1   Horizontal gene transfer in the human and skin commensal *Malassezia*: a bacterially-derived
2   flavohemoglobin is required for NO resistance and host interaction

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Abstract

The skin of humans and animals is colonized by commensal and pathogenic fungi and bacteria that share this ecological niche and have established microbial interactions. *Malassezia* are the most abundant fungal skin inhabitant of all warm-blooded animals, and have been implicated in skin diseases and systemic disorders, including Crohn's disease and pancreatic cancer. Flavohemoglobin is a key enzyme involved in microbial nitrosative stress resistance and nitric oxide degradation. Comparative genomics and phylogenetic analyses within the *Malassezia* genus revealed that extant flavohemoglobin-encoding genes are present as single copy in different species, but were acquired through independent horizontal gene transfer events from different donor bacteria that are part of the mammalian microbiome. Through targeted gene deletion and functional complementation in *M. sympodialis*, we demonstrated that both bacterially-derived flavohemoglobins are cytoplasmic proteins required for nitric oxide detoxification and nitrosative stress resistance under aerobic conditions. RNAseq analysis revealed that endogenous accumulation of nitric oxide resulted in upregulation of genes involved in stress responses, and downregulation of the MalaS7 allergen-encoding gene. Solution of the high-resolution X-ray crystal structure of *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin revealed features conserved with both bacterial and fungal flavohemoglobins. *In vivo* pathogenesis is independent of *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin. Lastly, we identified additional 30 genus- and species- specific horizontal gene transfer candidates that might have contributed to the evolution of this genus as the most common inhabitants of animal skin.

Introduction

The skin microbiome includes numerous microorganisms that establish a variety of direct and indirect interactions characterized by the exchange of genetic material that impact microbial biology contributing to their speciation and evolution. *Malassezia* is the most abundant fungal genus resident on the skin of all warm-blooded animals, representing more than 90% of the skin mycobiome[1]. This genus presently consists of 18 diverse species[2], each with an unusually compact genome[3]. Although commensals, *Malassezia* species are also associated with a number of clinical skin disorders, including pityriasis versicolor, dandruff, and atopic dermatitis (AD)[4]. A recently-developed epicutaneous murine model revealed that the host responses to *Malassezia* are dominated by pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-17 and related factors that prevent fungal overgrowth and exacerbate inflammation under atopy-like conditions[5]. Furthermore, *Malassezia* species have also been implicated recently as causal agents of Crohn's Disease/Inflammatory Bowel Disease in patients with *CARD9* mutations, and in accelerating the progression of Pancreatic Adenocarcinoma in murine models and in humans[6,7].

Nitric Oxide (NO) is a reactive compound of central importance in biological systems. While little is known about NO synthesis in fungi, in mammals NO is synthesized by NO synthases (NOS isoforms), and NO functions as a signaling molecule and biomolecule modifier affecting various cellular processes. Imbalance in cellular NO levels leads to altered redox homeostasis, resulting in the production of reactive nitrogen species (RNS) responsible for nitrosative stress[8,9]. Type I flavohemoglobin constitutes the main enzyme deployed by microbes to counteract NO toxicity by converting it to inert nitrate, a source of nitrogen, via the NO-dioxygenation reaction[8,9]. A type II flavohemoglobin has also been identified in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and other actinobacteria, but it lacks NO consuming activity and it utilizes D-lactate as an electron donor to mediate electron transfer[10,11]. Evolution of flavohemoglobins in microbes has been previously investigated[12-14], revealing a dynamic distribution across bacteria and eukaryotes characterized by frequent gene loss, gene duplication, and horizontal gene transfer (HGT) events. An interesting finding of these phylogenetic studies was the HGT-mediated acquisition of a bacterial flavohemoglobin encoding gene *YHB1* by *M. globosa* and *M. sympodialis*[12,13].

In this study we employed molecular, biochemical, and structural analyses to demonstrate that the HGT of the bacterial flavohemoglobin in *Malassezia* resulted in a gain of function

critical for resistance to nitrosative stress and detoxification of NO under aerobic conditions.

Moreover, analysis of the available *Malassezia* genomes revealed that extant flavohemoglobin-

encoding genes are present as a single copy in different species, and phylogeny inference suggest

that they originated from different donor bacteria through independent horizontal gene transfer

events. Through trans-species complementation we demonstrated that the second bacterially-

derived flavohemoglobin identified, Yhb101, restore resistance of the *yhb1Δ* mutant to

nitrosative stress-inducing agents and also is able to consume NO. RNAseq analysis revealed

that endogenous accumulation of nitric oxide results in upregulation of genes involved in stress

responses and transport, and downregulation of the allergen-encoding genes. The

characterization of the X-ray structure of the *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin revealed features

shared with bacterial and fungal flavohemoglobins. Moreover, the *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin

mutant displayed modest survival within host macrophages, but we did not find evidence that

suggested an involvement of flavohemoglobin on survival on the skin or in the GI tract. Lastly,

we identified 30 additional genus- and species-specific HGT events, with the donors being

predominantly Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria. Similar to *Malassezia*, these donor species are

some of the most common members of human and mammal microbiomes, suggesting that niche

overlap may have enhanced the opportunity for inter-kingdom HGT.

Results

Malassezia flavohemoglobin-encoding genes have been acquired from bacteria through independent HGT events. Flavohemoglobins are critical for nitric oxide (NO) detoxification and counteract nitrosative stress[9]. Previous studies reported that the flavohemoglobin-encoding gene *YHB1* was acquired by *M. globosa* and *M. sympodialis* through HGT from *Corynebacterium*, a bacterial genus within the Actinobacteria that includes species that are part of the human microbiome[12,13].

Because flavohemoglobins are widespread in both bacteria and eukaryotes, we examined whether the remaining 13 sequenced *Malassezia* species also contain a flavohemoglobin-encoding gene, and whether it had a fungal or bacterial origin. BLAST analyses with the *M. globosa* Yhb1 sequence as query identified a single copy of *YHB1* in all *Malassezia* species. Intriguingly, this comparative search revealed that the best hits in *M. yamatoensis* and *M. slooffiae* had lower *E*-values (5e-64 and 1e-59, respectively) compared to the remaining *Malassezia* species (*E*-values ranging from 0.0 to 7e-161), possibly suggesting different origins or modifications of these flavohemoglobin-encoding genes. To elucidate the evolutionary trajectory of flavohemoglobin within the whole *Malassezia* genus, a Maximum Likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using >2000 Yhb1 bacterial and fungal sequences retrieved from GenBank. This phylogenetic analysis revealed two clades of flavohemoglobin within *Malassezia* genus: clade 1 that includes 13 species and clusters together with *Brevibacterium* species belonging to Actinobacteria; and clade 2 that includes *M. yamatoensis* and *M. slooffiae* and clusters together with different Actinobacteria with the closest relative being *Kocuria kristinae* (Fig. 1 A-C). To evaluate the statistical phylogenetic support for the two *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin clades whose distribution was not monophyletic, we performed approximately unbiased (AU) comparative topology tests. The constrained ML phylogeny, in which all *Malassezia* flavohemoglobins were forced to be monophyletic was significantly rejected (AU test, *P* value = 0.001, Fig. 1D), thus not supporting the null hypothesis that all flavohemoglobin genes in *Malassezia* have a single origin.

To validate this further, a region of ~30 kb surrounding the flavohemoglobin encoding gene in all sequenced *Malassezia* species was subjected to synteny comparison (Fig. 1E-F). Overall this region was highly syntenic across species, with the exception of some lineage-

specific rearrangements located upstream of *YHB1* (Fig. 1F). Remarkably, while the same

regions were also highly conserved in *M. yamatoensis* and *M. slooffiae*, they both lacked the

flavohemoglobin-encoding gene, which is instead located in a different, non-syntenic, regions of

their genomes (Fig. 1F and Fig. S1). Therefore, both phylogenic and synteny comparisons

strongly support the hypothesis that *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin genes were acquired through

independent HGT events from different bacterial donor species. We named the flavohemoglobin

of clade 1 Yhb1 following the *S. cerevisiae* nomenclature[15], and that of *M. yamatoensis* and *M.*

slooffiae Yhb101 (clade 2). The two different flavohemoglobins protein sequences share 38%

identity (Fig. S2).

Because several studies suggest that genomic regions flanking horizontally-acquired

genes are enriched in DNA transposons and retrotransposons[16,17], a 5 kb region surrounding the

flavohemoglobin-encoding genes was analyzed in two *Malassezia* species representative of clade

1 (*M. sympodialis*) and clade 2 (*M. slooffiae*). Dot plot comparisons revealed overall high co-

linearity with the common flanking genes encoding a hypothetical protein and Nsr1 (Fig. S3A).

