Roles of P-body factors in *Candida albicans* filamentation and stress response

Melissa A. Tosiano[1], Frederick Lanni[1], Aaron P. Mitchell[2], C. Joel McManus[1]*

1 Department of Biological Sciences, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, United States of America, **2** Department of Microbiology, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, United States of America

*Corresponding author

mcmanus@andrew.cmu.edu

Abstract

Hyphal growth is strongly associated with virulence in the human fungal pathogen *Candida albicans*. While hyphal transcriptional networks have been the subject of intense study, relatively little is known about post-transcriptional regulation. Previous work reported that P Body (PB) factors Dhh1 and Edc3 were required for virulence and filamentation, suggesting an essential role for post-transcriptional regulation of these processes. However, the molecular roles of these factors have not been determined. To further study the function of PB factors in filamentation, we generated homozygous deletions of *DHH1* and *EDC3* in the prototrophic strain SC5314 using CRISPR-Cas9. Homozygous *dhh1* deletion strongly impaired growth and altered filamentation, in addition to exhibiting unusual colony morphology in response to heat stress. Using RNA-seq, we found *DHH1* deletion disrupts the regulation of thousands of genes under both yeast and hyphal growth conditions. This included upregulation of many stress response genes in the absence of stress, similar to deletion of the *S. cerevisiae DHH1* homolog. In

22   contrast, we found *EDC3* was not required for heat tolerance or filamentation. These results

23   support a model in which *DHH1*, but not *EDC3*, represses hyphal stress response transcripts in

24   yeast and remodels the transcriptome during filamentation. Our paper supports distinct

25   requirements for specific mRNA decay factors, bolstering evidence for post-transcriptional

26   regulation of filamentation in *C. albicans*.

Author summary

In the dimorphic fungal pathogen *C. albicans*, the hyphal phenotype corresponds with

pathogenicity. While transcriptional control of hyphal growth has been extensively studied,

comparatively little is known about post-transcriptional regulation of this significant

morphological shift. PB factors are associated with mRNA decay and translational repression.

Here we investigate the roles of two PB factors in growth, filamentation, and gene expression.

Although deletion of PB factor EDC3 did not impact growth or filamentation, *dhh1Δ/Δ* had

greatly impaired growth and heat tolerance as well as unusual hyphal phenotypes. Additionally,

we found that the transcriptomes of *dhh1Δ/Δ* yeast and hyphae were highly dysregulated. The

extensive transcriptomic impacts of the absence of Dhh1 correlated with our phenotypic

findings. Stress-associated genes were induced under non-stress conditions and the

filamentation response was blunted under physiologically relevant *in vitro* conditions. We

demonstrate that mRNA decay factors play distinct roles in regulating *C. albicans* morphology

and that Dhh1 contributes to environmentally appropriate expression of the stress response and

hyphal growth.

Introduction

Candida albicans lives as a commensal organism in immunocompetent humans [1]. However,

this opportunistic fungus causes blood and deep tissue infections (candidiasis) in

immunocompromised individuals [2]. Pathogenicity requires detecting and responding to stress

in divergent physiological microenvironments [3,4]. Under stress, *C. albicans* undergoes the

process of filamentation, shifting from commensal yeast to virulent hyphae. Hyphal growth

correlates with the release of the peptide toxin candidalysin [5], and adherent biofilm formation

[6–8]. Both contribute to pathogenicity. Foundational research on transcriptional regulation of

filamentation had identified dozens of transcription factors (TFs) and signaling cascades

regulating the core filamentation response networks [9–12]. Under different hyphal-inducing

conditions *C. albicans* activates distinct transcriptional programs [13]. Despite deep exploration

into transcriptional control of filamentation, comparatively little work has addressed post-

transcriptional regulation of filamentation [14,15].

Eukaryotes implement swift and precise post-transcriptional stress responses [16,17]

appropriate for regulating the acute stage of *C. albicans* filamentation [14,15]. Post-

transcriptional regulation of gene expression integrates mRNA translation, localization, and

decay [18,19]. Indeed, mRNA decay has been found to regulate adaptation to the host

environment and virulence in several human fungal pathogens [3,15,20,21]. Localization to

ribonucleoprotein (RNP) granules represses translation and initiates decay in many organisms

[22,23]. P-bodies (PBs) are RNPs associated with the Ccr4-not deadenylase complex [23–26]

and mRNA degradation [22,23,27]. In *C. albicans*, several PB mRNA decay factors have been

reported to function in hyphal development and virulence, including Ccr4, Pop2, Not5, Xrn1,

Dhh1, and Edc3 [28–36]. However, the effects of these factors on gene regulation during

filamentation have not been elucidated.

Stochastic transcriptional noise generates different phenotypic outcomes in clonal microbial

populations that serves as a mechanism of "bet-hedging" for acute environmental stressors [37–

39]. In this context, mRNA decay provides a system of transcript buffering preventing gene

expression under inappropriate conditions [40]. Genes identified as both transcriptionally noisy

and poorly translated have these features conserved between *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans*

homologs [41]. However, the extent to which mRNA decay factors buffer or control noisy

expression of hyphal genes under yeast-form conditions or conversely yeast genes under

hyphal conditions remains unclear in *C. albicans*. Furthermore, the roles of *C. albicans* PB

factors in buffering noisy transcription for environmentally appropriate gene expression have not

been elucidated.

In the model yeast *S. cerevisiae*, the functions of PB factors Dhh1 and Edc3 have been

extensively studied [42]. The DEAD-box helicase and activator of mRNA decapping Dhh1

rapidly exchanges between the cytoplasm and PBs [43,44]. It has been proposed that Dhh1

integrates translation and mRNA decay by interacting with ribosomes to repress translation and

stimulating the decay of slow translating mRNA with poor codon optimality [45,46]. Contrary to

this, it has been reported that Dhh1 does not recognize targets for decay by slow translation or

codon optimality. Instead, Dhh1 represses genes associated with nutrient limitation, cell wall

components, autophagy, and metabolism of non-preferred carbon and nitrogen sources under

optimal growth conditions [47]. Interestingly, Dhh1 has also been reported to induce translation

in mRNA with structures in the coding sequence approximately 70 nucleotides downstream from

the translation initiation site [48]. Loss of *DHH1* in *S. cerevisiae* downregulates *STE12*

translation leading to defects in pseudohyphal growth and mating [34,49,50]. Kinase signaling

via Dhh1 phosphorylation sites are critical to pseudohyphal development in *S. cerevisiae*

[34,51]. Our other PB factor of interest, Edc3 acts as a non-essential enhancer of mRNA

decapping and PB scaffolding factor [42,43,52]. In *S. cerevisiae*, absence of Edc3 reduces PB

assembly size, but does not impede global mRNA decay [43,53]. Additionally, Edc3 is also

dispensable for PB formation in *S. pombe* [54]. In contrast to *S. cerevisiae*, the roles of Dhh1

and Edc3 in *C. albicans* hyphal growth have been minimally explored and the function of Dhh1

on gene expression remains unknown in this species.

Prior work in *C. albicans* reported that both Dhh1 and Edc3 are necessary for WT stress

tolerance and filamentation. In a *C. albicans* auxotrophic background, the authors described a

heterozygous deletion of *DHH1* (*DHH1/dhh1Δ*) which produced WT colonies on YPD plates, but

was filamentation impaired [34]. In the same *C. albicans* auxotrophic background, *edc3Δ/Δ* was

noted to have impaired PB condensation, reduced heat tolerance at 37°C, and severely

restricted filamentation [35,36]. This early research implied that *DHH1* and *EDC3* may have

distinct roles in *C. albicans* filamentation. However, the gene regulatory effects of *DHH1*

deletion in *C. albicans* have not been defined. Thus, our understanding of these important PB

factors in filamentation remains limited.

In this study, we investigated the roles of PB factor Dhh1 in *C. albicans* heat tolerance,

filamentation, and gene expression. Using transient CRISPR-cas9 [55] we deleted *DHH1* and

EDC3 in SC5314. We demonstrated the dispensability of *EDC3* for PB condensation, heat

tolerance, and filamentation. Importantly, we found *dhh1Δ/Δ* exhibits impaired yeast-form

growth, heat sensitivity, and anomalous filamentation. Finally, we determined the effects of

dhh1Δ/Δ on gene expression genome wide in yeast and early hyphae, and found loss of *DHH1*

causes widespread dysregulation of the transcriptome and stress responses.

