Genomic basis of multidrug-resistance, mating, and virulence in *Candida auris* and related emerging species

José F. Muñoz[1], Lalitha Gade[2], Nancy A. Chow[2], Vladimir N. Loparev[3], Phalasy Juieng[3], Rhys A. Farrer[1], Anastasia P. Litvintseva[2]*, Christina A. Cuomo[1]*

[1] Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA USA. [2] Mycotic Diseases Branch, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA USA. [3] Biotechnology Core Facility Branch, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA USA.

*Corresponding authors: Christina A. Cuomo cuomo@broadinstitute.org; Anastasia P. Litvintseva, frq8@cdc.gov

Abstract

Candida auris is an emergent fungal pathogen of rising health concern due to increasing reports of outbreaks in healthcare settings and resistance to multiple classes of antifungal drugs. While distantly related to the more common pathogens *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*, *C. auris* is closely related to three rarely observed and often multidrug-resistant species, *C. haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii and C. pseudohaemulonii*. Here, we generated and analyzed near complete genome assemblies and RNA-Seq-guided gene predictions for each of the four major *C. auris* clades and for *C. haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii and C. pseudohaemulonii*. Our analyses mapped seven chromosomes and revealed chromosomal rearrangements between *C. auris* clades and related species. We found conservation of genes involved in mating and meiosis and identified both *MTL**a*** and *MTL*α *C. auris* isolates, strongly suggesting the potential for mating between clades. Gene conservation analysis highlighted that many genes linked to drug resistance and virulence in other pathogenic *Candida* species are conserved in *C. auris* and related species including expanded families of transporters and lipases, as well as mutations and copy number variants in *ERG11* that confer drug resistance. In addition, we found aspects of this emerging clade that likely mediate differences in virulence and drug response, including different cell wall families. To begin to characterize the species-specific genes important for antifungal response, we profiled the gene expression of *C. auris* in response to voriconazole and amphotericin B and found induction of several transporters and metabolic regulators that may play a role in drug resistance. Together, this study provides a comprehensive view of the genomic basis of drug resistance, potential for mating, and virulence in this emerging fungal clade.

Introduction

Candida auris is an emerging fungal pathogen of increasing concern due to high drug resistance and high mortality rates[1,2]. In addition, outbreaks have been reported in hospital settings, suggesting healthcare transmission[2,3]. *C. auris* clinical isolates are typically multidrug-resistant (MDR), with common resistance to fluconazole and variable susceptibility to other azoles, amphotericin B, and echinocandins[2]. *C. auris* causes both bloodstream and invasive infections, similar to a group of rarely observed, phylogenetically related species including *C. haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii and C. pseudohaemulonii*[4,5]. These species also display MDR, most commonly to amphotericin B and also reduced susceptibility to azoles and echinocandins[4,5]. Together, *C. auris* and these closely related species represent an emerging clade of invasive fungal infections, which are not only difficult to treat, but also difficult to identify using standard laboratory methods[6], generally requiring molecular methods for the proper identification.

Initial whole genome analysis of *C. auris* isolates from Pakistan, India, South Africa, Japan and Venezuela identified four clades that are specific to each geographic region and suggested that each of these clades emerged nearly simultaneously in different regions of the world[2]. Including data from other recent studies, the current representation of each clade is as follows: clade I comprises isolates from India, Pakistan and England[2,3,7], clade II from Japan and South Korea[2,8], clade III from South Africa, and clade IV from Venezuela[2]. Analyses of SNPs identified from whole genome sequence[2,9] and of multilocus sequence typing (MLST)[10,11] found very low genetic variation within *C. auris* clades. Little is known about whether phenotypic differences exist between *C. auris* clades; one noted difference is that isolates from India and South Africa assimilated N-acetylglucosamine in contrast to isolates from Japan and South Korea[2].

Candida auris is distantly related to the more commonly observed species *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*, and phylogenetic studies supported that the *C. haemulonii* clade is the closest sibling group to *C. auris*[4,5,12,13]. However, these studies have not clearly resolved the relationships of *C. haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii and C. pseudohaemulonii*[4,5,12,13]. *C. lusitaniae*, a rarely observed cause of infection[14], is a sister clade to this group of emerging species[13,15]. Despite the fact that these genotypic studies found that *C. auris* is highly divergent from other Saccharomycetales yeasts from the CTG clade, including *C. albicans,* most of our limited current knowledge of *C. auris* resistance and virulence had been inferred based on conservation of genes associated with drug resistant and virulence in *C.*

albicans or *C. glabrata*. Initial comparative analysis of the gene content of one isolate of *C. auris* with *C.*

albicans found that some orthologs associated with antifungal resistance are present in *C. auris*,

including drug transporters, secreted proteases and manosyl transferases[13]. In addition, preliminary

genomic studies showed that the targets of several classes of antifungal drugs are conserved in *C.*

auris, including the azole target lanosterol 14 α-demethylase (*ERG11*), the echinocandin target 1,3-

beta-glucan synthase (*FKS1*), and the flucytosine target uracil phosphoribosyl-transferase (*FUR1*)[2,16].

Furthermore, point mutations associated with drug resistance in other species are observed in many

clinical isolates, with some differences between *C. auris* clades[2,7,16]. However, there have not yet been

studies to directly test whether these mutations confer drug resistance in *C. auris* or the role of other

genes in drug resistance and virulence in this group of emerging MDR species.

While efforts to sequence *C. auris* genome provided an initial view of genome content[9,13], available

assemblies in GenBank are highly fragmented, inconsistently annotated, and do not provide a complete

representation of all *C. auris* clades. The related species *C. haemulonii* and *C. duobushaemulonii* were

recently sequenced [17,18]. Here, we generated and annotated highly complete genome assemblies for

each of the clades of *C. auris* as well as for the related species *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*

and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. Comparison of these genomes to other sequenced *Candida* species

revealed that *C. auris* has notable expansions of genes linked to drug resistance and virulence in *C.*

albicans, including families of oligopeptide transporters, siderophore-based iron transporters, and

secreted lipases. We examined the response to antifungal drugs for two isolates using RNA-Seq and

identified transporters and metabolic regulators that have been previously associated with drug

resistance in *C. albicans*, but also some specific expanded or unique genes in emergent MDR species.

We also found strong evidence that *C. auris* is capable of mating and meiosis, based on the

identification of both mating types in the populations, conservation of genes involved in mating and

meiosis, and detection of chromosomal rearrangements between two clades. These results revealed

fundamental insights into the evolution of drug resistance and pathogenesis in *C. auris* and closely

related species and the potential for mating and recombination between the *C. auris* clades.

Results

Genome characteristics of *Candida auris* and closely related species

We generated highly complete genome assemblies for four *Candida auris* isolates and for three

phylogenetically related species, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*.

These four *C. auris* assemblies represent each of the major clades[2], including an updated assembly for

B8441 (clade I) and the first representatives for clade II (strain B11220), clade III (strain B11221) and

clade IV (strain B11243). As *C. auris* is distantly related to other previously sequenced *Candida*

species, we also sequenced genomes of the closely related species *C. haemulonii* (strain B11899), *C.*

duobushaemulonii (strain B09383)*,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (strain B12108) to enable comparative

genomic analysis. The genome assemblies of *C. auris* (B8441 and B11221), *C. haemulonii*, and *C.*

duobushaemulonii were sequenced using PacBio and Illumina, whereas the other two *C. auris* strains

were sequenced only with Illumina (**Table 1**; **Methods**). The genome assemblies of *C. auris* range from

12.1 Mb in B1120 to 12.7 Mb in B1121. The *C. auris* B8441 and B11221 genome assemblies were

organized in 15 and 20 scaffolds, respectively, of which 7 scaffolds included most of the sequenced

bases in both strains (**Table 1**). This represents an improvement upon the previously generated

genome assembly of *C. auris* strain 6684 (clade I)[13], which consists of 99 scaffolds (759 contigs) that

include contig gaps and has an inflated number of predicted genes, based on our analysis (see below;

Methods). The Illumina only genome assemblies of *C. auris* B11220 (clade II) and B11243 (clade IV)

are less contiguous (**Table 1**). The genome assemblies of *C. haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C.*

pseudohaemulonii were also highly contiguous with 11, 7 and 36 scaffolds, respectively (**Table 1**).