Interestingly, a highly repetitive sequence that shares similarity with the long terminal repeat

(LTR) Gypsy was identified in the *NSR1* gene flanking *YHB1* (Fig. S3A-B), and we speculate

that this LTR-like region might have facilitated the non-homologous end joining (NHEJ)

integration of the bacterial *YHB1* gene into the *Malassezia* common ancestor.

The flavohemoglobin-encoding gene *YHB101* in *M. yamatoensis* and *M. slooffiae* seems

to have been acquired from the same bacterial donor lineage (Fig. 1A-C), although its genomic

location is not syntenic in these two species (Fig. 1E-F). In particular, *M. slooffiae YHB101* is

located in a region that is otherwise highly conserved across *Malassezia* (Fig. S1A-B), and is

devoid of transposable elements or repetitive regions that could facilitate NHEJ of *YHB101* (Fig.

S1B). In contrast, *M. yamatoensis YHB101* located at the end of a chromosome and its adjacent

genes are not syntenic in other *Malassezia* species, with the exception of a more distant group of

five genes (from *JLP1* to *MSS1*) (Fig. S1C). In other *Malassezia* species (eg *M. japonica, M.*

slooffiae, M. sympodialis) these five genes are subtelomeric, suggesting that chromosomal

rearrangement might have contributed to generate the unique rearrangement of genes

surrounding *M. yamatoensis YHB101* (Fig. 1E; Fig. S1C).

Based on the analyses performed and on the availability of *Malassezia* genomes, we

propose the following evolutionary model of flavohemoglobin-mediated HGT in *Malassezia*: 1)

a *Malassezia* common ancestor acquired the *YHB1* gene via HGT from a *Brevibacterium*-related

donor; 2) *M. yamatoensis* and *M. slooffiae* subsequently acquired the *YHB101* gene from a

different bacterial donor lineage (*Kocuria*) via HGT, concomitant with the loss of the *YHB1*

gene; 3) chromosomal rearrangements relocated *YHB101* in *M. yamatoensis* to a subtelomeric

location.

Bacterially-derived flavohemoglobin-encoding genes are required for nitrosative stress

resistance and NO detoxification in *Malassezia*. Flavohemoglobins are critical for nitric oxide

(NO) detoxification and counteract nitrosative stress[9]. To assess whether this HGT event in

Malassezia resulted in a gain of function, we deleted the *YHB1* ORF (MSYG_3741) of *M.*

sympodialis ATCC42132 through targeted mutagenesis using our recently developed

transformation protocol based on transconjugation mediated by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*[18,19]

(Fig. S4A). *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* targeted deletion mutants were identified by PCR using

primers designed outside the region involved in homologous recombination and with *NAT*

specific primers (Fig. S4A).

The *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant exhibits hypersensitivity to the NO-donors

DetaNONOate and sodium nitrite (NaNO$_2$) but not to hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) (Fig. 2A). The

two identified *Malassezia* flavohemoglobins Yhb1 and Yhb101 were used to generate GFP

fusion proteins whose expression was driven by the respective endogenous promoter and

terminator to complement the *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant phenotype and to assess protein

localization (Fig. S4B). Reintroduction of either flavohemoglobin in the *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ*

mutant restored resistance to nitrosative stress at the WT level (Fig. 2A). In agreement, fusion

protein expression in complemented strains was confirmed both by qPCR (Fig. S4C-D) and

fluorescence microcopy imaging of GFP expression, which revealed that *Malassezia*

flavohemoglobins are cytoplasmic (Fig. 2B). A GFP-Yhb1 fusion protein cloned under the

control of the histone *H3* promoter and terminator (Fig. S4B) was less effective in

complementing the *yhb1Δ* mutant phenotype (data not shown).

Next we tested whether the yeast flavohemoglobin was able to actively detoxify NO,

which could potentially account for its involvement in nitrosative stress resistance. To this aim,

we adapted a biochemical assay used for evaluating NO consumption in red blood cells and

plasma[20] to the commensal yeast *Malassezia* (File S2). As shown in Figure 2C, while the *M.*

sympodialis WT strain exhibited robust and dose-dependent NO degradation, the *yhb1Δ* mutant

showed no NO consumption. Complemented strains were able to actively consume NO, although

M. sympodialis yhb1Δ + YHB101-GFP displayed a lower NO consumption, corroborating the

results of the phenotypic assay, GFP expression, and FACS analysis (Fig. 2A-C). These

differences might be due to less efficient cross-species complementation of the *M. yamatoensis*

Yhb101-GFP fusion protein in the *yhb1Δ* mutant of *M. sympodialis*, which was a strategy chosen

because of the lack of protocols for gene deletion in *M. slooffiae* and *M. yamatoensis*. Taken

together these genetic and biochemical analyses show that the bacterially-derived

flavohemoglobin protect *Malassezia* from nitrosative stress by decreasing toxic levels of NO.

To assess intracellular production of NO by *M. sympodialis*, cells were stained with the

NO-specific dye 4-Amino-5-methylamino- 2□,7□-diaminofluorescein diacetate (DAF-FM DA),

which passively diffuses across membranes and emits increased fluorescence after reacting with

NO. Fluorescent microscopy revealed intracellular accumulation of NO in both the WT and

yhb1Δ mutant of *M. sympodialis* (Fig. 2D). NO-staining was quantified by FACS analysis,

revealing significantly higher NO accumulation in the flavohemoglobin mutant *yhb1Δ* compared

to the *M. sympodialis* WT (Fig. 2E-F). Because DAF-FM DA and GFP have similar

excitation/emission spectra, complemented strains could not be tested for NO accumulation via

flow cytometry, and therefore an independent *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant was tested and

yielded similar results. These results indicate that the lack of a functional flavohemoglobin leads

to intracellular accumulation of NO.

Finally, a broader analysis was performed to assess other functions of the *Malassezia*

flavohemoglobins in response to a variety of environmental stresses and clinical antifungals, but

in all cases the *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant phenotype was not significantly different from the

WT (Fig. S5). Several studies also report the protective role of both bacterial and fungal

flavohemoglobins against NO under anaerobic conditions[9,15,21]. However, we could not confirm

this function for the *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin in our anaerobic experiment (Fig. S6).

A recent inactivation of *YHB1* in *M. nana* results in compromised NO enzymatic consume.

Analysis of Yhb1 protein prediction across species revealed that *M. nana YHB1* underwent

pseudogenization following a G-to-T transversion in the glycine codon GGA, generating a

premature TGA stop codon at the 29th amino acid (Fig. S7A). Literature search revealed that the

sequenced strain of *M. nana* CBS9557 was isolated in Japan from a cat with otitis externa[22],
while the other four known *M. nana* strains were collected in Brazil: *M. nana* CBS9558 and
CBS9559 from cows with otitis externa, and CBS9560 and CBS9561 from healthy cows[22].

The *M. nana* strains CBS9557, CBS9559, and CBS9560 were used to investigate whether
the pseudogenization event occurred in a *M. nana* ancestor, and whether it impacts nitrosative
stress resistance and NO consumption. Because no genomes are available for the *M. nana* strains
CBS9559 and CBS9560, their *YHB1* gene was amplified by PCR and Sanger sequenced using
primers designed on the *YHB1* of *M. nana* CBS9557. *YHB1* sequence comparison confirmed a
premature stop codon present in only CBS9557, with both Brazilian *M. nana* isolates having a
full-coding *YHB1* gene (Fig. S7A). Phenotypic analysis revealed no significant difference in
resistance to nitrosative stress by the three *M. nana* strains, with only a modestly increased
sensitivity displayed by CBS9557 exposed to sodium nitrite (Fig. S7B). Strikingly, *M. nana*
CBS9557 displayed undetectable NO consumption activity as obtained for the *M. sympodialis*
yhb1Δ mutant, while *M. nana* CBS9559 and CBS9560 showed normal NO consumption (Fig.
S7C). These data suggest that the non-functional of flavohemoglobin in *M. nana* CBS9557
impaired the ability to consume NO, but this does not impact the resistance to nitrosative stress,
which might be compensated by other stress responsive pathways.

Intriguingly, another pseudogenization event of a bacterial gene encoding an aliphatic
amidase was also identified in *M. nana* CBS9557. These nonsense mutations were identified
only in the *M. nana* CBS9557 isolated in Japan, suggesting that the different origin of the *M.
nana* strains might contribute to this intraspecies diversity. This hypothesis is further supported
by different phenotypic traits displayed by the *M. nana* isolates (Fig. S8). Exposure to several
stress conditions revealed different responses to the most common antifungal drugs by *M. nana*
strains, with strain CBS9557 displaying increased sensitivity to amphotericin B and resistance to
fluconazole, and the geographically-related strains CBS9559 and CBS9560 displaying an
opposite phenotype (Fig. S8).

