1	Monitoring of fluconazole and caspofungin activity against in vivo Candida glabrata
2	biofilms by bioluminescence imaging.
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4	Running title: C. glabrata biofilm eradication in animal model system
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51 Abstract

52 *Candida glabrata* can attach to various medical implants and forms thick biofilms despite its inability to switch from-yeast-to hyphae. Current in vivo C. glabrata biofilm models only 53 provide limited information about colonization and infection and usually require animal 54 sacrifice. To gain real-time information from individual BALB/c mice we developed a non-55 invasive imaging technique to visualize C. glabrata biofilms in catheter fragments that were 56 57 subcutaneously implanted on the back of mice. Bioluminescent C. glabrata reporter strains (luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 and luc_{OPT} 8/1/4), free of auxotrophic markers, expressing a codon-optimized 58 firefly luciferase were generated. A murine subcutaneous model was used to follow real-time 59 60 in vivo biofilm formation in the presence and absence of fluconazole and caspofungin. Fungal load in biofilms was quantified by colony forming unit counts and by 61 bioluminescence imaging (BLI). C. glabrata biofilms formed within the first 24 h, as 62 63 documented by the increased number of device-associated cells and elevated bioluminescent signal compared to adhesion at the time of implant. The in vivo model allowed monitoring of 64 the anti-biofilm activity of caspofungin against C. glabrata biofilms through bioluminescent 65 imaging from day four after initiation of treatment. Contrarily, signals emitted from biofilms 66 implanted in fluconazole-treated mice was similar to the light emitted from control-treated 67 mice. 68

69 This study gives insights into real-time development of *C. glabrata* biofilms under in vivo 70 conditions. BLI proved to be a dynamic, non-invasive and sensitive tool to monitor 71 continuous biofilm formation and activity of antifungal agents against *C. glabrata* biofilms 72 formed on abiotic surfaces in vivo.

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76 Introduction

Candida glabrata is an emerging human fungal pathogen causing mucosal and deep tissue 77 infections especially in elderly patients with a compromised immune system. Following 78 Candida albicans, C. glabrata is the second most common isolated species from hospitalized 79 80 patients in Europe (1). Although C. glabrata does not possess the ability to form true hyphae 81 or secrete proteases, it still maintains many virulence factors, including biofilm forming capacity, which contribute to its potential to cause disease (2). The majority of life-82 threatening infections are associated with biofilm formation on biotic and abiotic substrates. 83 84 Biofilms provide microorganisms with a shelter from external effects of therapeutics, giving them an opportunity to withstand very high concentrations of antifungal agents, for example 85 azoles (3, 4). Because of biofilm resilience to antifungals, therapeutic approaches are very 86 87 limited, often leading to surgical removal of the implant material and its subsequent replacement as sole solution. Recently, our group demonstrated that in vivo C. glabrata 88 89 biofilms formed inside polyurethane catheter pieces implanted subcutaneously on the back of 90 Sprague Dawley rats (5). Biofilms were composed of multilayer structures of yeast cells embedded in extracellular matrix exhibiting increased tolerance to therapeutic concentration 91 92 of fluconazole. Echinocandins proved to remain active against in vivo C. glabrata biofilmforming cells in this particular model (5). One disadvantage of almost all existing biofilm 93 models is that the fungal load is traditionally analyzed *post mortem*, requiring host sacrifice. 94 To avoid this, sensitive non-invasive techniques, such as bioluminescence imaging (BLI), 95 96 provide new and often unexpected temporal and spatial information on infection development 97 in individual animals in real time (6, 7). The monitoring of light emitted from luciferase-98 expressing reporter cells has been used to examine an extensive range of biomolecular functions (8). BLI has been successfully applied to monitor the development of oral 99

candidiasis (6, 9) and *C. albicans* dissemination after tail vein injection in mice (10-12). This
technique was also employed to follow superficial and subcutaneous infections caused by *C. albicans* (12). Moreover, it was employed to study the time-dependent development of *C. albicans* biofilm formation in a subcutaneous biofilm mouse model (13).

