Xenosiderophore transporter gene expression and clade-specific filamentation in *Candida auris* killifish infection

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Abstract

Candida auris is an emerging infectious agent and World Health Organisation (WHO) critical priority fungal pathogen. Rising drug resistance, massive nosocomial outbreaks and diagnostic challenges complicate clinical treatment, resulting in a patient mortality rate of ~45%. A critical bottleneck in understanding virulence is the lack of gene expression profiling models during *in vivo* host tissue infection. To understand transcriptional responses during in-host infection, we developed a thermo-relevant fish embryo yolk-sac microinjection model (*Aphanius dispar*; Arabian killifish; AK) at human body temperature, featuring clinically relevant features of host immunity. This allowed us to interrogate infection dynamics through dual host-pathogen RNA-seq at 24 and 48 h post injection (HPI) at 37 °C across the five major clades (I-V) of *C. auris*. Host gene expression following infection indicated features of heat shock, complement activation, and nutritional immunity, including haem oxygenase (*HMOX*) expression in response to clade IV infection. We identified an *in vivo* transcriptional signature across five clades of *C. auris* that was highly enriched for putative xenosiderophore transmembrane transporters. We describe this newly-discovered seventeen-member xenosiderophore transporter candidate (*XTC*) family in terms of individual gene expression patterns, and a sub-clade of five putative haem transport-related (*HTR*) genes, also up-regulated during infection. Only the basal clade V isolate formed

filaments during infection, coinciding with typical and atypical regulators of

morphogenesis, including *UME6*, *HGC1*, and the novel adhesin *SCF1*. Clades I and IV

demonstrated increased virulence, coinciding with up-regulation of three *HTR* genes in

clade IV, and the mating-type locus (*MTL*) non-mating gene *PIKA* in both. Our study

provides critical insights into the pathogenesis of *C. auris*, including species-wide up-

regulation of *XTC* and *HTR* genes during clinically relevant *in vivo* host tissue infection.

Keywords: *Candida auris*, virulence, gene expression, transcriptome, pathogenicity,

Arabian killifish, *Aphanius dispar*, siderophore transport, mating-type locus,

filamentation

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50 Introduction

C. auris is an ascomycetous yeast in the *Metschnikowiaceae* family that has

rapidly transitioned from recent emergence to global public health threat[1] and World

Health Organisation (WHO) critical priority human fungal pathogen[2]. Despite the oldest

known historical isolate dating from 1996[3], the first formal species identification

occurred in 2008[4]. Within ten years, *C. auris* had caused nosocomial outbreaks around

the world, with high rates of azole antifungal drug resistance and a rising incidence of

pan-drug resistance[5]. These factors required extreme measures including Intensive

Care Unit (ICU) shutdowns and massive infection control costs[6–8]. Worryingly, *C. auris*

is now a leading cause of invasive candidiasis in several hospital settings globally[9,10].

Distinct clades of *C. auris*, including a sixth clade identified and described in

publications only in 2024[11,12], indicate the simultaneous emergence of multiple lineages

that are highly adapted for human infection[13,14]. The clinical impact, phenotypic traits

and simultaneous emergence of multiple clades of *C. auris* underscore the urgency to

understand its mechanisms of pathogenicity.

The factors governing in-host fitness and virulence during infection are poorly

understood. *C. auris* bloodstream infection is associated with a crude mortality of

~45%[15]. Virulence factors in other distantly related *Candida* species, such as

C. albicans, include hypha-mediated invasion[16], the invasin Als3[17], and the secreted

toxin, candidalysin[18]. In contrast, *C. auris* has been shown to reproduce as budding

yeasts in mammalian tissues[19,20]. Although *C. auris* possesses multiple adhesins

associated with an aggregation phenotype[21,22], there has been no evidence of toxin

synthesis[23,24]. *C. auris* evades host immune responses through cell surface masking[25],

secreted aspartyl protease digestion of host tissue[26], and intra-phagocytic survival with

cell lysis[27]. Clades I, III, and IV are more commonly associated with invasive disease

and nosocomial outbreaks, while clades II and V have been primarily reported in cases

of otomycosis and rarely in bloodstream infection[28]. Human mortality associated with

C. auris candidaemia is potentially higher with clades I and IV than clade III, but this

difference has not been shown to be statistically significant[29]. Clade and strain-specific

genotypic and phenotypic variation may underlie differences in clinical presentation and

pathogenesis.

Gene expression profiling *in vivo vs in vitro* conditions has become a standard

approach for assessing host and pathogen responses to infection. To date, no

experiment has described the gene expression of *C. auris* or its host during *in vivo*

infection of living tissue. Studies assessing the transcriptome in an *in vivo* catheter

model[30], human whole blood *ex vivo*[31], co-incubation with human dermal fibroblasts[32] or

murine cell line-derived macrophages[33] have been useful, but the bottleneck for

pathogen gene expression is for profiling infection of *in vivo* living tissue. Additionally,

host responses have been assessed in murine peripheral skin[34], human peripheral

blood-derived monocytes[35] and murine bone marrow-derived macrophages[36]. However,

these studies have not reported adequate pathogen RNA recovery to interrogate

pathogen DNA expression in-host, except for the dual RNA-seq study using the *ex vivo*

whole blood model, for which it was possible to compare gene expression profiles

between *C. auris* and other *Candida* species.

The dearth of studies profiling host-pathogen gene expression *in vivo* for *C. auris*

infection may relate to the lack of a model which allows adequate RNA recovery,

balanced with a reasonable degree of clinical relevance. Most murine models, such as

BALB/c[19,37–39] and C57BL/6 mice[36], have only very rarely demonstrated lethality through

C. auris infection[35,40,41] without major immunosuppression with

cyclophosphamide/cortisone[42–53], monoclonal antibody neutrophil depletion[20,54], or other

immunodeficiency[21,55,56]. Additionally, mouse models are also expensive and associated

with concerns over environmental pathogen shedding[57]. Alternative host models such

as *Galleria mellonella*[37,47,58–64], *Drosophila melanogaster*[65] and

Caenorhabditis elegans[63] have been employed, but these may lack key elements of

mammalian-relevant immune systems, thus limiting their scope of application. In

patients, immune control of *C. auris* is thought to depend on myeloid cell activity *via* C-

type lectin receptors such as complement receptor 3 and mannose receptor MMR,

followed by interleukin (IL)-17 pathway activation[66,67]. Therefore, an animal model that

aligns with these mechanisms is required for human-relevant profiling of host-pathogen

interactions.

Fish larvae must survive hostile and varied ocean environments, demonstrating

very early innate immune responses such as antimicrobial peptide production and the

complement cascade[68,69]. Only in adulthood are teleost fish expected to possess

functional IL-17 subtypes (A and F) that lead to T-helper-17 subset differentiation and

adaptive immunity in response to fungal infection[70]. The zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) model

has allowed hindbrain[25,71] and swim bladder[72] microinjection modelling of *C. auris*

infection, but rarely at temperatures above 30 °C, which zebrafish are broadly intolerant

of. Again, we are unaware of any in-host transcription studies using the zebrafish

model. Fungal transcriptional programmes can vary greatly across temperatures and

are critical for mammalian pathogenesis[73–75]. A thermotolerant teleost fish embryo

model such as the *Aphanius dispar*, also known as the Arabian killifish (AK), which can

acclimatise to temperatures up to and including 40 °C[76–79] offers a balance between

considerations of suitability for experimental manipulation and applicability to human

fungal infection at mammalian temperatures.

Additionally, though the environmental origins of *C. auris* have not been

conclusively demonstrated, a marine origin has been hypothesised and supported by

successful isolation of *C. auris* in coastal waters of both Indian and Pacific oceans[80,81].

Notably, a close relative of *C. auris* in the *Metschnikowiaceae* clade, *C. haemulonii*, was

first isolated in 1961 from the gut of blue-striped grunt (genera name "*Haemulon*" for

their blood-red mouth interior)[82]. Therefore, a marine model could shed light on a

possible evolutionarily adaptive niche relevant not only to human infection but also to

hypothetical origins in an emerging pathogen. Additionally, fish embryo models align

with the principles of replacement, refinement and reduction of animals in laboratory

research and offer a opportunity to develop novel clinically relevant models with ethical

benefits over models such as adult mice[83].

In this paper, we present the first study exploring in-host virulence of *C. auris*

clades I-V in the AK yolk-sac microinjection model at 37 °C. We supplemented our

validation of the model with histology, fungal burden recovery, and dual host-pathogen

RNA-seq. By comparing *in vivo* and *in vitro* expression profiles of *C. auris*, we detected

a cross-clade expression signature that was significantly enriched for siderophore

transporter *SIT1* paralogues, which mediate uptake of siderophores produced by other

microbes (xenosiderophores). We designated this expanded gene family as

xenosiderophore transporter candidates (*XTC*), which included a haem transport-related

(*HTR*) sub-clade. We also identified *in vivo* filamentation by clade V during infection,

which was associated with orthologues of key hypha-associated genes from

C. albicans. Together, these findings substantially enhance our knowledge of the

processes employed by *C. auris* during infection.