Results

Characterizing P-Bodies (PBs) in *C. albicans*

To investigate the presence of dhh1 and edc3 in PBs, we first generated prototrophic strains

with fluorescently labeled PB factors. We fused mScarlet to the C-terminus of Dhh1 (Dhh1-mS)

and mNeonGreen to the C-terminus of Edc3 (Edc3-mNG) using CRISPR-Cas mediated

genome editing. During acute heat shock Edc3-mNG condensed into round foci (Fig 1. A). To

determine if these foci were PBs, we generated a dual labeled strain (Edc3-mNG, Dhh1-mS)

and exposed it to identical heat shock conditions. Edc3-mNG and Dhh1-mS colocalized,

confirming these foci were PBs (Fig 1. B). In *S. cerevisiae* Edc3 is more stably associated with

PBs than Dhh1, which rapidly exchanges with the cytoplasm [56]. Similarly, we found a large

fraction of Dhh1 was cytoplasmically diffuse, suggesting Dhh1 functions both in PBs and in the

cytoplasm (Fig 1. B). We next investigated PB condensation during early filamentation. After 3

hours of acute glucose starvation, PBs were abundant in yeast cells and along developing

hyphal germ tubes (Fig 1. C). Lastly, we investigated whether these proteins were

independently required for PB condensation. In the absence of Edc3, Dhh1-mS retained the

capacity to form condensates in response to acute heat shock (Fig 1. D). Similarly, Edc3-mNG

also condensed in the absence of Dhh1 (Fig 1. E). In summary, we confirmed the presence of

PBs in stressed *C. albicans* and found that, as in *S. cerevisiae*, *C. albicans* PBs are robust

condensates that can tolerate the absence of Dhh1 or Edc3 individually.

Fig 1. PBs condense during acute stress. Fluorescent and confocal images of SC5314 PB

factors fluorescently tagged within the genome. **A.** Edc3-mNG condensed in live *C. albicans*

SC5314 in response to acute heat shock (10m at 46°C). Scale bar = 5µm. **B.** PB factors (Edc3-

mNG and DHH1-mS) co-localized during acute heat shock and confirmed their identity as PBs.

Scale bar = 2µm. **C.** 3-hours of starvation generated abundant PBs (Edc3-mNG) along the

137   developing germ tube. Scale bar = 5µm. **D.** Dhh1-mS condensed in the absence of Edc3. Scale

138   bar = 2µm. **E.** Edc3-mNG condensed in the absence of Dhh1. Scale bar = 5µm.

DHH1 is required for normal growth and stress response phenotypes

We next investigated the role of Dhh1 and Edc3 in *C. albicans* growth and stress responses.

We generated heterozygous (*DHH1/dhh1Δ*) and homozygous (*dhh1Δ/Δ*) *DHH1* deletions and

complements in SC5314. We initially conducted spot assays at 30°C and 37°C to test for growth

and temperature sensitivity defects. We found strains possessing at least one copy of *DHH1*

produced colonies identical to WT on YPD plates (Fig 2. A-B). However, *dhh1Δ/Δ* had inhibited

growth across timepoints and incubation temperatures (Fig 2. A-B). Uniquely, after 3 days at

37°C, *dhh1Δ/Δ* colonies also exhibited a wrinkled appearance associated with hyphal growth

(Fig 2. B). To further investigate this phenomenon, we grew colonies at 37°C for 4 days on YPD.

While all strains with *DHH1* had a smooth surface and soft texture, *dhh1Δ/Δ* colonies had a

wrinkled surface and firm, dry texture (Fig 2. C). *dhh1Δ/Δ* grew more slowly than WT and

complement strains at 30°C in liquid YPD (Fig 3. A). Surprisingly, DIC microscopy revealed

dhh1Δ/Δ cells were nearly twice the size of the *DHH1* containing strains, with enlarged vacuoles

(Fig 3. B). The slow growth and altered cell physiology of *dhh1Δ/Δ* suggested the induction of

stress associated phenotypes in the absence of environmental stressors. In contrast, the loss of

EDC3 did not impair spot assay growth at 30°C and 37°C (Fig S1. A). Thus, we focused the

remainder of this study on *DHH1*.

Fig 2. In SC5314, *DHH1* is required for WT colony growth and morphology. In all of the

strains, at least one copy of *DHH1* was needed for WT growth and colony phenotype. Only

dhh1Δ/Δ displayed growth impairment and pseudohyphal colonies in response to heat stress. **A.**

Day 1 and 3 of a 30°C spot plate assay of WT and mutant SC5314. **B.** Day 1 and 3 of a 37°C

spot plate assay of WT and mutants SC5314. **C.** Colonies after 4 days of incubation on YPD at

37°C. 25X magnification.

Fig 3. Absence of *DHH1* alters growth and cell physiology. WT and mutant strains were

grown in liquid YPD with shaking at 30°C over 14 hours. **A.** Exponential growth was impaired in

dhh1Δ/Δ and rescued by the complement (*dhh1Δ/Δ, +DHH1*). **B.** DIC images of exponentially

growing cells show enlarged cell bodies and vacuoles in *dhh1Δ/Δ*. Scale bar = 5μm.

DHH1 is necessary for WT filamentation

Considering the aberrant phenotypes of *dhh1Δ/Δ* in rich media, we next examined the possibility

of accompanying filamentation defects. *dhh1Δ/Δ* cells were larger than WT and complement

strains after 4 hours of filamentation, with the cell body taking up a greater proportion of the total

length -(Fig 4. A). However, the median length to width ratio of *dhh1Δ/Δ* cells was significantly

smaller -(Fig 4. B). After 16 hours of planktonic filamentation, *dhh1Δ/Δ* cells remained enlarged

with thick curved germ tubes and fewer septa compared to WT and complement strains (Fig 4.

C). The median length to width ratio of *dhh1Δ/Δ* at 16 hours was also significantly less than the

other strains (Fig 4. D). In summary, we found that a single copy of *DHH1* sufficiently supported

WT planktonic filamentation, while homozygous deletion resulted in abnormal filamentous

growth at both timepoints.

Fig 4. *DHH1* is required for WT planktonic filamentation. WT and mutant strains grown

under physiologically relevant filamentation conditions. (37°C, RPMI + 10% FBS). **A.** Strains

were subjected to a planktonic 4-hour filamentation assay. Scale bar = 20μm. **B.** After 4-hours

of filamentation, *dhh1Δ/Δ* had less developed germ tubes defined as length by width of 100 cells

in at least 4 fields of view. (Kruskal-Wallis test for significant variance of median. ****P <

0.0001). **C.** Strains were subjected to a planktonic 16-hour filamentation assay. Scale bar =

20μm. **D.** After 16-hours of filamentation, *dhh1Δ/Δ* had less developed germ tubes defined as

length by width of 100 cells in at least 4 fields of view (Kruskal-Wallis test for significant variance

of median. ****P < 0.0001).

Due to the significant impairment of planktonic filamentation in *dhh1Δ/Δ,* we expected *dhh1Δ/Δ*

to exhibit comparatively short defective biofilms. Surprisingly, *dhh1Δ/Δ* generated deep, diffuse

biofilms compared to WT and complement strains (Fig 5. A & B). Nevertheless, *dhh1Δ/Δ*

biofilms exhibited other key differences. In WT and *DHH1* complement strains, cells were

concentrated near the base of the biofilm (Fig 5. C). Using pixel intensity as a proxy for cell

density, we quantitatively demonstrated that *dhh1Δ/Δ* biofilm architecture was altered with a

maximum cell density further removed from the basal layer of the biofilm compared to WT and

DHH1 complement (Fig 5. D). This altered biofilm structure may result from the somewhat

hyperfilamentous *dhh1Δ/Δ* strain, via decreased yeast cell proliferation at the base of the

structure.

Next, we surveyed the phenotype of colonies during invasive growth on spider media. After 6

days of growth, *dhh1Δ/Δ* colonies revealed a wrinkled hyphal phenotype but a marked absence

of hyperfilamentous margins found in WT SC5314 (Fig 5. E). Compared to other strains,

dhh1Δ/Δ colonies grew more vertically with tighter wrinkles (Fig 5. E). Again as in the other

filamentation assays, our complement strain with a single *DHH1* copy produced WT colonies on

spider media (Fig 5. E). Furthermore, in contrast to *dhh1Δ/Δ, edc3Δ/Δ* was indistinguishable

from WT in all 3 filamentation assays (Fig S1. B-F). In conclusion *dhh1Δ/Δ* failed to generate

WT germ tubes, biofilm composition or invasive colonies on spider media supporting a role for

this RNA decay factor in filamentation.

Fig 5. Absence of *DHH1* alters biofilm and spider colony morphology. WT and mutant
strains grown in two *in vitro* filamentation assays. **A.** Side-view of WT and mutant strains after a
24-hour biofilm assay. (37°C, RPMI + 10% FBS). Scale bar = 100μm. **B.** Depth of 4 replicate
biofilms. CI = 95%. **C.** Basal views 26μm from the bottom of the biofilm showed a lower
concentration of *dhh1Δ/Δ* cells. Scale bar = 20μm. **D.** Pixel intensity from 4 replicate biofilms
(SD) varied with biofilm depth. Strains with at least one copy of *DHH1* had a greater
concentration of cells closer to the base of the biofilm than *dhh1Δ/Δ* based on brightness. **E.**
Colonies grown on spider plates (37°C). 6X and 25X magnification.