NO accumulation in *M. sympodialis* leads to downregulation of predicted pathogenicity
factors.   Because the *M. sympodialis* flavohemoglobin mutant *yhb1Δ* accumulates higher
amounts of NO than the WT (Fig. 2 D-E), we compared their transcriptomic profile to elucidate
any potential signaling role of endogenous NO. RNAseq analysis revealed 36 differentially

expressed genes for FDR<0.05, of which 14 were upregulated and 22 were downregulated; using

an additional threshold of $\log_2$FC +/- 0.5 we found 3 upregulated and 9 downregulated genes

(Fig. 3A; Tables S1-S2). The only upregulated gene with $\log_2$FC > 1 encodes an uncharacterized

protein (MSYG_1280), while two others with $\log_2$FC < 1 encode Nop56 (or Sik1), a nucleolar

protein involved in pre-rRNA processing, and an uncharacterized protein (MSYG_0148)

predicted to be involved in magnesium transport. Other known upregulated genes with $\log_2$FC <

0.05 are involved in response to stresses and transport (Table S1). The majority of

downregulated DEGs include those encoding hypothetical proteins (6 out of 9), the regulator of

phospholipase D Sfr1, two MalaS7 allergens, and an uncharacterized allergen. It is worth noting

that a large number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) are predicted to encode unknown

proteins, suggesting novel and unknown signaling pathways regulated by endogenous NO in

Malassezia (Table S1-S2).

Next, to elucidate the global transcriptomic response of *M. sympodialis* exposed to

nitrosative stress, RNAseq analysis for *M. sympodialis* WT cells treated with the NO-generating

agent sodium nitrite was performed. Compared to the untreated control, 112 genes were

upregulated and 50 were downregulated (FDR<0.05; $\log_2$FC +/- 0.5) (Fig. 3B). The most

represented classes of upregulated genes include those involved in stress resistance, cellular

detoxification and transport, and metabolism. The most expressed genes included *HEM1*

involved in the heme biosynthetic process, *DAL2, DAL4* and *DCG1* involved in nitrogen

metabolism, *RAD57* involved in DNA repair, the general amino acid permease *GAP1*, an

uncharacterized lipase, and an uncharacterized oxidoreductase. The flavohemoglobin-encoding

gene *YHB1* was significantly upregulated for false discovery rate (FDR) <0.05, but it had low

expression level ($\log_2$FC = 0.33). Lower expression of *YHB1* was also observed in *S. cerevisiae*

cells exposed to nitrosative stress[23], although its role in NO consumption has been well

characterized[15]. Four transcription factors were upregulated (*HSF1, UPC2, BAS1* and *HMS1*),

and the heat shock transcription factor Hsf1 might be the key candidate that activates nitrosative

stress responsive genes (Table S3), given its known role in response to stresses in other

fungi[24,25].

The most represented GO category of downregulated genes encodes integral components

of membrane, which includes transporters and putative *Malassezia* allergens; other

downregulated genes are involved in calcium metabolism, protein folding, and proteolysis. Two

transcription factors were downregulated, and they include the pH responsive Rim101, and an
uncharacterized bZIP transcription factor (Fig. 3C, Table S4).

Comparison of the two different RNAseq dataset revealed two common upregulated
genes, encoding the glycerol dehydrogenase Gcy1 and the catalase Cta1, and 10 downregulated
genes that include 4 *Malassezia* allergens, a putative secreted lipase, and 5 hypothetical proteins
(Fig. 3D). While it is not surprising to find upregulation of a detoxifying enzyme such as
catalase, it is intriguing to find downregulation of genes encoding predicted pathogenicity
factors.

***Malassezia* flavohemoglobin has characteristic features of both bacterial and fungal**
flavohemoglobins. We hypothesized that if a protein is acquired by HGT its structure will likely
remain fairly similar to that of the donor organism in order to retain its original function.
Attempts to resolve the crystal structures of both *Malassezia* flavohemoglobins were carried out,
but only the *M. yamatoensis* flavohemoglobin Yhb101 formed crystals to be analyzed. The
structure was determined *de novo* by SAD phasing off the heme-iron bound to the globin domain
of the protein (Table S5). The flavohemoglobin structure is highly conserved with previously
characterized structures of this enzyme family and consists of an N-terminal globin domain
coordinating an iron-bound (Fe^{2+}) heme and a C-terminal reductase domain with both FAD- and
NAD-binding sub-domains, of which only FAD is bound (Fig. 4A). An overlay of a
flavohemoglobin structure from *E. coli* and *S. cerevisiae* on the *M. yamatoensis* crystal structure
highlights conserved binding sites between the proteins (Fig. 4B). Alignment of the globin
domains between literature and experimental structures resulted in an RMSD value of 1.532Å for
E. coli and 1.434Å for *S. cerevisiae*, mostly resulting from slight shifts in the D-loop and E-helix
between the structures compared. Common among all of the structures analyzed is the histidine
residue coordinating with the heme iron from the proximal side. This member of the catalytic
triad is supported by tyrosine (Tyr98) and glutamate (Glu140) residues conserved in sequence
and structure between bacterial, and fungal/yeast flavohemoglobins[26,27]. In *M. yamatoensis*, as
also observed in *E. coli*, the heme iron is ligated by 5 atoms: 4 from the heme and His88 from the
F-helix. Substrates commonly bind on the distal side of the heme and lead to a conformational
change in the planarity of the heme molecule. The E-Helix on the distal side of the heme
molecule contributes Leu58, a conserved residue which approaches the heme-bound iron from
3.7Å away. At this position, the 6th coordination site for the iron is occluded, again similar to the

E. coli crystal structure, but unlike the yeast structure where a three-atom small molecule co-
crystallized. In addition, Tyr29 and Gln53, shown to be important in coordination of ligands and
the heme, respectively, are conserved in sequence and structure.

In *M. yamatoensis* Yhb101, the D-loop acts as a bridge between the C- and E-helices and
the interface between the bound FAD and heme. Comparison of the D-loops from these
structures shows the *M. yamatoensis* D-loop adopts a nearly identical helical structure as that of
S. cerevisiae, in contrast to the *E. coli* D-loop, which is more extended. The *M. yamatoensis* E-
helix also adopts a ~30° bend immediately following Leu58, which may straighten out once a
substrate is bound. This structural adjustment likely communicates substrate binding near the
heme to the reductase domain through movements in the D-loop as the heme B pyrrole
proprionate forms a hydrogen bond with the main-chain NH of Ser45, the first residue in the D-
loop (Figure S9). The neighboring propionate group forms two hydrogen bonds, directly with the
side-chain of Arg83 (F-Helix) and indirectly through water with the primary amine of Lys87. A
water network can also be traced to the main-chain carbonyl of Phe381, which is positioned
above the FAD isoalloxazine ring, protecting it from NAD binding, a conserved feature across
all flavohemoglobin structures in the closed state. The FAD sits within the conserved linker
region of the protein and binds to both the globin-binding moiety and the flavin-binding moiety.
The FAD for *M. yamatoensis* shows a rotation about the second phosphate in comparison to *E.*
coli and *S. cerevisiae*, which results in displacement of the adenine ring but only a slight shift of
the flavin group. Lastly, the C-terminus of *M. yamatoensis* demonstrates a conformational
change when compared to the other organisms. Previous flavohemoglobin structures have shown
an α-helix through the C-terminus; however, these residues appear to lack this organized
structure.

The *Malassezia* flavohemoglobins were aligned with those of the closer HGT donor
bacteria *B. ravenspurgense*, *K. kristinae, R. nasimurium,* and with the model yeast *S. cerevisiae*
(File S3). Most of the known functional regions were conserved in both the *Malassezia* Yhb1
and Yhb101, with the notable differences being the lack of conserved tyrosine (Y126) residues in
the hydrogen bond in *M. vespertilionis, M. japonica, M. obtusa* and *M. globosa*. Other variations
were also found in the cofactor binding sites of the reductase domain, in particular, 1) the
isoalloxazine FAD binding site was different between the two *Malassezia* flavohemoglobin, with
RQYS being the Yhb1 motif, in common also with other bacterial flavohemoglobins (*E. coli* and

Salmonella)[9], and RQFT being that of the Yhb101, which is also shared with the putative donor

bacteria (*K. kristinae*); and 2) the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH) motif being

GIGXT for Yhb1, and GIGVT for Yhb101 (File S3).