Results

***C. auris* clades I-V are virulent in the AK microinjection model and clade V**

uniquely exhibits in-host filamentation

Microinjection of the AK yolk-sac with each of the five *C. auris* clades was lethal

at 37 °C (91.7-100% 7-day mortality for each clade) compared to sham injection (5.6%

mortality). Kaplan-Meier survival curves demonstrated a significantly earlier lethality for

clade I (*vs* II, III or V, $p < 0.001$) and clade IV (*vs* II or III, $p < 0.04$) (**Fig. 1A**; **Table S1**).

Growth of the clade II strain in YPD-broth at 37 °C was noticeably slower over 24 h

compared with other clades (**Fig. S1A**). However, colony-forming units (CFU) recovered

post-infection from AK embryos were commensurate with similar in-host growth (**Fig.**

1B), with no differences identified between clades immediately post injection ($\bar{x} = 673$

CFUs per infected embryo), 24 h post injection (HPI) ($\bar{x} = 1.12 \times 10^5$) or 48 HPI ($\bar{x} = 1.78$

$\times 10^5$), except for a lower CFU in clade V compared to clade III at 48 HPI ($\bar{x}$ 4.48 $\times 10^5$ *vs*

1.56 $\times 10^4$, *p* < 0.01). These results indicate that AK embryo yolk-sac microinjection is a

suitable model for the study of lethal *C. auris* infection at mammalian temperature.

Histological sectioning of the AK yolk-sac at 48 HPI revealed budding yeast

morphologies, except for the clade V strain, which demonstrated predominantly

filamentous forms (**Fig. 1C**). Lower CFUs in clade V could therefore be explained by

increased aggregation of filamentous cells. When grown in YPD-broth before

microinjection, all isolates exhibited yeast morphologies; clade V colonies recovered

from AK yolk-sac infection and grown on YPD-agar demonstrated rough (as opposed to

smooth) colonies in approximately 1-2% of plated colonies (**Fig. S1B**), which consisted

of elongated yeast cells and filamentous structures (> 10-50 μm) reminiscent of

pseudohyphae (**Fig. S1C**). Death was defined by cessation of heartbeat, which was

followed by yolk-sac collapse visible by timelapse microscopy (**Fig. 1D**). These findings

informed the study design for comparing *C. auris* gene expression between individual

clades during *in vivo* and *in vitro* growth to detect drivers of phenotypic and

morphological variation relevant to in-host virulence (**Fig. 1E**).

C. auris **triggered host iron-nutritional immunity, heat shock response, and**

complement activation

To determine whether microinjection interefered with host transcriptional

responses, we identified differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between sham injection

and no injection, defined as genes with significant ± >2 log-fold change in expression

after multiple testing. Though principle components analysis did not separate gene

expression profiles (**Fig. S1D**), correlation clustering separated sham injection and

negative controls without injection (**Fig. S1E**). However, there were only 30 DEGs for

sham injection compared to no injection (0.11% detected genes; **Fig. 2A**), with up-

regulation of zero and seven genes (at 24 and 48 HPI, respectively) and down-

regulation of four and nineteen genes (24 and 48 HPI, respectively). Four GO terms

were significantly enriched in the set of genes up-regulated at 48 HPI (relating to

sarcomere generation, organisation, M-band and muscle) with no enriched KEGG

pathways or PFAM domains, according to a falsed discovery rate (FDR) cut-off of

0.001. These GP terms were driven exclusively by three orthologues of murine *TITIN*

(log-fold change $\bar{x}$ = 7.59, gene ratio 0.16), a ~ 3-4 MDa cardiac muscle protein with a

putative role in haemodynamic stress tolerance and volume overload mechano-sensing

(**Fig. 2B**). Other up-regulated genes included vascular adhesion molecules and

hypothetical immunomodulator, dipeptidase 1 (*DPEP1*, **Table S2**). High survival of AK

embryos receiving sham injection and minor changes in gene expression (consistent

with physiological responses to exogenous fluid bolus) supported continued analysis of

host responses to infection.

To characterise host responses to *C. auris* during infection, we identified host

DEGs between infection by each clade and sham injection. Principle components

analysis (**Fig. S1D**) and correlation clustering (**Fig S1F**) did not cluster gene expression

profiles separately at either time-point (24 and 48 HPI). We identified 685 DEGs during

infection with any clade (2.49% potential genes), of which 183 were up-regulated and

508 were down-regulated in response to at least one clade. There were no DEGs

shared in common across host responses to all five clades, and only a small set of four

up-regulated genes and one down-regulated gene shared across host responses to four

clades of infection (**Table S2**). Up-regulated genes included Laminin subunit alpha-1

(*LAMA1*, not significant in response to clade III) and three genes that were not

significant in response to clade II, Glucose-6-phosphatase (*G6PC*), DN117939

(hypothetical protein) and Tryptophan aminotransferase protein 1 (*TAR1*);

immunoglobulin-like fibronectin type III domain-containing protein 1 (*IGFN1*) was down-

regulated. These results suggest AK larvae have a subtle and non-uniform response to

each clade of *C. auris* microinjection at these time-points, also reflecting levels of

virulence and stages of infection.

We identified clade-specific AK responses to infection. At 24 HPI, clade II elicited

the greatest host response, with up-regulation of 41 genes and down-regulation of 210

genes (**Fig. 2A**). However, at 48 HPI, clade IV elicited the greatest response (49 up-

regulated, 104 down-regulated). Heat shock proteins (*HSP30* and *HSP70*, but not

HSP90), complement cascade elements, pattern recognition receptors (PRRs),

inflammatory transcription regulators, and modulators of nutritional immunity were

differentially expressed with higher log-fold changes in clades I and IV, especially at

48 HPI (**Fig. 2C**). The most prominent gene relevant to pathogen recognition was

CARD14 in clade I and IV infection at 48 HPI (**Fig. 2D and 2E**). We found *NLRP3*

(inflammasome) expression during clade III infection at 24 HPI only. There was no

significant differential expression of several fungal immune response orthologues, such

as *IL-17*, for infection with any clade. Together, these findings suggest that heat shock

proteins, nutritional immunity, and the complement effector system are important

elements of the AK larval response to *C. auris* microinjection at 37 °C.

In order to highlight the roles of gene families in the host repsonse, we annotated

the AK transcriptome and identified enriched GO terms, KEGG pathways and PFAM

domains. Most significantly enriched gene features were identified from responses to

infection with the more virulent clades (I and IV) at 48 HPI (**Fig. S2**). The highest mean

log-fold changes for any enriched gene features were for clade IV infection, with haem

catabolism, haem binding, and haem oxygenase (*HMOX*) related GO terms, KEGG

pathway and PFAM domains. Two host orthologues of *HMOX* drove most of these

enrichments, such as haem oxidation (log-fold change $\bar{x}$ = 3.96, FDR < 0.0003, **Fig.**

2E). In terms of other genes involved in iron-nutritional immunity, the AK also up-

regulated Ferroxidase Hephaestin (*HPHL1*) in response to clade IV infection, but not

Hepcidin (*HEPC1*). The response to clade I infection included 15 enriched GO terms,

driven by up-regulation of two orthologues of Laminin subunit-α (*LAMA1*, *LAMA2*, **Fig.**

2D). No GO terms, KEGG pathways, or PFAM domains were enriched across

responses to all five clades. Only one GO term was enriched across responses to four

clades, which related to sarcomeric Z-disc in down-regulated genes at 48 HPI (II-V),

driven by genes involved in connective and muscular tissue, including *IGFN1* and

Calpain-3 (*CAN3*). The response to clade IV infection, in particular, indicates activation

of iron metabolism and sequestration, potentially comprising an iron-nutritional immunity

response to infection.

C. auris xenosiderophore transporter expression was enriched across all five clades during in-host infection

To identify infection-specific *C. auris* gene expression, we compared the in-host transcriptome to expression induced by growth in a standard rich laboratory media (YPD). Principle components and sample correlation clustering from gene expression data indicated a predominant separate clustering of *in vivo vs in vitro* conditions, indicating that the gene expression profile of *C. auris* during infection is substantially different to that when it is grown in nutrient-rich laboratory media (**Fig. S1G and S1H**). Using the clade I reference genome to align transcripts, we identified 960 DEGs between *in vivo* AK infection at 24 HPI or 48 HPI *versus in vitro* culture in YPD over 24 h (499 up-regulated, 523 down-regulated, 17.7% of potential genes, **Fig. 3A**). We identified few DEGs between the two time-points 24 HPI to 48 HPI, with zero DEGs for clade IV and V (**Fig. 3B**). Numbers of up-regulated DEGs unique to any single set were highest for individual clades, particularly in the filamentous clade V at 24 HPI and in the more virulent clades I and IV at 48 HPI (**Fig. 3C-D**). Additionally, we aligned transcripts to clade-specific reference genomes and performed functional annotation and enrichment to identify key biological processes employed across all five clades. Six GO terms, KEGG terms or PFAM domains were enriched across in-host all five clades at 48 HPI, related to major facilitator superfamily carbohydrate and siderophore-iron transmembrane transport (**Fig. S4**). This highlighted the expected importance of up-regulation of genes involved in sugar uptake *in vivo vs in vitro*, but also raised the unexpected possibility that up-regulation of members of the *C. auris* expanded gene family of siderophore transporters could be a general feature of in-host infection.