Loss of DHH1 disrupts numerous pathways involved in metabolism and cellular morphology

Given the severe phenotypic defects in both yeast and hyphae that result from *dhh1Δ/Δ*, we
next used RNA-seq to identify differentially expressed genes in yeast (30°C, YPD) and early
hyphae (37°C, RPMI + 10% FBS, 4 hrs.). In YPD, *dhh1Δ/Δ* yeast had 1,244 genes significantly

downregulated and 1,408 genes significantly upregulated (P < 0.01) compared to the

corresponding wildtype strain (Fig 6. A). Interestingly, *dhh1Δ/Δ* yeast upregulated multiple

genes associated with hyphae inducing stress, including *RHR2*, *ECE1*, and *HWP1* (Fig 6. A; Fig

S4-5). Indeed, GO terms corresponding to hyphal stress, such as hyphal cell wall and

carbohydrate transport, were enriched in genes upregulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ* compared to the WT

strain in YPD (Fig 6. B). In RPMI, *dhh1Δ/Δ* hyphae had 1,151 genes downregulated and 1,269

genes upregulated (P < 0.01) (Fig 6. C). For example, metabolite transport genes were

upregulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI including *JEN1* and *HGT12* (Fig 6. C). Under RPMI conditions,

dhh1Δ/Δ inappropriately regulated cell wall genes. Hyphal adhesin *ALS1* was downregulated

while yeast cell wall protein *YWP1* was upregulated (Fig 6. C; Fig S6). Genes upregulated in

dhh1Δ/Δ hyphae were enriched in GO terms related to transport, metabolism and ergosterol

biosynthesis (Fig 6. D). While most changes in expression were specific to environmental

conditions, there was significant overlap in the genes differentially expressed in *dhh1Δ/Δ* under

YPD and RPMI growth conditions (Hypergeometric test, $P < 2.3e^{-22}$; Fig 6. E). Transcription

factors regulating morphology were also differentially expressed *dhh1Δ/Δ* in both conditions (Fig

6. F). Interestingly, while most TFs shifted in the same direction in both growth conditions,

hyphal repressor *NRG1* [57,58] and cell cycle/cell wall stress regulator *SWI6* [59,60] were

downregulated in YPD but upregulated in RPMI (Fig 6. E). In summary, our RNA-seq analysis

established widespread gene expression aberrations in *dhh1Δ/Δ* yeast and hyphae compared to

the parental wildtype strain.

Fig 6. RNA-seq exposed differential gene expression in *dhh1Δ/Δ* grown under YPD and

RPMI conditions. A. Volcano plot depicts genes significantly up (red) and down (blue) -

regulated during yeast-form growth compared to wildtype. Genes associated with filamentation

stress were prominently upregulated (Table S1). **B.** GO terms enriched greater than 2-fold for all

genes differentially expressed > 2.5 and <-2.5-fold in *dhh1Δ/Δ* YPD. Transport and cell wall

terms were enriched in *dhh1Δ/Δ* YPD. **C.** Volcano plot depicts gene expression differences in

dhh1Δ/Δ vs wildtype during early hyphal growth (Table S2). Genes associated with metabolite

transport and the yeast cell wall were upregulated. **D.** GO terms enriched greater than 2-fold for

all genes differentially expressed > 2.5 and <-2.5-fold in *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI**.** Transport, cell wall,

and metabolic terms were enriched in *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI upregulated genes. **E.** A significant

number of transcripts were downregulated (P = $2.28e^{-22}$), and upregulated (P = $4.37e^{-52}$),

respectively, in *dhh1Δ/Δ* in YPD and RPMI conditions. (Hypergeometric test)*.* However, most

differentially expressed genes were environmentally specific. **F.** Differential expression of

transcription factors regulating morphogenesis in *dhh1Δ/Δ* in YPD and RPMI.

Filamentation dependent transcriptome remodeling is reduced in *dhh1Δ/Δ*

Our initial analysis of *dhh1Δ/Δ* yielded valuable insights into aberrant gene expression in yeast

and hyphae. Several RNA decay mutants are filamentation defective, possibly due to impaired

transcriptome remodeling during early filamentation [14,15]. Therefore we next investigated the

role of DHH1 in gene regulation during filamentation. Comparing RNA-seq results from the WT

strain grown in RPMI to YPD showed the known extensive transcriptome remodeling that occurs

during filamentation, with 2,488 downregulated and 2,496 upregulated genes (Fig 7. A, Table

S3). Thus, filamentation dramatically restructured the transcriptome in WT *C. albicans*. Hyphal

cell wall proteins and ubiquitination factors such as *HWP1* and *BUL1* were upregulated in WT

RPMI compared to WT YPD (Fig 7. A). GO terms related to ribosomal RNA, ribosomal proteins,

and translation elongation were all -enriched in genes downregulated in WT hyphae, strongly

indicating a general reduction in mRNA translation (Fig 7. B). The majority of upregulated GO

terms in WT RPMI were enriched in carbohydrate transporters responding to the shift from rich

YPD to carbohydrate poor RPMI (Fig 7. C). These results are consistent with known

transcriptional changes that occur during filamentation in WT strains [13,61–67].

We hypothesized that impaired mRNA decay in *dhh1Δ/Δ* would blunt the downregulation of a

subset of genes during filamentation. Indeed, transcriptional remodeling of *dhh1Δ/Δ* was

overwhelmingly reduced with 1,795 downregulated and 1,919 upregulated genes, only 75% of

the total number of genes remodeled in WT (Fig 7. D). The number of up and downregulated

genes during WT filamentation was almost equal with only 8 more genes upregulated compared

to downregulated (Fig 7. A). However, *dhh1Δ/Δ* had 124 fewer genes downregulated compared

to upregulated, possibly due to impaired mRNA degradation (Fig 7. D). Most of the GO terms

enriched in downregulated genes in filamenting *dhh1Δ/Δ* were the same as WT, but with a

smaller reduction in mean Log_2(RPMI / YPD) (Fig 7. E). Additionally, in filamenting *dhh1Δ/Δ* the

majority of the GO terms enriched in upregulated genes were also present in filamenting WT

cells (Fig 7. F). Uniquely, terms related to lipid catabolism were upregulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ* but not

WT (Fig 7. C, F). Changes in the expression of morphology related transcription factors were

generally less pronounced in *dhh1Δ/Δ* than WT (Fig 7. G). Interestingly, unlike in WT, the

filamentation repressor gene *NRG1* was not significantly downregulated in filamenting *dhh1Δ/Δ*,

indicating a mechanism for continued repression of select hyphal genes (Fig 7. G). The vast

majority of differentially expressed genes in filamenting *dhh1Δ/Δ* were a subset of WT

remodeling (Hypergeometric test, P = 0; Fig 7. H). In general, *dhh1Δ/Δ* had a more modest

transcriptome remodeling response during filamentation than WT.

At 37°C, *dhh1Δ/Δ* colonies on YPD plates have a crinkled morphology similar to WT colonies on

spider media (Fig 2. C & Fig 5. E). Thus, we hypothesized that the gene regulatory effects of

dhh1Δ/Δ in YPD may be similar to the WT filamentation response. We found 44% of genes

differentially regulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ under non-stress conditions* (YPD) overlapped with gene

expression changes in the filamenting WT strain (Fig 7. I) Notably, there was significant overlap

of genes downregulated in both yeast form *dhh1Δ/Δ* and filamenting WT (Hypergeometric test;

P = 2.3e^{-06}) while the overlap of genes upregulated in both conditions was not significant (P =

0.55). Commonly downregulated genes were associated with metabolic/biosynthetic processes

and chromatin. Commonly upregulated genes were involved in carbohydrate transport and

autophagy. While the *dhh1Δ/Δ* transcriptome in YPD clearly differs from a wildtype hyphal

transcriptome, there was a surprising amount of similarity, suggesting *dhh1Δ/Δ* exhibits some

aspects of the WT stress response in a non-stress environment (Fig 8).

Fig 7. RNA-seq reveals transcriptome differences between WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ* during

filamentation. A. Volcano plots comparing the transcriptomes of WT SC5314 grown in YPD

and RPMI demonstrate extensive remodeling during filamentation (Table S3). **B.** Expected GO

terms were downregulated, and **C.** upregulated during filamentation. **D.** Comparing the

transcriptome of *dhh1Δ/Δ* grown in YPD and RPMI showed impaired transcriptome remodeling

(Table S4). **E.** Similar GO terms were downregulated, and **F.** upregulated in filamenting

dhh1Δ/Δ and WT. Unlike WT, *dhh1Δ/Δ* upregulated terms related to lipid catabolism during

filamentation. **G.** Transcription factors regulating morphogenesis were differentially expressed

during filamentation in WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ*. **H.** Genes differentially expressed during filamentation

overlapped between WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ* strains. Most transcripts differentially expressed during

dhh1Δ/Δ filamentation are subsets of the WT remodeling response. A significant number of

transcripts were down- (P = 0) or upregulated (P = 0) in both filamenting *dhh1Δ/Δ* and wild type

(Hypergeometric test). **I.** Transcripts that were differentially expressed during WT filamentation

and *dhh1Δ/Δ* grown in YPD. Overlapping genes implied that under yeast-form conditions

dhh1Δ/Δ partially echoed the transcriptome of stressed filamenting cells. Interestingly a

significant number of downregulated transcripts (P = 2.3e^{-06}) were shared between WT

filamentation and *dhh1Δ/Δ* YPD, but not upregulated transcripts (P = 0.55). (Hypergeometric

test).

Fig 8. Diagram of the *dhh1Δ/Δ* transcriptome in YPD and RPMI. Under yeast-from growth conditions *dhh1Δ/Δ* fails to repress the hyphal stress response. Under hyphal growth conditions *dhh1Δ/Δ* presents a misregulated transcriptome. Genes in red were significantly upregulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ*, while genes in blue were significantly downregulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ*.