***Malassezia* flavohemoglobins are not required for survival on the host.** Previous studies in

human fungal pathogens indicate that flavohemoglobins are required for pathogenesis[28,29]. In our

experiments we found that *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1Δ* mutant, and *yhb1Δ + YHB1* and *yhb1Δ +*

YHB101 complemented strains have similar levels of survival within activated macrophages

(Fig. 5A-B). This result is in contrast with previous findings in *C. neoformans*[28], but it

corroborates results obtained in *A. fumigatus*[30]. Further, the recently developed murine model for

Malassezia skin infection[5] was utilized to test pathogenicity of the flavohemoglobin strains and

the induction of host response. Corroborating ex vivo data, we found no differences both in

terms of host tissue colonization and host inflammatory response for the *yhb1Δ* mutant compared

to the complemented strains (Fig. 5C-E, Fig. S8). In agreement, there were no differences

between WT and *Nos2-/-* mice when challenged with *M. sympodialis* WT (Fig. 5F-H, Fig. S10).

These results suggest that flavohemoglobin is not required for pathogenesis of *Malassezia* in an

experimental skin model.

Lastly, several attempts were also carried out to test survival of *M. sympodialis* WT and

flavohemoglobin strains within the GI tract of WT and *Nos2-/-* mice. Because of the high amount

of NO produced in the GI tract of mice during inflammation[31], and the recently-reported

involvement of *Malassezia restricta* in Crohn disease[6], we hypothesized that the

flavohemoglobin would be required for *M. sympodialis* survival in GI tract during inflammation.

We followed the protocol developed for GI tract colonization by *M. restricta*[6], but unfortunately

we could never recover any *M. sympodialis* colony. For this reason, whether *Malassezia*

flavohemoglobin is required for survival within the GI tract could not be determined.

Analysis of *Malassezia* genomes revealed extensive HGT events from bacteria. Given the

gain of function due to acquisition of the bacterially-derived flavohemoglobins by *Malassezia*

species, we sought to identify additional HGT candidate genes in the *Malassezia* genus. In a

previous study, 8 HGT events were identified in *M. sympodialis*, and then their presence was

assessed in other species within the genus[3]. In the present study we applied a previously

described analytical pipeline[32] based on three HGT metrics - the HGT index[33], the Alien Index

(AI)[34] and the Consensus Hit Support (CHS)[35] - to identify novel genus and species-specific

HGT events. Our goal was not to explicitly establish the evolutionary history of individual genes,

but rather to estimate bacteria-derived HGT candidates for the complete set of *Malassezia*

genomes. Besides recovering the *YHB1* and *YHB101* genes as an HGT candidate, this analysis

identified in addition a total of 30 HGT candidate genes (Fig. 6 and Table S6), seven of which in

common with the previous study. HGT candidates found in the majority of the *Malassezia*

species include genes involved in broad oxidative stress resistance, such as catalase and

oxidoreductases, found in some cases in multiple copies. Other examples include a

deoxyribodipyrimidine photo-lyase predicted to be involved in repair of UV radiation-induced

DNA damage, and a class I SAM-dependent methyltransferase potentially modifying a variety of

biomolecules, including DNA, proteins and small☐molecule secondary metabolites. Another

interesting HGT candidate is the gene encoding a septicolysin-like protein, which is known as a

pore-forming bacterial toxin that might play a role as virulence factor[36,37]. This gene is absent in

all *Malassezia* species phylogenetically related to *M. sympodialis*, and is present as five copies in

M. globosa. Furthermore, a large number of HGT events unique to *Malassezia* species of clade A

were found, and the acquired genes encode a variety of proteins with different functions, such as

hydrolysis, protein transport and folding, detoxification of xenobiotics, and resistance to stresses.

Finally, 12 of the HGT candidates identified were unique to certain *Malassezia* species. An

intriguing case is *M. japonica* for which we found four unique HGT candidates, one of them

found in 3 copies. These genes encode orthologs of the fungal Gre2 protein, which is known to

be involved in responses to a variety of environmental stresses[38,39].

Discussion

In the present study we report the functional characterization of two *Malassezia*

flavohemoglobin encoding genes that were independently acquired through HGT from

different Actinobacteria donors. Our experimental analyses demonstrate that both bacterially-

derived flavohemoglobins are involved in nitrosative stress resistance and NO degradation,

consistent with its known functions in bacteria and fungi[9].

Although the mechanisms of HGT in fungi are not fully understood, several possible

mechanisms have been reported [16,40]. One such mechanism is gene acquisition through

conjugation, which requires contact between bacterial donor and fungal recipient[40]. For the
HGT events that mediated flavohemoglobin acquisition by *Malassezia*, the closest
phylogenetic donors are Actinobacteria that are part of the mammalian microbiome and hence
share the same ecological niche with *Malassezia*. A dilemma that is common to all HGT
events is that if a gene is required for survival in a certain condition, its transfer in that
condition is in theory unfeasible[41]. Because NO is synthesized by the mammals, including by
the skin[42], we speculated that NO presence enhanced the HGT transfer of bacterial
flavohemoglobin(s) to a fungal *Malassezia* ancestor that acquired the ability to actively
consume NO.

Noteworthy, a large number of eukaryotic organisms including fungi lack a
flavohemoglobin-encoding gene, suggesting the existence of alternative pathways for
nitrosative stress resistance and NO utilization. For example, in *Histoplasma capsulatum*, the
etiologic agent of histoplasmosis, Yhb1 is replaced by a P450-type NO reductase[43], whereas in
other cases, such as for the basidiomycetous fungi *Moniliellia, Ustilago,* and *Puccinia*, NO
metabolism in the absence of flavohemoglobin has yet to be elucidated. The evolution and
diversification of flavohemoglobin-encoding genes has been complex and has been
characterized by several prokaryote-prokaryote and prokaryote-eukaryote HGT events[13],
hence suggesting its significant contribution for habitat colonization by a species but likely a
dispensable role in evolutionary divergence.

Is the bacterial flavohemoglobin required for *Malassezia* interaction with the host?
While a number of studies in bacteria and fungi reported a role for flavohemoglobin in
microbial pathogenesis[9], we surprisingly found that *Malassezia* flavohemoglobins are
dispensable for survival within macrophages and for skin infection in our experimental
conditions. Conversely, we propose that *Malassezia* flavohemoglobins are important for the
commensal lifestyle of *Malassezia* through regulation of NO homeostasis, a hypothesis
corroborated by downregulation of putative virulence factors (ie allergens and lipases) in our
transcriptomic analyses.

Analysis of *Malassezia* genomes revealed a large number of HGT events, suggesting
their substantial contribution in *Malassezia* evolution, speciation, and niche adaptation. Donor
bacteria include those that are part of the microbiota of animals, but also others that are known to
inhabit a variety of terrestrial and marine habitats, raising questions about a possible wider

environmental distribution of a *Malassezia* ancestor. This could be correlated with the presence

of *Malassezia* DNA in a number of unexpected areas, such as in association with corals and sea

sponges in the ocean[44]. Moreover, most of the HGT candidate genes identified in *Malassezia*

operate as a self-contained metabolic units, which has been proposed to facilitate HGT[13].

Intriguingly, the high number of HGT events suggests also a predisposition of *Malassezia* to

bacterial conjugation, in line with our previous findings that *A. tumefaciens*-mediated

transformation is the only effective technique for molecular manipulation of *Malassezia*[18].

There are a number of identified HGT that are predicted to be important for *Malassezia*

pathophysiology and that can be characterized using the methodologies reported in the present

study.

Materials and Methods

Strains used in the present study. The *M. sympodialis* strains ATCC42132 was utilized as a model species for genetic manipulations. In addition, *M. slooffiae* CBS7856, *M. yamatoensis* CBS9725, and *M. nana* strains CBS9557, CBS9559, and CBS9560 were employed for NO consumption assays. These strains were grown on modified Dixon's media (mDixon), which is the medium routinely used for culturing *Malassezia* species[3].

Identification of *YHB1* genes in *Malassezia* genomes and synteny analyses. Protein-coding sequences were obtained using the *ab initio* gene predictor AUGUSTUS v3.2.2[45] for each *Malassezia* species that lacked a genome annotation (as of September 2017). To search for *YHB1* homologs, local BLAST databases were set up for both the genome assemblies and the translated coding sequences, and the *M. globosa* Yhb1 protein sequence (GenBank XP_001730006.1) was queried against each database using BLASTP or TBLASTN. Top BLAST-identified protein sequences were retrieved, and the presence of the typical FHbs domains, consisting of an N-terminal globin domain fused with a C-terminal FAD- and NAD-binding oxidoreductase modules, were inspected using InterProScan 5[46]. For the analysis of relative gene-order conservation (synteny) between *Malassezia* species, a region of ~ 32 kb surrounding the *YHB1* gene (~7-8 genes on each side) was carefully examined and compared using top scoring BLASTP against the reference genome annotations of *M. sympodialis*, *M. globosa* and *M. pachydermatis*.