To describe a core signature of *in vivo* gene expression across the species, we identified the set of 31 DEGs that were significant for all five clades of *C. auris* when transcripts were aligned to the clade I reference (**Fig. 3E, Table S3**). Thirteen DEGs common to all clades of in-host transcription were transmembrane transporters, including up-regulation of transporters for xenosiderophores (*SIT1_3921*, *SIT1_1487*),

sugar (*HGT2*, *HGT12*), ammonia (*ATO2*), and nicotinic acid (*TNA1*), and down-

regulated drug-resistance-related efflux pumps (*MDR2* and *DTR1*) and peptide

transporters (*TPO3*, *PTR22*). Several putative virulence factors such as lipase *LIP1* and

cell wall-related *KRE6* and *SOD6* were also down-regulated across all five clades. We

demonstrated prominent DEGs (such as down-regulated *ALS4* and *MDR1*) that were

significant for at least one clade by mean log-fold change expression volcano plots (**Fig.**

3F). We also noted that several members of the *SIT1* family were differentially

expressed by at least one clade, but were not significant across all five clades, including

five genes that were significantly up-regulated across four clades (*SIT1_1542*,

SIT1_1457, *SIT1_1458*, *SIT1_2110*, and *SIT1_4097*) and five that were up-regulated in

one (*SIT1_0002* and *SIT1_2465*), two (*SIT1_3908* and *SIT1_2465*) or three clades

(*SIT1_2241*). Two more family members were down-regulated across three clades

(*SIT1_1519* and *SIT1_1499*). To nuance these findings further, we noted that two up-

regulated genes were also down-regulated in one (*SIT1_3908*) or two clades

(*SIT1_2465*). The many up-regulated members of the *SIT1* expanded gene family

highlighted the potential importance of the wider family for in-host survival.

To examine orthologues across reference genomes for each clade (**Fig. S3**), we

identified 5,324 orthogroups across clades I-V with outliers *C. haemulonii* and

C. albicans containing 95.4% of all genes (*n* = 38,345 genes, **Fig. S3A-B**). The use of

clade-specific reference genomes identified higher numbers of DEGs (692 *vs* 499 up-

regulated and 714 *vs* 523 down-regulated genes) including genes within the accessory

genome (55 *vs* 40 up-regulated and 57 *vs* 45 down-regulated, **Fig. S3C**), which we

defined as orthogroups of genes not found in every clade. The core genome across all

three species and five clades of *C. auris* included 3619 single copy orthologues

($\bar{x}$ = 66.9% *C. auris* genome per clade) and a further 869 single copy orthologues in

C. auris ($\bar{x}$ = 82.9% *C. auris* genome per clade), of which 133 were unique to *C. auris*.

The remaining core genome included 486-585 multiple copy orthologues shared across

all species and 110-121 in *C. auris*, of which 17-19 were present in each clade

($\bar{x}$ = 643.2 genes per clade), bringing the total estimated core genome size to

5131.2/5413.2 genes per clade ($\bar{x}$ = 94.8%). A single copy orthologue tree confirmed
the basal status of clade V, and synteny plotting was consistent with limited
transversions/inversions within *C. auris* outwith clade II **Fig. S3A**. These findings are
consistent with a highly conserved core yeast genome across *Candida* species,
especially within the *Metschinikowiaceae* clade, which appears to contain a degree of
preserved genome structure.
329
We observed high correlation between log-fold change values obtained from
clade-specific and core (B8441) reference genomes (Pearson's >= 0.95, *p* <0.001 per
comparison). Among DEGs that had no orthologues in the clade I reference genome
(**Fig. S3D**), the highest number of clade-unique genes that were differentially expressed
was identified in clade IV; other DEGs included genes involved in cell wall, intracellular
transport, metabolism, transcription/translation and transmembrane transport (**Table**
S3). In terms of siderophore transporters, we additionally identified a clade IV unique
gene associated with a siderophore transport GO term that was differentially expressed
at both time-points of infection (CJJ09_005327). Overall, the *in vivo* expression profile
across five *C. auris* clades indicated a potential role for the expanded gene family of
siderophore transporters during *C. auris* in-host survival and pathogenicity, which was
up-regulated compared to growth in nutrient-rich laboratory media.
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343 **More virulent *C. auris* clades I and IV up-regulated the non-mating *MTL* gene,**
344 ***PIKA*, and down-regulated *MDR1***
345
Given significant differences in virulence between clades, we examined gene
expression differences between clades I and IV (more virulent) and II and III (less
virulent), excluding clade V due to its major morphological differences. Using the clade I
reference genome, we identified 623 up-regulated and 779 down-regulated DEGs
expressed in clades I and IV, of which 14 were up-regulated and 22 were down-
regulated across all comparisons. In order to explore potential drivers of virulence, we
excluded DEGs that were significant only for *in vitro* comparisons and examined the

remaining set of 10 DEGs shared across all *in vivo* comparisons (I *vs* II, I *vs* III, IV *vs* II,

IV *vs* III, **Fig. 4A**, **Table S3**). Strikingly, three of these genes were non-mating genes

located at the mating-type locus (*MTL*), including poly-A polymerase *PAP1*, oxysterol

binding protein *OBPA* and phosphatidylinositol 4-kinase *PIKA* (**Fig. 4B**). Within the set

of 10 DEGs shared across all comparisons, several genes outside the *MTL* were up-

regulated, including vacuolar protein sorting gene, *VPS70*, and filamentous growth

regulator, *FGR14*. Additionally, the drug efflux pump, *MDR1*, was down-regulated

across all comparisons, supporting the idea of a fitness trade-off between resistance

and virulence.

Notably, clades I and IV contain the **a**-type *MTL*, whereas clades II, IV and V

contain the **α**-type *MTL*. That both *MTL* contain the non-mating genes is a conserved

feature across *Candida* species, in which the *MTL**a*** and *MTL**α*** genes occupy alternative

positions. Comparing transcript levels across *MTL* genes in all five clades, we observed

poorer detection of *MTL**α*** transcripts when aligned to the clade I reference genome, as

expected (**Fig. S5A**). Direct transcript-level testing, with correction for multiple testing to

minimise false positives, indicated that only up-regulation of *PIKA* and *PGA30* (48 HPI)

and down-regulation of *THI4* (24 HPI) and *MDR1* (at both time-points) were significantly

different across the set of 10 DEGs shared across all comparisons (**Fig. S5B**).

We used the clade I reference genome to annotate functional domains and

discover enriched gene families, revealing enrichment of up-regulated hypha-regulated

cell wall GPI-anchored proteins in more virulent clades (**Fig. S4**), driven by three pairs

of orthologues of *IFF4*, *HYR3* and *RBR3* (**Table S3**). Four secretory lipase *LIP1*

paralogues drove an enrichment of the related PFAM domain for clade I *vs* III at 24 HPI.

When comparing clade I and IV infection to clade II and 48 HPI, we also observed up-

regulated nutrient transporters including a 7 transmembrane domain putative ferric

reductase/iron importer, *CFL4*, as well as ferric reductase, *FRE3*, and siderophore

transporter orthologues *SIT1_1948*, *SIT1_2241* and *SIT1_4097*. Cell wall components,

non-mating *MTL* locus genes such as *PIKA*, and genes involved in iron and siderophore

transport are therefore potential modulators of strain-specific differences in virulence.

Typical and atypical hypha formation programmes in basal clade V during AK

yolk-sac infection

To explore drivers of filamentation by the clade V strain, we identified 1,046

DEGs between clade V and each of the other clades (I-IV), comprising 601 up-regulated

and 526 down-regulated genes across all comparisons when using the claded I

reference genome. We then identified a set of 57 genes shared across all comparisons

for *in vivo* conditions only, since we did observe filamentation in nutrient-rich YPD. 22

genes were up-regulated at 24 HPI, 7 at 48 HPI, and 18 at both time-points (**Fig. 4C**).

The majority of up-regulated genes were metabolic ($n = 13$), including two cytochrome

P450 *ERG5* orthologues, though *ERG11* was down-regulated. Transmembrane

transporters for sugar (including two *HGT13* orthologues), amino acids and

siderophores (*SIT1_1487*) were also up-regulated ($n = 10$). Cell wall genes up-regulated

in filamentous clade V ($n = 8$) included the novel adhesin *SCF1*, GPI-anchored genes

PGA31 and *IFF4*, and orthologues of classical *C. albicans* hyphal adhesins *ALS3* and

RBR3. We identified differentially expressed transcription factors and related regulators,

such as *HAP41* and the pheromone receptor *STE2*, which could play a governing role

on these responses. Given the minor differences in numbers of DEGs identified when

using clade-specific reference genomes, we also compared the transcript levels for

each gene in this set with annotations to identify a highly strict shortlist of inter-clade

difference. Using this method, the only significant differences were for up-regulation of

MED7 and *SPS19* (at 24 HPI) and two *HGT13* orthologues and *RNH70* (at both time-

points, **Fig. S6**).