Discussion

Foundational research on the genetic bases of filamentation largely focused on transcription factors [9] such as *BRG1* [68], *UME6* [69], and *EFG1* [12]. More recently, growing evidence for post-transcriptional regulation of filamentation has added an additional layer of control [14,15,21]. Previous studies reported that loss of a single *DHH1* copy impairs filamentation [34] and the requirement of *EDC3* for WT stress tolerance and filamentation [35,36]. These results suggested PB factors have different functions in *C. albicans* as compared to their homologs in *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pombe* [34,42,54,70,71]. However, the molecular methods originally used to generate *C. albicans DHH1/dhh1Δ* and *edc3Δ/Δ* can lead to confounding effects that require complementation assay controls [72–74]. Unlike *S. cerevisiae* [45,47,75], the gene regulatory effects of *DHH1* deletion, both during yeast and hyphal growth, were not previously characterized in *C. albicans*. Here we investigated the roles of PB factors Dhh1 and Edc3 in *C. albicans* growth, filamentation, and gene expression.

Previous research reported Edc3 was necessary for observable PBs during *C. albicans* glucose starvation [35]. Contrary to this, *S. cerevisiae* PBs continue to condense in the absence of many individual protein factors, including Dhh1 and Edc3 [43]. Our findings align with the roles of these genes in *S. cerevisiae* and other eukaryotes. In *C. albicans*, PBs condense during heat shock without Dhh1 or Edc3 (Fig 1. D, E). Additionally, we found Dhh1 was both present in PBs and cytoplasmically diffuse, suggesting a PB-independent RNA decay function in the cytoplasm (Fig 1. B), like *S. cerevisiae* [43,44]. Our results suggest that, as in *S. cerevisiae* [26,43,76], the

absence of multiple scaffolding proteins would be required to completely disassemble *C.*

albicans P-bodies [26,43,76]. Thus, *C. albicans* PBs may share many of the well documented

functions and characteristics of their homologous condensates from *S. cerevisiae*.

Our phenotypic results differ from previous studies, in which haploinsufficiency in filamentation

was previously reported for *DHH1* [34] (Figs. 4-5). In the initial survey of our mutants,

DHH1/*dhh1Δ* did not present the growth or heat sensitivity defects found in our *dhh1Δ/Δ* strain

(Fig. 2 A & B). Additionally, we found that a single copy of *DHH1* in our complement strain was

sufficient for recovery of WT planktonic, biofilm, and colony filamentation (Figs. 4-5). It's

possible that only a single copy of *DHH1* is necessary for WT growth and filamentation because

it is not the rate limiting factor for mRNA decay. Additionally, we found that e *EDC3* is not

required for heat tolerance at 37°C or filamentation, contrary to prior work [35,36] (Fig. S1). Our

data show *C. albicans* Edc3 functions as a non-essential enhancer of mRNA decapping, as in

S. cerevisiae [52]. While *EDC3* may not be essential for filamentation, retaining this gene likely

confers an as of yet unknown evolutionary advantage to *C. albicans*. Although we found

different phenotypes for deletion of *DHH1* and *EDC3* than in prior studies, this earlier work used

a deletion approach that can cause off-target effects [72–74] and complementation studies to

confirm the deletions were not performed [34,35,77]. Our results highlight the power of targeted

deletion through CRISPR-Cas9 and the importance of complementation analysis of genetic

phenotypes.

Though not the focus of this study, we note that we have recapitulated the previously reported

filamentation defect found with deletion of the RNA decay factor *NOT5* [29–31] (Fig. S2). Our

not5Δ/Δ strain had a distinct phenotype from our *dhh1Δ/Δ* strain. Unlike *dhh1Δ/Δ*, *not5Δ/Δ* did

not have any growth defects or heat sensitivity on YPD plates (Fig S2. A-B). Interestingly, while

dhh1Δ/Δ formed wrinkled colonies indicative of hyphal growth on spider media (Fig 5. E),

not5Δ/Δ was completely filamentation repressed (Fig S2. C). These results suggest that specific

mRNA decay factors are required for distinct aspects of filamentation and stress responses. As

the transcriptomic consequences of *NOT5* deletion in *C. albicans* remain unknown, future work

is needed to investigate this aspect of *not5Δ/Δ* and other mRNA decay factors that produce

aberrant hyphal phenotypes.

Interestingly, *dhh1Δ/Δ* early germ tubes were less developed when measured by the length to

width ratio despite the overall larger cells (Fig. 4) and colonies on spider plates failed to invade

agar around colony margins, yet presented other aspects of hyphal morphology (Fig 5. E). In

seeming contradiction, *dhh1Δ/Δ* generated deeper biofilms (Fig 5. A-B) with a distinctly altered

structure, potentially due to the greater cell size and/or a slower cell cycle (Fig 5. C-D). These

apparently diametrical results are not uncommon in other *C. albicans* genetic backgrounds

where the same strain may have varied filamentation phenotypes under different conditions

[78]. Performing RNA-seq on *dhh1Δ/Δ* exposed to different filamentation conditions *in vitro* may

provide mechanistic evidence for our mixed hyphal phenotypes. In conclusion, the dysregulated

dhh1Δ/Δ transcriptome impacts cell, biofilm, and colony morphology but in a manner that is not

canonically filamentation impaired or hyperfilamentous.

Strikingly, we found the absence of *DHH1* induces major transcriptomic changes in both yeast

(YPD) and hyphae (RPMI) (Fig. 6). These changes suggest an "identity crisis", such that the

deletion strain expresses hyphal genes under yeast-growth conditions (Fig. 8). Yeast-form

dhh1Δ/Δ upregulates genes normally associated with hyphal virulence such as *RHR2* [79],

ECE1 [5], and *HWP1* [80] in YPD (Fig 6. A; Fig. S4-5). Additionally, upregulated genes are

enriched in cell wall and cell surface GO terms in yeast and hyphae (Fig 6. B, D). However,

dhh1Δ/Δ hyphae exhibit transcripts associated with a phenotypically hybrid cell wall. For

example, *dhh1Δ/Δ* hyphae upregulate the transcript for yeast cell wall protein *YWP1* and

downregulate adhesion transcript *ALS1* (Fig 6. C; Fig. S6). One interesting possibility is that the

absence of *DHH1* leads to environmentally inappropriate expression of vital transcription factors

regulating morphology (Fig 6. F). Upregulation of stress-associated genes in *C. albicans*

dhh1Δ/Δ YPD (cell wall and adhesion) and RPMI (cell wall, alternative carbohydrate/nitrogen

sources) are consistent with findings in *S. cerevisiae dhh1Δ/Δ* (Fig 6. B, D, Fig. 8) [47].

Comparing *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI to YPD, we find blunted transcriptome remodeling during

filamentation in contrast to WT (Fig 7. A, D). This is most likely due to upregulation of stress-

response genes in YPD and defective mRNA decay in the absence of *DHH1*.

The widespread, transcriptomic alterations in *C. albicans dhh1Δ/Δ* are likely responsible for the

large number of abnormal growth phenotypes. In YPD, upregulated transcription factors that are

positive regulators of hyphal growth include *EFH1*, *UME6*, and *RON1* [9] (Fig 6. F)*.* Additionally,

hyphal repressor *NRG1* [57,58] was downregulated, potentially de-repressing downstream

hyphal associated genes in YPD (Fig 6. F). This TF profile could directly upregulate hyphal cell

wall genes associated with the wrinkled phenotypes [9,63,69] seen on YPD plates at 30°C and

37°C (Fig 2. A-C). Interestingly, under filamentation conditions *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI upregulated

select hyphal transcription factors to a greater extent than WT (*HMS1*, *UME6*, *EFH1*, and

EFG1) (Fig 6. F). In addition, the upregulation of *NRG1* in *dhh1Δ/Δ* under filamentous growth

conditions, may attenuate hyphal growth (Fig 6. F). Conversely, the hyphal TF *UGA3* was

significantly downregulated in filamentous *dhh1Δ/Δ* (Fig 6. F). This may be a subtle contributor

to abnormal filamentous growth, since the loss of *UGA3* is not associated with a phenotype *in*

vitro, but has reduced colonization *in vivo* [81]. The mixed TF profile in *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI induces a

complex hyphal phenotype that is both hypofilamentous in some assays, while being apparently

hyperfilamentous in a biofilm context. The blunted shift of TF expression in *dhh1Δ/Δ*

filamentation may be attributable to a premature hyphal transcriptome in *dhh1Δ/Δ* yeast (Fig 7.

G). In summary, the loss of *DHH1* not only impacts the direct targets of mRNA decay, but

downstream regulation of the yeast-to-hyphae gene regulatory network inducing transcriptomic

dysregulation and aberrant phenotypes.

