

1 Parallel Expansion and Divergence of an Adhesin 2 Family in Pathogenic Yeasts

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12 **Abstract**

13 Opportunistic yeast pathogens arose multiple times in the Saccharomycetes class, including the
14 recently emerged, multidrug-resistant *Candida auris*. We show that homologs of a known yeast
15 adhesin family in *Candida albicans*, the Hyr/Iff-like (Hil) family, are enriched in distinct clades of
16 *Candida* species as a result of multiple, independent expansions. Following gene duplication,
17 the tandem repeat-rich region in these proteins diverged extremely rapidly and generated large
18 variations in length and β -aggregation potential, both of which were known to directly affect
19 adhesion. The conserved N-terminal effector domain was predicted to adopt a β -helical fold
20 followed by an α -crystallin domain, making it structurally similar to a group of unrelated bacterial
21 adhesins. Evolutionary analyses of the effector domain in *C. auris* revealed relaxed selective
22 constraint combined with signatures of positive selection, suggesting functional diversification
23 after gene duplication. Lastly, we found the Hil family genes to be enriched at chromosomal
24 ends, which likely contributed to their expansion via ectopic recombination and break-induced
25 replication. Combined, these results suggest that the expansion and diversification of adhesin
26 families generate variation in adhesion and virulence within and between species and are a key
27 step toward the emergence of fungal pathogens.

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29 Running title: Parallel evolution of adhesins in yeasts

30 Keywords: *Candida auris*, adhesin, gene duplication, convergent evolution, opportunistic yeast
31 pathogen, natural selection

32 Introduction

33 *Candida auris*, a newly emerged multidrug-resistant yeast pathogen, is associated with a high
34 mortality rate (up to 60% in a multi-continent meta-analysis (Lockhart et al. 2017)) and has
35 caused multiple outbreaks across the world (CDC global *C. auris* cases count, February 15th,
36 2021). As a result, it became the first fungal pathogen to be designated by CDC as an urgent
37 threat (CDC 2019). The emergence of *C. auris* as a pathogen is part of a bigger evolutionary
38 puzzle: *Candida* is a polyphyletic genus that contains most of the human yeast pathogens.
39 Phylogenetically, species like *C. albicans*, *C. auris* and *C. glabrata* belong to distinct clades with
40 close relatives that either don't or only rarely infect humans (Fig. 1A). This strongly suggests
41 that the ability to infect humans evolved multiple times in yeasts (Gabaldón et al. 2016).
42 Because many of the newly emerged *Candida* pathogens are either resistant or can quickly
43 evolve resistance to antifungal drugs (Lamoth et al. 2018; Srivastava et al. 2018), it is urgent to
44 understand how yeast pathogenesis arose and what increases their survival in the host. We
45 reason that any shared genetic changes among independently derived *Candida* pathogens will
46 reveal key factors for host adaptation.

47 Gene duplication and the subsequent functional divergence is a major source for the
48 evolution of novel phenotypes (Zhang 2003; Qian and Zhang 2014; Kuang et al. 2016; Eberlein
49 et al. 2017). In a genome comparison of seven pathogenic *Candida* species and nine low-
50 pathogenic potential relatives, three of the top six pathogen-enriched gene families encode
51 GlycosylPhosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored cell wall proteins, namely Hyr/Iff-like, Als-like and
52 Pga30-like (Butler et al. 2009). The first two encode known fungal adhesins (Bailey et al. 1996;
53 Hoyer 2001; Luo et al. 2010). These glycosylated cell wall proteins play key roles in fungal
54 attachment to host endo- and epithelial cells, mediate biofilm formation and iron acquisition, and
55 are well-established virulence factors (HOYER et al. 2008; de Groot et al. 2013; Lipke 2018). It
56 has been suggested that expansion of the cell wall protein repertoire, particularly adhesins, is a
57 key step towards the evolution of yeast pathogens (Gabaldón et al. 2016). This is supported by
58 a study showing that several adhesin families independently expanded in *C. glabrata* and close
59 relatives (Gabaldón et al. 2013). Interestingly, studies of pathogenic *Escherichia coli* found that
60 multiple strains independently acquired genes mediating intestinal adhesion, giving credence to
61 the hypothesis from a different kingdom (Reid et al. 2000).

