yolk plates produced a pronounced dose-dependent effect, with significantly decreased production of PL evident at days 3, 5 and 7 (at \geq 2% OligoG; p<0.05; **Fig. 5**) for both strains tested.

Analysis of secreted aspartyl protease (SAPs) production showed that treatment of *Candida* with OligoG failed to induce significant differences in hemolytic activity, in either pre-treatment (p>0.05; **Fig. S1a**) or following incorporation of OligoG into the agar (p>0.05; **Fig. S1b**). Unusually, the two *C. albicans* strains tested (ATCC 90028 and CCUG 39343) produced no SAPs in the plate assays, even in untreated controls after 7 day incubations, suggesting that the assay was not sufficiently sensitive.

278

279 OligoG reduced expression of key phospholipase and secreted aspartyl proteinases

Quantitative RT-PCR demonstrated OligoG induced a decrease in key phospholipase and secreted aspartyl proteinase production at concentrations $\geq 0.2\%$. However, the data only reached statistical significance (p<0.05) for *PLB2*, *SAP4* and *SAP6* expression at 6% OligoG (**Fig. 6**). A dose-dependent decrease in *SAP5* was also evident at 6% OligoG, however this did not reach statistical significance.

284

285 OligoG did not alter the surface charge of the candidal cell wall

Zeta-potential measurements demonstrated that the surface charge of *Candida* was increased following
OligoG treatment, at pH 5 and 7 (not pH 9). Following thorough washing, these changes were not
significantly different from the control in any of these test conditions (Fig. S2).

290 Discussion

This study demonstrated the effect of OligoG on the important human fungal pathogen C. albicans and 291 showed the ability of this polymer therapy to modify virulence factor production and invasion of C. 292 293 albicans in vitro. Numerous in vivo, ex vivo and in vitro models of candidal biofilm formation and 294 invasion have been developed. Whilst no single in vitro model of Candida infection exists, numerous studies have employed this RHE model (de Fraissinette et al. 1999) which, although lacking any 295 extensively used to study 296 immunological component, has been *Candida*/keratinocyte interactions/invasion at the gene, protein and cellular level (Schaller et al. 2001; Schaller et al. 2002; 297 298 Bartie et al. 2004; Jayatilake et al. 2005; Malic et al. 2007). Although authors have criticized the model 299 (Murdoch et al. 2005; Colley et al. 2011; Yadev et al. 2011) it is still useful as it allows the early events 300 of fungal pathogenesis *i.e.* adhesion to the keratinocyte surface and initial invasion of the insoluble keratinocyte barrier of cross-linked proteins and lipids (Schaller et al. 2006) to be studied. Researchers 301 302 have also shown how strain-dependent invasiveness in the RHE may reflect pathogenicity in vivo (Malic 303 et al. 2007). It should also be borne in mind that in the early stages of pathogenesis, keratinocytes (via this physical barrier and their expression of cytokines and Toll-like receptors) represent an important 304 305 element of the dermal innate immune response to fungal and many other pathogens (Mogensen 2009).

Imaging revealed that no candidal hyphal infiltration was evident at <6 h. Beyond 6 h however, adherence and hyphal formation were clearly evident. At 12 h, LIVE/DEAD[®] staining demonstrated markedly decreased hyphal formation on the surface of the OligoG-treated RHE models, with few actual hyphae visible in contrast to the abundant hyphae present in the untreated control. Whilst these results may appear to contrast with the growth inhibition described in previous studies, these were not however, apparent at early time points ≤ 12 h; the previously-described differences being evident only at 48 h (Tøndervik *et al.* 2014).

Whilst attachment, proliferation and biofilm assembly are important in colonization of the epithelial surface, invasion is a key pathogenic phenotype in candidal pathogenesis (Bartie *et al.* 2004; Mayer *et al.* 2013). Invasion studies here employed cross-sectional imaging of RHE as previously utilized in virulence studies of clinical *Candida* isolates (Malic *et al.* 2007; Boros-Majewska *et al.* 317 2014), which revealed that OligoG was not fungicidal (as ascertained by the absence of red-stained, non-vital cells), differential quantification of samples, as previously described by Boros-Majewska et 318 al. (2014), could not be employed. Analysis of invasion in the RHE and agar model systems revealed 319 320 that whilst no differences in fungal viability were evident, OligoG treatment induced markedly reduced 321 invasion in both model systems, with a dose-dependent decrease in hyphal formation being evident in the agar model. Interestingly at high concentrations of OligoG (>6%) in the agar model, addition of the 322 alginate oligomers reduced the structural integrity of the agar. The decreased invasion, therefore, did 323 not reflect the OligoG induced alteration in physical density of the media. The findings in the RHE 324 325 model were in line with the reduced *Candida* growth demonstrated in the presence of OligoG. It should 326 be noted that the use of higher concentrations of OligoG (>2%) was not possible in this system as higher 327 concentrations impaired both direct visualization and the cellular viability of the epithelial component 328 of the superficial keratinocyte layer, in this (avascular) air-liquid interface model. This effect on 329 keratinocyte viability is a particular feature of this model and has not been observed in the extensive 330 pre-clinical (in vitro), animal, and human clinical testing of chronically-inhaled OligoG prior to EMA 331 and FDA approval (Pritchard et al. 2016).