In many species stochastic transcriptional noise serves as a form of "bet-hedging" for acute environmental stressors [37–39]. For example, within a population of *C. albicans* individual cells express Efg1 heterogeneously, adapting colonization to host immune status [82]. Our data support a model where *C. albicans* adapts to diverse host microenvironments by transcribing multiple stress-associated genes, while simultaneously buffering expression via mRNA decay. This strategy promotes rapid responses to diverse stressors without investing energy towards environmentally inappropriate proteomic and phenotypic remodeling. However, the role of Dhh1 and other mRNA decay factors in controlling expression of transcriptionally noisy genes remains minimally investigated in *C. albicans*. There are two reported models in *S. cerevisiae* for Dhh1 dependent mRNA decay, 1) slow translation and poor codon optimality [45,46] and 2) repression of genes associated with nutrient limitation [47]. Contrary to the first model, genes upregulated in *C. albicans dhh1Δ/Δ* had higher CAI values than genes downregulated in the mutant*,* suggesting rare codons do not mark genes for Dhh1-mediated mRNA decay in *C. albicans* (Fig. S7). However, we found that *C. albicans dhh1Δ/Δ* upregulates homologs relating to cell wall and non-preferred carbon and nitrogen sources that were de-repressed in *S. cerevisiae dhh1Δ* [47], correlating with the second model. Future work is needed to elucidate the features of transcripts repressed by Dhh1 in *C. albicans* under different growth conditions. For example, 4-thioU pulse-chase experiments could identify changes in RNA stability in the *dhh1Δ/Δ* mutant to further investigate if Dhh1 promotes decay of noisy stress-response transcripts. Future work using ribosome profiling could also help identify any role for Dhh1 in translation during filamentation. Regardless of the outcomes of such studies, our work clearly defines an important role for Dhh1 in regulating filamentous growth and gene expression in *C. albicans*.

Materials and methods

Strains and media

All strains used in this study are listed in Table S5. They were maintained as 15%

glycerol stocks stored at -80°C. Before all experiments, strains were grown on YPD (2%

Bacto Peptone, 2% dextrose, 1% yeast extract) agar plates for two days at 30°C. For acute heat

shock experiments, cells were grown in complete media (CM) (0.68% yeast nitrogenous base,

0.079% CSM complete AA mixture, 2% dextrose). The growth media for planktonic

filamentation and biofilm assays was RPMI 1640 (Gibco, - phenol red) supplemented with 10%

fetal bovine serum. We evaluated filamentous colony morphology with spider plates [83] (1%

nutrient broth, 1% D-mannitol, 0.2% K_2HPO_4, 2% agar).

Strain construction

WT SC5314 and transformation plasmids pV1093 and pRS316 were generously provided by

the Mitchell lab. All C-terminal fluorescent tags (Edc3-mNG and Dhh1-mS) were generated with

the SAT1 FLP/FRT transformation cassette [84] from the plasmid pRS316 [SAT1 flipper from

pSFS2] with *C. albicans* optimized mNeonGreen and mScarlet [85]. The SAT1 FLP/FRT

transformation cassette ligated to the gene for fluorescent protein was inserted into the C-

terminal end of the chromosomal gene using lithium acetate transformation. A subsequent

incubation in maltose containing media induced SAT1 excision leaving the C-terminal

fluorescent tag fused to the protein of interest. To generate the Dhh1-mS strains we

incorporated the transient CRISPR-cas9 system for improved transformation efficiency [55].

Optimal cas9 PAM sites were selected from a database of sites [86].

DHH1 deletion (*DHH1/dhh1Δ*, *dhh1Δ/Δ*), complement (*dhh1Δ/Δ, +DHH1; dhh1Δ/Δ,*

+DHH1/DHH1), and overexpression strains (WT, *+DHH1*; WT, *+DHH1/DHH1*) were generated

in SC5314 with the SAT1 FLP/FRT and transient CRISPR-cas9 approach [55,84]. To insert a

copy of DHH1 into the SC5314 genome for complement and overexpression strains we inserted

DHH1 fused to the *TPI1* promoter at the *MDR1* site. The SC5314 homozygous *EDC3* and

NOT5 deletion strains (*edc3Δ/Δ, not5Δ/Δ*) were generated using the same SAT1 FLP/FRT and

transient CRISPR-cas9 approach.

All strains generated for this paper were validated by gDNA PCR for cassette insertion,

homo/heterozygosity, and excision of SAT1. We used *TDH3* as the control for gDNA extraction

and amplification. All strains, plasmids, and primers for strain construction and verification are

listed in Table S5.

482   **Phenotype assays**

For spot plates, strains were grown overnight at 30°C in liquid YPD, diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.5

and serially diluted 10-fold. YPD plates were spotted with 5µL of diluted cells and incubated for

1-3 days at 30°C and 37°C.

To evaluate planktonic filamentation we grew strains overnight at 30°C in liquid YPD, diluted

them to an OD_{600} of 0.2 and subcultured them to an OD_{600} of 0.6 before washing and inducing

physiologically relevant filamentation conditions (RPMI + 10% serum, 37°C). After a

filamentation period of 4 or 16 hours cells were fixed with 4% formalin, washed with PBS, and

stained with calcofluor white.

To survey biofilm growth, we grew cells overnight at 30°C in YPD and diluted them to an OD_{600}

of 0.33 in RPMI + 10% serum. Four replicates of diluted cells were added to a 96-well ibidi plate

coated with polyallylamine (PA) and incubated for 90-minutes at 37ºC for adherence. After 90

minutes, the media was replaced leaving only adherent cells. After a 24-hour incubation at

37°C, cells were fixed with 4% formalin, washed with PBS, and stained with ConA Alexa Fluor

594 conjugate prior to confocal imaging.

For the 6-day spider plate colony assay, strains were grown overnight at 30°C in liquid YPD,

harvested by centrifugation and washed with PBS. The washed cells were diluted to an OD_{600} of

0.33 in PBS and 3μL was spotted onto spider plates. Plates were incubated for 6 days at 37°C

with humidity. The same method was used for the 37°C 4-day YPD plate colony assay.

To evaluate exponential growth and cellular morphology in liquid YPD, strains were grown

overnight at 30°C in YPD. The next morning cells were diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.05 and

incubated at 30°C for 14 hours. The OD_{600} was recorded hourly and live cells were imaged at 5

hours.

Imaging

Single-cell fluorescent, DIC, and transmitted light images were captured with a Zeiss Axiovert

200 using a 100X Plan-NEOFLUAR, 25X Plan-Apochromat, and 40X Plan-Apochromat

objectives. Confocal images were captured with a 50-micron confocal slit wheel. Spot plates

were documented using a BIO-RAD ChemiDoc Touch Imaging System. Images of colonies 4

and 6-day colonies on YPD and spider media. were collected with a Wild M8 Heerbrugg Stereo

Microscope.

RNA-extraction and sequencing

All experimental strains and conditions were completed in triplicate (WT YPD, WT RPMI,

dhh1Δ/Δ YPD, *dhh1Δ/Δ* RPMI for a total of 12 samples. SC5314 WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ* strains were

grown overnight at 30°C in liquid YPD and diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.2 in liquid YPD the next

morning. Sub-cultured cells were grown in YPD at 30°C until the OD_{600} reached 0.8. Yeast cells

were collected by centrifugation and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The remaining yeast cells were

washed and grown under physiologically relevant filamentation conditions (RPMI + 10% serum

at 37°C) for 4 hours. The early filamenting hyphae were collected by 0.2μm sterile filtration and

frozen in liquid nitrogen. Cell pellets were stored at -80°C prior to RNA extraction.

Frozen cells were resuspended in cold RNA buffer (4M NaCl, 1MTris-HCl pH7.5, EDTA) and

vortexed with zirconia beads. To extract RNA from the resuspended cells we added acid phenol

and continued 10 cycles of vortexing and chilling. After centrifugation, the aqueous phase was

removed and transferred to a clean tube with an equal volume of chloroform. After a second

centrifugation the aqueous phase was removed again and added to 3X volume of ice cold 100%

ethanol. To precipitate the RNA, the tube was incubated in a -80°C for a minimum of 30

minutes. After centrifugation the RNA pellet was washed with 70% ice cold ethanol and the RNA

pellet was resuspended in ultrapure water. Genomic DNA was removed using a ThermoFisher

TURBO DNA-free kit, and we re-extracted the RNA with Trizol and chloroform. The RNA was

cleaned and concentrated using a kit from Zymo. RNA quantity was measured by nanodrop and

the RIN^e was quantified using an Aglient TapeStation. Strand-specific,150bp-paired ends were

sequenced by Novogene.

535   Transcript alignment, quantification, and quality control

Reads were aligned to the *C. albicans* release 22 using HISAT2 [87]. SAMTools [88] was used

to generate primary hits and bigWig coverage tracks for IGV [89]. Coverage tracks of select

genes are shown in Fig S3-6. We confirmed that *DHH1* transcripts were present in WT cells and

absent in *dhh1Δ/Δ* under both growth conditions (Fig S3). We quantified the number of

transcripts in each strain (WT, *dhh1Δ/Δ*) and growth condition (YPD, RPMI) with BEDTools [90].

All 12 experimental groups were combined into a single file of raw hits using a custom perl [91]

script). Using edgeR [92] we converted raw hits to unfiltered copies to million (Fig S8. A). Poorly

transcribed ORFs (<1 CPM in <3 groups) were screened out leaving only hits with ≥1 CPM in

≥3 groups (Fig S8. B). Using the built-in R function prcomp we performed a principal component

analysis to identify factors that separate samples. Our experimental replicates are clustered by

strain and growth conditions (Fig S9).