Comparison of these four *C. auris* genomes and those of the three related species revealed that the

genome sizes are very similar, ranging in size from 12.1 Mb in *C. auris* B11220 to 13.3 Mb in *C.*

haemulonii, similar to that of *C. lusitaniae* (12.1 Mb) and other *Candida* species (**Table S1**). The

assemblies of the *C. auris* clades are highly identical, with an average nucleotide identity of 98.7%

among clade I, II, III and IV, and 99.3% between clade II and III. By contrast, comparison of nucleotide

genome identity between species highlights greater intraspecies genetic divergence: 88% between *C.*

auris and *C. haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, 89% between *C. haemulonii*

and *C. duobushaemulonii*, and 92% between *C. duobushaemulonii* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. We

found a very low frequency of candidate heterozygous positions predicted from Illumina data,

supporting that all sequenced genomes are haploid.

As an independent assessment of the genome assembly size and structure, we generated optical maps

of the *C. auris* B8441 and B11221 isolates (**Figure S1**). Consistent with the assemblies of these

isolates, the maps had seven linkage groups; nearly all of the genome assemblies were anchored to

the optical maps (98.8 % in B8441 and 97.2 % of in B11221; **Figure S1; Table 1**). This supports the

presence of 7 chromosomes in *C. auris*, consistent with the chromosome number found in previous

studies using electrophoretic karyotyping by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE)[19]. While the

genomes of *C. auris* are highly syntenic, we found evidence of a few large chromosomal

rearrangements between *C. auris* B8441 and B11221 based on comparison of the assemblies and the

optical maps (**Figures 1**, **S1**). We confirmed that the junctions of these rearrangements are well

supported in each assembly; these regions show no variation in the depth of PacBio and Illumina

aligned reads and there is no evidence of assembly errors across these rearrangement breakpoints.

We additionally independently identified structural variants based on the read alignments to the B8441

and B11221 assemblies and recovered each of the rearrangements present in these assemblies.

These large chromosomal rearrangements included one inversion of 136 kb between B8441 sc01 and

B11221 sc01, a 274 kb translocation between B8441 sc08 and B11221 sc03, and a 300 kb

translocation between B8441 sc10 and B11221 sc01 (**Figure 1**). The genomes of *C. auris*, *C.*

haemulonii, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* showed limited chromosomal

rearrangements between each other, mostly intra-chromosomal inversions between *C. auris* and *C.*

haemulonii, C. duobushaemulonii, and *C. pseudohaemulonii,* and large chromosomal translocations

between *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (**Figure 1a**). These

rearrangements between *C. auris* clades, and between species, could potentially prevent genetic

exchange between these groups, since some crossover events will generate missing chromosomal

regions or other aneuploidies and may result in nonviable progeny.

Evolution of mating-type locus in the emerging multidrug-resistant species including *C. auris*

We characterized the mating type locus in *C. auris* and identified representatives of both mating

types. The mating locus structure is highly conserved compared to closely related species including *C.*

lusitaniae and other Saccharomycetales yeasts from the CTG clade *Candida* (**Figure 2**). Many *Candida*

species, including diploid asexual species, have heterothallic *MTL* idiomorphs, and mating occurs

between cells of opposite mating type, *MTL***a** and *MTL*α[20]. We found that the genes flanking the *MTL*

locus in some species from the CTG clade *Candida*, namely the phosphatidylinositol kinase gene

(*PIK1*), the oxysterol binding protein gene (*OBP1*) and the poly(A) polymerase gene (*PAP1*) were

adjacent in all sequenced genomes of the emerging MDR clade (**Figure 2a**). Previous work reported

that the genome of *C. auris* 6684 included the *MTL* flanking genes but did not identify either *MTL***a** or

*MTL*α genes at this locus[13]. In the chromosome level genome assemblies of *C. auris* (B8441 and

B11221), the *PIK1/OBP1/PAP1* genes are present at a single locus in chromosome 3 in B8441 (sc05)

and B11221 (sc03). Notably, we found all *C. auris* isolates contained either the *MTL***a** and *MTL*α

idiomorphs at this locus and that gene order was conserved compared to the *C. lusitaniae MTL*[21]

(**Figure 2a**; **Table S3**). We found that the *MTL***a** is present in *C. auris* B8441 and 6684 (clade I),

B11243 (clade IV), and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, spanning 14.9 kb (**Figure 2a**). By contrast, *C. auris*

B11220 (clade II), B11221 (clade III), and *C. haemulonii* and *C. duobushaemulonii* contain *MTLα*,

spanning 14.3 kb (**Figure 2a**). Phylogenetic analysis of the non-mating flanking genes

(*PIK1/OBP1/PAP1*) supports the inheritance of idiomorphs of these genes with the *MTL**a*** and *MTLα*

genes (**Figure 2b**). Upon further examination and manual annotation, we determined that **a**1*/**a**2 are

present in *MTL**a*** isolates, and α1 is present in *MTLα* isolates; as in *C. lusitaniae*, the MTL α locus is

missing the α2 gene[21] (**Figure 2a**). RNA-Seq data was used to guide gene prediction of **a**1 and **a**2, and

further establishes that both genes are expressed in B8441 (**Figure S2**), supporting the hypothesis that

these genes could be functional, and that the MTL locus could be used to classify *C. auris* isolates. To

further characterize the evolution of mating type in the population, we examined the *MTL* locus using 50

isolates from Lockhart *et al.*[2] and found that all isolates from clade I and IV have *MTL**a***, whereas all

isolates from clade II and III had *MTLα* (**Figures 2c**, **S3**). The fact both **a** and α MAT alleles are present

and expressed in *C. auris* suggests this species may be capable of mating, similar to that in *C.*

lusitaniae[21].

We examined the conservation of genes involved in meiosis to provide additional support for mating in

C. auris. We found that many of the key meiotic genes are similarly conserved between *C. lusitaniae*,

C. guilliermondii, *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. Some genes

involved in meiosis in *S. cerevisiae* that are absent in these species included the recombinase *DMC1*

and cofactors (*MEI5* and *SAE3*), synaptonemal-complex proteins (*ZIP1* and *HOP1*), and genes

involved in crossover interference (*MSH4* and *MSH5*; **Table S2**). A small number of genes involved in

meiosis were present in *C. lusitaniae* but absent in *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and

C. pseudohaemulonii. In *C. auris*, the DNA recombination and repair genes *RAD55* and *RAD57* appear

to be absent, however *RAD55* is widely absent in the CTG *Candida* clade while the *RAD51* paralog of

the *RAD55/RAD57* complex is present. In *C. lusitaniae*, despite the loss of many of the same meiotic

genes, undergoes meiosis during sexual reproduction involving diploid intermediates[21]. The fact that

most components of the mating and meiosis pathways are similarly conserved in *C. auris* and closely

related species including *C. lusitaniae* suggests these species have the ability to mate and undergo

meiosis as observed for *C. lusitaniae*.