We also examined significant DEGs between clade V and at least one other

clade using mean-log fold change (**Fig. 4D**). Several genes that play critical roles in

C. albicans hypha formation were highly up-regulated, such as transcription factor

UME6 and hypha-specific G1 cyclin-dependent protein serine/threonine kinase *HGC1*.

Enrichment analysis indicated up-regulated gene sets involving CFEM domain,

cytochrome P450/oxidoreductase activity, hypha-regulated cell wall GPI-anchored

proteins and siderophore transport, particularly at 24 HPI and comparing clade V to

clade II (**Fig. 4D**). Significantly up-regulated iron-related transport genes in clade V

included *FRE3*, *CFL4*, *FRP1*, *SIT1_1519*, *SIT1_1487*, *SIT1_4097*, *SIT1_1542*, and

SIT1_1499. These findings are consistent with the preservation of a major filamentation

programme in *C. auris*, demonstrated in the basal clade V, with unique characteristics

such as expression of *SCF1* and the up-regulation of several members of the expanded

family of siderophore transmembrane transporters.

Xenosiderophore transporters are a *Metschnikowiaceae*-specific expanded gene

family with varied expression patterns in *C. auris* infection

Given the prominence of *SIT1* orthologues across the transcriptomic analyses of

C. auris during *in vivo* gene expression, we set out to characterise the expanded gene

family across orthogroups, including outgroup species *C. haemulonii* and *C. albicans*.

Fig. 5A shows the predicted structure of *Sit1_1542* (AlphaFold 3). Blastp searches

identified proteins with sequence similarity across seven orthologue clusters, of which

two main groupings of transporters with 14 transmembrane domains (TMRs) emerged

(**Fig. 5B**). A larger branch was annotated with GO term, KEGG pathway and PFAM

domains relating to siderophore import (including 12 genes in clade I), and a smaller

branch was annotated with GO terms relating to haem transmembrane import (including

5 genes in clade I). The majority of orthologues retained 14 TMRs, and few had

evidence of additional annotations except for the trichothecene mycotoxin efflux pump

PFAM domain across multiple groupings. The orthologue *SIT1_1547* contained 12

TMRs and was up-regulated with *SIT1_1548* containing 2 TMRs, which was not

identified as a *SIT1* orthologue in our pipeline but has previously been described as

such[31,84].

Co-expression analysis, using simple unweighted Pearson's correlation approach

with a cut-off of 0.85, demonstrated eight clusters featuring *SIT1* orthologues, one of

which included five that were co-expressed (**Fig. 5C**). To understand how our *in vivo*

expression of *C. auris* compared to other experimental conditions previously reported,

we measured gene expression across publicly available RNA-seq datasets, identifying

35 datasets for which we were able to ascertain gene expression using our pipeline, but

none of which included an in-host setting (**Table S4**). Gene expression patterns within

the set of single copy orthologues clustered within both principal components analysis

of experimental unit variance (**Fig. S3E**) and hierarchical clustering of $\log_{10}$ variance per

gene (**Fig. 3F**). We used this data to examine unweighted Pearson's correlation co-

expression as above for *SIT1* orthologues among single copy orthologue genes,

identifying two clusters only, featuring *SIT1_2110* and *SIT1_1519* (**Fig. 5D**). Given the

difference in co-expression patterns between the responses identified in the AK marine

host across this study, and a broader meta-analysis of available RNA-seq data, these

results highlight a potentially unique influence of a marine larval host environment on

transcription programmes and the need to explore in-host time series data with robust

weighted co-expression networks in the future.

To explore the evolutionary history of *SIT1*-related genes in fungi, we performed

Blastp searches for orthologues of *C. albicans SIT1* using an e-value cut-off of $1e^{-20}$

across 226 fungal species' reference genomes totalling 304 genomes. Separately, 28

Oomycota genomes were found to contain zero orthologues. We identified 1,689 hits,

which clustered into two branches: a smaller branch (*n* = 397) annotated for siderophore

transport including the 12 *C. auris* groupings which we have designated

"xenosiderophore transporter candidates" (*XTC*), and a larger branch (*n* = 1,292)

featuring genes predicted (by GO term) to encode haem transporters, including the 5

C. auris groupings, which we have additionally designated "haem transport-related"

(*HTR*, **Fig. 6A**). There were no putative haem transporters or members of the larger

branch for *C. albicans*, which only contained the single *SIT1* gene. We calculated the

mean number of orthogroups per genome per species (**Fig. 6B**). This showed the most

prominent expansion of the *XTC* branch in the *Metschnikowiaceae* clade, including

C. auris (12 orthologues) and even more so in *C. haemulonii*, with 15 orthologues. No

other fungal species or group of species contained so many. *XTC* orthologues were not

present in any members of the basal blasocladiomycota, chytridiomycota and

mucoromycota, or in several ascomycota (e.g. *Pichia kudriavzevii*,

Schizosaccharomyces pombe and *Pyricularia oryzae*) and basidiomycota (e.g. *Ustilago*

maydis). Common human fungal pathogens such as *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *C. albicans*

and *Nakaseomyces glabratus* contained only one *XTC* orthologue (**Fig. 6B**). The *HTR*

clade, by contrast, was more prominent across fungal phyla, with as many as nine in

Mucor species, 16 in *A. flavus* and 22 in *F. solani*. We therefore propose a naming of

these two expanded gene families as *XTC1-12* and *HTR1-5* in *C. auris*.

We note the absence of *XTC5* in clade V, *XTC10* in clade IV, and in addition to

these, *XTC4*, *XTC9* and *XTC11* in clade II (**Fig. 6C**). Interestingly, clade II, which

exhibits the greatest degree of *XTC* gene loss, is also considered to be the least virulent

strain. It is also noteworthy that the AK embryo expressed *HMOX* genes during clade IV

infection, while clade IV *C. auris* up-regulated *HTR1*, *HTR2* and *HTR5*. This suggests a

specific host-pathogen interaction axis in nutritional immunity related to haem

scavenging. No other clades of infection were associated with such iron-related

functional enrichment in the host, and no other clades expressed more than one *HTR*

gene (except *HTR1* and *HTR5* in clade III at 48 HPI). Clade II down-regulated *HTR1* in-

host. In summary, *XTC1*, *XTC2*, *XTC3*, *XTC4*, *XTC6*, *XTC7*, *XTC11* and *XTC12* were

up-regulated while *XTC8*, *XTC9* and *XTC12* were down-regulated *in vivo* in at least one

clade, while up-regulation of *XTC3* and *XTC7* was significant across all clades.

Additionally, the more virulent clades were associated with up-regulation of *XTC4*,

XTC5, and *XTC8*. The filamentous clade V up-regulated *XTC7* across comparisons with

all other clades, and up-regulated *XTC1*, *XTC4*, *XTC8* and *XTC9* compared to at least

one other clade.

Discussion

We have described a model for comparative functional genomics of *C. auris* in-host survival using AK yolk-sac microinjections at a clinically relevant temperature in living tissue of a host featuring mammalian-relevant innate immunity. All five clades demonstrated lethality, with a increase in virulence during clades I and IV infection, consistent with clinical and laboratory findings[29]. In-host growth was similar across all clades and high enough to indicate a large enough *in vivo* fungal burden for robust bulk transcriptome interrogation across the species. The contained nature of the yolk-sac provides a host tissue growth medium that enables the assessment of pathogen survival and virulence strategies *in vivo* and a straightforward experimental unit of host tissue without the challenges of pathogen RNA isolation such as locating foci of infection in larger animals. Additional time-points at could be an informative future area of study to develop fine-resolution strain-specific transcription networks. Furthermore, the potential of a transclucent and genetically tractable fish embryo model could enable future visualisation of cellular dynamics and genetic pathway manipulation[77]. Thus, an AK yolk-sac microinjection model has the potential to fill a substantial need for *in vivo* gene expression studies in general.

We investigated the host transcriptional response to *C. auris* infection, which featured an innate immune response, as expected. The most highly up-regulated gene family included two heme oxygenase (*HMOX*) genes. *HMOX* genes have been shown to mask iron from invading pathogens as a feature of anti-*Candida* nutritional immunity[85], so presumably have a similar function against *C. auris*. This was particularly notable given *HMOX* genes were up-regulated in response to clade IV infection, and the clade IV isolate had a corresponding significant up-regulation of 3 haem transport-related *HTR* genes. In addition to nutritional immunity genes, we found up-regulated heat shock and complement cascade genes during infection, confirming the expected immune response to fungal infection[66,67]. Genes with complex roles in immunity were

up-regulated, such as *NLRP3*, for which *C. auris* may be less activating than e.g. *C.*

albicans[27,86]. It is notable that the yolk-sac model was not associated with histological or

transcriptional evidence of host neutrophil recruitment and activation, which may relate

to the hypothesis that *C. auris* is immunoevasive[34]. Reference genome bias resulting

from the available adult gill transcriptome assembly[87] may limit detection of host gene

expression features, so future long and short read assembly from gene expression data

across a range of larval stages could further understanding of AK immunity.