62 Despite the importance of adhesins in both the evolution and virulence of *Candida*
63 pathogens, there is a lack of detailed phylogenetic study for their evolutionary history (Hoyer
64 2001; Linder and Gustafsson 2008; Gabaldón et al. 2013). Even less is known about their
65 sequence divergence and the role of natural selection in their evolution (Xie et al. 2011). In the

66 newly emerged *Candida auris*, individual adhesins have been characterized but there is little
67 information about their evolutionary relationship with homologs in other *Candida* species and
68 how their sequences diverged (Kean et al. 2018; Singh et al. 2019; Muñoz et al. 2021). In this
69 study we characterized the detailed evolutionary history of a yeast adhesin family and used *C.*
70 *auris* as a focal group to determine how adhesin sequences diverged under various natural
71 selection forces. To choose a candidate adhesin family in *C. auris*, we compared it with the well-
72 studied *C. albicans*, which belongs to the same CUG-Ser1 clade. Of the known adhesins in *C.*
73 *albicans*, *C. auris* lacks the Hwp family and has only three Als or Als-like proteins compared with
74 eight Als proteins in *C. albicans* (Muñoz et al. 2018). By contrast, *C. auris* has eight genes with
75 a Hyphal_reg_CWP (PF11765) domain found in the Hyr/Iff family in *C. albicans* (Muñoz et al.
76 2021). This family was one of the most highly enriched in pathogenic *Candida* species relative
77 to non-pathogenic ones (Butler et al. 2009). Transcriptomic studies identified two *C. auris*
78 Hyr/Iff-like (Hil) genes as being upregulated during biofilm formation and under antifungal
79 treatment (Kean et al. 2018). Interestingly, isolates from the less virulent *C. auris* Clade II lack
80 five of the eight Hil genes (Muñoz et al. 2021). It is currently not known whether the *C. auris* HIL
81 genes encode adhesins, how they relate to the *C. albicans* Hyr/Iff family genes and how their
82 sequences diverged after duplication.

83 We show that the Hil family independently expanded multiple times, including in *C. auris*
84 and *C. albicans*. Using *C. auris* as a focal species, we show in detail how sequence features
85 and predicted structures of the effector domain offer support for the hypothesis that its Hil family
86 members encode adhesins, while rates of nonsynonymous-to-synonymous substitutions reveal
87 varying strengths of selective constraint and positive selection acting on the effector domain
88 during the expansion of the family. The observed pattern of rapid divergence in the repeat-rich
89 central domain was found to be general across the entire family and led to large variations in
90 length and β -aggregation potential both between and within species, likely contributing to
91 phenotypic diversity in adhesion and virulence.

92 **Results**

93 **Phylogenetic distribution of the Hyr/Iff-like (Hil) family and its potential to encode** 94 **adhesin**

95 The Hyr/Iff family was first identified and characterized in *Candida albicans* (Bailey et al. 1996;
96 Richard and Plaine 2007). The family is defined by its N-terminal Hyphally regulated Cell Wall
97 Protein domain (Hyphal_reg_CWP, PF11765), followed by a highly variable central domain rich
98 in tandem repeats (Boisramé et al. 2011). Because the effector domain is more conserved than

99 the repeat region and plays a prominent role in mediating adhesion in known yeast adhesins
100 (Willaert 2018), here we define the Hyr/Iff-like (Hil) family as the group of evolutionarily related
101 proteins sharing the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain, different from a previous definition based on
102 sequence similarity in either the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain or the repeat region (Butler et al. 2009).

103 To determine the phylogenetic distribution of the Hil family and its association with the
104 pathogenic potential of species, we performed BLASTP searches using the Hyphal_reg_CWP
105 domain from three distantly related Hil homologs as queries (from *C. auris*, *C. albicans* and *C.*
106 *glabrata*). We scrutinized the database hits and searched additional assemblies to ensure that
107 their sequences are complete and accurate given the available genome assemblies (Text S1).
108 Using the criteria of $E\text{-value} < 10^{-5}$ and query coverage $> 50\%$, we identified a total of 215 proteins
109 containing the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain from 32 species (Fig. 1A, Table S1). No credible hits
110 were identified outside the budding yeast subphylum even after a lower $E\text{-value}$ cutoff of 10^{-3}
111 was tested, suggesting that this family is specific to this group (Materials and Methods). Species
112 with eight or more Hil family genes fell largely within the Multi-Drug Resistant (MDR) and the
113 Candida/Lodderomyces (CaLo) clades, which include *C. auris* and *C. albicans*, respectively.
114 Only three such species were found outside of the two clades: *C. glabrata*, *M. bicuspidata* and
115 *K. africana*. *C. glabrata* is a major opportunistic pathogen that is more closely related to *S.*
116 *cerevisiae* than to most other *Candida* species (Dujon et al. 2004; Butler et al. 2009; Gabaldón
117 et al. 2013). *M. bicuspidata* is part of the CUG-Ser1 clade. While not a pathogen in humans, it is
118 a parasite of freshwater animals (Hall et al. 2010; Jiang et al. 2022). *K. africana* is not closely
119 related to any known yeast pathogen and its ecology is poorly understood (Gordon et al. 2011).