Phylogenetic position of *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C.*

pseudohaemulonii

Using the complete genomes, we estimated a strongly supported phylogeny of *C. auris*, *C.*
haemulonii, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, relative to other species from the order
Saccharomycetales including *C. lusitaniae*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. Based on a
concatenated alignment of 2,505 single copy core genes, a well supported maximum likelihood tree
placed *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* as a single clade,
confirming the close relationship of these species (100% of bootstrap replicates; **Figure 3a**). The *C.*
auris clades appear more recently diverged based on short branch lengths. Previous phylogenetic
analyses had shown conflicting relationships between *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,*
and *C. pseudohaemulonii*[4,5,12,13]. Our phylogenetic analysis strongly supports that *C. duobushaemulonii*
and *C. pseudohaemulonii* are most closely related to each other, and form a sister group to *C.*
haemulonii, which appeared as the more basally branching species (**Figure 3a**). The closely related
species to this MDR clade is *C. lusitaniae*, which is the more basally branching member of this group
(**Figure 3a**).
208
Gene family expansions supported mechanisms of drug resistance and virulence
Gene annotation in *C. auris* genomes was performed using RNA-Seq paired-end reads to
improve gene structure predictions (**Methods**). The predicted gene number was highly similar across
all *C. auris* genomes as well as in *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. In *C.*
auris, the number of protein-coding genes varied between 5,421 in B8441 and 5,601 in B11243. For *C.*
haemulonii, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* the numbers were very similar, ranging
from 5,288 to 5,410, predicted genes (**Table 1**; **Figure S4a**). High representation of core eukaryotic
genes provides evidence that those genomes are nearly complete; 96-98% of these conserved genes
are found in all annotated genome assemblies (**Figure S4b**). By examining orthologous genes in *C.*
auris, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* *C. pseudohaemulonii*, and twelve additional
Saccharomycetales genomes, including *C. lusitaniae*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*, we
found a total of 2,379 core ortholog clusters had representative genes from all twenty analyzed
genomes (**Figure S4**). We found a small number of unique genes in the *C. auris* clades ranging from
15 (B8441; clade I) to 54 (B11221; clade III) genes, 203 in *C. haemulonii*, 83 in *C. duobushaemulonii,*
and 88 *C. pseudohaemulonii* (**Figure S5**). The unique genes in *C. auris* clades include oligopeptide and
ABC transporters; unique glycophosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored proteins were identified in *C.*
haemulonii (**Table S3**).
226
To characterize changes in gene content that may play a role in the evolution of multidrug-resistance

and virulence in *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, we searched

for expansions or contractions in functionally classified genes compared to other related species (**Table**

S1). We identified PFAM domains that were significantly enriched or depleted (**Methods**; **Figures S4**).

Domains associated with transmembrane transporters (OPT, MFS) and secreted lipases (LIP) were

enriched in *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* compared to other

genomes (*q*-value < 0.05, Fisher's exact test; **Figure 3b**). We therefore further classified

transmembrane transporters using the Transporter Classification Database (TCDB) and found that the

higher copy number of transporters in the emergent MDR clade could be attributed to oligopeptide

transporters (*OPT*) and siderophore iron transporters (*SIT*). In *C. albicans*, a family of *OPT* transporters

enables uptake of small peptides; the expression of some *OPT* transporters are up-regulated by azole

drugs[22,23]. While most of the fourteen *OPT* genes found in *C. auris* had orthologs in *C. albicans* (*OPT1-*

8), a subset of these transporters appear recently duplicated in the MDR emergent clade, including an

expansion of three *OPT1*-like transporters, and five transporters similar to *OPT2*, *OPT3*, and *OPT4*

(**Figures 4a**, **S6**). Most of the *OPT* genes (up to 8) are located in a conserved locus among emerging

MDR species encompassing 296 kb of chromosome 6; this gene family appears to have expanded by

tandem duplication (**Figures 4c**). In *C. albicans*, iron transporters include the siderophore transporter

SIT1 and the iron permeases *FTR1* and *FTR2*; a subset of these transporters is uniquely expanded in

C. auris and closely related species, including the expansion of fourteen ortholog groups in *C. auris*

related to *C. albicans SIT1* (**Figures 4b**, **S6**). Secreted lipases are also expanded in the genomes of *C.*

auris and closely related species (*q*-value < 0.05, Fisher's exact test; **Figure 3b**). The *C. auris* clade

has similar counts of lipases relative to *C. albicans* and *C. dubliniensis*, however, these proteins are

expanded relative to more closely related human pathogenic species, including *C. lusitaniae*, *C.*

guilliermondii, *C. krusei*, and *C. glabrata* (**Figure 3b**). Phylogenetic analysis suggested independent

evolutionary trajectories of secreted lipases in emerging *C. auris* and related species, where the most

recent ortholog family of lipases includes *C. albicans LIP4*, *5*, *8* and *9* (**Figure S7**). The secretion of

lipases may be important during infection for nutrient acquisition, adaptation, virulence and immune

evasion[24]; we identified a predicted secretion signal in all lipases encoded by *C. auris* and related

species, supporting an extracellular role in these emergent MDR species.

Conservation of known drug resistance and pathogenesis-associated genes

Most of the genes previously associated with drug resistance and pathogenesis in *C. albicans*

are conserved in all the emergent multidrug resistant species. We identified orthologs of genes noted to

confer drug resistance in *C. albicans*, either by acquiring point mutations, increasing transcription, or

copy number variation. The annotated genome assemblies of *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C.*
duobushaemulonii, and *C. pseudohaemulonii* contain a single copy of the *ERG11* azole target and the
UPC2 transcription factor that regulates expression of genes in the ergosterol pathway. Several of the
sites in *ERG11* subject to drug resistant mutations in *C. albicans* are similarly mutated in drug resistant
C. auris isolates (at positions Y132, K143, and F126, as reported previously[2]). Analysis of the
annotated genome assemblies of *C. auris* isolates agrees with prior SNP analysis[2], with the exception
of F126L mutation in B11221 (clade III) previously reported as F126T for this isolate. The F126L
mutation is also observed in a separate genomic study of *C. auris*[7] and in drug resistant *C. albicans*[25]
(**Figure S8**). The Y132F mutation that is observed in two *C. auris* clades is also found in *C.*
pseudohaemulonii, suggesting this site could contribute to azole resistance of this *C. pseudohaemulonii*
isolate. Otherwise, we found that sites in *ERG11* subject to drug resistant mutations in *C. albicans* are
not predicted to have drug resistant mutations *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C.*
pseudohaemulonii (**Figure S8**). In addition, we found that not all *C. auris* isolates have a single copy of
the *ERG11*. By copy number variation (CNV) analysis of the normalized read density distribution across
the genome we determined that two isolates (B11227 and B11229) from clade III had a duplication of a
140 kb region that includes *ERG11* (**Figure S9**). Long read assemblies of these isolates could be used
to examine the chromosomal context of this duplication.
278
Additionally, we identified orthologs of transporters from the ATP binding cassette (*ABC*) and major
facilitator superfamily (*MFS*) classes of efflux proteins that are involved in clinical antifungal resistance
in *C. albicans*, by the overexpression of *CDR* genes members of the ABC family and *MDR1* member of
the MFS transporters[26,27]. We identified a single copy of the multidrug efflux pump *MDR1* in all
sequenced isolates. For the candidate multidrug transporters such *CDR1*, *SNQ2* and related genes we
identified 5 copies in *C. auris* B8441, B11220, B11243, *C. haemulonii*, *C. pseudohaemulonii*, 6 copies
in *C. auris* B11221, and 4 copies in *C. duobushaemulonii* (**Table 2**; **Figure S10**). Phylogenetic analysis
of these ABC transporters showed that one of the genes in *C. auris* is related to *CDR1*/*CDR2*/*CDR11*,
two genes related to *CDR4*, and two genes related to *SNQ2*; *C. auris* B11221 has an additional copy of
this gene (**Figure S10**). The *TAC1* transcription factor that regulates expression of *CDR1* and *CDR2* in
C. albicans is present in two copies in *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C.*
pseudohaemulonii (**Table 2**).
291
292 While many gene families involved in pathogenesis in *C. albicans* are present in similar numbers in *C.*
293 *auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, there are some notable

differences such as of cell wall and transmembrane proteins. We identified similar numbers of the secreted aspartyl proteases, lipases and oligopeptide transporters (*OPT*), and only one copy of the *ALS* cell surface family of *C. albicans* (**Table 2**). We also examined whether other genes involved in the *C. albicans* core filamentation response were conserved in the emerging multidrug-resistant species. While most of these genes are conserved in *C. auris* and closely related species, two genes are absent, candidalysin (*ECE1*) and the hyphal cell wall protein (*HWP1*), both of which are highly expressed during the pathogenic phase of *C. albicans* and essential for hyphae formation (**Table 2**). Thus, we additionally assessed if any other cell surface families of proteins are enriched in *C. auris* and closely related species. We found a total of 75 genes with a predicted GPI anchor, including genes that were found only in the emerging multidrug resistant clade, including one unique family expanded in *C. auris* (**Table S3**). The most represented protein family domains in these genes encompassed the N-terminal cell wall domain, the aspartyl protease domain, the fungal specific cysteine rich (CFEM) domain, the flocculin domain, the cell-wall agglutinin ALS domain, the lysophospholipase catalytic domain, and the glycosyl hydrolase family 16 domain (**Table S3**). The shared profile of these genes across *C. auris* and other MDR species suggests that the more rarely observed species are primed to become more common human pathogens.