In this study, we present the construction of an auxotrophic marker-free bioluminescent *C*. *glabrata* reporter strain based on a *C. glabrata*-optimized firefly luciferase integrated into the *HIS1* locus using *HIS1* as selectable marker. This allowed us to study biofilm development in real-time by use of BLI in a mouse subcutaneous model system. It furthermore allowed us to monitor efficacy of fluconazole and caspofungin treatment in vivo and can thereby contribute to implementation of the 3Rs (replacement, reduction and refinement of animal testing) in therapeutic experiments.

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113 **Results**

114 In vitro characterization of bioluminescent strains

C. glabrata reporter strains luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 and luc_{OPT} 8/1/4 were generated via integration of a 115 C. glabrata-optimized firefly luciferase into the HIS1 locus using HIS1 as selectable marker. 116 To ensure that C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 and luc_{OPT} 8/1/4 produced substantial 117 bioluminescence and that luciferase expression did not affect growth rates, transformants 118 119 were tested in series of in vitro experiments. We did not observe any changes in growth rates between reporter strains and WT in RPMI 1640, pH 7.0 and YPD medium at 37 °C (Figure 120 S1). Additionally, we prepared 10-fold dilution series of WT and bioluminescent strains to 121 detect the signal. Signals from reporter strains correlated (Spearman r=0.993, n=24, 122 p < 0.0001) well with the number of cells with a detection limit of about 100 cells per well 123 (Figure S1). 124

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126 In vitro Candida glabrata adhesion and biofilm formation monitored by BLI

To evaluate the potential use of BLI in vitro to study fungal adhesion (90 min after 127 inoculation) and biofilm formation (after 2 days), we inoculated C. glabrata strains on the 128 serum-coated bottom of 96-well polystyrene plates, which represents a very simple biofilm 129 130 system. The bioluminescent signal acquired from the reporter strains was significantly higher 131 compared to the WT (Figure 1A, C). A parallel XTT assay showed a significant increase in metabolic activity for all biofilm-forming cells after 2 days (Figure 1B). The BLI signal 132 intensity from biofilms formed by luciferase-expressing strains on polyurethane catheters 133 134 increased significantly compared to the signal determined from the WT strain (Figure 1D, F). The number of cfu was significantly higher during biofilm formation in comparison to 135 136 adhesion (Figure 1E), which is in agreement with the BLI signal measurements. To determine 137 whether BLI can accurately measure kinetics of C. glabrata biofilm formation, we quantified bioluminescence and cfu quantification after 90 min (adhesion period), 1, 2, 5 and 7 days. At 138 each imaging time point, the BLI signal retrieved from reporter strain C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 139 140 7/2/4 cells was significantly higher compared to the signal emitted from the WT strain (Figure 2A, C). The number of fungal cells significantly increased between adhesion and the 141 first 24 h of biofilm formation (Figure 2B). At later time points of biofilm formation, the BLI 142 signal and the amount of cfu remained stable. In addition, we show that this reporter strain 143 allows accurate in vitro biofilm quantification, as cfu and bioluminescence correlated well 144 (Spearman r=0.7027, n=27, p<0.0001). Taken together, these results indicate that BLI 145 represents a sensitive tool to study in vitro C. glabrata adherence and biofilm formation on 146 abiotic surfaces. 147

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149 In vivo BLI of *Candida glabrata* biofilms developed in a subcutaneous mouse model

150 Biofilm formation can impose serious medical problems in immunocompromised patients. First, we assessed the role of immunosuppression on C. glabrata biofilm and on 151 dissemination into the surrounding tissue. One group of mice was treated with 152 dexamethasone (0.4 mg/L) in the drinking water, whereas the second group remained 153 immunocompetent. Our preliminary experiment displayed no major differences in the 154 number of cfu after devices were explanted from immunocompromised 155 and immunocompetent mice (Figure S2 A). Similarly, the number of C. glabrata cells quantified 156 157 from tissue surrounding catheters was almost identical (Figure S2 B). As no significant difference was observed among both groups we continued our experiments in 158 159 immunocompetent mice. Moreover, fungal cells did not disseminate into any vital organ of immunocompromised or immunocompetent mice as no cfu were retrieved from kidneys, liver 160 161 nor spleen after homogenization (data not shown).