Yhb1 phylogeny and topology tests. The *Malassezia globosa* Yhb1 protein was queried against the Genbank non-redundant (nr) protein database (last accessed in August 2017) with BLASTP

and an e-value inclusion threshold of 1e-10. Protein sequences corresponding to the top 5000 hits

were extracted and utilized for downstream analyses. In addition, all putative *Malassezia* Yhb1

proteins identified from the genome data, as well as the functionally characterized Yhb1 gene of

S. cerevisiae, were included in the dataset. Highly similar sequences were collapsed with CD-

HIT v4.7[47] using a sequence identity threshold of 0.95 (-c 0.95) and word length of 5 (-n 5) to

remove redundancy and correcting the bias within the dataset. Sequences were aligned with

MAFFT v7.310 using the FFT-NS-i strategy[48] and poorly aligned regions were trimmed with

TrimAl v1.4. (-gappyout)[49]. The Yhb1 phylogenetic tree was constructed using IQ-TREE

v1.5.5[50] and the LG+F+I+G4 amino acid model of substitution as determined by ModelFinder[51].

Because the dataset consisted of a large number of relatively short sequences, we reduced the

perturbation strength (-pers 0.2) and increased the number of stop iterations (-nstop 500) during

tree search. Branch support was accessed with the ultrafast bootstrap approximation (UFboot)[52]

and the SH-like approximate likelihood ratio (SH-aLRT) test[53] both with 10,000 replicates (-bb

10000 –alrt 10000). Tests of monophyly were performed in CONSEL version 1.2[54] using the

approximately unbiased (AU) test[55] to determine whether the maximum likelihood (ML)

estimates of the best tree given a constrained topology differed significantly from the

unconstrained best ML tree. To produce a constrained topology, *Malassezia* sequences were

forced to be monophyletic, and all other branches were resolved to obtain the maximum -log

likelihood using RAxML v8.2.11, with five alternative runs on distinct starting trees (-# 5) and

the same amino acid model of substitution. Site-wise log-likelihood values were estimated for

both trees (option: -f g in RAxML) and the resulting output was analyzed in CONSEL.

Species phylogeny. To reconstruct the phylogenetic relationship among the 14 *Malassezia*

species selected, top pair-wise BLAST results of whole proteomes were clustered by a

combination of the bidirectional best-hit (BDBH), COGtriangles (v2.1), and OrthoMCL (v1.4)

algorithms implemented in the GET_HOMOLOGUES software package[56], to construct

homologous gene families. The proteome of *M. sympodialis* ATCC42132 served as reference

and clusters containing inparalogs (i.e. recent paralogs defined as sequences with best hits in its

own genome) were excluded. A consensus set of 246 protein sequences was computed out of the

intersection of the orthologous gene families obtained by the three clustering algorithms using

the perl script *compare_clusters.pl* included in the package. These single copy orthologous gene

families were individually aligned with MAFFT v7.310 using the L-INS-i strategy and trimmed
with TrimAl (-gappyout). The resulting alignments were concatenated with the python script
ElConcatenero[57] to obtain a final supermatrix consisting of a total of 134,437 amino acid sites
(47,942 parsimony-informative). The phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE v1.5.5
and the LG+F+R5 amino acid model of substitution and branch support values were obtained
from 10,000 replicates of both UFBoot and SH-aLRT.

Horizontal gene transfer analyses. To assess the extent of horizontal transfer into *Malassezia*
genomes, we applied a previously described pipeline [32] to the set of 15 available *Malassezia*
proteomes (Figure 6, Table S6), adjusting the parameters accordingly. In brief, protein sequences
were first aligned to the UniRef100 database (last accessed September 2017) using Diamond
'blastp' [58] with the following parameters: '--sensitive --index-chunks 1 --max-target-seqs 500 --
evalue 1e-5'. Three metrics were defined for each protein sequence used as query: (a) the HGT
Index [33], (b) the Alien Index (AI) [34], and (c) the Consensus Hit Support (CHS)[35]. Hits in
Malasseziales were omitted (NCBI taxid 162474), and we specified 'Fungi' as the ingroup
lineage (NCBI taxid 4751) and 'non-Fungi' as outgroup. Proteins receiving an HGT index $\geq$ 30,
AI index > 45, CHS $\geq$ 90, and that have Bacteria as the donor lineage, were considered well
supported HGT candidates and analyzed further (Figure 6 and Table S6). When a given HGT
candidate was detected in more than one, but not all the species, TBLASTN searches were used
to distinguish between *bona fide* gene losses or genome mis-annotation.

Molecular manipulation of *M. sympodialis*. The *M. sympodialis* flavohemoglobin-encoding
gene *YHB1* was identified in the genome assembly though BLASTp analysis with the
Saccharomyces cerevisiae Yhb1 protein sequence. The plasmid for targeted mutagenesis of *M.*
sympodialis YHB1 was generated by cloning regions of 1.5 kb flanking the *YHB1* gene fused
with the *NAT* marker within the T-DNA of the binary plasmid pGI3 as previously reported[18,59].
For *yhb1Δ* functional complementation, three different GFP-fusion plasmids were generated.
The promoter (~500 bp upstream) and terminator (~200 bp downstream) of the *M. sympodialis*
histone H3 gene were identified in the genome assembly though BLASTp analysis with the *S.*
cerevisiae H3 as query, and amplified by PCR. The *GFP* was amplified from plasmid pSL04[60],
and the *NEO* marker from plasmid pAIM5[18]. The *M. sympodialis YHB1* ORF, the endogenous

M. sympodialis YHB1 gene including its native promoter and terminator, or the endogenous *M.*
yamatoensis YHB101 gene including its native promoter, were amplified by PCR using chimeric
primers that generated recombination sites that allowed T-DNAs assembly in the following
order: plasmid pGI27 was p*H3, GFP, YHB1*, t*H3, NEO*; plasmid pGI35 was p*YHB1, YHB1,*
GFP, t*YHB1, NEO*, and it is referred as *YHB1-GFP*; plasmid pGI31 was p*YHB101, YHB101,*
GFP, t*H3, NEO*, and it is referred as *YHB101-GFP*. For functional complementation, PCRs were
performed using HF Fusion Taq according to manufacturer's instructions. Plasmids were
recombined through *in vivo* recombination in *S. cerevisiae* [18]. Correct plasmids were identified
by PCR and introduced into the *A. tumefaciens* EHA105 strain by electroporation, and the
transformants selected on LB + 50 µg/ml kanamycin.

M. sympodialis was transformed through *Agrobacterium-tumefaciens* mediated
transformation following our previously published method[19]. Transformants were selected on
mDixon supplemented with nourseothricin (100 µg/ml) or neomycin G418 (100 µg/ml), and
cefotaxime (350 µg/ml) to inhibit *Agrobacterium* growth. Transformants were purified to single
colonies, and subjected to phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) DNA extraction[61]. The
correct replacement of the *YHB1* target locus, as well as integration of the reconstitute versions
of the *YHB1* and *YHB101* genes, were assessed by PCR. Primer sequences are listed in Table S2.

For RT-qPCR, RNA extraction was performed with the standard TRIzol method, and
treated with TURBO DNAse enzyme (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The quality of the RNA was
assessed using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer, and 3 µg were converted into cDNA via the
Affinity Script QPCR cDNA synthesis kit (Agilent Technologies) according to manufacturer's
instructions. A cDNA synthesized without the RT/RNAse block enzyme mixture was used for
each sample 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. Gene expression levels were
normalized with the endogenous reference gene *TUB2* and determined using the comparative
ΔΔCt method. For qualitative expression analysis, RT-qPCRs were run on agarose gel (1%),
stained with ethidium bromide, and photographed under UV light.

NO quantification and GFP expression analysis. Intracellular levels of NO was measured by

flow cytometry adapted from previous method[62]. In brief, *M. sympodialis* WT and *yhb1Δ* mutant

were grown ON in mDixon media, washed once with PBS, and then incubated in PBS with

agitation overnight. For each sample, $\sim 2 \times 10^8$ cells/mL were equally divided, and were stained

with DAF-FM DA at a final concentration of 10 µM, and the other half not stained and used as

background control. Cells were washed once with PBS and analyzed using a BD FACSCantoTM

II.

To measure intracellular GFP intensity by flow cytometry, *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ*

mutants, and complemented strains *yhb1Δ + YHB1-GFP* and *yhb1Δ + YHB101-GFP* were grown

in mDixon media ON, washed in PBS, and $\sim 1 \times 10^8$ cells/mL used for flow cytometry analysis

on the Becton-Dickinson FACScan at Duke Cancer Institute Flow Cytometry Shared Resource.