Transcriptional analysis to voriconazole and amphotericin B in *C. auris* susceptible and resistant strains

To investigate which *C. auris* genes are involved in multidrug-resistance, we carried out RNA-Seq of *C. auris* strains B8441 and B11210 (clade I) to profile gene expression changes after exposure to two antifungals, voriconazole (VCZ) and amphotericin B (AMB). B11210 is highly resistant to both VCZ and AMB, while B8441 displays moderate resistance to VCZ and is susceptible to AMB (**Table S4**; [2]). We identified differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in B8441 and B11210 (fold change (FC) > 2; false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05) after 2 and 4 hours of drug exposure (**Methods**). The response of B8441 to both drugs only involved changes in expression of small sets of genes. In response to AMB, a total of 39 genes were differentially expressed in B8441 across the 4-hour time course. These genes were enriched in small molecule biosynthetic process and iron transport (enriched GO terms corrected-$P < 0.05$, hypergeometric distribution with Bonferroni correction; **Table S4**), and include genes involved in the *C. albicans* transcriptional response to AMB[28] such as argininosuccinate synthase (*ARG1*), a putative ornithine carbamoyltransferase (*ARG3*), an aromatic decarboxylase (*ARO10*), the C-14 sterol reductase (*ERG24*) involved in ergosterol biosynthesis, fatty-acid synthases (*FAS1/FAS2*), sulfhydrylase (*MET15*), and several iron transporters (class *FTH1* and *SIT1*; **Table S4**). A set of 21

genes were differentially expressed in B8441 in response to VCZ; these included a subset of 14 genes also involved in the response to AMB and were enriched in transmembrane transport and iron transport categories (enriched GO terms corrected-P < 0.05, hypergeometric distribution with Bonferroni correction; **Table S4**), including ferric reductase (*FRP1*), high affinity iron transporter (*FTH1*), glucose transporter (*HGT7*), N-acetylglucosamine transporter (*NGT1*) and oligopeptide transporter (*OPT1*). The oligopeptide transporter *PTR22* was only induced with VCZ (**Table S4**). We also examined expression differences in B11210; as a large set of genes was identified as differentially expressed compared to the control sample, we focused on the most highly induced or repressed genes. A total of 7 of the genes that were differentially expressed in B8441 were similarly up-regulated in B11210, including *ARG1*, *CSA1* and *MET15* (**Table S4**). To further examine differences in the response to each drug, we identified differentially expressed genes across treatments at each time point. We identified 2 genes that varied between AMB and VCZ in B8441, a small heat shock factor (*HSP20*) that was highly induced with AMB and the *HGT17* transporter that was highly induced with VCZ. We also identified a set of 37 DEGs that varied between these treatments in B11210. Eight genes were highly induced in response to AMB treatment but not VCZ, including homologs of *CR_01630C_A*, *FTR1*, and *ZRT2*, previously noted to have roles during *C. albicans* response to AMB[28]. In addition, twenty-nine DEGs were highly induced in response to VCZ treatment but not AMB included the well-known multidrug efflux pump (*MDR1*)[26] and other genes involved in *C. albicans* response to azoles[28], including a high-affinity phosphate transporter (*PHO84*), the small subunit processome complex (*SAS10*), and an uncharacterized protein induced in azole-resistant strains that overexpress *MDR1* (C2_01450C_A).

Since *C. auris* isolates B8441 and B11210 (clade I) had distinct resistant phenotypes predominantly in response to AMB, we further examined expression changes between these two strains. While the drug response was very similar in *C. auris* B8441 and B11210, we identified a small set of differentially expressed genes (**Table S4**). Only two DEGs were found induced in B11210 but not B8441, including an uncharacterized transmembrane protein (B9J08_004887) induced by AMB, and an uncharacterized cell surface glycoprotein (B9J08_005574) induced by VCZ. Other genes induced in B8441 but not B11210 were previously noted to be involved in the *C. albicans* transcriptional response to drug exposure, including D-xylulose reductase (*XYL2*)[28], Cell surface mannoprotein (*MP65*)[29], NAD-aldehyde dehydrogenase (*ALD5*)[30], Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (*PCK1*)[22,28], among other genes that are important to the stress adaptation, including genes associated with oxidation reduction process and fatty acid oxidation (**Table S4**).

To characterize the underlying emergence of multidrug resistant phenotype in *C. auris*, we examined

the conservation of DEGs across sequenced genomes in addition to predicted function. Some genes
induced by AMB and VCZ in *C. auris* B8441 were species-specific in the emerging MDR species,
including five ortholog families unique to *C. auris*, comprising three putative GPI-anchored cell wall
proteins, two genes similar to *IFF6* (a putative GPI-anchored adhesin-like protein), one gene homolog
of *PGA54*, and an aspartyl protease similar to *SAP8* (**Table S4**). In addition, this set included gene
families that are either expanded in *C. auris* and closely related species (**Figures 3b** and **4**). This
includes four *SIT*-like, one *FTR*-like, and two *OPT*-like class transporters, cell wall adhesins, and
several predicted secreted proteins (**Table S4**). Notably, while other Saccharomycetales species,
including *C. albicans* only have one copy of *SIT1* that is induced during AMB treatment, *C. auris* and
closely related species had up to 11 *SIT1*-like genes, and 4 of them are induced during AMB treatment
Figures 3b, 4, S6). Together, these transcriptional changes highlighted shared and *C. auris*-specific
genes that might contribute to the MDR phenotype observed in *C. auris* isolates and provided candidate
genes to further investigate *C. auris* multidrug-resistance.

373
374

Discussion
As a recently emerging pathogen, *Candida auris* is not well studied to date, highlighting the
need for rapidly closing this knowledge gap to respond to the increasing number of fatal infections.
There is also a limitation on how much of the biology of *C. auris* we can infer from related *Candida*
species; *C. auris* is distantly related to the two most commonly observed pathogenic *Candida* species,
C. albicans and *C. glabrata*, as well as other sequenced species. Our comparative genomic analyses,
incorporating new genomic data for more closely related, multidrug-resistant species, revealed the
recent evolution of this group of emerging pathogens including shared properties that underlie
antifungal resistance and virulence. In addition to *C. auris* clades, we generated annotated genomes for
three other closely related species that are rarely observed to date as infecting humans. Building off
prior studies of individual loci[4,5,12,13], the phylogenetic relationship of these species was more clearly
resolved by whole genome comparisons; *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C.*
pseudohaemulonii are more closely related to each other than to *C. auris*, with the closest relationship
between *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. Our phylogenetic analysis integrating the
genomes of these species with other *Candida* highlight the distant relationship of this group to other
pathogenic *Candida* species and the placement of these species within the CTG clade.