162 In this model, catheters infected with C. glabrata WT cells and luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 expressing strain were implanted subcutaneously on the left and right side, respectively of the lower back of 163 164 mice (Figure 3A). In vivo imaging was performed after catheter implant and continued on 165 day 1, 5 and 7 (Figure 3A). At every imaging time point 3 mice were sacrificed and explanted catheters were used for ex vivo quantification. A significant BLI signal was detected only 166 from C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 biofilm-forming cells, where it increased significantly over 167 168 time (Figure 3A, B). The quantification of cfu documented with the BLI signal in parallel was significantly higher between adhesion (90 min) and 1st day of biofilm maturation (Figure 169 3C). Moreover, the number of biofilm-forming cells and bioluminescent signal retrieved from 170 C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 correlated well (Spearman r=0.7576, n=10, p<0.0149) (Figure 3A, 171 B). These findings indicate that BLI can be used for continuous detection and quantification 172 of in vivo C. glabrata biofilm formation. 173

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175 In vivo BLI of fluconazole and caspofungin activity against *C. glabrata* biofilms

176 Prior to in vivo experiments, we performed few tests to determine the efficacy of an azole fluconazole and an echinocandin caspofungin on free-living cells and in vitro biofilms. C. 177 178 glabrata planktonic cells showed decreased susceptibility to fluconazole (MIC₅₀ ranging 179 from 8 - 16 μ g/ml), whereas all strains were susceptible to caspofungin (0.0625 mg/L). In 180 vitro C. glabrata biofilms did not respond to therapy with fluconazole (>64 mg/L), while caspofungin (0.25 mg/l - 0.5 mg/L) significantly decreased the number of C. glabrata 181 182 biofilm-forming cells of all strains tested (Figure S3). Further, we evaluated the activity of 183 fluconazole (125 mg/kg of body weight/day) and caspofungin (10 mg/kg of body weight/day) against in vivo C. glabrata biofilms. Daily in vivo imaging and the number of cfu retrieved 184 185 from catheters ex vivo on day 9 revealed that fluconazole was not active against C. glabrata 186 biofilm-forming cells (Figure 4A, B, C, D). In contrast, the signal detected in mice treated with caspofungin significantly decreased from day 4 of treatment until day 7 (Figure 4A, B). 187 Furthermore, treatment with caspofungin resulted in significantly decreased number of cfu 188 recovered from polyurethane devices ex vivo (Figure 4C, D). In conclusion, these data 189 190 support the use of BLI to demonstrate activities of antifungal agents against biofilms under in vivo conditions. 191

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193 Discussion

Usage of indwelling medical devices has become indispensable to medical care. Unfortunately, the increased risk of biofilm related infections in hospitalized patients is associated with the use of these devices. One of the key challenges in biofilm research is the development of in vivo models that allow assessment of the efficacy of existing or novel therapeutics. So far, only a few in vitro *C. glabrata* biofilm model systems have been

introduced to elucidate the different stages of biofilm, its architecture and response to 199 200 antifungal treatment (2). However, these models do not take the host immune system and changes at the host site of infection into consideration, which are crucial during infections in 201 202 humans. Up to date, in vivo C. glabrata biofilms have been studied inside central venous catheters as described by Nett et al. (14). Recently, in vivo C. glabrata biofilms have been 203 204 established subcutaneously in immunocompromised Sprague Dawley rats (5). In this study 205 we established an in vivo C. glabrata infection model that mimics non-bloodstream biofilm-206 associated infections in immunocompetent mice. This model is of interest given the frequent 207 development of such biofilms in endotracheal tubes, intracardiac prosthetics and prosthetic 208 joints (15). Our flow cytometry experiments (data not shown) displayed a trend towards more neutrophil recruitment in the subcutaneous area surrounding catheter pieces 72 h post-surgery 209 210 in animals carrying C. glabrata-infected catheters compared to non-infected devices. These 211 findings suggest that the host immune system is triggered upon C. glabrata infection however that the predominant innate immune response is likely not driven solely by 212 213 neutrophils. Further research elucidating the specific innate immune response towards these 214 biofilms has to be conducted. Translation of the originally developed rat model to mice improved the cost-efficiency of in vivo experiments and presents potential to study biofilm 215 216 formation in different transgenic mice allowing us to discover different host factors that may affect biofilm development. 217