We provided a thorough investigation of differential expression by *C. auris* during

infection of host tissue compared with *in vitro* conditions for the first time. The lack of a

major distinction across time-points (24 *vs* 48 HPI) indicates that the transcriptional

activity of *C. auris* in-host was highly similar at these stages. Six functional annotation

terms (GO, KEGG pathway and PFAM domain) were significantly enriched among

genes that were up-regulated across all five clades, including sugar and siderophore

transporters. The enrichment of sugar transporters outside of nutrient-rich YPD-broth is

unsurprising, such as High-affinity Glucose Transporter *HGT12*, with evidence of

redundancy in *C. albicans*[88–91], and *HGT2*, part of an eight-gene "core filamentation

response network" in *C. albicans*[92]. More surprising was the down-regulation of putative

virulence factors such as Secreted Aspartyl Protease 3 (*SAP3*), thought to be the most

important SAP in *C. auris*, and required for virulence in a mouse model[26], and Copper

Superoxide Dismutase *SOD6*, which has been shown to be down-regulated in iron

starvation[93]. Multi-drug efflux pumps such as *MDR2* (down-regulated *in vivo*) and *MDR1*

(down-regulated *in vivo* and in clades I and IV *vs* clades II and III) are understood to

drive drug resistance through multiple but unclear mechanisms in *C. auris*[94,95]; in-host

down-regulation may indicate a fitness trade-off for virulence *vs* drug resistance.

The mating type locus (*MTL*) genes have been hypothesised to contribute to

virulence in fungal species including *Cryptococcus neoformans*[96]. Given that *C. auris* is

assumed not to undergo meiotic recombination[97], there is a question of what role *MTL*-

associated genes play in pathogenicity and morphology. Two of the three non-mating

genes (*PAP1* and *PIKA*) in the *MTL* were up-regulated by more virulent strains (I and

IV) compared to the less virulent strains (II and III). Importantly, the two more virulent

clades (I and IV) contain *MTL**a*** rather than *MTL**α*** (clades II & III)[23], and clades V and VI

contain *MTL**a*** and *MTL**α*** respectively[12]. Thus, it is unclear if the up-regulation of non-

mating genes is a *MTL* specific transcriptional nuance, or a feature of more highly

virulent *C. auris* clades. The *MTL* also did not feature prominently in the filamentation

response observed in clade V, providing no evidence for an obvious role for the *MTL* in

such morphological changes.

Filamentation is an important pathogenicity trait in fungi, especially *Candida*

species, although its roles have been more poorly described in aquatic infections[98]. We

observed *in vivo* filamentation by a representative strain of *C. auris* clade V, the

basal/ancestral clade[99], accompanied by a genera-typical filamentous gene expression

signature. Specifically, we measured the up-regulation of *HGC1* and *UME6*, which are

two of the most important regulators of filamentation in *C. albicans*, and have recently

been described as drivers of *C. auris* filamentation and biofilm formation[100]. The

expression of adhesin *SCF1* in filamenting clade V is noteworthy because its cationic

adhesion mechanism has been postulated to be consistent with adhesion mechanisms

common to marine organisms including bivalves[21]. The generalist marine-isolated

pathogen *C. haemulonii* has also displayed filamentation competence at lower

temperatures[101], consistent with an ancestral aquatic state.

Human histopathology reports of *C. auris* infection are rarely published and have

not demonstrated classical in-host filamentation, to our knowledge. An *ex vivo* human

epithelial model using a clade I isolate did demonstrate filamentous *C. auris* at 37 °C

after injection into deeper dermis[102]. Clade III *C. auris* has also been observed to form

filamentous/hyphal forms in *Galleria mellonella* injection[61]. Fan and colleagues have

observed filamentous forms of *C. auris* across all four clades, even demonstrating a

higher virulence in the *G. mellonella* model[103], though the phenotype required passage

through a murine host with additional prolonged growth at 25 °C for at least 5 days

before and after injection[19]. Other stimuli have induced filamentation in clade I isolates,

such as hydroxyurea genotoxic stress[104] and Hsp90 inhibition[105], where several up-

regulated genes in *C. auris* filamentation (*SCF1*, *IFF4* and *PGA31*) matched those in

our study. Constitutive filamentous growth has also been demonstrated with a

transposon-mediated disruption of a long non-coding RNA[106], which sit adjacent to

chitin deacetylase *CDA2*, which was down-regulated at 24 HPI in this experiment during

filamentation. These findings indicate that hyphal formation is possible across *C. auris*

clades.

A total of twelve siderophore transporters were up-regulated during infection, and

four were down-regulated, with three family members up-regulated in more virulent

clades and five in the filamentous clade V. The fact that siderophore transporter up-

regulation has also been detected during *ex vivo* whole blood infection by *C. auris*

underscores the likelihood that our findings are clinically relevant[31]. Interestingly, this

family of predicted xenosiderophore transporter genes is significantly expanded in

several members of the *Metschnikowiaceae* clade compared to other

Saccharomycetae[23], raising questions as to the roles of siderophore transporters in

C. auris biology and evolution[107]. Siderophore synthesis may be unlikely in *C. auris*,

given the lack of evidence in other *Candida* species[108]. As a result, *C. albicans* Sit1,

which is required for virulence[109], is thought to be a xenosiderophore transporter for

iron-chelators produced by other microbes and specific to the ferrioxamine type

common in iron-poor ocean environments[110,111]. Siderophore transporters can also act

intracellularly for compartments such as the mitochondrion[112,113], or act as efflux pumps

for various molecules[114] including trichothecene mycotoxins as identified by our

functional annotations.

C. auris encodes a large expanded gene family of 17 siderophore transporters

that we named xenosiderophore transporter candidates (*XTC*) 1-12 and haem

transport-related (*HTR*) genes 1-5, the latter sharing sequence similarity with *S. pombe*

low-affinity haem transporter Str3[115]. In other *Candida* species such as *C. albicans*, iron

620 assimilation is understood to be central for in-host survival[116,117], where deprivation

621 triggers various pathogenic programmes such as alterations in cell surface beta-

622 glucan[118]. Haem is acquired by *C. albicans* through vesicular endocytosis and CFEM-

623 domain containing proteins[119,120] and does not contain *HTR* genes, suggesting a

624 possible loss of transmembrane haem transporters. The ubiquity of *HTR* across the

625 fungal kingdom and lack of *XTC* genes in the three basal fungal phyla suggest that

626 *SIT1/HTC* could have arisen from a duplication of an *HTR*-related gene in the Dikarya

627 (the ascomycota and basidiomycota) with subsequent independent loss of both *XTC*

628 and *HTC* genes in multiple fungal lineages. Our identification of up-regulated *XTC*

629 transport during infection corroborates the findings of up-regulated *XTC2A-B*

630 (*B9J08_1547-8*) in an *ex vivo* blood model of *C. auris* infection[31]. These findings

631 together suggest the importance of iron during infection, which could be targeted in the

632 clinic, e.g. via low-toxicity pyrvinium pamoate[121].

634   We show for the first time an *in vivo* infection host tissue transcriptional profile for

635 the critical priority WHO human fungal pathogen *C. auris*. Representative strains from

636 all five major clades of the recent simultaneous emergences highlighted strain-specific

637 differences in morphology, virulence and gene expression. This study highlights the

638 advantages and potential of a clinically relevant thermotolerant yolk-sac injection model,

639 adding to the debate around the putative marine origins of *C. auris*, and the emergence

640 of distinct clades. We demonstrate natural filamentation by clade V and virulence

641 difference for clades I and IV, and comprehensively describe associated gene

642 expression. We indicate the importance of the *XTC* and *HTR* gene clusters as

643 recommended targets for investigation of fungal biology, pathogenicity and treatment.

644 Our findings shed new light on the emergence and evolution of *C. auris* from a probable

645 marine yeast ancestor. We therefore reveal mechanisms that enable *C. auris* to survive

646 in host tissue and provide a step forward in understanding the pathobiology of an

647 emerging fungal pathogen and global public health threat.

Methods

Ethical Statement: All animal experiments were performed under Project Licence PP4402521 in compliance with University of Exeter Animal Welfare Ethical Review Board regulations and MRC Center for Medical Mycology Project Review Board, and are reported in line with "Animal Research: Reporting *in vivo* Experiments" (ARRIVE 2.0) Guidelines[122].

***Aphanius dispar* Care, Monitoring, Husbandry and Procedures:** Wild-type adult AK were kept at the Aquatic Resources Facility, Exeter, in two 28 °C incubation tanks, with 12-hour day and night light cycles and artificial enrichment foliage. Embryos were collected using three plastic netted collection chambers per tank with transfer of all enrichment into tanks, and placed overnight from 16:00 to 09:15 in dark conditions. Chambers were then drained, cleaned and strained with 35 parts per thousand artificial seawater (ASW) to isolate all embryos. Subsequent ASW was sterile suction filtered *via* 0.2 µm pore Nalgene Rapid-Flow (Thermo Scientific, UK). Embryos were inspected for viability in terms of an intact blastocyst without discolouration by stereo dissection microscope (Optech, UK) and incubated at 30 °C (Memmert, Germany) for 72 h with day and night cycles with daily ASW changes and removal of dead, unhealthy or underdeveloped embryos, with a maximum of 30 embryos per standard size 100 mm x 15 mm petri dish (Greiner Bio-One, Austria). Excluded embryos were killed or disposed of either by submission in Virkon solution (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) or freezing at -80 °C.