To characterize mechanisms that may contribute to virulence and drug resistance, we compared the
gene content between the emerging multidrug resistant species and other related *Candida*. Recent
work found that virulence in *C. auris* appears similar to *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*[31], suggesting that
shared gene content could play a role. *C. auris* shares some notable gene family expansions described
in *C. albicans* and related pathogens[20], including of transporters and secreted lipases. While an
expansion of transporters is shared, species-specific expansions have contributed to the diversification
of transporters in *C. auris* and closely related species. Similarly, the expansion of lipases suggests this
could be part of a shared mechanism of virulence; however, the roles of specific genes will need to be
investigated. By contrast, expansions of cell wall families detected in *C. albicans* and related pathogens
are not found in *C. auris* and related species. For example, the *ALS* family is represented by two to four
copies in *C. auris* and related MDR species, compared to the 8 copies present in *C. albicans*.
Examining the predicted cell wall proteins in *C. auris* did not reveal any highly expanded families;
perhaps the longer history of pathogenic interactions drives this diversification in the more commonly
observed pathogenic *Candida* species.
406
Drug resistance in *C. auris* likely involves mechanisms previously described in *C. albicans*, however the
specific transporters involved in drug response are less well conserved. All four species are resistant to
antifungal drugs, and previously described sites of point mutation in *C. auris* in *ERG11*, the target of
azole drugs, are conserved in all species. In addition, we find evidence of increased copy number of
ERG11 in two *C. auris* isolates, but little evidence of large copy number variation, and no evidence of
aneuploidy. This suggests that increased copy number of *ERG11* may be a mechanism of drug
resistance in *C. auris*, as has previously been described in *C. albicans*[32]. However other mechanisms of
drug resistance may vary between species and strains. For example, we found that efflux proteins such
as the *CDR* family were not induced during amphotericin B or voriconazole treatment, instead other set
of transporters were up-regulated, including those that are either expanded or unique in *C. auris* and
closely multidrug emergent species, highlighting that different molecular mechanisms are likely involved
in the drug response.
419
Our analysis identified representative *C. auris* isolates for each of the two mating types, suggesting that
this species can undergo mating and meiosis. Each of the four described *C. auris* clades consists of
isolates that are all *MTL**a*** or *MTL*α*;* as the clades are geographically restricted, this suggests that there
is a geographic barrier to opposite sex mating. This expectation would change if wider sampling
demonstrated the presence of both mating types within a geographic area. The potential for mating

within this species is supported by the conservation of genes involved in mating and meiosis; these

patterns are similar to that of the related species *C. lusitaniae*, for which mating and recombination

have been demonstrated[21]. Isolates from clades of opposite mating types could be directly tested for

mating and production of progeny. One potential barrier to mating between clades is the presence of

chromosomal rearrangements, as some recombination events may result in inviable progeny.

Analyses of these genomes have revealed fundamental aspects of these emerging multidrug resistant

fungi. The role of specific genes in mating, drug resistance or pathogenesis needs to be directly tested,

utilizing gene deletion technologies recently adapted for *C. auris* (e.g. [33]). Further analysis of this data

will not only advance our understanding of the basis of drug resistance and virulence in this pathogen

but can also inform development of fungal diagnostics for accurate tracking of these emerging

pathogens.

Methods

Selected isolates and genome sequencing

Strains used in this study were described previously[2,17,18]; brief details are presented in **Table 1**.

Isolates were grown on Sabouard Dextrose media supplemented with chloramphenicol and gentamycin

and incubated for 24-48 hours at 37°C. For Illumina sequencing, genomic DNA was extracted using the

Quick-DNA™ (ZR) Fungal/Bacterial Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA). Genomic libraries

were constructed and barcoded using the NEBNext Ultra DNA Library Prep kit (New England Biolabs,

Ipswich, MA, USA) by following manufacturer's instructions. Genomic libraries were sequenced using

either Illumina HiSeq 2500 with HiSeq Rapid SBS Kit v2 or Illumina MiSeq platform using MiSeq

Reagent Kit v2 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). For PacBio sequencing, DNA was extracted using

MasterPure™ Yeast DNA Purification Kit (Epicenter, Madison, WI, USA). Single-molecule real-time

(SMRT) sequencing was done using the PacBio RS II SMRT DNA sequencing system (Pacific

Biosciences, Menlo Park, CA, USA). Specifically, 20-kb libraries were generated with the SMRTbell

Template Prep Kit 1.0 (Pacific Biosciences). Libraries were bound to polymerase using the

DNA/Polymerase Binding Kit P6v2 (Pacific Biosciences), loaded on two SMRTcells (Pacific

Biosciences), and sequenced with C4v2 chemistry (Pacific Biosciences) for 360 min movies.

Genome assemblies

The genomes of B8441 and B11221 *C. auris* isolates were assembled as described[2]. *C.*

haemulonii and *C. duobushaemulonii* genomes were assembled using Canu v1.6[34]. The resultant

contigs were checked for further joins and circularity using Circlator v1.5[35]. The final contigs were

polished using Quiver, part of SmrtAnalysis suite v2.3 (Pacific Biosciences)[36]. The sequence order for

the chromosomes was verified using restriction enzyme AflII Whole Genome Mapping (OpGen,

Gaithersburg, MA).

The sequenced Illumina reads of *C. auris* (B11220 and B11243), and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (strain

B12108) were assembled using the SPAdes assembler v3.1.1[37]. Next, Pilon v1.16[38] was used to polish

the best assembly of each isolate, resolving single nucleotide errors (SNPs), artifactual indels and local

mis-assemblies. All genome assemblies were evaluated using the GAEMR package

(http://software.broadinstitute.org/software/gaemr/), which revealed no aberrant regions of coverage,

GC content or contigs with sequence similarity suggestive of contamination. Scaffolds representing the

mitochondrial genome were separated out from the nuclear assembly. All genome assemblies have

been deposited at deposited at DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank (see **Data availability statement**). To address if

any strain representing each *C. auris* clade could be uniformly diploid, we examined candidate

heterozygous positions predicted by Pilon v1.12[38] using mapped Illumina data. The low frequency and

absence of such positions supported that all sequenced genomes are homozygous haploids.

Optical mapping

Two strains of *C. auris* (B11221 and B8441) were compared by the OpGen optical mapping

platform (OpGen, Inc., Gaithersburg, Maryland). High molecular weight genomic DNA from overnight

grown cells were purified with Argus HMW DNA Isolation Kit (OpGen, Inc.) and examined for quality

and concentration using the ARGUS QCards(OpGen, Inc.). The software program Enzyme Chooser

(OpGen, Inc.) identified *BamHI* restriction endonuclease to be optimal for optical map production,

because its cleavage of reference genomes would result in fragments that average 6–12 kbp in size,

with no fragments larger than 80 kbp. Single genomic DNA fragments were loaded onto a glass surface

of a MapCard (OpGen, Inc.) using the microfluidic device, washed and then digested with *BamHI*

restriction enzyme, and stained with JOJO-1 dye through the ARGUS MapCard Processor (OpGen,

Inc.). Map cards were scanned and analyzed by automated fluorescent microscopy using the ARGUS

Whole Genome Mapper (OpGen, Inc.). The single molecule restriction map collections were then tiled

according to overlapping fragment patterns to produce a consensus whole genome map. This map was

imported into MapSolver (OpGen, Inc.) along with predicted *in silico* maps of contigs derived from

WGS, using the same restriction enzyme for ordering and orientation of contigs during genome
circularization. *In-silico* predicted optical maps of complete genomes were scaled according to the size
of sequenced genomes to show identity with Optical maps (**Figures S1**).