The results were analyzed using FlowJo. *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutants, and complemented

strains *yhb1Δ + YHB1-GFP* and *yhb1Δ + YHB101-GFP* prepared in the same way were also

used for GFP microscopy analysis carried out at the Duke Light Microscopy Core Facility using

a Zeiss 710 inverted confocal microscope.

NO consumption assay. The NO consumption assay was performed as previously reported [63,64].

A custom☐made glass reaction cell was filled with PBS (4 mL, pH 7.4, 37°C) and connected

with a flow meter and a TEA NO analyzer. Under near-vacuum conditions, NO generation was

achieved by injecting Deta NONOate (dissolved in 0.01☐N NaOH at concentration of 30 mM)

into the reaction cell. Under a helium flow, NO was passed through an inline condenser

(removing water vapor) to a NO chemiluminescence analyzer (TEA 810, Ellutia) to generate an

electrochemical NO baseline signal (expressed as☐mV) (File S3).

We established the optimum amount of Deta NONOate as 30 µL of Deta NONOate (225

µM), leading to an increase of ~60 mV in the baseline. *Malassezia* yeasts were grown ON in

mDixon, washed twice with PBS pH = 7.4, and adjusted in PBS to $OD_{600}=1$. Because *Malassezia*

yeasts form clumps in liquid culture, cell counts using a hemocytometer was inaccurate and the

number of viable cells in cultures was instead determined by plating an aliquot (100 µL) of the

cellular suspensions on mDixon agar and counting colonies. The density of the *Malassezia*

cultures was $\sim 2.3 \times 10^8$ CFU/mL, with the exception of *M. nana* cultures that were 1.5×10^8

CFU/mL. For NO consumption assays the injection of a volume of PBS pH = 7.4 alone greater

than 50 µL interfered with the NO signal baseline, and therefore amounts ranging from 10 µL

(2.3 x 10^6 cells injected) to 50 µL (1.15 x 10^7 cells injected) of *Malassezia* cellular suspensions

were utilized. For *M. nana* injections of 15 µL (2.25 x 10^6 cells injected), 30 µL (4.50 x 10^6 cells

injected) and 45 µL (6.75 x 10^6 cells injected) were performed. For technical reasons (i.e.

presence of clumps, non-resuspended cells, and cultures too dense for the syringe needle) we

found that the indicated range of cell counts were optimal to obtain results that were clean and

reproducible.

Our standardized NO consumption assay was performed as follows: once a steady

baseline was obtained (approximately 1 min), 30 µL of Deta NONOate was injected, and after a

stable NO signal was achieved different volumes of *Malassezia* cellular suspensions were

injected into the buffer solution (PBS + Deta NONOate), resulting in a decrease in NO signal

that indicates NO consumption. Following the injection of each *Malassezia* species, the reaction

chamber was flushed, and refilled with PBS and Deta NONOate. A maximum of 5 injections

was performed using the same buffer solution, after which it became cloudy, generating an

unstable signal.

***In vitro* phenotypic characterization of *Malassezia* strains.** Phenotypic analysis of the

Malassezia strains reported in table S2 was performed on mDixon agar by spotting 1.5 µL of

1:10 dilutions of each cellular suspension in the following conditions: deta NONOate (0.5 mM

and 1 mM), $NaNO_2$ (5 mM and 10 mM), hydrogen peroxide (1 mM), UV (200 µJ x 100), 37°C,

benomyl (20 µM), 5-flucytosine (5FC, 50 and 100 µg/mL), amphotericin B (AmB, 50 µg/mL),

caspofungin (2.5 µg/mL and 5 µg/mL), FLC (0.5 µg/mL and 1 µg/mL), NaCl (1M), LiCl (100

mM), Congo red (0.4 µg/mL), pH = 7.5, or pH = 4.

RNAseq analysis. 10 mL liquid mDixon cultures of ~ 1x10^7 cells/mL of *M. sympodialis* WT

ATCC42132 with and without 10 mM NaNO2, and *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant were grown

for ON on shaking culture at 30°C. Cells were pelleted at 3,000 rpm in a table top centrifuge for

3 minutes, washed with 10 mL dH2O, and the cell pellet was lyophilized and stored at -80°C

until RNA extraction. Cells pellets was broken with sterile beads and RNA extracted with

TRIzol (ThermoFisher) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Final RNA pellets were

treated with TURBO DNase (ThermoFisher, catalog # AM2238) according to manufacturer's

instructions, and RNA was resuspended in 50 μl of nuclease free water. Illumina 50 bp single
end libraries were prepared using the TruSeq Stranded Total RNA-seq Kit and subjected to
Illumina sequencing. Library preparation and RNA sequencing was performed at the Duke
University Center for Genomic and Computation Biology. Three biological replicates were
performed for each sample.

After sequencing, Illumina raw reads were trimmed with Trimmomatic to remove
Illumina adaptors[65] and mapped to the most recent *M. sympodialis* reference genome[66] using
HiSat. Generated .bam files were used to run StringTie with the *M. sympodialis* annotation as
guide, and the –e option to provide the correct output for the statistical analysis[67]. Read count
information for statistical analysis were extracted using a provided python script (prepDE.py).
DESeq2 was used to determine the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) as having
FDR $<$ 0.05 and $\log_2$FC $\pm$ 0.5. StringTie and DEseq2 were run on Galaxy[68]. Functional
annotation of the DEGs was performed using the Blast2GO pipeline, which includes the
BLASTx against the NCBI non-redundant protein database, gene ontology (GO) annotation and
InterProScan[69]. Venn diagram to identify DEGs in common between the two comparisons were
generated using the following web server (http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/).

Flavohemoglobin purification and crystal structure. The pET28a construct expressing His-
Tev-*YHB101* 2-395 (nomenclature relative to SSGCID subfeature MayaA.00765.a) was
generated via Gibson assembly as follows. Overlap PCR was used to generate the final PCR
product (1305 bp), which was generated from two smaller PCR products: the first PCR product
(110 bp) was generated using 20 ng of an unrelated gene as template (amplifying the N-term
8XHis-Tev tag) with primers CID101552_PCR1_For and CID101552_PCR1_Rev, which add a
26 bp 5□ Gibson overlap (homologous with the NcoI-cut end of pET28a) and a 26 bp 3□
overlap with the 5□ end of the second PCR product. The second PCR product (1221 bp) was
generated by PCR using 20 ng *M. yamatoensis* DNA as template (amplifying the *YHB101* coding
region) with primers CID101552_PCR2_For and CID101552_PCR2_Rev, which add two stop
codons and a 30 bp Gibson overlap (homologous with the HindIII-cut end of pET28a) at the 3□
end. The two PCR products were gel-purified on a 1% agarose gel (in 1X TBE + 1X Sybr Green)
and 20 ng of each purified PCR was combined and used as template to generate the final PCR
using outer flanking primers (CID101552_PCR1_For and CID101552_PCR2_Rev). All PCRs

were performed on an ABI Geneamp 9700 using KOD polymerase in the following conditions:

initialization at 94°C for 5 min, followed by 28 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec,

annealing at 65°C for 1 min and extension at 72°C for 1.5 min, followed by a final extension step

at 72°C for 7 min.

The resulting amplicon (CID101552_Final) was cloned into the NcoI/HindIII-digested

pET28a via Gibson assembly according to manufacturers' instructions, and transformed into

Escherichia coli TOP10 cells with YT + 50 µg/ml kanamycin for selection. One clone that

contained no sequence errors was identified, and the DNA was used to transform *E. coli*

BL21(DE3) cells, which served as starting material for expression studies.

Culture of transformed *E. coli* BL21(DE3) was transferred to 2 L of terrific broth

containing 50 µg/mL and grown to $OD_{600} = 0.6$. Protein expression was induced by adding 1

mM Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and grown for 45 hours at 25°C. 5-

aminoluevulinic acid 0.3 mM was added at the time of induction to facilitate heme biosynthesis.