Software and data analysis

All images were processed with Fiji [93]. Length to width ratios of 4 and 16-hour filamenting

planktonic cells and biofilm depth were quantified in Fiji using the ROI manager. Primers and

transformation cassettes were designed using sequences from the *Candida* Genome Database

[94] and the *Candida albicans* Umbrella Comparative genomics project [95], NCBI bioproject ID:

PRJNA193498. Codon adaptation index (CAI) was calculated using CAIcal [96] and codon

usage table from the *Candida* Genome database [94]. Data analysis and statistical tests were

performed using GraphPad Prism version 10.0.0 for Windows [97] as well as R [98] with ggplot2

[99] and DESeq2 [100] packages. We used Affinity Designer for Windows Version 1.10.6, 2020

and BioRender.com to compose our figures.

Acknowledgements

558   We would like to thank Gemma E. May for her cloning expertise and support as well as the

559   members of the McManus laboratory for helpful discussions.

References

1.   Brown GD, Denning DW, Gow NAR, Levitz SM, Netea MG, White TC. Hidden killers:
human fungal infections. Sci Transl Med. 2012 Dec 19;4(165):165rv13.

2.   Kullberg BJ, Arendrup MC. Invasive Candidiasis. N Engl J Med. 2015 Oct 8;373(15):1445–
56.

3.   Kadosh D, Lopez-Ribot JL. Candida albicans: adapting to succeed. Cell Host Microbe.

2013 Nov 13;14(5):483–5.

4. Brown AJP, Budge S, Kaloriti D, Tillmann A, Jacobsen MD, Yin Z, et al. Stress adaptation in a pathogenic fungus. J Exp Biol. 2014 Jan 1;217(Pt 1):144–55.

5. Moyes DL, Wilson D, Richardson JP, Mogavero S, Tang SX, Wernecke J, et al. Candidalysin is a fungal peptide toxin critical for mucosal infection. Nature. 2016 Apr 7;532(7597):64–8.

6. Desai JV, Mitchell AP. Candida albicans Biofilm Development and Its Genetic Control. Microbiol Spectr [Internet]. 2015 Jun;3(3). Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.MB-0005-2014

7. Finkel JS, Mitchell AP. Genetic control of Candida albicans biofilm development. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2011 Feb;9(2):109–18.

8. Chandra Jyotsna, Kuhn Duncan M., Mukherjee Pranab K., Hoyer Lois L., McCormick Thomas, Ghannoum Mahmoud A. Biofilm Formation by the Fungal Pathogen Candida albicans: Development, Architecture, and Drug Resistance. J Bacteriol. 2001 Sep 15;183(18):5385–94.

9. Villa S, Hamideh M, Weinstock A, Qasim MN, Hazbun TR, Sellam A, et al. Transcriptional control of hyphal morphogenesis in Candida albicans. FEMS Yeast Res [Internet]. 2020 Feb 1;20(1). Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/femsyr/foaa005

10. Chen H, Zhou X, Ren B, Cheng L. The regulation of hyphae growth in Candida albicans. Virulence. 2020 Dec;11(1):337–48.

11. Martin R, Albrecht-Eckardt D, Brunke S, Hube B, Hünniger K, Kurzai O. A core filamentation response network in Candida albicans is restricted to eight genes. PLoS One. 2013 Mar 14;8(3):e58613.

12. Glazier VE. EFG1, Everyone's Favorite Gene in Candida albicans: A Comprehensive Literature Review. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2022 Mar 22;12:855229.

13. Azadmanesh J, Gowen AM, Creger PE, Schafer ND, Blankenship JR. Filamentation Involves Two Overlapping, but Distinct, Programs of Filamentation in the Pathogenic Fungus Candida albicans. G3 . 2017 Nov 6;7(11):3797–808.

14. Kadosh D. Control of Candida albicans morphology and pathogenicity by post-transcriptional mechanisms. Cell Mol Life Sci. 2016 Nov;73(22):4265–78.

15. Verma-Gaur J, Traven A. Post-transcriptional gene regulation in the biology and virulence of Candida albicans. Cell Microbiol. 2016 Jun;18(6):800–6.

16. Pizzinga M, Harvey RF, Garland GD, Mordue R, Dezi V, Ramakrishna M, et al. The cell stress response: extreme times call for post-transcriptional measures. Wiley Interdiscip Rev RNA. 2020 May;11(3):e1578.

17. Hernández-Elvira M, Sunnerhagen P. Post-transcriptional regulation during stress. FEMS Yeast Res [Internet]. 2022 Jun 30;22(1). Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/femsyr/foac025

18. Keene JD. RNA regulons: coordination of post-transcriptional events. Nat Rev Genet. 2007
Jul;8(7):533–43.

19. Halbeisen RE, Galgano A, Scherrer T, Gerber AP. Post-transcriptional gene regulation:
from genome-wide studies to principles. Cell Mol Life Sci. 2008 Mar;65(5):798–813.

20. Bloom ALM, Leipheimer J, Panepinto JC. mRNA decay: an adaptation tool for the
environmental fungal pathogen Cryptococcus neoformans. Wiley Interdiscip Rev RNA
[Internet]. 2017 Sep;8(5). Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/wrna.1424

21. Rana A, Gupta N, Thakur A. Post-transcriptional and translational control of the morphology
and virulence in human fungal pathogens. Mol Aspects Med. 2021 Oct;81:101017.

22. Balagopal V, Parker R. Polysomes, P bodies and stress granules: states and fates of
eukaryotic mRNAs. Curr Opin Cell Biol. 2009 Jun;21(3):403–8.

23. Youn JY, Dyakov BJA, Zhang J, Knight JDR, Vernon RM, Forman-Kay JD, et al. Properties
of Stress Granule and P-Body Proteomes. Mol Cell. 2019 Oct 17;76(2):286–94.

24. Mugler CF, Hondele M, Heinrich S, Sachdev R, Vallotton P, Koek AY, et al. ATPase activity
of the DEAD-box protein Dhh1 controls processing body formation. Elife [Internet]. 2016
Oct 3;5. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.18746

25. Collart MA. The Ccr4-Not complex is a key regulator of eukaryotic gene expression. Wiley
Interdiscip Rev RNA. 2016 Jul;7(4):438–54.

26. Teixeira D, Sheth U, Valencia-Sanchez MA, Brengues M, Parker R. Processing bodies
require RNA for assembly and contain nontranslating mRNAs. RNA. 2005 Apr;11(4):371–
82.

27. Protter DSW, Parker R. Principles and Properties of Stress Granules. Trends Cell Biol.
2016 Sep;26(9):668–79.

28. Dagley MJ, Gentle IE, Beilharz TH, Pettolino FA, Djordjevic JT, Lo TL, et al. Cell wall
integrity is linked to mitochondria and phospholipid homeostasis in Candida albicans
through the activity of the post-transcriptional regulator Ccr4-Pop2. Mol Microbiol. 2011
Feb;79(4):968–89.

29. Cheng S, Clancy CJ, Checkley MA, Handfield M, Hillman JD, Progulske-Fox A, et al.
Identification of Candida albicans genes induced during thrush offers insight into
pathogenesis. Mol Microbiol. 2003 Jun;48(5):1275–88.

30. Cheng S, Nguyen MH, Zhang Z, Jia H, Handfield M, Clancy CJ. Evaluation of the roles of
four Candida albicans genes in virulence by using gene disruption strains that express
URA3 from the native locus. Infect Immun. 2003 Oct;71(10):6101–3.

31. Cheng S, Clancy CJ, Checkley MA, Zhang Z, Wozniak KL, Seshan KR, et al. The role of
Candida albicans NOT5 in virulence depends upon diverse host factors in vivo. Infect
Immun. 2005 Nov;73(11):7190–7.

32. Richard ML, Nobile CJ, Bruno VM, Mitchell AP. Candida albicans biofilm-defective mutants.
Eukaryot Cell. 2005 Aug;4(8):1493–502.

33. An HS, Lee KH, Kim J. Identification of an exoribonuclease homolog, CaKEM1/CaXRN1, in
Candida albicans and its characterization in filamentous growth. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 2004
Jun 1;235(2):297–303.

34. Shively CA, Kweon HK, Norman KL, Mellacheruvu D, Xu T, Sheidy DT, et al. Large-Scale
Analysis of Kinase Signaling in Yeast Pseudohyphal Development Identifies Regulation of
Ribonucleoprotein Granules. PLoS Genet. 2015 Oct;11(10):e1005564.

35. Jung JH, Kim J. Accumulation of P-bodies in Candida albicans under different stress and
filamentous growth conditions. Fungal Genet Biol. 2011 Dec;48(12):1116–23.

36. Jung JH, Kim J. Roles of Edc3 in the oxidative stress response and CaMCA1-encoded
metacaspase expression in Candida albicans. FEBS J. 2014 Nov;281(21):4841–51.

37. Raser JM, O'Shea EK. Noise in gene expression: origins, consequences, and control.
Science. 2005 Sep 23;309(5743):2010–3.

38. Zhuravel D, Fraser D, St-Pierre S, Tepliakova L, Pang WL, Hasty J, et al. Phenotypic
impact of regulatory noise in cellular stress-response pathways. Syst Synth Biol. 2010
Jun;4(2):105–16.

39. Urban EA, Johnston RJ Jr. Buffering and Amplifying Transcriptional Noise During Cell Fate
Specification. Front Genet. 2018 Nov 29;9:591.