RNA-Seq of B8441 and B11220 during drug treatment

For RNA extraction *C. auris* cells were grown in YPD broth medium (Difco Laboratories, Sparks,
MD) at 30°C in a shaking incubator at 300 rpm. After 18 hours, the stationary phase cells were diluted
with the equal volume of fresh YPD broth and incubated for two hours at 37° to induce growth. After
that, the cells were treated with Amphotericin B at the final concentration of 0.25 μg/mL or Voriconazole
at the final concentration of 1 μg/mL (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Lois, MO) and incubated at 30°C for additional
2 and 4 hours in the presence of drug. Cells were centrifuged for 2 minutes at 12000xg, pellets were
flash frozen in dry ice/ethanol bath and stored at -80°C. RNA was isolated using RiboPure™-Yeast
rapid RNA isolation kit (Life technologies, Carlsbad, CA) using the manufacturer's protocol. RNA was
adapted for sequencing using the RNAtag-Seq approach[39], with the modification that the yeast
RiboZero reagent was used for rRNA depletion. For each condition, two biological replicates were
performed, and the read counts per transcript were highly correlated between replicates (R> 0.90).

Gene annotation

Gene annotation in *C. auris* was performed using RNA-Seq paired-end reads to improve gene
calling and structure predictions. Briefly, we mapped RNA-Seq reads to the genome assembly using
Tophat2, and use the alignments to predict genes using BRAKER1[40], that combines GeneMark-ET[41]
and AUGUSTUS[42], incorporating RNA-Seq data into unsupervised training and subsequently generates
ab initio gene predictions. Additionally, we re-annotated the genome of the 6684 strain[13] improving its
gene set and predicted gene structures. tRNAs were predicted using tRNAscan[43] and rRNAs predicted
using RNAmmer[44]. Genes containing PFAM domains found in repetitive elements or overlapping
tRNA/rRNA features were removed. Genes were named and numbered sequentially. For the protein
coding-gene name assignment we combined HMMER PFAM/TIGRFAM, Swissprot and Kegg products.
For comparative analysis genes were functionally annotated by assigning PFAM domains, GO terms,
and KEGG classification. HMMER3[45] was used to identify PFAM domains using release 27. GO terms
were assigned using Blast2GO[46], with a minimum e-value of $1x10^{-10}$. Protein kinases were identified
using Kinannote[47] and transporter families using TCDB version 01-05-2017[48]. To evaluate the
completeness of predicted gene sets, the representation of core eukaryotic genes was analyzed using
CEGMA genes[49] and BUSCO[50].

Comparative genomics and phylogenomic analysis

To examine the phylogenetic relationship of the emerging multidrug-resistance clade, including *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii,* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* we identified single copy orthologs in these sequenced genomes and twelve related species using OrthoMCL v1.4[51] (Markov index 1.5; maximum e-value 1e-5). Protein sequences of 20 genomes were aligned using MUSCLE, and a phylogeny was estimated from the concatenated alignments using RAxML v7.7.8[52] with model PROTCATWAG with a total of 1,000 bootstrap replicates. To compare gene family expansion and contractions, we used orthologous gene clusters we classified as core, auxiliary and unique. We then searched for expansions or contractions in functionally classified genes by assigning PFAM domains, GO terms, and KEGG classification. Using a matrix of gene class counts for each classification type, we identified enrichment comparing the emerging multidrug-resistance clade with all the other related species using Fisher's exact test. Fisher's exact test was used to detect enrichment of PFAM, KEGG, GO terms, and transporter families between groups of interest, and p-values were corrected for multiple comparisons[53]. Significant (corrected *P*-value < 0.05) gene class expansions or depletions were examined for different comparisons.

Transcriptional analysis of *C. auris* RNA-Seq

RNA-Seq reads were aligned to the transcript sequences of *C. auris* B8441 or B11221 using Bowtie2[54]. Transcript abundance was estimated using RSEM (RNA-Seq by expectation maximization; v.1.2.21) as transcripts per million (TPM). TPM-normalized 'transcripts per million transcripts' (TPM) for each transcript were calculated, and differentially expressed transcripts were identified using edgeR[55], all as implemented in the Trinity package version 2.1.1[56]. Genes were considered differentially expressed only if they had a 2-fold change difference (> 2 FC) in TPM values and a false discovery rate below or equal to 0.05 (FDR < 0.05), unless specified otherwise. To determine major patterns of antifungal-response specific we clustered gene expression patterns by *k-means*. To identify functional enrichment of differentially expressed genes, we used functional gene assignations from PFAM, GO terms and KEGG (see **Gene annotation**), and then performed comparisons with Fisher's exact test. To identify possible functions of the gene products of significantly differentially expressed drug resistance genes, protein homologs were assigned based on orthology, functional assignments (GO, PFAM, TIGRFAM) and experimental evidence from *Candida* genome database (http://www.candidagenome.org).

Data availability statement

All genome assemblies and gene annotations have been deposited at DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under the following accession numbers: *C. auris* B8441 PEKT00000000; *C. auris* B11221 PGLS00000000, *C. auris* B11220 PYFR00000000, *C. auris* B11243 PYGM00000000, *C. haemulonii* B11899 PKFO00000000, *C. duobushaemulonii* B09383 PKFP00000000, *C. pseudohaemulonii* B12108 PYFQ00000000. The RNA-Seq data from *C. auris* has been deposited at GenBank under Bioproject PRJNA445471.

Acknowledgements

We thank Sarah Young and Paul Cao for their assistance with genome annotation, the Broad Technology labs for RNAtag-Seq library construction, and the Broad Genomics Platform for Illumina sequencing. This project has been funded in whole or in part with Federal funds from the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services, under award N°: U19AI110818. The use of product names in this manuscript does not imply their endorsement by the US Department of Health and Human Services. The finding and conclusions in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the CDC.

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the study: APL CAC. Performed experiments: LG NAC VNL PJ. Performed the assembly and annotation: JFM. Analyzed the data: JFM VNL PJ RAF CAC. Wrote the paper: JFM CAC.

Additional information

Competing interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

582   **Tables and Figures**

584   **Table 1.** Genome assembly statistics of *Candida auris* and closely related species*

Species	Candida auris				C. hae	C. duo	C. pseu
Strain	B8441	B11221	B11220	B11243	B11899	B09383	B12108
Clade	I	III	II	IV	.	.	.
Country of origin	Pakistan	South Africa	Japan	Venezuela	Israel	US	Venezuela
Total assembly size (Mb)	12.4	12.7	12.1	12.3	13.3	12,3	12.6
Chromosomes	7	7	.	.	.	.	.
Assembly anchored (%)	98.8	97.2	.	.	.	.	.
Scaffolds	15	20	324	240	11	7	36
Contigs	18	23	324	265	11	7	41
Scaffold N50 (Mb)	1.1	2.4	0.06	0.09	1.7	3.3	0.64
Scaffold N90 (kb)	777	949	19.5	27.1	952	788	227
GC content (%)	45.2	45.3	45.0	45.0	45.3	46.9	47.2
Protein coding genes	5,421	5,527	5,546	5,601	5,410	5,331	5,288

585   *C. hae = C. haemulonii*; *C. duo = C. duobushaemulonii*; *C. pseu = C. pseudohaemulonii*

Table 2. Conservation of genes involved in pathogenesis and drug resistance*

Category	C. albicans	Candida auris (B8441 - I)	Candida auris (B11221 - III)	Candida auris (B11220 - II)	Candida auris (B11243 - IV)	Candida auris (6684 - I)	Candida haemulonii	Candida pseudohaemulonii	Candida duobushaemulonii	Candida lusitaniae	Debaryomyces hansenii	Candida guilliermondii	Candida tropicalis	Candida albicans	Candida dubliniensis	Candida orthopsilosis	Candida parapsilosis	Lodderomyces elongisporus	Candida krusei	Candida glabrata	Saccharomyces cerevisiae
Drug resistance	ERG11	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	TAC1	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		
	UPC2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	••	••
	MDR1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•••	••••••	••	•	•	•••	••	••• •		•	•
	SNQ2, CDR4, CDR2, CDR11, CDR1	•••••	••••••	•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••	•••••	••••	•••	••••••	•••••••••••	••	•••••	•••••	•••	••••••	•••••	•••••••••	•••••	••••••••
Secreted aspartyl proteinases	SAP1, SAP2, SAP8, SAP3	•••	•••	••	•••	•••	••	••	••	••		••••	•••	••••	••••	•••	••	•			
	SAP9	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	••	•	•	•	•	••	•••••	•	••	•	•••
Secreted lipases	LIP4, LIP9, LIP5, LIP8, LIP2, LIP1, LIP10, LIP6, LIP3	••••••••	••••••••	••••••••	••••••••	••••••••	•••••••••	•••••••••	••••••••		•	•	••	•••••••••	•••••••••	••	••	•			
Cell wall adhesins	ALS2, ALS5, ALS1, ALS9, ALS4, ALS3, ALS7, ALS6	•	•	•	•	•	••	•••	•••	•		••	••••	••••••••	•••••••••	•	••				
	ALS-like	••	••	•	••	••		•	•												

*Each dot represents a gene count. Roman numerals represent *C. auris* clades.