120 We then asked how many of the Hil family genes in each species are likely to encode
121 yeast adhesins. To get an initial estimate, we combined a Machine Learning tool for predicting
122 fungal adhesins (Chaudhuri et al. 2011) with predictions for the N-terminal signal peptide and C-
123 terminal GPI-anchor sequence, two features shared by the majority of known fungal adhesins
124 (Lipke 2018). Half of all Hil homologs passed all three tests (Fig. 1A). Notably, *M. bicuspidata*
125 has the largest Hil family among all species, but none of its 29 Hil genes passed all tests. We
126 found most of the identified hits in this species were short relative to the rest of the family (Fig.
127 S1), and 10 of the 29 hits were annotated as being incomplete in the RefSeq database. Further
128 analyses with a better assembled genome and functional studies are needed to determine if the
129 Hil family in this species has unique properties and functions.

130 **Independent expansion of the Hil family in multiple pathogenic *Candida* lineages**

131 Pathogenic yeast species have on average a larger Hil family and also more of its members
132 were predicted to encode adhesins than in low pathogenic-potential species (Fig. 1B, t-test with

133 unequal variance and Mann-Whitney U test both yielded $P < 0.005$, one-sided test). This naive
134 comparison doesn't account for phylogenetic relatedness between species and could result in a
135 false positive association (Levy et al. 2017; Bradley et al. 2018). To address this, we performed
136 phylogenetic logistic regression, which uses the known phylogeny to specify the residual
137 correlation structure among species with shared ancestry (Ives and Garland 2010). We tested
138 for associations between the pathogen status with either the total number of Hil homologs or the
139 number of putative adhesins in each species. Both tests were significant ($P = 0.005$ and 0.007 ,
140 respectively). Together, these results strongly support an enrichment of the Hil family and the
141 putative adhesins therein among the pathogenic yeast species.

142 Some adhesin families have undergone independent expansions even among closely
143 related species (Gabaldón et al. 2013). This would result in overestimation of the phylogenetic
144 signal in the above analysis. To further characterize the evolutionary history of the Hil family,
145 including among closely related *Candida* lineages, we reconstructed a species tree-aware
146 maximum likelihood phylogeny for the Hil family based on the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain
147 alignment (Fig. 1C, Fig. S2). We found that homologs from the MDR clade and the *Candida* /
148 *Lodderomyces* (CaLo) clade separated into two groups, suggesting that the duplications of the
149 Hil family genes in the two clades occurred independently. To better illustrate the history of gene
150 duplications in the Hil family, we reconciled the gene tree with the species tree and mapped the
151 number of duplications onto the species phylogeny (Materials and Methods). The result showed
152 that the Hil family has independently expanded multiple times, not only between clades but also
153 among closely related species within a clade, such as in *C. albicans* and *C. tropicalis* (Fig. 1D).

154 **Sequence features of the *C. auris* Hil family support their adhesin status**

155 Experiments have demonstrated that Hil family members function as adhesin in *C. albicans* and
156 more recently for one member in *C. glabrata* (Bailey et al. 1996; Boisramé et al. 2011; Reithofer
157 et al. 2021; Rosiana et al. 2021). To further evaluate the adhesin function of Hil family proteins,
158 we focused on *C. auris*, in which Hil family members were implicated in biofilm formation and
159 response to antifungal treatments, but still remain poorly characterized (Kean et al. 2018). We
160 named the eight *C. auris* Hil family proteins Hil1-Hil8 ordered by their length (Table S2). This
161 differs from the literature, which referred to them by their most closely related *Hyr*/*Iff* genes in *C.*
162 *albicans* (Kean et al. 2018; Jenull et al. 2021; Muñoz et al. 2021). The renaming was to avoid
163 the incorrect implication of one-to-one orthology between the two species (Fig. 1C).