Experimental Procedures: Injection needles were prepared using borosilicate glass capillaries (Harvard apparatus, USA) and a heated pulling system (heater level > 62, PC-10, Narishige, UK). We used tweezers to snap the tip to an estimated 1 mm graticule-measured aperture of 10-20 µm, and sterilised needles before use with 253.7 nm UV light over 15 minutes (Environmental Validation Solutions, UK). Injection bays were made with microwaved 1% agarose in 1 g (Sigma, USA) per 100 mL ASW

for up to 24 embryos in 100 mm petri dishes using custom-made molds in an inverted

60 mm petri dish. Embryos were randomly chosen from each dish and the sequence of

injection for each biological repeat was randomly allocated by computer. For

microinjection, *C. auris* yeasts were counted by haemocytometer and added to 25 µL

sterile filtered phenol red solution 0.5% (Sigma, UK) to a concentration of 0.5×10^8 per

mL in 100 µL. Injection needles were loaded with 5 µL injection solution using 20 µL

Microloader EpT.I.P.S. (Eppendorf, UK) immediately before injection of up to 30

embryos before re-loading. Injections were performed with 400-500 hPa injection

pressure and 7-40 hPa compensation pressure over 100-200 ms with the FemtoJet 4i

(Eppendorf UK) using a micromanipulator (World Precision Instruments, UK) and a

Microtec HM-3 stereo dissection microscope (Optech, UK). In order to deliver a dose of

approx. 500 yeasts in 10 nL solution, an injection bolus was administered to an

estimated diameter of 0.2 – 0.3 mm (10-15% of total embryo diameter) *via* a single

chorion puncture. Any embryos that failed to meet these criteria for injection were

excluded. Control *in vitro* inoculations were microinjected as above into 1 mL YPD in

1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes before incubation without shaking at 37 °C for 24 h

contemporaneously with embryos as below.

Study Design and Sample Sizes: We used an unblinded prospective virulence

study comparing six groups of AK embryo yolk-sac microinjection, including five

different clades of *C. auris*, and one control sham injection as the negative control. We

used >= 23 embryos per condition based on our power calculation of σ = 0.25,

significance = 0.05, power = 0.9, and δ effect size of 25% mortality (two-sided t-test).

After excluding embryos that were unhealthy or did not complete successful

microinjection, we included *n* = 10-13 embryos per group per experiment (total *n* = 34-

37 embryos per group). Each embryo was considered to be an experimental unit

(*n* = 70-72 embryos per experiment, total *n* = 213 embryos). For estimation of *C. auris*

in-host growth by homogenisation and plating of colony forming units, three embryos

per condition per time-point across two (0 and 24 HPI) or three (48 HPI) experiments

were used (total *n* = 126). For time lapse microscopy demonstration of *A. dispar* yolk-

sac collapse and death, representative image sets were chosen from a pilot experiment

using a reduced dosage (1/10) of *C. auris* (*n* = 4). For histological demonstration of

C. auris morphology, one embryo per condition at 24 HPI and 48 HPI each were used in

one experiment, and seven embryos per condition plus three embryos without injection

in a second experiment (*n* = 57). RNA was extracted from three embryos per condition

per time-point (0, 24 and 48 HPI, *n* = 54) plus three embryos per time-point without any

injection (*n* = 9, total *n* = 63) as a control for the impact of microinjection.

C. auris Strains and Growth: We selected five *C. auris* strains to represent

each major clade (**Table S1**). Culture stocks were kept in -80 °C in Yeast extract

Peptone Dextrose (YPD) broth (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) containing 25% glycerol

(ThermoFisher, UK) and plated onto YPD-agar (Sigma-Aldrich) for 48 h before

innoculation and overnight growth in 10 mL YPD broth at 30 °C in a shaking incubator at

200 rpm (Multitron, Infors HT, UK). Five mL from each overnight culture was then

centrifuged at 5000 g for 2 minutes before triple washing in 1 mL autoclaved deionised

water (DIW, Milli-Q, Merck, USA) to prevent aggregation[22], then re-suspended again in

200 µL DIW. Decontamination of surfaces was conducted with both mopping and

cleaning wipes in 70% Ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich) or 10% Chemgene HLD_4L (Medimark

Scientific, UK) as per manufacturer's instructions. For growth curves, *C. auris* strains

were grown overnight in YPD in 4 replicates. Overnight cultures were inoculated into

YPD to a final OD 600 of 0.02 in a 96-well plate. OD was read over 25 hourly cycles at

37 °C with 300 s shaking at 2.5 mm amplitude on an Infinite 200 PRO plate reader

(Tecan, Switzerland).

Outcome measurement: individual embryos were kept in 1 mL sterile filtered

ASW per embryo in a 48 well flat bottom plate (Corning, USA) sealed with Parafilm "M"

(Bemis Company, USA) at 37 °C with passive humidification using a 500 mL open glass

beaker of water. Embryos were monitored for presence of heart rate at 24-hourly

intervals up to 7 days by stereo dissection microscope. Initial time of injection was

subtracted from each time-point to minimise bias between groups. Kaplan-Meier

survival curves were plotted with Log-Rank testing and Benjamini-Hochberg (BH)

correction[123] using survival v.3.5.8 and survminer v.0.4.9 packages in R v.4.4.0. Colony

forming units (CFUs) were calculated by homogenisation of embryos at 0, 24, and

48 HPI by autoclaved plastic micropestle in a 1.5 mL conical tube (Eppendorf, UK) in

100 µL 10,000 U/mL penicillin/streptomycin (P/S) solution (Gibco, UK). Dilutions were

made with P/S solution and DIW in 1/10-10,000 and counts were adjusted according to

dilution after plating onto YPD agar plates and read after 72 h incubation at 30 °C.

Statistical testing between CFU numbers was performed with Wilcoxon testing and BH

correction.

Imaging: For direct microscopy, AK were kept in 300 µL ASW containing 0.04%

Tricaine anaesthesia (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) in an optical adhesive and parafilm-sealed

96-well plate. These were then monitored for heart beat by 5 bright field 2X or 4X

images at pre-focused z slices taken every 2 h by Acquifer microscopy (Bruker,

Germany) over 72 h. All images were processed in ImageJ 1.53a (NIH, USA).

Sectioning and staining was performed by Microtechnical Services, Exeter, UK, with

fixation of embryos in 1 mL 10% neutral-buffered formalin (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) for >

24 h, followed by immersion in 4% phenol 10 mL glycerine BP made up to 100 mL with

distilled water[124], sectioned at 4 µm without orientation, and stained with Harris

Haematoxylin & 1% Alcoholic Eosin on Leica Autostainer. H&E stained histological

sections were imaged on an Olympus IX83 microscope coupled with an Olympus DP23

colour camera using an Olympus UPlanXApo x40/0.95 objective controlled by cellSens

software v.3.2. Brightfield microscopy was performed with an EVOS M5000 microscope

(ThermoFisher, UK). Microscopy of YPD-agar grown colonies was performed without

staining in DIW.

RNA Extraction and Sequencing: Total RNA was extracted using the

Monarch® Total RNA Miniprep Kit (NEB, USA). Embryos were flash frozen in liquid

nitrogen, re-suspended in DNA/RNA Protection Reagent and disrupted with an

autoclaved plastic micropestle. Bead beating was performed in a FastPrep 24

homogeniser (MP Biomedicals) with 0.5 mm zirconia/silica beads for 8 cycles of 35 s at

6 m/s plus 45 s on ice. Lysate was recovered and incubated for 5 min. at 55 °C with

proteinase K before addition of lysis buffer and RNA purification following

manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA samples were quantified using the Qubit 4.0

Fluorometer (Invitrogen, USA) and integrity was checked with the Tapestation 4200

(Agilent, USA). Library preparation and sequencing were performed by the Exeter

Sequencing Service. Samples were normalised and prepared using the NEBNext Ultra

II Directional RNA Library Prep - Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module following the

standard protocol. Libraries were sequenced on a Novaseq 6000 sequencer with 150bp

paired-end reads. Reads were trimmed with fastp[125] v.0.23.1 to remove reads < 75

bases and trim based from the 3' end with q-score < 22. Quality control was performed

with FastQC (https://github.com/s-andrews/FastQC) v.0.11.9 and MultiQC[126] v.1.6.