Figure 1. Whole genome conservation, structure and synteny. **(a)** Genome wide synteny among
Candida auris, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. Shared synteny regions
are based on orthologs. Isolate names are shown to the right of their genomes, which are represented
by lines, with vertical lines indicating scaffold borders, and their identifiers listed above
(+/−=orientation). **(b)** Shared synteny regions based on whole genome alignments between *C. auris*
B8441 and B11221.

Figure 2. Identification of Mating-type loci (*MTL*) in *Candida auris* and closely related species. **(a)** Synteny schema depicting orientation and conservation of the color-coded *MTL* idiomorphs and genes adjacent to the *MTL*. The putative MTL in *C. auris*, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C. pseudohaemulonii* are shown in comparison with the *MTL***a** and *MTL*α idiomorphs from *C. lusitaniae*. **(b)** Phylogenetic analysis of the non-mating flanking genes (*PIK1/OBP1/PAP1*) showing the inheritance of idiomorphs of these genes within the *MTL***a** and *MTL*α loci. Branch lengths indicate the mean number of changes per site. **(c)** Phylogenetic tree of *C. auris* isolates from Lockhart et al. 2016. Isolates are color-coded according the clades (I, II, III and IV) and mating type (*MTL***a** and *MTL*α). Figure S3 shows isolates, origin and the normalized depth read coverage of mapped positions for all isolates aligned to B8441 (*MTL***a**) and B11221 (*MTL*α), supporting the classification into *MTL***a** or *MTL*α.

Figure 3. Phylogenomic and gene family changes across *Candida auris* and closely related species. **(a)** Maximum likelihood phylogeny using 1,570 core genes based on 1,000 replicates, among 20 annotated genome assemblies, including *Candida auris, C. haemulonii* (B11899), *C. duobushaemulonii* (B09383), and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (B12108), and closely related species. Branch lengths indicate the

mean number of changes per site. **(b)** Heatmap depicting results of protein family enrichment analysis
(PFAM domains; corrected *p-value* < 0.05) comparing the gene content of *C. auris* strains representing
each clade, *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, and other closely related
species, including *C. lusitaniae*, *C. albicans*, *C. krusei* and *C. glabrata*. Values are colored along a blue
(low counts) to red (high counts) color scale, with color scaling relative to the low and high values of
each row. Each protein family domain has a color code (right) indicating whether expanded or depleted.

Figure 4. Phylogenetic relationships of oligopeptide transporters (*OPT*) and siderophore iron transporters (*SIT*) families. Phylogenetic trees estimated by maximum likelihood with RAxML showing expansion of *OPT* **(a)** and *SIT* **(b)** transporter families in *C. auris* and *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii* and *C. pseudohaemulonii*. Each species has a color code and lineage-specific expansions (blue branches) can be seen in *C. auris* and closely related species relative to the close ancestor *C. lusitaniae* and *C. albicans*. Orthologs of *OPT* and *SIT* transporters in *C. albicans* are depicted alongside each tree. **(c)** Chromosome view depicting genes and orientation located in chromosome 6 (B8441 scaffold05). This region highlights expansion and tandem duplication of eight *OPT* class transporters (in red).

References

References

1.   Clancy, C. J. & Nguyen, M. H. Emergence of *Candida auris*: An International Call to Arms. *Clin.*
Infect. Dis. Off. Publ. Infect. Dis. Soc. Am. **64,** 141–143 (2017).
2.   Lockhart, S. R. *et al.* Simultaneous Emergence of Multidrug-Resistant *Candida auris* on 3
Continents Confirmed by Whole-Genome Sequencing and Epidemiological Analyses. *Clin Infect Dis*
(2016).
3.   Schelenz, S. *et al.* First hospital outbreak of the globally emerging *Candida auris* in a European
hospital. *Antimicrob. Resist. Infect. Control* **5,** (2016).
4.   Cendejas-Bueno, E. *et al.* Reclassification of the *Candida haemulonii* Complex as *Candida*
haemulonii (*C. haemulonii* Group I), *C. duobushaemulonii* sp. nov. (*C. haemulonii* Group II), and *C.*
haemulonii var. vulnera var. nov.: Three Multiresistant Human Pathogenic Yeasts. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*
50, 3641–3651 (2012).
5.   Kumar, A. *et al. Candida haemulonii* species complex: an emerging species in India and its genetic
diversity assessed with multilocus sequence and amplified fragment-length polymorphism analyses.
Emerg. Microbes Infect. **5,** e49 (2016).
6.   Kathuria, S. *et al.* Multidrug-Resistant *Candida auris* Misidentified as *Candida haemulonii*:
Characterization by Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization–Time of Flight Mass Spectrometry
and DNA Sequencing and Its Antifungal Susceptibility Profile Variability by Vitek 2, CLSI Broth
Microdilution, and Etest Method. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **53,** 1823–1830 (2015).
7.   Rhodes, J. *et al.* Genomic epidemiology of the UK outbreak of the emerging human fungal
pathogen *Candida auris. Emerg. Microbes Infect.* **7,** 43 (2018).
8.   Borman, A. M., Szekely, A. & Johnson, E. M. Isolates of the emerging pathogen *Candida auris*
present in the UK have several geographic origins. *Med. Mycol.* **55,** 563–567 (2017).
9.   Sharma, C., Kumar, N., Pandey, R., Meis, J. F. & Chowdhary, A. Whole genome sequencing of
emerging multidrug resistant *Candida auris* isolates in India demonstrates low genetic variation.
New Microbes New Infect. **13,** 77–82 (2016).
10. Chowdhary, A. *et al.* Multidrug-resistant endemic clonal strain of *Candida auris* in India. *Eur. J. Clin.*
Microbiol. Infect. Dis. **33,** 919–926 (2014).
11. Prakash, A. *et al.* Evidence of genotypic diversity among *Candida auris* isolates by multilocus
sequence typing, matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry and
amplified fragment length polymorphism. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Off. Publ. Eur. Soc. Clin. Microbiol.*
Infect. Dis. **22,** 277.e1-9 (2016).
12. Ben-Ami, R. *et al.* Multidrug-Resistant *Candida haemulonii* and *C. auris*, Tel Aviv, Israel. *Emerg.*
Infect. Dis. **23,** 195–203 (2017).
13. Chatterjee, S. *et al.* Draft genome of a commonly misdiagnosed multidrug resistant pathogen
Candida auris. BMC Genomics **16,** 686 (2015).
14. Gargeya, I. B., Pruitt, W. R., Simmons, R. B., Meyer, S. A. & Ahearn, D. G. Occurrence of
Clavispora lusitaniae, the teleomorph of Candida lusitaniae, among clinical isolates. *J. Clin.*
Microbiol. **28,** 2224–2227 (1990).
15. Gabaldón, T., Naranjo-Ortíz, M. A. & Marcet-Houben, M. Evolutionary genomics of yeast pathogens
in the Saccharomycotina. *FEMS Yeast Res.* **16,** (2016).
16. Chowdhary, A. *et al.* A multicentre study of antifungal susceptibility patterns among 350 *Candida*
auris isolates (2009–17) in India: role of the ERG11 and FKS1 genes in azole and echinocandin
resistance. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* (2018).
17. Chow, N. A. *et al.* Genome Sequence of a Multidrug-Resistant *Candida haemulonii* Isolate from a
Patient with Chronic Leg Ulcers in Israel. *Genome Announc.* **(in press),** (2018).
18. Chow, N. A. *et al.* Genome Sequence of the Amphotericin B-Resistant *Candida duobushaemulonii*
Strain, B09383. *Genome Announc.* **(in press),** (2018).