In the majority of animal experiments, the number of cfu's is determined post-mortem which requires a large number of animals in order to perform time-course experiments. This is also the case if one wants to study the effect of antifungals on catheter-associated biofilm infections in animals. Because of this, we searched for an alternative tool which allowed us to study the development of infection repeatedly in the same animal. Bioluminescence imaging (BLI) has been previously described as a sensitive, reliable and non-invasive technique to

follow systemic candidiasis caused by C. albicans and its dissemination into kidneys (10-12). 224 225 Additionally, BLI has been applied to study subcutaneous C. albicans infections (10) and vulvovaginal candidiasis (11). It was used to monitor C. albicans biofilm formation in a 226 227 subcutaneous catheter mouse model (13). In that particular scenario, Gaussia princeps luciferase was expressed on the cell wall (12) and emitted light upon contact with the 228 229 substrate coelenterazine, whereby light emission correlated with cfu (13). Gabrielli et al. 230 (16), used C. albicans strains with extracellularly expressed G. princeps luciferace to study 231 development of oropharyngeal candidiasis. They found that in vivo BLI was more reliable than cfu counts detecting early infection in the oral cavity of the host. Very recently, red-232 233 shifted firefly luciferase has been introduced to test the fate of *C*. *albicans* in different animal models (17). In our study, the use of firefly luciferase is known for its glow-type 234 235 bioluminescence over a period of time and therefore, is advantageous in comparison with 236 other reporter systems (18). Renilla luciferase and beetle reporter systems have been used to study eukaryotes. In the case of bacteria it is advantageous to use luminescent reporters based 237 238 on the lux operon with intracellular expression of luciferase (6). Furthermore, the strains 239 generated here are otherwise not auxotrophic and show no altered phenotype when compared 240 to the parental WT. We have clearly demonstrated that BLI is sensitive and a powerful tool to 241 study long-term infection development on abiotic surfaces within living animals.

It is known that the extracellular matrix serves as a protective barrier allowing microorganisms to withstand high concentrations of antimicrobial agents. Treatment of *C*. *glabrata* can be especially challenging because of its acquired resistance to the "*goldstandard*" antimycotic fluconazole (4). In our study, daily administration of fluconazole (125 mg/kg of body weight/day) for 7 days did not cause any significant decline in the number of *C. glabrata* catheter-associated cells as comparable BLI and cfu. However, daily administration of caspofungin (10 mg/kg of body weight/day) significantly decreased the number of cfu retrieved from implanted catheters in comparison with saline-treated animals. Remarkably, daily monitoring of animals resulted in decreased signal from day 4 in caspofungin-treated animals. These studies are in agreement with our previous fluconazole and caspofungin efficacy testing in a rat model (5). Moreover, we (19) displayed that fluconazole failed its efficacy on *C. albicans* biofilms, whereas caspofungin showed very good activity to treat device-associated infections in the subcutaneous mouse model.

In conclusion, bioluminescence imaging is a reliable and non-invasive method not only to 255 visualize but also to quantify fungal biofilms. Even more importantly, this technique is cost 256 257 effective offering the capability to study the activity of novel or existing antimicrobial agents over the course of time avoiding animal sacrifice at each time point. The model presented in 258 259 this study combined with BLI can be easily used by other researchers to exploit the role of 260 the host immune system in infection when using different knockout mice, to study hostpathogen interactions using different C. glabrata strains, as well as for rapid screening during 261 early drug discovery. 262

263

264 Materials and methods

265 Ethics

All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the KU Leuven animal care guidelines and were approved by the Ethical Committee of the KU Leuven (project number P090/2013). All animals were given a standard *ad libitum* diet and housed at random with 4 animals in filter-top cages in a dedicated animal room where temperature, light and humidity was regulated.