The cells were harvested by centrifugation and the pellets stored at –80°C. Cells were

resuspended at 1g:5mL ratios in 25 mM Tris-HCl pH = 8.0 (Teknova), 200 mM NaCl

(Teknova), 0.5% 3-[(3-Cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulfonate (CHAPS) (JT

Baker), 50 mM L-arginine (Sigma), 500 U of benzonase (Novagen), 100 mg lysozyme (Sigma)

and one EDTA free protease inhibitor tablet (Roche). The cells were lysed via microfluidization

(Microfluidics) with two passes at 15,000 PSI on ice and clarified via centrifugation at 200 rcf

for 45 minutes at 4°C, and filtered with a 0.2 µm PES bottle top filter (Nalgene). The

supernatant was applied to four 5 mL Ni^{2+} charged HiTrap Chelating HP (GE Healthcare)

columns and the protein eluted with a 500 mM imidazole gradient over 15 column volumes. The

fractions of interest (which were visibly red-brown) were pooled and the His-TEV tag was

removed via cleavage with His-tagged Tobacco etch virus protease 1 (TEV, produced in-house)

while dialyzing against 2 L of 25 mM Tris pH = 8.0 and 200 mM NaCl overnight at 4°C using

10 kDa MWCO snakeskin dialysis tubing (Thermo scientific/Pierce). The affinity tag was

removed by applying the digested pool over one 5 mL Ni2+ charged HiTrap Chelating HP

columns. The cleaved protein bound and eluted from the column before the remaining

uncleaved material and separate pools were made for both. The protein pools were concentrated

for size exclusion chromatography via centrifugal concentration (Vivaspin Polyethylsulfone, 10

kDa MWCO, Sartorius) to 3.81 mg/mL (cleaved pool) and 14.5 mg/ml (uncleaved pool) for

injection over a Superdex75 (GE Healthcare) in 10 mM HEPES (2-[4-(2-
hydroxyethyl)piperazin-1-yl]ethanesulfonic acid), pH 7.5 and 150 mM NaCl. Fractions of
interest were pooled and concentrated via centrifugal concentration (Vivaspin Polyethylsulfone,
10kDa MWCO, Sartorius) to 5.74 mg/mL (cleaved pool) and 19.93 mg/mL (uncleaved pool),
aliquoted and stored at –80°C.

Apo *M. yamatoensis* flavohemoglobin protein (SSGCID ID
MayaA.00765.a.TH11.PD38344, uncleaved pool) was set up for crystallization as sitting drops
in 96-well XJR trays (Rigaku Reagents) with 0.4 ul reservoir solution and 0.4 ul protein at 19.93
mg/ml. Trays were then stored at 14°C. Crystallization conditions were searched for using
commercial sparse matrix screens JCSG+, JCSG-Top96, Wizard 3/4 (Rigaku Reagents), MCSG-
1 (Microlytic), and Morpheus (Molecular Dimensions). Crystals were obtained with Morpheus
B12: 12.5% (w/v) PEG1000, 12.5% (w/v) PEG3350, 12.5% (v/v) MPD, 0.03 M each sodium
fluoride, sodium bromide, and sodium iodide, and 0.1 M bicine/Trizma base pH 8.5. After 35
days, red-brown crystals were harvested directly from the droplet, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and
stored for screening.

Data were collected on a Rigaku FR-E+ 007 SuperBright rotating anode equipped with
Rigaku Varimax optics and a Saturn 944+ detector. The data set was processed with the XDS
package[70]. Friedel pairs were kept separate for the calculation of anomalous maps. Initial phases
were calculated with Phaser EP[71] within the CCP4 package[72] and the CCP4 program PARROT[73]
was used for phase improvement. An initial model was built with ARPwARP[74]. The structure
was refined with phenix.refine[75] within Phenix[76] and manual model building was done using
Coot[77]. Built-in tools in Coot were used to assess structure quality before each refinement.
Ligand restraints for bound heme and FAD were generated using Grade web server
(http://grade.globalphasing.org) from GlobalPhasing Ltd. Model quality was validated using
MolProbity[78]. The final structure factors and coordinates were deposited in the PDB[79,80] with
code 6O0A. Structural images were generated using Chimera software[81]. The flavohemoglobin
structures of *E. coli* (PDB ID 1GVH) and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (PDB ID 4G1V) were used
for comparison with that of *M. yamatoensis.*

Interaction of *M. sympodialis* strains with the host. The ability of *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1Δ*
mutant, and complemented strains *yhb1Δ + YHB1-GFP* and *yhb1Δ + YHB101-GFP* to survive

within macrophage was carried out according to previous protocol[28,82]. J774 A.1 cells

(1×10^5/well) were added to 96-well plates and activated by addition of either 1) 10 nM

phorbol myristate acetate (PMA) and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C with 5% CO_2, 2) 100 U/mL

interferon-γ and LPS (0.6 µg/mL) and incubated overnight at 37˚C 5% CO_2. Two days old

cultures of *M. sympodialis* were washed twice with sterile water, and resuspended in RPMI +

human serum 20 % for opsonization for 2 h at 37˚C. *M. sympodialis* cells were washed three

times with water, resuspended in DMEM and added to the macrophages at a 1:1 yeasts:

macrophages ratio. Plates were incubated for 2 h at 37 °C in 5% CO2, then the co-cultures

were washed three times with PBS to remove yeasts that were not internalized, and the plate was

incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO2 for 18 h. Yeast cells were collected by lysing macrophages, and

from each condition a 1:20 dilution was plated on mDixon agar and incubated at 30 °C for 3-5

days to determine yeast survival.

For *in vivo* infection experiments, WT C57BL/6j mice were purchased from Janvier Elevage.

Nos2-/- mice [83] were obtained from Nicolas Fasel (Lausanne). Mice were maintained at the

Laboratory Animal Science Center of University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland and used at 6-12

weeks in sex- and age-matched groups. Epicutaneous infection of the mouse ear skin was

performed as described previously [5,84].Briefly, *Malassezia* strains were grown for 3-4 days at

30°C, 180 rpm in liquid mDixon medium. Cells were washed in PBS and suspended in native

olive oil at a density of 20 OD_{A600}/mL. 100 µl suspension (corresponding to 2 OD_{A600}) of yeast

cells was applied topically onto the dorsal ear skin that was previously barrier-disrupted by mild

tape stripping while mice were anaesthetized. For determining the fungal loads in the skin, tissue

was transferred in water supplemented with 0.05% Nonidet P40 (AxonLab), homogenized and

plated on modified Dixon agar and incubated at 30°C for 3-4 days. For quantification of cellular

infiltrates, single cell suspensions of ear skin were stained with antibodies directed against CD45

(clone 104), CD11b (clone M1/70), Ly6G (clone 1A8), Ly6C (clone HK1.4) in PBS

supplemented with 1% FCS, 5 mM EDTA and 0.02% NaN_3. LIVE/DEAD Near IR stain (Life

Technologies) was used for exclusion of dead cells. Cells were acquired on a FACS Cytoflex

(Beckman Coulter) and the data were analyzed with FlowJo software (FlowJo LLC). The gating

of the flow cytometric data was performed according to the guidelines for the use of flow

cytometry and cell sorting in immunological studies [85], including pre-gating on viable and single

cells for analysis. For transcript expression analysis, total RNA was isolated from ear skin

according to standard protocols using TRI Reagent (Sigma Aldrich). cDNA was generated by
RevertAid reverse transcriptase (Thermo Fisher). Quantitative PCR was performed using SYBR
Green (Roche) and a QuantStudio 7 Flex (Life Technologies) instrument. The primers used for
qPCR were as follows: *Il17a* forward 5'-GCTCCAGAAGGCCCTCAGA-3', reverse 5'-
AGCTTTCCCTCCGCATTGA-3' [86]; *Defb3* forward 5- GTCTCCACCTGCAGCTTTTAG-3',
reverse 5'- ACTGCCAATCTGACGAGTGTT-3' [87]; *Nos2* forward 5'-
GTTCTCAGCCCAACAATACAAGA-3', reverse 5'- GTGGACGGGTCGATGTCAC-3'; *Actb*
forward 5--CCCTGAAGTACCCCATTGAAC-3', reverse 5'-CTTTTCACGGTTGGCCTTAG-
3'. All RT-qPCR assays were performed in duplicates and the relative expression (rel. expr.) of
each gene was determined after normalization to *Actb* transcript levels.
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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
We thank Stephen Rogers for assistance with the NO consumption assay, Nicolas Fasel for
Nos2-/- mice, Ellen Wallace for her contribution to cloning the *Malassezia* crystallography
constructs, Jan Abendroth for his contributions to solving the structure of *Malassezia* by phasing
off the bound iron, Jason Yano and Rana Sidhu for consultation on improving heme
incorporation during recombinant expression of the crystallography constructs, and Tom
Edwards and Don Lorimer for their overall support of the project.
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FUNDING INFORMATION
This work was in part supported by NIH/NIAID R01 grant AI50113-15, and by NIH/NIAID R37
MERIT award AI39115-21 (to J.H.) and by SNF grant 310030_189255 (to S.L.L.). VA Merit
BX-003478 supported TJM's work. Crystallization work was funded by the NIH/NIAD (contract
nos. HHSN272200700057, HHSN272201200025C, and HHSN272201700059C to Peter J.
Myler). Joseph Heitman is Co-Director and Fellow of the CIFAR program "Fungal Kingdom:
Threats and Opportunities".