Differential Gene Expression: We aligned sequences ($\bar{x}$ = 52.9 m reads per

replicate, range 41.1-112.2 m) using the Trinity pipeline[127] v.2.15.1 to the *C. auris* clade

I B8441 reference genome (GCA_002759435.2)[23] downloaded from GenBank (mean

aligned reads in infected embryos 3.83 m, 0.81-13.1%). We further aligned clade-

specific reference genomes for each strain (**Table S1**), including clade II

(GCA_003013715.2)[4], III (GCA_002775015.1)[13], IV (GCA_008275145.1)[13] and V

(GCA_016809505.1)[99,128,129]. We aligned conditions containing *A. dispar* to the *de novo*

GJEY01 adult gill transcriptome assembly[87] downloaded from GenBank, for which we

detected expression over 27,481 potential genes. Alignment was performed with

Bowtie2[130] v.2.5.1, transcript estimation with RNA Seq by Expectation Maximisation

(RSEM)[131] v.1.3.3, differential expression with EdgeR[132] v.3.40.0, Samtools[133] v.1.17

and limma[134] v.3.54.0 using a false discovery rate (FDR) p-value cut-off of 0.001 and a

log fold change cut-off of +/-2.0. Principal components were calculated and plotted

using the prcomp function in Rv4.4.0 and ggfortify v.0.4.17 R package for fragments per

kilobase per million, and correlations plots from counts per million as per the default

output of the Trinity pipeline. Log fold change was plotted with ComplexHeatmap[135].

Annotation and Enrichment: Gene ontology terms[136,137] were assigned using

DIAMOND[138] v.2.1.8 *via* the DIAMOND2GO pipeline[139] for each of the *C. auris*

reference genomes. KEGG terms[140] were assigned using the BlastKOALA online

platform using the eukaryote database[141]. Protein FAMily (PFAM) domains[142] were

identified using the PFAM-A.hmm database

(https://ftp.ebi.ac.uk/pub/databases/Pfam/current_release/Pfam-A.full.gz) and HMMER

and HMM Scan[143] with a cut-off of $1e^{-5}$. Further domain-specific identification was

performed with SignalP 5.0[144], DeepTMHMM 1.0[145] and NetGPI 1.1[146]. Enrichment

analysis for DEG subsets was calculated using the Fisher's Exact test, adjusted using

the Benjamini-Hochberg method per set of up-regulated or down-regulated features in

each comparison as a conservative estimate of significant gene set enrichment, with a

false discovery rate cutoff of p=0.001. Annotation tables were checked with additional

information from available literature, supplemented by details and web-scraped

orthologue names from *Candida* Genome Database[84] and Blastp searches[147].

Annotations for the GJEY01 genome were also performed using Diamond2GO,

BlastKoala and HMMScan as above and checked against *A. dispar* annotations and

gene names obtained directly from the GJEY01 transcriptome makers[87]. For plotting,

lists of GO terms were identified (and for *A. dispar* enrichment, reduced by removal of

redundant terms) by REVIGO[148].

Orthologue Assignment: To identify accessory genes across *C. auris* clades,

we used the Synima pipeline[149] with Orthofinder v2.5.5[150] with additional reference

genomes for *C. albicans* (SC5314_GCA_000182965.3) and *C. haemulonii*

(B11899_ASM1933202v1). We also incorporated a very recent version of the *C. auris*

B8441 assembly (v3) to arrange contigs and illustrate re-arrangements, with broad

syntenic concordance; it contains 5 more genes than v2, for which 27 (0.5%) and 16

(0.3%) genes were unique to each genome, respectively. Multiple alignment of single

copy orthologues as defined by Orthofinder was performed with Muscle v5.1[151] and a

phylogeny was made with FastTree v2.1.11[152] using default settings.

RNA-Seq Meta-Analysis Variance: NCBI SRA was searched for

"*Candida auris*" on 16th April 2024 and downloaded as metadata *via* the "Send to: Run

Selector" function. Each project accession number for runs containing RNA was

searched against available published literature to identify publications, noting subject of

study, clades/strains, growth media, comparative conditions, temperature and time

scales used. Calculation of FPKM was performed and analysed as above using the set

of single copy orthologues to demonstrate variance via PCA with ggfortify and prcomp

packages in R and to calculate an unweighted co-expression Pearson's correlation (cut-

off of 0.85) for *SIT1* genes with and without the additional data from the RNA-Seq meta-

analysis.

SIT1 **Analysis:** The protein transcript for *C. albicans SIT1* was Blastp searched

against the draft pangenome database as above. We visualised the structure using

Alphafold v3[153] and ChimeraX v1.8[154]. Clade I-V *C. auris* and *C. haemulonii SIT1* genes

were aligned using Muscle as above before using RAXML-NG v1.2.2 with 1000

bootstraps and the LG4X model[155], which was visualised using ggtree v3.12.0 and

gheatmap. For panfungal *SIT1* analysis, we used the fungidb portal for Blastp using the

C. albicans SIT1 against all available fungal data (with no hits within oomyceta),

including 274 reference genomes representing 197 species and a cut-off of $1e^{-20}$.

Annotations for each protein transcript were performed as above to obtain GO terms,

KEGG pathways, PFAM domains, GPI-anchors, SignalP domains, and transmembrane

domains, while a phylogeny for *SIT1* similar sequences across all fungal references was

constructed as above following multiple alignment with Clustal Omega v1.2.4[156]

Data Availability: Raw reads have been deposited via NCBI/GEO *via* accession

GSE277854. All datasets and code required to make figures are available via Github

(https://github.com/hughgifford/Arabian_Killifish_C_auris_2024).

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End Matter

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1247   **Acknowledgements**

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1276 HG: designed and conducted experiments, performed analysis, drafted and

1277 wrote the paper. NH, JG, QM, TB: optimised, designed or performed experiments. RF,

1278 TK, TB, MR, JR, DW, AB: designed experiments, obtained funding. All authors edited

1279 the manuscript.

1280

1281 **Competing Interests**

1282

1283 JR has received honoraria from Gilead for conference presentations. Other

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1296   **Figures**

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Figure 1. Modelling *C. auris* infection in the Arabian killifish (A) Survival curves for
embryos injected with each *C. auris* clade or sham injection. Significance testing
between groups is given in **Table S1**; hours post injection (HPI). **(B)** Colony forming
units (CFUs) per clade from embryos homogenised after injection as an indicator of
injection dose and *in vivo* growth. **(C)** H&E Staining of AK yolk-sac at 48 HPI for each
clade or sham injection; morphology is indicated by blue arrows, with insets indicating

typical yeast (clade III) and filamentous morphology (clade V). The yolk-sac edge is

oriented at the top. **(D)** Illustrative time-lapse microscopy of embryo death including

yolk-sac collapse during infection (clade I infection) or survival (sham injection) using

Acquifer live imaging. **(E)** Experimental scheme for differential gene expression analysis

of RNA extracted from AK embryos injected at 3 days post fertilisation (DPF).

Figure 2. AK host responses to *C. auris* infection: (A) Number of differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) for each of two comparisons, sham injection *vs* no injection

(left panel), and *C. auris* injection *vs* sham injection (right panel), at either 24 or 48 h

post injection (HPI). **(B)** Volcano plot showing log-fold change and significance

according to -log^{10} false discovery rate (FDR) for sham injection *vs* no injection. **(C)**

Heatmap demonstrating log-fold change for differential expression between *C. auris*

injection and sham injection for groups of genes. **(D-E)** Volcano plots showing log-fold

change and significance for DEGs expressed during infection with the two more virulent

clades of *C. auris* at 48 HPI, clade I (**D**, DEGs in red) and clade IV (**E**, DEGs in green).

1322

Figure 3: *C. auris* gene expression *in vivo vs in vitro* (A) Total DEGs per clade for

each comparison between 24 h post injection (HPI), 48 HPI, and growth in YPD alone.

(B-D) Upset plots for each comparison, indicating DEGs that were significant across all

five clades (far left) and for each individual clade (far right) and each set in between. **(E)**

Combined set of significant DEGs common to all five clades between *in vivo* infection

and *in vivo* growth in YPD. Genes are coloured by manually annotated category (**Table**

 S4). **(F)** Volcano plots demonstrate mean log-fold change for DEGs identified for any

1330　clade. Genes with infinite false discovery rate (FDR) are indicated with an arrow. Genes

1331　included in the combined set are coloured by category as per panel **E**.

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Figure 4: Interclade comparisons for virulence and filamentation: (A): The set of

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) shared across all comparisons between clade I

and IV (more virulent) and clade II and III (less virulent), coloured by manually

annotated category, at either 24 or 48 h post infection (HPI). **(B)** Volcano plots

demonstrate mean log-fold change for each DEG found in any comparison; genes

included in the combined set are coloured as per **A**. **(C)** The set of DEGs shared across

all comparisons between filamenting clade V all other clades (I-IV) *in vivo*, coloured by

manually annotated category. **(D):** Volcano plots demonstrating mean log-fold change

for all comparisons between clade V and clades I-IV at 24 HPI and 48 HPI for each

DEG found in any comparison; genes included in the combined set are coloured as per

C.

1344

Figure 5. Xenosiderophore Transporter Analysis: (A) AlphaFold 3 predicted protein
folding for peptide sequences for a xenosiderophore transporter candidate, illustrating
the conserved 14-transmembrane domain similarity across the families. **(B)** RAXML
phylogeny using 1000 bootstraps and LG4X model of Muscle-aligned protein

sequences for orthologues of *C. albicans* Siderophore Transport 1 *SIT1* gene. Scale bar

indicates number of substitutions per site. Orthofinder cluster assignment notes which

grouping each gene was assigned to by our Synima/Orthofinder pipeline. **(C)** Pearson's

correlation co-expression of associated gene expression involving siderophore transport

candidate genes. **(D)** Pearson's correlation co-expression across available RNA-seq

data from meta-analysis of 35 studies (**Table S4**), demonstrating a different set of

transcriptional co-expression indicated by external experimental data.