332 Dermal invasion by Candida is facilitated by production of a heterogeneous group of 333 hydrolytic enzymes (Schaller et al. 2005). SAPs are believed to mediate Candida invasion of epithelial 334 cells, with SAP5 in particular, also strongly associated with proteolytic degradation of E-cadherin found 335 in the intracellular junctions of keratinocytes (Villar et al. 2007). Interestingly, as keratinocyte damage is not prevented by pepstatin A (which partially inhibits invasion), other mechanisms are, therefore, 336 337 clearly important (Naglik et al. 2008). SAPs 1-3 have been shown to have a direct role in the tissue damage of superficial infection whilst SAPs 4-6 are important for invasion and interaction with 338 components of cellular defense (Schaller et al. 2001) and yeast to hypha transition (Naglik et al. 2003). 339 A reduction in SAP4-6 in the presence of OligoG (being significant for SAP 4 and 6) could explain the 340 corresponding decrease in hyphal formation and invasion. However, the pathogenicity of SAPs remains 341 contentious (Correia et al. 2010) with poor correlation found between individual SAP gene-expression 342 and epithelial damage (Naglik et al. 2008). SAP expression is also dependent on environmental pH 343 344 (Staib et al. 2000), therefore, it is unsurprising that SAP production in C. albicans was not detected phenotypically in this study. The marked reductions in hyphal formation, which were induced by
OligoG, were reflected in alterations in the gene expression of *PLB2*, *SAP4* and *SAP6*, evident by qPCR
analysis. The lower expression of PLs and SAPs in the RHE model system may reflect their decreased
expression in established laboratory isolates, and the reduced sensitivity of the plate-based assay in
comparison to the qPCR (Boriollo *et al.* 2009).

The effects of OligoG on hyphal formation and fungal invasion in the RHE model reflected its 350 351 previously reported reduction of germ-tube formation in vitro (Tøndervik et al. 2014). In vivo, invasion is not only mediated by hydrolytic enzymes, but may be potentiated by synergistic interactions with 352 other bacterial species on the skin or mucosal surfaces e.g. Staphylococcus (Zago et al. 2015) and 353 Streptococcus spp. (Bamford et al. 2009). SAPs 4-6 were investigated due to their involvement in 354 355 systemic infections (Malic et al. 2007). SAP 4-6 are hyphal-specific; their expression being associated 356 with invasive candidal strains. It has recently been suggested that the importance of SAPs may be an over-stated epiphenomenon in ex-vivo systems, reflecting experimental conditions, rather than 357 pathological invasion in vivo (Naglik et al. 2008). Both SAPs 1-3 and SAPs 4-6 subfamilies were 358 359 reported to be lower when analysed using qPCR in the RHE model, indicating that SAP production 360 needs to be further analysed in vivo (Naglik et al. 2008).

361 C. albicans is known to possess up to five extracellular phospholipases (PLB1-5) which may 362 also play a role in virulence, possibly via disruption of the host membrane (Mayer et al 2013). PL 363 activity represents an important virulence factor in not only *Candida*, but also in a range of other fungi 364 including Aspergillus (Alp and Arikan 2008), Cryptococcus (Ganendren et al. 2006) and bacteria such 365 as Clostridium perfringens and Pseudomonas aeruginosa (Ghannoum 2000). Candidal PLs are a 366 heterogeneous group of important enzymes associated with invasion (Ghannoum 2000) and expression is localized to the peripheries of the hyphal tips and initial sites of bud- formation (Jayatilake et al. 367 2005) (where they act as a mechanical anchor for yeast survival on the keratinocyte surface). PL 368 expression is reduced in non-hyphal forming species e.g. C. glabrata (Kantarcioglu and Yucel 2002) 369 and are believed to modify host transduction pathways, perturb cell signaling (Oishi et al. 1988) and 370 371 local immune responses (Soares et al. 2010). Whilst PL expression has however previously been shown not to correlate with RHE invasion in this model (Malic *et al.* 2007) it was interesting that the reduced
hyphal formation and invasion induced by OligoG was associated with a significant decrease in Plb2.

Studies of the interaction of OligoG with the Candida cell wall were deemed important as 374 alterations in pseudomonal bacterial (and biofilm) behavior had previously been shown related to 375 376 bacterial cell-surface binding and modification of cell-surface charge by long-range forces (which determine pathogen/host cell interactions) (Powell et al. 2014). Interestingly, whilst ELS experiments 377 378 with *P. aeruginosa* showed how alginate oligomers bound tightly to the bacterial cell surface and resist 379 hydrodynamic shear, in *Candida* no such changes were apparent. Treated candidal specimens also failed to demonstrate the "clumping"/aggregation previously observed in P. aeruginosa biofilms. These 380 findings reflect the contrasting nature of the yeast cell wall (composed of glucan, chitin and 381 382 mannoproteins), with that of the lipid-rich pseudomonal outer membrane incorporating both 383 peptidoglycan and lipopolysaccharide (Hawrani et al. 2010).