164 To further assess the adhesin potential for the *C. auris* Hil family, we compared their
165 domain architecture and sequence features to those typical of known yeast adhesins, including
166 a signal peptide, an effector domain, a Ser/Thr-rich and highly glycosylated central domain with

167 tandem repeats and β -aggregation prone sequences and a GPI-anchor signal (Fig. 2A) (de
168 Groot et al. 2013; Lipke 2018). All eight *C. auris* Hil proteins followed this domain architecture
169 (Fig. 2B). Hil1-4 were additionally characterized by an array of regularly spaced β -aggregation
170 prone sequences (red ticks below the protein, Fig. 2B). All eight proteins also had elevated
171 Ser/Thr frequencies in their central domain and were predicted to be heavily O-glycosylated
172 (Fig. 2C). Predicted N-glycosylation was rare except in Hil5 and Hil6 (Fig. 2C). The overall
173 Ser/Thr frequencies in the Hil family proteins were significantly elevated compared with the rest
174 of the proteome (Fig. S3). All eight members were predicted to be fungal adhesins by
175 FungalRV, a support vector machine-based classifier that showed high sensitivity and specificity
176 in eight pathogenic fungi based on sequence features (Chaudhuri et al. 2011).

177 **Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in the Hil family is predicted to adopt a β -helical fold similar to** 178 **unrelated bacterial adhesin binding domains**

179 Crystal structures of the effector domain in several yeast adhesin families, including Als, Epa
180 and Flo, revealed carbohydrate or peptide binding activities supporting the proteins' adhesin
181 functions (Willaert 2018). The structure of the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in the Hil family in this
182 study has not yet been experimentally determined. However, crystal structures for the effector
183 domains of two Adhesin-like Wall Proteins (Awp1 and Awp3b) in *C. glabrata*, which are distantly
184 related to those in the Hil family, were recently reported, and the predicted structure of one of *C.*
185 *glabrata*'s Hil family members (Awp2) was found to be highly similar to the two solved structures
186 (Reithofer et al. 2021). We used AlphaFold2 (Jumper et al. 2021) to predict the structures of the
187 effector domain for two *C. auris* Hil proteins, Hil1 and Hil7 (Fig. 3A, B). Both resemble the *C.*
188 *glabrata* Awp1 effector domain (Fig. 3C), consisting of a right-handed β -helix at the N-terminus
189 followed by an α -crystallin fold. There are three β -strands in each of the 9 rungs in the β -helix,
190 stacked into three parallel β -sheets (Fig. 3D). The α -crystallin domain consists of seven β -
191 strands forming two antiparallel β -sheets, adopting an immunoglobulin-like β -sandwich fold (Fig.
192 3E) (Koteiche and Mchaourab 1999; Stamler et al. 2005).

193 The β -strand-rich structure is typical of effector domains in known yeast adhesins, but
194 the β -helix fold at the N-terminus is uncommon (Willaert 2018). Proteins with a β -helix domain
195 often have carbohydrate-binding capabilities and act as enzymes, e.g., hydrolase and pectate
196 lyase (SCOP ID: 3001746). To gain further insight into Hyphal_reg_CWP domain's function, we
197 searched the PDB50 database for structures similar to what was predicted for *C. auris* Hil1
198 using DALI (Holm 2022). We identified a number of bacterial adhesins with a highly similar β -
199 helix fold but no α -crystallin domain (Table S3), e.g., Hmw1 from *H. influenzae* (PDB: 2ODL),
200 Tāpirins from *C. hydrothermalis* (PDB: 6N2C), TibA from enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (PDB: 4Q1Q)

201 and SRRP from *L. reuteri* (PDB: 5NY0). For comparison, the binding region of the Serine Rich
202 Repeat Protein 100-23 (SRRP₁₀₀₋₂₃) from *L. reuteri* was shown in Fig. 3F (Sequeira et al. 2018).
203 Together, these results strongly suggest that the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in the *C. auris* Hil
204 family genes mediates adhesion. Additionally, the low sequence identity (12-15%) between the
205 yeast Hyphal_reg_CWP domain and the bacterial adhesins' binding regions further suggests
206 the two groups have convergently evolved a similar structure to achieve adhesion functions.

207 **Rapid divergence of the repeat-rich central domain in Hil family proteins in *C. auris***

208 While the overall domain architecture is well conserved, the eight Hil family proteins in *C. auris*
209 differ significantly in length and sequence of their central domains (Fig. 2B). While not involved
210 in ligand binding, central domains in yeast adhesins are known to play a critical role in mediating
211 adhesion: the length and stiffness of the central domain are essential for elevating and exposing
212 the effector domain (Frieman et al. 2002; Boisramé et al. 2011); and the tandem repeats and β -
213 aggregation sequences within them directly contribute to adhesion by mediating homophilic
214 binding and amyloid formation (Rauceo et al. 2006; Otoo et al. 2008; Frank et al. 2010; Wilkins
215 et al. 2018). Thus, divergence in the central domain of the Hil family has the potential to lead to
216 phenotypic diversity, as shown in *S. cerevisiae* (Verstrepen et al. 2004; Verstrepen et al. 2005).