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Figures

Figure 1. Evidence for two independent HGT events of the flavohemoglobin-encoding genes

in *Malassezia* from the Actinobacteria. (A) Maximum likelihood phylogeny of consisting of

2,155 flavohemoglobin protein sequences. Two groups (clade 1 and 2) of horizontally transferred

flavohemoglobin genes (*YHB1* and *YHB101*) in *Malassezia* are colored orange. Other tree

branches are colored according to the key on the top left, representing other major groups of

organisms. The phylogeny was visualized using iTOL v3.6.1[88] and was rooted at the midpoint.

(B - C) Zoomed views of the ML phylogeny showing in more detail the position of *Malassezia*

flavohemoglobins from clades 1 and 2, and their putative bacterial donor lineages. (D) Results of

topological constraints tests that significantly rejected the monophyletic origin for both

Malassezia flavohemoglobins clades, providing additional support for independent HGT events.

(E) Phylogenetic relationship of *Malassezia* species with available genome data inferred from the

concatenation of 246 single-copy proteins. Color codes assigned to the different, highly

supported, phylogenetic clades are kept consistent in all figures. The tree was rooted at the

midpoint and branch support values are given as shown in the key. (F) Chromosomal regions

encompassing the *YHB1* gene in *Malassezia*. Genes are shown as arrows denoting the direction

of transcription and orthologs are represented in the same color. Non-syntenic genes are shown

in white, and small arrows in black represent tRNAs. The *YHB1* gene is shown as red arrows

outlined in bold in the center. The end of a scaffold is represented by a forward slash. For *M.*

yamatoensis and *M. slooffiae*, yellow bars indicate the absence of the *YHB1* gene in otherwise

syntenic regions, and those in green indicate instances where another flavohemoglobin-encoding

gene (named *YHB101*) was acquired by an independent HGT event. A possibly defective *YHB1*

gene in *M. nana* CBS9557 is denoted by the Greek symbol ψ. Gene codes in red or blue are as

they appear in *M. globosa* (prefix "MGL_") or *M. sympodialis* (prefix "MSYG_") genome

annotations, respectively, those in black were named based on top BLASTp hits in *S. cerevisiae*,

and "hyp" represent hypothetical proteins. Black circle represents the end of a chromosome;

scaffold/chromosomal locations and accession numbers are given for each region.

Figure 2. *M. sympodialis* **flavohemoglobins are involved in nitrosative stress resistance and**
NO degradation. (A) Stress sensitivity assay of *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1Δ* mutant, and
complementing strains *yhb1Δ + YHB1* and *yhb1Δ + YHB101* on mDixon agar supplemented with
the NO-donor agent Deta NONOate and NaNO$_2$, and with hydrogen peroxide. (B) GFP
expression in the *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant, and complementing strains *yhb1Δ + YHB1* and

yhb1Δ + YHB101, and respective GFP signal analyzed trough FACS. (C) NO consumption assay

by *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1Δ* mutant, and complementing strains *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1Δ*

mutant, and complementing strains *yhb1Δ + YHB1* and *yhb1Δ + YHB101*; the blue trace

indicates the NO level over a period of 15 min. NO and *Malassezia* (Y = yeast) injections are

indicated by purple arrows. In this experiment, 10 µL (Y), 20 µL (x 2) and 30 µL (x 3), 40 µL (x

4) and 50 µL (x 5) of *Malassezia* cellular suspensions were injected. (D) Representative

fluorescent staining of intracellular NO with DAF-FM DA in *M. sympodialis* WT and two

independent *yhb1Δ* mutants, and (E-F) quantification of the NO signal by flow cytometry;

spontaneous fluorescence of *M. sympodialis* was used as background to detect specifically DAF-

FM DA signal. Asterisks indicates statistically significant differences (* = $p<0.05$, ** = $p<0.01$)

according to the unpaired student's t-test with Welch's correction.

Figure 3. Transcriptomic profile of *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* and WT strain. (A) MA-plot

displaying the transcriptomic changes of the *M. sympodialis yhb1Δ* mutant compared to the WT

strain. Red dots indicate differentially expressed genes for FDR < 0.05; the *YHB1* gene is

indicated and its represent an internal control, its downregulation is expected because the gene is

deleted. (B) MA-plot displaying the transcriptomic changes of *M. sympodialis* WT grown in the

presence of the NO-donor NaNO2 compared to the untreated control. Red dots indicate

differentially expressed genes for FDR < 0.05. (C) Gene ontology classification relative to the

RNAseq condition reported in B. Upregulated genes are indicated in red, and downregulated

genes are indicated in green. (D) Venn diagrams comparison of the upregulated and

downregulated genes relative to RNAseq conditions reported in A and B; the panel on the right

shows a heatmap of the log2FC of the shared upregulated (red) and downregulated (green) genes. Predicted allergens are indicated with one asterisk, and two asterisks indicate a secreted lipase.

Figure 4. 3-dimensional X-ray crystal structure of the *M. yamatoensis* flavohemoglobin Yhb101. (A) The globin domain (cyan) binds a heme molecule. The reductase domain consists of an FAD-binding domain (gray) and an NAD-binding domain (tan) that bind an FAD molecule. (B) An overlay of flavohemoglobin globin domains from fungus, bacteria, and yeast. Globin domains of *M. yamatoensis* (PDB ID 6O0A; blue), *S. cerevisiae* (PDB ID 4G1V; yellow), and *E. coli* (PDB ID 1GVH; green) show structural similarity.

Figure 5. *Malassezia* **flavohemoglobins are not required for pathogenesis in** *ex vivo* **and** *in vivo* **models.** (A-B) *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1*Δ, *yhb1*Δ + *YHB1*, and *yhb1*Δ + *YHB101* were opsonized with 20% human serum and added to J774A.1 macrophage (1:1 ratio) activated with phorbol myristate acetate (PMA) (A) or interferon-gamma + lipopolysaccharide (IFNγ + LPS) (B). After 24 h, J774A.1 cells were lysed and *M. sympodialis* cells were harvested and plated on selective media to determine CFUs. Data are expressed as CFU/mL. (C-E) WT C57BL/6j mice were infected epicutaneously with *M. sympodialis* WT, *yhb1*Δ, *yhb1*Δ + *YHB1*, and *yhb1*Δ + *YHB101*. Skin colony forming units (CFU) (C), cellular infiltrates (D) and *Il17a*, *Defb3* and *Nos2* transripts (E) were analyzed on day 4 post infection. (F-H) WT and *Nos2*-/- mice were infected epicutaneously with *M. sympodialis* WT. Skin CFU (F), cellular infiltrates (G) and *Il17a*, *Defb3* and *Nos2* transcripts (H) were analyzed on day 5 post infection. Graphs show the mean + SEM of each group. Individual samples are also indicated with each symbol representing one well (A-B) or one mouse (C-H). The dotted line indicates the detection limit. Data are from one experiment (C-E) or pooled from two independent experiments (A-B, F-H). Statistics are calculated using one-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparisons test. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

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Figure 6. *Malassezia* genes acquired through HGT from bacteria. HGT candidates identified
in the genomes of the 15 *Malassezia* species (represented on the top according to their
phylogenetic classification) are shown as different lines in the presence-absence matrix, with the
closest ortholog in *S. cerevisiae* indicated in parenthesis, where available. For each HGT
candidate, the presence of the gene in a genome is indicated by orange square, and the intensity
of the color is correlated with the gene copy number (numbers in white). HGT candidates
occurring in multiple *Malassezia* species are shown in the top half of the matrix, whereas those
that are species-specific HGT candidates are shown in the bottom half of the matrix, and color-
coded as shown in the key. Asterisks indicate HGT candidate genes identified in the previous
study [3].

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 Supplemental table legends

 Table S1. Upregulated differentially expressed genes for FDR <0.05 in the condition *M.*

 sympodialis yhb1Δ versus *M. sympodialis* WT. Highlighted in yellows are DEGs with $\log_2$FC <

 0.5.

 Table S2. Downregulated differentially expressed genes for FDR <0.05 in the condition *M.*

 sympodialis yhb1Δ versus *M. sympodialis* WT. Highlighted in yellows are DEGs with $\log_2$FC < -

 0.5.

 Table S3. Upregulated differentially expressed genes for FDR <0.05 and $\log_2$FC + 0.05 in the

 condition *M. sympodialis* WT + $NaNO_2$ versus *M. sympodialis* WT untreated.

 Table S4. Downregulated differentially expressed genes for FDR <0.05 and $\log_2$FC - 0.05 in the

 condition *M. sympodialis* WT + $NaNO_2$ versus *M. sympodialis* WT untreated.

 Table S5. Data collection, phasing and refinement statistics relative to the X-ray structure of *M.*
 yamatoensis flavohemoglobin.

 Table S6. Summary of the HGT candidate genes identified in *Malassezia* species. Each sheet is
 indicated with a color that matches *Malassezia* phylogeny represented in Figures 1E and 6.

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