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272 Generation of *C. glabrata* histidine auxotrophic mutants

All oligonucleotides used in this study are described in Supplementary Table 1. For 273 274 generation of a histidine auxotrophic mutant of C. glabrata ATCC2001 (WT) the HIS1 locus was selected for gene deletion. A 750 bp promoter region (P1 + P2) and a 693 bp 275 276 downstream region (P3 + P4) of the HIS1 gene were amplified from C. glabrata genomic DNA. Oligonucleotides P1 and P4 contained overlapping sequences to the BamHI restricted 277 pUC19 vector. Oligonucleotides P2 and P3 contained flanking sequences to the 278 279 nourseothricin resistance cassette that was amplified with oligonucleotides P5 and P6 from 280 plasmid pJK863 (20). Primer P5 contained an overlap to the upstream and P6 to the downstream flanking region of the HIS1 gene. PCR reactions were performed with Phusion 281 282 Hot Start II polymerase (Thermo) and PCR fragments were gel purified using the GeneJet Gel purification kit (Thermo). All fragments were mixed with the BamHI restricted pUC19 283 284 plasmid and assembled by in vitro recombination using the InFusion HD cloning kit 285 (Takara/Clonetech). After transformation of *E. coli* DH5α cells, oligonucleotides P1 + P7 and P4 + P8 were used to screen colonies for correct plasmid assembly. Plasmid DNA was 286 287 isolated, restricted with KpnI and used for electroporation of C. glabrata WT cells (21). 288 Transformants were regenerated on YPD medium with 200 µg/mL nourseothricin. Individual colonies were tested for histidine auxotrophy. Integration of the deletion construct into the 289 290 HIS1 locus was confirmed by diagnostic PCR with oligonucleotides P7 + P9. The deletion mutants $\Delta 2/4$ and $\Delta 2/12$ were used in downstream experiments for generation of 291 292 bioluminescent strains.

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294 Generation and characterization of luciferase expressing *C. glabrata* strains

A codon-optimized synthetic firefly luciferase gene adapted to the codon usage of *C*. *glabrata* was used for generation of bioluminescent *C. glabrata* strains. To ensure
constitutive gene expression, the promoter of the enolase gene (p*ENO1*) was selected. The

enolase promoter was amplified with oligonucleotides P10 + P11 from genomic DNA of WT 298 299 and ligated into the NdeI-site of the luciferase gene containing plasmid pUC57. The ENO1 promoter in combination with the luciferase gene was amplified with oligonucleotides P12 + 300 301 P13, whereby P12 contained an overhang to a short terminator region of the HIS1 gene and P13 an overhang to a downstream region of the HIS1 gene. To integrate the luciferase 302 303 construct into the original HIS1 locus of the Δ HIS1 strains, the HIS1 gene with 720 bp 304 promoter region and a short 60 bp terminator sequence were amplified from genomic DNA of WT with oligonucleotides P14 + P15. Oligonucleotide P14 contained an overhang to the 305 306 BamHI site of the pUC19 plasmid and P15 an overhang to the ENO1 promoter. Finally, to enable a homologous integration into the HIS1 locus, a 668 bp downstream region of the 307 HIS1 gene was amplified from C. glabrata genomic DNA with oligonucleotides P16 and 308 P17, whereby P16 overlapped with the 3'-end of the luciferase and P17 with the BamHI 309 restricted puC19 vector. All PCR fragments were gel purified and mixed with the BamHI 310 311 restricted puC19 vector for in vitro recombination using the InFusion HD cloning kit. E. coli DH5 α was transformed with the reaction mixture and correct plasmids were identified by 312 colony PCR using oligonucleotides P18 + P19 for the fusion of the luciferase cassette with 313 314 the HIS1 gene and P20 +P21 for the combination of the luciferase gene with the HIS1 downstream region. Correctly assembled plasmids were purified and the transformation 315 cassette was excised from the pUC19 backbone by BamHI restriction and used for 316 317 transformation of C. glabrata HIS1 deletion mutants using histidine prototrophy as selection marker. Transformants were regenerated on yeast nitrogen base (YNB) with ammonium but 318 319 w/o amino acids and niacin as supplement. Transformants were pre-screened for loss of 320 nourseothricin resistance, which was expected by homologous integration of the reporter cassette into the original HIS1 locus of HIS1 deletion mutants. Integration of the cassette into 321 the correct locus was additionally confirmed by diagnostic PCR using oligonucleotides P9 + 322

323 P22. Finally, transformants were streaked on YNB agar plates containing 0.4 mM D-luciferin 324 and analyzed for bioluminescence using an IVIS 100 system (Perkin Elmer). Two 325 independent transformants, namely *C. glabrata luc*_{OPT} 7/2/4 and *luc*_{OPT} 8/1/4 producing 326 similar signal intensities were selected for further work. An overview of the strains used in 327 this study is provided in Supplementary Table 2.