40. Timmers HTM, Tora L. Transcript Buffering: A Balancing Act between mRNA Synthesis and
mRNA Degradation. Mol Cell. 2018 Oct 4;72(1):10–7.

41. Palenchar PM, DeStefanis T. Transcriptional noise adjusted for expression levels reveals
genes with high transcriptional noise that are highly expressed, functionally related, and co-
regulated in yeast. Curr Genet. 2022 Dec;68(5-6):675–86.

42. Nissan T, Rajyaguru P, She M, Song H, Parker R. Decapping activators in Saccharomyces
cerevisiae act by multiple mechanisms. Mol Cell. 2010 Sep 10;39(5):773–83.

43. Rao BS, Parker R. Numerous interactions act redundantly to assemble a tunable size of P
bodies in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2017 Nov
7;114(45):E9569–78.

44. Carroll JS, Munchel SE, Weis K. The DExD/H box ATPase Dhh1 functions in translational
repression, mRNA decay, and processing body dynamics. J Cell Biol. 2011 Aug
22;194(4):527–37.

45. Sweet T, Kovalak C, Coller J. The DEAD-box protein Dhh1 promotes decapping by slowing
ribosome movement. PLoS Biol. 2012 Jun 12;10(6):e1001342.

46. Radhakrishnan A, Chen YH, Martin S, Alhusaini N, Green R, Coller J. The DEAD-Box
Protein Dhh1p Couples mRNA Decay and Translation by Monitoring Codon Optimality.
Cell. 2016 Sep 22;167(1):122–32.e9.

47. Vijjamarri AK, Gupta N, Onu C, Niu X, Zhang F, Kumar R, et al. mRNA decapping
activators Pat1 and Dhh1 regulate transcript abundance and translation to tune cellular
responses to nutrient availability. Nucleic Acids Res. 2023 Sep 22;51(17):9314–36.

48. Jungfleisch J, Nedialkova DD, Dotu I, Sloan KE, Martinez-Bosch N, Brüning L, et al. A
novel translational control mechanism involving RNA structures within coding sequences.
Genome Res. 2017 Jan;27(1):95–106.

49. Park YU, Hur H, Ka M, Kim J. Identification of translational regulation target genes during
filamentous growth in Saccharomyces cerevisiae: regulatory role of Caf20 and Dhh1.
Eukaryot Cell. 2006 Dec;5(12):2120–7.

50. Ka M, Park YU, Kim J. The DEAD-box RNA helicase, Dhh1, functions in mating by
regulating Ste12 translation in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Biochem Biophys Res Commun.
2008 Mar 14;367(3):680–6.

51. Lee E, Jung D, Kim J. Roles of Dhh1 RNA helicase in yeast filamentous growth: Analysis of
N-terminal phosphorylation residues and ATPase domains. J Microbiol. 2020
Oct;58(10):853–8.

52. Kshirsagar M, Parker R. Identification of Edc3p as an enhancer of mRNA decapping in
Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics. 2004 Feb;166(2):729–39.

53. Decker CJ, Teixeira D, Parker R. Edc3p and a glutamine/asparagine-rich domain of Lsm4p
function in processing body assembly in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J Cell Biol. 2007 Nov
5;179(3):437–49.

54. Wang CY, Chen WL, Wang SW. Pdc1 functions in the assembly of P bodies in
Schizosaccharomyces pombe. Mol Cell Biol. 2013 Mar;33(6):1244–53.

55. Huang MY, Cravener MC, Mitchell AP. Targeted Genetic Changes in Candida albicans
Using Transient CRISPR-Cas9 Expression. Curr Protoc. 2021 Jan;1(1):e19.

56. Xing W, Muhlrad D, Parker R, Rosen MK. A quantitative inventory of yeast P body proteins
reveals principles of composition and specificity. Elife [Internet]. 2020 Jun 19;9. Available
from: http://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.56525

57. Murad A, Leng P, Straffon M, Wishart J, Macaskill S, MacCallum D, et al. NRG1 represses
yeast–hypha morphogenesis and hypha-specific gene expression in Candida albicans.
EMBO J [Internet]. 2001 Sep 3;20. Available from:
http://emboj.embopress.org/cgi/doi/10.1093/emboj/20.17.4742

58. Braun BR, Kadosh D, Johnson AD. NRG1, a repressor of filamentous growth in C.albicans,
is down-regulated during filament induction. EMBO J. 2001;20(17).

59. LaFayette SL, Collins C, Zaas AK, Schell WA, Betancourt-Quiroz M, Gunatilaka AAL, et al.
PKC signaling regulates drug resistance of the fungal pathogen Candida albicans via
circuitry comprised of Mkc1, calcineurin, and Hsp90. PLoS Pathog. 2010 Aug
26;6(8):e1001069.

60. Xie JL, Qin L, Miao Z, Grys BT, Diaz JDLC, Ting K, et al. The Candida albicans
transcription factor Cas5 couples stress responses, drug resistance and cell cycle
regulation. Nat Commun. 2017 Sep 11;8(1):499.

61. Bruno VM, Wang Z, Marjani SL, Euskirchen GM, Martin J, Sherlock G, et al.
Comprehensive annotation of the transcriptome of the human fungal pathogen Candida

719  albicans using RNA-seq. Genome Res. 2010 Oct;20(10):1451–8.

720 62. Carlisle PL, Kadosh D. A genome-wide transcriptional analysis of morphology
721   determination in Candida albicans. Mol Biol Cell. 2013 Feb;24(3):246–60.

722 63. Kadosh D, Johnson AD. Induction of the Candida albicans Filamentous Growth Program by
723   Relief of Transcriptional Repression: A Genome-wide Analysis. carried out (Odds.
724   2004;1985:1988.

725 64. Wakade RS, Wellington M, Krysan DJ. Temporal dynamics of Candida albicans
726   morphogenesis and gene expression reveals distinctions between in vitro and in vivo
727   filamentation. mSphere. 2024 Mar 19;e0011024.

728 65. Nantel A, Dignard D, Bachewich C, Harcus D, Marcil A, Bouin AP, et al. Transcription
729   profiling of Candida albicans cells undergoing the yeast-to-hyphal transition. Mol Biol Cell.
730   2002 Oct;13(10):3452–65.

731 66. Nobile CJ, Fox EP, Nett JE, Sorrells TR, Mitrovich QM, Hernday AD, et al. A recently
732   evolved transcriptional network controls biofilm development in Candida albicans. Cell.
733   2012 Jan 20;148(1-2):126–38.

734 67. Enjalbert B, Nantel A, Whiteway M. Stress-induced gene expression in Candida albicans:
735   absence of a general stress response. Mol Biol Cell. 2003 Apr;14(4):1460–7.

736 68. Cleary IA, Lazzell AL, Monteagudo C, Thomas DP, Saville SP. BRG1 and NRG1 form a
737   novel feedback circuit regulating Candida albicans hypha formation and virulence. Mol
738   Microbiol. 2012 Aug;85(3):557–73.

739 69. Banerjee M, Thompson DS, Lazzell A, Carlisle PL, Pierce C, Monteagudo C, et al. UME6, a
740   novel filament-specific regulator of Candida albicans hyphal extension and virulence. Mol
741   Biol Cell. 2008 Apr;19(4):1354–65.

742 70. Dong S, Li C, Zenklusen D, Singer RH, Jacobson A, He F. YRA1 autoregulation requires
743   nuclear export and cytoplasmic Edc3p-mediated degradation of its pre-mRNA. Mol Cell.
744   2007 Feb 23;25(4):559–73.

745 71. He F, Li C, Roy B, Jacobson A. Yeast Edc3 targets RPS28B mRNA for decapping by
746   binding to a 3’ untranslated region decay-inducing regulatory element. Mol Cell Biol. 2014
747   Apr;34(8):1438–51.

748 72. Wellington M, Rustchenko E. 5-Fluoro-orotic acid induces chromosome alterations in
749   Candida albicans. Yeast. 2005 Jan 15;22(1):57–70.

750 73. Lay J, Henry LK, Clifford J, Koltin Y, Bulawa CE, Becker JM. Altered expression of
751   selectable marker URA3 in gene-disrupted Candida albicans strains complicates
752   interpretation of virulence studies. Infect Immun. 1998 Nov;66(11):5301–6.

753 74. Brand Alexandra, MacCallum Donna M., Brown Alistair J. P., Gow Neil A. R., Odds Frank
754   C. Ectopic Expression of URA3 Can Influence the Virulence Phenotypes and Proteome of
755   Candida albicans but Can Be Overcome by Targeted Reintegration of URA3 at the RPS10
756   Locus. Eukaryot Cell. 2004 Aug 1;3(4):900–9.

757 75. Vijjamarri AK, Niu X, Vandermeulen MD, Onu C, Zhang F, Qiu H, et al. Decapping factor

Dcp2 controls mRNA abundance and translation to adjust metabolism and filamentation to
nutrient availability. Elife [Internet]. 2023 Jun 2;12. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.85545

76.　Matheny T, Rao BS, Parker R. Transcriptome-Wide Comparison of Stress Granules and P-
Bodies Reveals that Translation Plays a Major Role in RNA Partitioning. Mol Cell Biol
[Internet]. 2019 Dec 15;39(24). Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/MCB.00313-19

77.　Kim EC, Kim J. Deletion analysis of LSm, FDF, and YjeF domains of Candida albicans
Edc3 in hyphal growth and oxidative-stress response. J Microbiol. 2015 Feb;53(2):111–5.