19. Oh, B. J. *et al.* Biofilm formation and genotyping of *Candida haemulonii*, *Candida*
pseudohaemulonii, and a proposed new species (*Candida auris*) isolates from Korea. *Med. Mycol.*
49, 98–102 (2011).
20. Butler, G. *et al.* Evolution of pathogenicity and sexual reproduction in eight *Candida* genomes.
Nature **459,** 657–62 (2009).
21. Reedy, J. L., Floyd, A. M. & Heitman, J. Mechanistic Plasticity of Sexual Reproduction and Meiosis
in the *Candida* Pathogenic Species Complex. *Curr. Biol.* **19,** 891–899 (2009).
22. Copping, V. M. S. *et al.* Exposure of *Candida albicans* to antifungal agents affects expression of
SAP2 and SAP9 secreted proteinase genes. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* **55,** 645–654 (2005).
23. Reuß, O. & Morschhäuser, J. A family of oligopeptide transporters is required for growth of *Candida*
albicans on proteins. *Mol. Microbiol.* **60,** 795–812 (2006).
24. Hube, B. *et al.* Secreted lipases of *Candida albicans*: cloning, characterisation and expression
analysis of a new gene family with at least ten members. *Arch. Microbiol.* **174,** 362–374 (2000).
25. Perea, S. *et al.* Prevalence of Molecular Mechanisms of Resistance to Azole Antifungal Agents in
Candida albicans Strains Displaying High-Level Fluconazole Resistance Isolated from Human
Immunodeficiency Virus-Infected Patients. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **45,** 2676–2684 (2001).
26. Gaur, M. *et al.* MFS transportome of the human pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans*. *BMC*
Genomics **9,** 579 (2008).
27. Prasad, R. & Goffeau, A. Yeast ATP-binding cassette transporters conferring multidrug resistance.
Annu. Rev. Microbiol. **66,** 39–63 (2012).
28. Liu, T. T. *et al.* Genome-wide expression profiling of the response to azole, polyene, echinocandin,
and pyrimidine antifungal agents in Candida albicans. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **49,** 2226–
2236 (2005).
29. Sorgo, A. G. *et al.* Effects of fluconazole on the secretome, the wall proteome, and wall integrity of
the clinical fungus Candida albicans. *Eukaryot. Cell* **10,** 1071–1081 (2011).
30. Rogers, P. D. & Barker, K. S. Evaluation of differential gene expression in fluconazole-susceptible
and -resistant isolates of Candida albicans by cDNA microarray analysis. *Antimicrob. Agents*
Chemother. **46,** 3412–3417 (2002).
31. Fakhim, H. *et al.* Comparative virulence of *Candida auris* with *Candida haemulonii*, *Candida*
glabrata and *Candida albicans* in a murine model. *Mycoses* (2018). doi:10.1111/myc.12754
32. Selmecki A., Gerami-Nejad M., Paulson C., Forche A. & Berman J. An isochromosome confers
drug resistance in vivo by amplification of two genes, ERG11 and TAC1. *Mol. Microbiol.* **68,** 624–
641 (2008).
33. Grahl, N., Demers, E. G., Crocker, A. W. & Hogan, D. A. Use of RNA-Protein Complexes for
Genome Editing in Non-*albicans Candida* Species. *mSphere* **2,** e00218-17 (2017).
34. Koren, S. *et al.* Canu: scalable and accurate long-read assembly via adaptivek-mer weighting and
repeat separation. *Genome Res.* **27,** 722–736 (2017).
35. Hunt, M. *et al.* Circlator: automated circularization of genome assemblies using long sequencing
reads. *Genome Biol.* **16,** 294 (2015).
36. Chin, C.-S. *et al.* Nonhybrid, finished microbial genome assemblies from long-read SMRT
sequencing data. *Nat. Methods* **10,** 563–569 (2013).
37. Bankevich, A. *et al.* SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell
sequencing. *J Comput Biol* **19,** 455–77 (2012).
38. Walker, B. J. *et al.* Pilon: an integrated tool for comprehensive microbial variant detection and
genome assembly improvement. *PLoS One* **9,** e112963 (2014).
39. Shishkin, A. A. *et al.* Simultaneous generation of many RNA-seq libraries in a single reaction. *Nat*
Methods **12,** 323–5 (2015).

40. Hoff, K. J., Lange, S., Lomsadze, A., Borodovsky, M. & Stanke, M. BRAKER1: Unsupervised RNA-
Seq-Based Genome Annotation with GeneMark-ET and AUGUSTUS. *Bioinformatics* **32,** 767–769
(2016).
41. Lomsadze, A., Burns, P. D. & Borodovsky, M. Integration of mapped RNA-Seq reads into automatic
training of eukaryotic gene finding algorithm. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **42,** e119–e119 (2014).
42. Stanke, M., Diekhans, M., Baertsch, R. & Haussler, D. Using native and syntenically mapped cDNA
alignments to improve de novo gene finding. *Bioinformatics* **24,** 637–644 (2008).
43. Lowe, T. M. & Eddy, S. R. tRNAscan-SE: a program for improved detection of transfer RNA genes
in genomic sequence. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **25,** 955–964 (1997).
44. Lagesen, K. *et al.* RNAmmer: consistent and rapid annotation of ribosomal RNA genes. *Nucleic
Acids Res.* **35,** 3100–3108 (2007).
45. Eddy, S. R. Accelerated Profile HMM Searches. *PLoS Comput Biol* **7,** e1002195 (2011).
46. Conesa, A. *et al.* Blast2GO: a universal tool for annotation, visualization and analysis in functional
genomics research. *Bioinformatics* **21,** 3674–6 (2005).
47. Goldberg, J. M. *et al.* Kinannote, a computer program to identify and classify members of the
eukaryotic protein kinase superfamily. *Bioinformatics* **29,** 2387–94 (2013).
48. Saier, M. H., Jr., Tran, C. V. & Barabote, R. D. TCDB: the Transporter Classification Database for
membrane transport protein analyses and information. *Nucleic Acids Res* **34,** D181-6 (2006).
49. Parra, G., Bradnam, K. & Korf, I. CEGMA: a pipeline to accurately annotate core genes in
eukaryotic genomes. *Bioinformatics* **23,** 1061–7 (2007).
50. Simão, F. A., Waterhouse, R. M., Ioannidis, P., Kriventseva, E. V. & Zdobnov, E. M. BUSCO:
assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs.
Bioinformatics **31,** 3210–3212 (2015).
51. Li, L., Stoeckert, C. J., Jr. & Roos, D. S. OrthoMCL: identification of ortholog groups for eukaryotic
genomes. *Genome Res* **13,** 2178–89 (2003).
52. Stamatakis, A. RAxML-VI-HPC: maximum likelihood-based phylogenetic analyses with thousands
of taxa and mixed models. *Bioinformatics* **22,** 2688–90 (2006).
53. Storey, J. D. & Tibshirani, R. Statistical significance for genomewide studies. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U
A* **100,** 9440–5 (2003).
54. Langmead, B. & Salzberg, S. L. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat. Methods* **9,** 357–
359 (2012).
55. Robinson, M. D., McCarthy, D. J. & Smyth, G. K. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential
expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl.* **26,** 139–140 (2010).
56. Haas, B. J. *et al.* De novo transcript sequence reconstruction from RNA-seq using the Trinity
platform for reference generation and analysis. *Nat Protoc* **8,** 1494–512 (2013).
764