All strains were grown on YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% glucose) agar plates at 30 °C. *C. glabrata* planktonic cultures were incubated in liquid YPD medium for 72 h at 30 °C (stationary phase). The growth of planktonic cells was followed by BioscreenC (Labsystems) at 30 °C and 37 °C under continuous shaking for 24 hours and measurements were taken every 30 min.

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334 In vivo *C. glabrata* biofilm formation in a murine subcutaneous biofilm model

We translated a rat subcutaneous biofilm model (5) to specific pathogen-free 335 immunocompetent BALB/c mice (6-8 weeks old, 20 g). C. glabrata $(1 \times 10^6 \text{ cells/mL})$ 336 337 attached onto the surface of serum-coated polyurethane catheter pieces during in vitro adhesion (90 min, 37°C) followed by a washing step with PBS. Mice were anesthetized as 338 previously described (5). In order to compare bioluminescence from the WT control strain 339 and the bioluminescent strain in a single animal, two small incisions were made, one on the 340 left and one on the right side of the back of a mouse, as previously demonstrated (22). Three 341 342 catheter pieces seeded with WT were implanted on the left and 3 catheters infected with bioluminescent strain were inserted on the right side of the back. For catheter explant, 343 animals were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. Catheter fragments were removed, washed 344 345 twice with PBS and placed to microcentrifuge tubes containing PBS. Devices were sonicated, 346 vigorously vortexed and plated to enumerate the number of colony-forming units (cfu).

347 Dissemination of *C. glabrata* cells from biofilms into the kidneys, liver, spleen and the tissue
348 surrounding the catheter pieces was examined after 48 and 144 h of biofilm formation.

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350 In vivo BLI

Isoflurane anesthesia and the BLI procedure were performed as described before (13, 22). 351 352 Prior to BLI, fresh D-luciferin solution (33.3 mg/mL) was dissolved in sterile saline (0.9 % NaCl). A photograph was taken to ensure that the animals are in the desired position for 353 imaging. Subsequently, 100 µL of the D-luciferin substrate was injected subcutaneously at 354 355 both sides of the back, at the regions surrounding the implanted catheter pieces. During substrate injection, animals were kept anaesthetized through a nose cone providing gas 356 357 anesthesia. Consecutive series of scans were acquired at 60 s exposure time (medium 358 binning) until the maximum signal was reached (around 15 min after injection). Rectangular region of interests (ROIs) were drawn around each trio of catheters and reported as photon 359 flux per second (p s⁻¹). Background BLI signal was measured by using the same ROI after 360 injecting D-luciferin subcutaneously on the upper back of the mouse where no catheters were 361 implanted. 362

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364 In vivo antifungal treatment

Stock solution of fluconazole (Sigma Aldrich, USA) was dissolved in sterile water, whereas caspofungin was prepared in pure DMSO. Intraperitoneal administration of fluconazole (125 mg/kg of body weight/day) and caspofungin (10 mg/kg of body weight/day) was initiated 24 h post implant. Solutions for injection were prepared in sterile saline and administered intraperitoneally once daily for 7 days. In case of caspofungin the concentration of DMSO used for the injection was 0.5%. Control group of mice was injected with sterile saline.

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372 Additional materials and methods are described in Supplementary file.

373

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448 *albicans* biofilm development on medically-relevant foreign bodies in a mouse subcutaneous

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454 Figure 1. In vitro BLI of *Candida glabrata* biofilm formation on 96 well plate and inside 455 polyurethane catheters

456 (A) Bioluminescence signal intensity and (B) XTT data measurements were obtained after adherence (90 min, black columns, n = 18 wells or devices per strain) and biofilm formation 457 (48 h, white columns, n = 18 wells or catheters per strain) by C. glabrata ATCC 2001 (WT), 458 C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 and luc_{OPT} 8/1/4 in 96-well plate. (C) A characteristic 459 bioluminescent image of 2 days-old biofilm formed on the surface of a 96-well plate. (D) 460 Measurements of BLI signal and (E) colony forming unit counts (cfu) from C. glabrata 461 adhered cells (90 min, black columns) and biofilms formed (48 h, white columns) inside 462 463 catheters. (F) A typical picture of BLI acquired after 2 days of biofilm formation inside polyurethane fragments. Statistical analyses were performed using Two-way ANOVA with 464 post-hoc Tukey HSD test. Differences were considered significant at $p \le 0.05$. Error bars 465 indicate SD of replicate samples. 466