78.　Brandquist ND, Lampman C, Smith EJ, Basilio L, Almansob A, Iwen PC, et al. Significant
variation of filamentation phenotypes in clinical Candida albicans strains. Front Cell Infect
Microbiol [Internet]. 2023;13. Available from:
https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fcimb.2023.1207083

79.　Desai JV, Cheng S, Ying T, Nguyen MH, Clancy CJ, Lanni F, et al. Coordination of Candida
albicans Invasion and Infection Functions by Phosphoglycerol Phosphatase Rhr2.
Pathogens. 2015 Jul 24;4(3):573–89.

80.　Staab JF, Bradway SD, Fidel PL, Sundstrom P. Adhesive and mammalian
transglutaminase substrate properties of Candida albicans Hwp1. Science. 1999 Mar
5;283(5407):1535–8.

81.　Vandeputte P, Ischer F, Sanglard D, Coste AT. In vivo systematic analysis of Candida
albicans Zn2-Cys6 transcription factors mutants for mice organ colonization. PLoS One.
2011 Oct 31;6(10):e26962.

82.　Pierce JV, Kumamoto CA. Variation in Candida albicans EFG1 expression enables host-
dependent changes in colonizing fungal populations. MBio. 2012 Jul 24;3(4):e00117–12.

83.　Cihlar RL, Calderone RA. Candida albicans: methods and protocols. Preface. Methods Mol
Biol. 2009;499:v.

84.　Sasse C, Morschhäuser J. Gene deletion in Candida albicans wild-type strains using the
SAT1-flipping strategy. Methods Mol Biol. 2012;845:3–17.

85.　Frazer C, Hernday AD, Bennett RJ. Monitoring Phenotypic Switching in Candida albicans
and the Use of Next-Gen Fluorescence Reporters. Curr Protoc Microbiol. 2019
Jun;53(1):e76.

86.　Vyas VK, Barrasa MI, Fink GR. A Candida albicans CRISPR system permits genetic
engineering of essential genes and gene families. Sci Adv. 2015;1(3):e1500248.

87.　Kim D, Paggi JM, Park C, Bennett C, Salzberg SL. Graph-based genome alignment and
genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. Nat Biotechnol. 2019 Aug;37(8):907–15.

88.　Danecek P, Bonfield JK, Liddle J, Marshall J, Ohan V, Pollard MO, et al. Twelve years of
SAMtools and BCFtools. Gigascience [Internet]. 2021 Feb 16;10(2). Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/gigascience/giab008

89.　Robinson JT, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Winckler W, Guttman M, Lander ES, Getz G, et al.
Integrative genomics viewer. Nat Biotechnol. 2011 Jan;29(1):24–6.

90.   Quinlan AR, Hall IM. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features.
798   Bioinformatics. 2010 Mar 15;26(6):841–2.

799   91.   Wall L, Christiansen T, Orwant J. Programming perl. " O'Reilly Media, Inc."; 2000.

800   92.   Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential
801   expression analysis of digital gene expression data. Bioinformatics. 2010 Jan 1;26(1):139–
802   40.

803   93.   Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, et al. Fiji: an
804   open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nat Methods. 2012 Jun 28;9(7):676–82.

805   94.   Skrzypek MS, Binkley J, Sherlock G. Using the Candida Genome Database. Methods Mol
806   Biol. 2018;1757:31–47.

807   95.   Hirakawa MP, Martinez DA, Sakthikumar S, Anderson MZ, Berlin A, Gujja S, et al. Genetic
808   and phenotypic intra-species variation in Candida albicans. Genome Res. 2015
809   Mar;25(3):413–25.

810   96.   Puigbò P, Bravo IG, Garcia-Vallve S. CAIcal: a combined set of tools to assess codon
811   usage adaptation. Biol Direct. 2008 Sep 16;3:38.

812   97.   Swift ML. GraphPad Prism, Data Analysis, and Scientific Graphing. J Chem Inf Comput Sci.
813   1997 Mar 1;37(2):411–2.

814   98.   R Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [Internet]. Vienna,
815   Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2021. Available from: https://www.R-
816   project.org/

817   99.   Wickham H. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis [Internet]. Springer-Verlag New
818   York; 2016. Available from: https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org

819   100.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
820   RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014;15(12):550.

Supporting information

Fig S1. Absence of *EDC3* does not impair growth or hyphal morphology. WT and *edc3Δ/Δ*

were subjected to growth, filamentation, biofilm, and spider plate assays. **A.** 24-hour spot plate

assay of *C. albicans* WT and *edc3Δ/Δ*. **B.** WT and *edc3Δ/Δ* strains were subjected to a

planktonic 4-hour filamentation assay (37°C, RPMI + 10% serum). Scale bar = 20μm. **C.** Germ

tube development during planktonic filamentation was quantified by measuring the length by

width of 100 cells in at least 4 fields of view. (No significant difference between WT and *edc3Δ/Δ*

by Kruskal-Wallis test). **D.** Side-view of WT and *edc3Δ/Δ* strains after a 24-hour biofilm assay

(37°C, RPMI + 10% serum). Scale bar = 100μm. **E.** Replicate biofilm assays revealed

overlapping depth of WT and *edc3Δ/Δ* strains. Bars indicate averages and 95% confidence

intervals. **F.** Colonies from a spider plate assay (37°C) did not display a phenotypic defect in

edc3Δ/Δ. 6X and 25X magnification.

Fig S2. Absence of *NOT5* grows like WT on YPD but fails to filament on spider media. We

independently produced a *not5Δ/Δ* mutant in the SC5315 background. **A.** 30°C spot plate

assay of WT SC5314 and *not5Δ/Δ*. **B.** 37°C spot plate assay of WT SC5314 and *not5Δ/Δ*. **C.** 6-

day spider plate assay of SC5314 and *not5Δ/Δ*.

Fig S3. *DHH1* transcripts are present in WT and absent from *dhh1Δ/Δ*. Normalized IGV

tracks of *DHH1* transcripts from a representative of each experimental group.

Fig S4. Hyphal associated glycerol 3-phosphatase (*RHR2*) transcripts are present in

***dhh1Δ/Δ* and absent in WT under yeast-form growth conditions.** Normalized IGV tracks of

RHR2 in all 3 replicates of WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ* grown in YPD at 30°C.

Fig S5. Hyphal associated candidalysin (*ECE1*) transcripts are upregulated in *dhh1Δ/Δ*

compared to WT under yeast-form growth conditions. Normalized IGV tracks of *ECE1* in all

3 replicates of WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ* grown in YPD at 30°C.

Fig S6. Yeast associated yeast cell wall protein (*YWP1*) transcripts are present in

***dhh1Δ/Δ* and absent in WT under hyphae-inducing conditions.** Normalized IGV tracks of

YWP1 in all 3 replicates of WT and *dhh1Δ/Δ* strains grown in RPMI + serum at 37°C for 4 hours.

Fig S7. Upregulated genes in *C. albicans dhh1Δ/Δ* have higher CAI values than

downregulated genes. CAIs of 100 most upregulated and downregulated genes in **A.** YPD and

B. RPMI. (Mann-Whitney test. ***P = 0.0008, ****P < 0.0001).

Fig S8. Filtering out poorly transcribed ORFs in normalized RNAseq hits. ORFs with less

than one CPM hit in less than 3 experimental groups were removed prior to running DEseq2. **A.**

Violin plots show raw and **B.** filtered hits for each experimental group with ≥1 CPM in ≥3

experimental groups. We removed 483 poorly expressed ORFs.

Fig S9. Samples cluster by strain and growth conditions. PCA plot displaying the filtered

CPM from all 12 experimental groups.

Table S1. DEseq2 results comparing YPD *dhh1Δ/Δ* vs. YPD WT for Fig 6A. Exponentially

growing *dhh1Δ/Δ* and WT SC5314 yeast cells in YPD at 30°C. RNA extraction performed in

triplicate from three separate samples.

Table S2. DEseq2 results comparing RPMI *dhh1Δ/Δ* vs. RPMI WT for Fig 6C. *dhh1Δ/Δ* and

WT SC5314 grown under physiologically relevant filamentation conditions (RPMI + 10% serum

at 37°C) for 4 hours. RNA extraction performed in triplicate from three separate samples.

Table S3. DEseq2 results comparing RPMI WT vs YPD WT for Fig 7A. WT SC5314 yeast

cells in YPD at 30°C and WT SC5314 grown under physiologically relevant filamentation

conditions (RPMI + 10% serum at 37°C) for 4 hours. RNA extraction performed in triplicate from

three separate samples.

Table S4. DEseq2 results comparing RPMI *dhh1Δ/Δ* vs YPD *dhh1Δ/Δ* for Fig 7D. *dhh1Δ/Δ*

yeast cells in YPD at 30°C and *dhh1Δ/Δ* grown under physiologically relevant filamentation

conditions (RPMI + 10% serum at 37°C) for 4 hours. RNA extraction performed in triplicate from

three separate samples.

Table S5. List of strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study. This table includes

relevant information concerning our strain generation and validation.