In conclusion, these studies have demonstrated the ability of the alginate oligosaccharide OligoG CF-5/20, to modify virulence factor expression in *Candida* and inhibit hyphal formation and invasion. The observed reduction in hyphal infiltration reflected reductions in hydrolytic enzyme production. These findings demonstrate direct and indirect mechanisms by which OligoG may influence candidal invasion and be of potential utility in the management of fungal pathogens in human disease.

390

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400 **Conflict of interest**

D.W.T. has a consultancy relationship and has, with K.E.H., received research funding from
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of interest to disclose.

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588 e0123206.

Table 1 Primers used for quantitative PCR.

Target gene	Additional information	Forward primer (5' - 3')	Reverse primer (5' - 3')	Reference
SAP4	Secreted aspartyl proteinase	AATGATGTGGGCAAAGAGG	ACACCACCAATACCAACGGT	(Monod <i>et al.</i> 1994; Monod <i>et al.</i> 1998)
SAP5	Secreted aspartyl proteinase	ATTAATTGATGCGGCTCCAG	ACACCACCAATACCAACGGT	(Monod <i>et al</i> . 1994; Monod <i>et al</i> . 1998)
SAP6	Secreted aspartyl proteinase	TCCAAACCAACGAAGCTACC	GCAGGAACGGAGATCTTGAG	(Monod <i>et al.</i> 1994; Monod <i>et al.</i> 1998)
PLB1	Phospholipase B	CAACGAAGCGGTGTTGTCTA	TTGCTGCCAGAACTTTTGAA	(Sugiyama <i>et al.</i> 1999; Niewerth and Korting 2001)
PLB2	Phospholipase B	GGCCAGATGGATCAGCTTTA	AAGTTCTGGGCATCACATCC	(Sugiyama <i>et al</i> . 1999; Niewerth and Korting 2001)
ACT1	C. albicans actin reference gene	TGCTGAACGTATGCAAAAGG	TGAACAATGGATGGACCAGA	(Cavalcanti et al. 2015)

591	Figure 1	legends
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- **Figure 1** Growth of *C. albicans* in the presence of OligoG. Growth curves of *Candida albicans* ATCC 90028 (n=3) \pm OligoG at 0% (\circ), 0.2% (\Box), 2% (\bullet), 6% (\blacksquare) over 24 h grown in SAB (a) Representative growth curves. (b) Mean optical density at 18 h time point (n=3; *p<0.05).
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- **Figure 2** Agar hyphal invasion model of *C. albicans* in the presence of OligoG. Yeast Peptone Dextrose agar plate assay \pm OligoG (0.2%, 2% and 6%) showing hyphal invasion with corresponding light microscopy H&E stained images of cross-sectional agar slices (x20).
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- **Figure 3** Epithelial attachment of *Candida* in the RHE model. Time dependent invasion model showing
- 601 LIVE/DEAD® CLSM images of RHE samples infected with *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 (2 x 10⁶ cfu ml⁻
- 602 ¹) for 1, 3, 6 and 12 h, scale bar 40 μ m.
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Figure 4 Imaging and quantification of OligoG treated *C. albicans* hyphal invasion in RHE. CLSM
images of RHE samples infected with *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 for 12 h. (a) LIVE/DEAD® staining,
scale bar 40µm; (b) Periodic acid–Schiff staining of fixed RHE samples (blue) infected with *C. albicans*ATCC 90028 (purple) and boxplot of hyphal invasion measurements (n=64; *p< 0.05).

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Figure 5 Phospholipase production of *C. albicans* in the presence of OligoG. *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 and CCUG 39343 phospholipase plate assay \pm OligoG in the overnight broth or agar (0.2%, 2% and 6%) for 3 days (white), 5 days (grey) and 7 days (black) showing actual Pz values (*p< 0.05; n=3). Pz of 1.0 = no phospholipase activity.

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Figure 6 Molecular quantification of hydrolytic enzyme production of *C. albicans* in the presence of
OligoG. Relative gene expression of phospholipase B (*PLB1*, *PLB2*) and secreted aspartyl proteinases
(*SAPs 4, 5 and 6*) following *C. albicans* ATCC 90028 treatment with OligoG (n=3; *p<0.05).

618	Supporting information
619	Figure S1 <i>C. albicans</i> ATCC 90028 hemolysis agar plate assay ± OligoG 0.2%, 2% and 6% (a) in broth
620	or (b) in agar.
621	Figure S2 Mean Zeta Potential (mV) values for <i>C. albicans</i> CCUG 39343; untreated <i>Candida</i> (pre-
622	wash), treated Candida with 10% OligoG (pre-wash), untreated Candida (post-wash) and treated
623	Candida with 10% OligoG (post-wash) at 0.01 mol l ⁻¹ NaCl, pH 5, 7 and 9. (^ false positive result).
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