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Figure 2. In vitro BLI of *Candida glabrata* ATCC 2001 (WT) and *C. glabrata luc*_{OPT} 7/2/4 biofilm formation inside polyurethane catheters over time

(A) Bioluminescent signal intensity acquired at different time points (adhesion, 1, 2, 5 and 7 days) of *C. glabrata* ATCC 2001 (WT, black columns) and *C. glabrata* luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 (white columns) biofilm development inside catheters. (B) BLI was accompanied with colony forming unit counts (cfu) after adherence and 1, 2, 5 and 7 days of in vitro biofilm formation inside polyurethane devices (n = 18 devices per strain and time point). (C) A BLI signal retrieved after adhesion (90 min) and later stages of biofilm formation. Two-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD test was used to perform statistical analyses. Differences were considered significant at * $p \le 0.05$ and error bars indicate SD of replicate samples.

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479 Figure 3. In vivo *Candida glabrata* ATCC 2001 (WT) and *Candida glabrata luc*_{OPT} 7/2/4 480 biofilm formation studied by longitudinal BLI

481 (A) In vivo BLI of *C. glabrata* biofilm formation after implant (90 min, period of adhesion) and 1, 5 and 7 days of biofilm formation. Three polyurethane devices infected with C. 482 glabrata ATCC2001 (WT) strain were implanted on left side of the back, whereas 3 devices 483 challenged with luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 were inserted on the ride side of the back of the animal. (B) 484 Quantification of bioluminescence signal intensity acquired at different time points 485 486 (adhesion, 1, 5 and 7 days, *n*=6 animals per time point, except for a group with non-infected 487 catheters with *n*=1) of non-infected devices (black columns), *C. glabrata* ATCC 2001 (grey columns) and C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 (white columns) biofilm formation. (C) Colony 488 forming unit counts (cfu) retrieved from catheters infected with C. glabrata ATCC2001 489 490 (black columns) and with C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 (white columns) after adhesion and 1, 5 491 and 7 days of in vitro biofilm formation inside polyurethane devices. (C) A BLI signal intensity retrieved after adhesion (90 min) and later stages of biofilm formation. Statistical 492 493 analyses were performed using Two-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD test. Differences were considered significant at $p \le 0.05$ and error bars indicate SD of replicate 494 495 samples.

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Figure 4. BLI of fluconazole (FLC) and caspofungin (CAS) efficacy against in vivo *Candida glabrata* ATCC 2001 (WT) and *Candida glabrata luc*_{OPT} 7/2/4 biofilmassociated infections

500 (A) Representative images of a signal acquired from *Candida glabrata* ATCC 2001 (WT, 3 devices implanted on the left side of the back of mice) and C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 (3) 501 catheters inserted on the right side of the back of a host) biofilms. Biofilms were formed for 502 503 24 h and afterwards treatment with fluconazole (125 mg/kg of body weight/day, n=4) and 504 caspofungin (10 mg/kg of body weight/day, n=4) was initiated. Drugs were administered once daily for 7 days. Control-treated group of animals (n=4) was injected with sterile saline. 505 (B) Quantification of BLI signal intensity, which started to decrease 4 days after animal 506 507 treatment with caspofungin. Data show an average \pm SEM of a BLI signal acquired from catheters implanted in animals treated with fluconazole or caspofungin on different days. (C) 508 509 C. glabrata ATCC 2001 and (D) C. glabrata luc_{OPT} 7/2/4 colony forming unit (cfu) counts retrieved from individual catheters after biofilm formation. Each symbol represents the 510 Log10 colony forming units (cfu) \pm SEM of saline-treated (control) and treated fungal cells 511 512 retrieved from catheter pieces from individual mice. The bar represents the average Log10 $cfu \pm SEM$ of the number of fungal cells retrieved from a drug-free and from a treated group 513 514 of animals. Two-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD test was used to calculate statistical 515 significance, when $p \le 0.05$.











2.0

x 10⁷

*luc*_{OPT} 7/2/4

WT



Treatment