Figure 6. Panfungal Xenosiderophore Phylogeny: (A) Phylogeny of Blastp hits for

C. albicans SIT1 across fungal genomes available in FungiDB. Sequences were aligned

with Clustal Omega and FastTree, scale bar shows substitutions per site. Two main

branches emerged, a xenosiderophore transporter candidate branch (*XTC*) and a haem

transport-related branch (*HTR*), based mainly on the GO terms assigned (outer ring).

(B) Bar chart depicting per-species mean Blastp hits for siderophore transporters. **(C)**

Heatmap of all DEGs across comparisons in this paper for each *XTC* and *HTR* gene,

assigned in order of contig in the B8441 v3 reference genome. White spaces represent

clades where each orthologue was not found in Orthofinder (*XTC4*, *XTC9* and *XTC11* in

clade II, *XTC5* in II and V, *XTC10* in II and IV, **Fig. 5B**).

Supplementary Figures

1368

Supplementary Figure 1: Profiles of *C. auris* growth, morphotype, morphology, and

gene expression. **(A)** Growth curves for five representative strains of *C. auris* over 24 h

in vitro. **(B)** Rough colonies demonstrated on YPD-agar after recovery from AK infection

in clade V only (blue arrows). **(C)** Filamentous forms (yellow arrows) isolated from rough

colonies and imaged on light microscopy in distilled de-ionised water. **(D)** Principle

components analysis (PCA) of fragments per kilobase per million (FPKM) gene

expression for AK host transcription. **(E)** Correlation matrix for individual replicates' $\log_2$-

transformed transcript counts per million for AK responses to sham injection and no

injection **(F)** Correlation matrix as above for AK responses to *C. auris* infection and

sham injection. **(G)** PCA of FPKM gene expression for *C. auris* pathogen transcription.

(H) Correlation matrix as above for *C. auris* gene expression *in vivo* and *in vivo* across

five clades.

Supplementary Figure 2: *A. dispar* gene ontology, pathway and domain

enrichment during infection *vs* sham control: The GJEY01 *A. dispar* transcripts

were annotated for Gene Ontology (GO) terms using DIAMOND2GO, Kyoto

Encycopaedia of Genes and Genome pathways using BLASTKoala, and PFAM

domains using HMMScan. For each set of up-regulated or down-regulated genes in

each comparison between an injected *C. auris* clade and sham injection, Fisher's exact

test was used with Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction for multiple testing for each set,

with a false discovery rate (FDR) cut-off of 0.001. Mean log-fold change and ratio of

genes in that set was calculated for genes in each set possessing each feature.

Redundant GO terms were removed using Revigo.

Supplementary Figure 3. Contextualising differential gene expression across

orthogroups and broder RNA-seq datasets. (A) Single copy orthologue phylogeny

and Synima/Orthofinder synteny plot of reference genomes for *C. albicans,*

C. haemulonii and the five clades of *C. auris* used in this study. Despite many

orthologues, there is little synteny with *C. albicans*; prominent translocations and

inversions are seen between *C. haemulonii* and *C. auris*, and for clade II. **(B)** Counts

are shown for orthologues contained within and between species, whether single copy

or multiple copy, with additional counts for accessory genomes. Clade V is the only

C. auris clade with a single orthogroup, containing six genes, while clade IV has the

highest number of apparently unique genes that were not assigned to any orthogroup.

(C) Differential gene expression for *in vivo vs in vitro* comparisons, comparing numbers

of DEGs identified when using a single core reference genome (B8441, clade I) or a

clade-specific reference genome for each individual clade. **(D)** Differential expression of

specific genes not present in core reference genome. **(E)** RNA-seq meta-analysis. 36

public datasets were identified for *C. auris* transcriptome expression and assessed for

variance by PCA dimensionality reduction of normalised expression of single copy

orthologues, indicating AK dataset clusters similarly to experiments using an *ex vivo*

blood model and other experiments. **(F)** Hierarchical clustering of per-gene variance,

calculated for all B8441 core genes for each study, demonstrating similar clustering and

profile of within-experiment variance per gene.

Supplementary Figure 4. *C. auris* **Gene Set, Pathway and Domain Enrichment:**

Transcripts from *C. auris* reference genomes for each clade were annotated for Gene

Ontology (GO) terms using DIAMOND2GO, Kyoto Encycopaedia of Genes and

Genome pathways using BLASTKoala, PFAM domains using HMMScan,

transemembrane domains with DeepTMHMM, GPI-anchored domains with NetGPI,

SignalP domains with SignalP5, and membership within the accessory genome using

Synima/Orthofinder. For each set of up-regulated or down-regulated genes in each

comparison, Fisher's exact test was used with Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction for

multiple testing for each set, with a false discovery rate (FDR) cut-off of 0.001. Mean

log-fold change and ratio of genes in that set was calculated for genes in each set

possessing each feature.

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Supplementary Figure 5. *C. auris* **Mating-Type Locus Gene Expression: (A)**
Transcripts (fragments per kilobase per million, FPKM) for orthogroups aligned to the
same reference genome (left-hand panels) and clade-specific reference genomes (right-
hand panels), indicating similar transcript levels between clades for e.g. *PIKA*, *OBPA*
and *PAP1* non-mating genes when aligned to clade-specific reference genomes. **(B)**
Comparing individual transcript levels for each orthogroup in more *vs* less virulent
clades *via* Wilcoxon signed-rank test with Bonferroni correction to minimise false
positives, demonstrating that only down-regulation of *THI4* (at 24 HPI), *MRD1* (at both
time-points), and up-regulation of *PGA30* and *PIKA* were significantly different.

Significance levels are as follows: * $p <= 0.05$, ** $<= 0.01$, *** $<= 0.001$, **** $<= 0.0001$,

***** $<= 0.00001$.

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Supplementary Figure 6: (A-B) Comparing individual transcript levels for each
orthogroup in filamentous clade V *vs* all other clades *via* Wilcoxon signed-rank test with
Bonferroni correction to minimise false positives, demonstrating at 24 HPI **(A)** and
48 HPI **(B)**, excluding any genes that were assigned to be "hypothetical proteins" only,
up-regulation of two *HGT13* orthologues and *RNH70* were significantly different at both
time-points, with up-regulation of *MED7* and *SPS19* at 24 HPI. Significance levels are
as follows: * $p <= 0.05$, ** $<= 0.01$, *** $<= 0.001$, **** $<= 0.0001$, ***** $<= 0.00001$.

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1447 ## Supplementary Tables

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Supplementary Table 1. Clade-Representative *Candida auris* Strains Used In This
Study: Representative strain for each major clade of *C. auris* used in the study, with
notes on human disease source, country of discovery, and date of isolation. Mortality
statistics are given in terms of absolute numbers of embryos over biological triplicate
experiments. Additional significance testing is also noted for pairwise comparisons by
Log-Rank test with Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction.

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Supplementary Table 2: Differentially Expressed Genes in *A. dispar*
Microinjection: All differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for *A. dispar* for (upper rows)
sham injection *vs* no injection and (lower rows) *C. auris* injection *vs* sham injection.
Gene IDs and descriptions follow annotations by Bonzi *et al.*[87]; log-fold change and -
$\log_{10}$(false discovery rate) are calculated across all clades as a mean value for *C. auris*
injection. Significant DEGs for each set of embryos injected with each clade are given
(1 = significant, 0 = not significant), and the total number of clades where DEGs where
significant is also given.

1464

Supplementary Table 3. Differentially Expressed Genes in *C. auris* Infection: (A)
Combined set of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) expressed by five clades during
infection Each set of DEGs expressed *in vivo vs in vitro* for five clades was combined,

resulting in a set of genes that were specific to *C. auris* infection at these timepoints. **(B)**

Combined set of DEGs between more virulent and less virulent clades: Each set of

DEGs between clades I & IV (more virulent) and II & III (less virulent) was compared at

24 HPI and 48 HPI, resulting in a combined set expressed in infection. **(C)** Combined

DEG Sets: between filamentous clade V and all other clades: Each set of DEGs

between clade V and all each clades I-IV was compared at 24 HPI and 48 HPI, resulting

in a combined set expressed in infection, excluding those significant during growth in

YPD broth where clade V was not observed to filament. **(D)** Accessory genes not found

in clade I reference genome: DEGs without orthologues in the clade I reference were

identified and annotated. **(E)** Log-fold change and FDR across all pathogen gene

expression. **(F)** Fragments per kilobase per million across all pathogen gene

expression.

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1481 **Supplementary Table 4. Publicly available RNA-seq Data on 16th April 2024:** A

1482 systematic re-analysis of RNA expression across NCBI-available datasets for *C. auris*

1483 gene expression, categorised by research theme for analysis (**Fig. S1D-E**).

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