217 To determine how the central domain sequences evolved in the *C. auris* Hil family, we
218 used dot plots both to reveal the tandem repeat structure within each protein and to examine the
219 similarity among the paralogs. A "dot" on the x-y plot indicates that the corresponding segments
220 (window size = 50 a.a.) from the two proteins on the x- and y-axes share similarity, with the gray
221 scale being proportional to the degree of similarity (Brodie et al. 2004). We found that *C. auris*
222 Hil1, 2, 3 and 4 share a ~44 aa repeat unit, whose copy number varies between 15 and 46,
223 driving differences in their protein lengths (Fig. 4A). These repeats have conserved periodicity
224 as well as sequence (Fig. 4B, Fig. S4). There are two interesting features of this 44 aa repeat
225 unit: a) it contains a heptapeptide "GVVIVTT" that is predicted to be strongly β -aggregation
226 prone, which explains the large number of regularly spaced β -aggregation motifs in Hil1-Hil4
227 (Fig. 2B); b) it is predicted to form three β -strands in the same orientation (Fig. 4B), raising an
228 interesting question of whether the tandem repeats may adopt a β -structure similar to that of the
229 effector domain. Hil7 and Hil8 encode the same repeat unit but have only one copy (Fig. 4A, red
230 boxes). By contrast, Hil5 and Hil6 encode very different low complexity repeats with a unit
231 length of ~5 aa. Their copy numbers range between 15 to 49 (Fig. 4C, D) have relatively low
232 Ser/Thr frequencies (Fig. 2C). Another consequence of encoding only one or zero copies of the
233 44 aa repeat unit found in Hil1-Hil4 is that Hil5-Hil8 are predicted to have 2-4 β -aggregation
234 prone sequences in contrast to 21-50 in Hil1-Hil4. For comparison, characterized yeast

235 adhesins contain 1-3 such sequences at a cutoff of >30% β -aggregation potential predicted by
236 TANGO (Fernandez-Escamilla et al. 2004; Ramsook et al. 2010; Lipke 2018). The variable
237 lengths, Ser/Thr frequencies and distribution of β -aggregation sequences, all resulting from the
238 evolution of the tandem repeats, suggest the intriguing possibility that the 8 different Hil proteins
239 in *C. auris* are non-redundant, playing distinct roles in cell adhesion and other cell-wall related
240 phenotypes.

241 Because tandem repeats are prone to recombination-mediated expansions and
242 contractions, we asked if there are variable numbers of tandem repeats (VNTR) among strains
243 in *C. auris*, which could generate diversity in cell adhesive properties as shown in *S. cerevisiae*
244 (Verstrepen et al. 2005). To answer this question, we identified homologs of Hil1-Hil4 in nine *C.*
245 *auris* strains from three geographically-stratified clades (Muñoz et al. 2018; Muñoz et al. 2021).
246 The genomes of these strains were *de novo* assembled using long-read technologies (Table
247 S4), which allowed us to confidently assess copy number variations within tandem repeats. We
248 identified a total of eight indel polymorphisms in Hil1-Hil4 (Table S5, example alignments in Fig.
249 S5). Except for one 16 aa deletion that is in a single Clade III strain, all seven other indels span
250 one or multiples of the repeat unit and affect all strains within a clade. This is consistent with
251 them being driven by recombination between repeats. The agreement within clades additionally
252 show the indels are not due to sequencing / assembly artifacts, which are not expected to follow
253 the clade labels. As previously reported, Clade II strains lack five of the eight Hil family proteins,
254 including Hil1-4 (Muñoz et al. 2021). Our phylogenetic analysis further showed that this was due
255 to gene losses within Clade II (Fig. S6). The potential relationship between the Hil family size
256 and the virulence profiles of Clade II strains is discussed later.

257 **Natural selection on the effector domain during the Hil family expansion in *C. auris***

258 Gene duplication provides raw materials for natural selection and is often followed by a period of
259 relaxed functional constraints on one or both copies, allowing for sub- or neo-functionalization
260 (Zhang 2003; Innan and Kondrashov 2010). Positive selection can be involved in this process,
261 which can lead to a ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitution rates $dN/dS > 1$ (Yang
262 1998). Here we ask if the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in *C. auris* Hil1-Hil8 experienced relaxed
263 selective constraints and/or positive selection following gene duplications, the latter of which
264 would suggest functional diversification. We chose to focus on the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain
265 because of its functional importance and because the high-quality alignment in this domain
266 allowed us to make confident evolutionary inferences (Fig. S7).

267 Because gene conversion between paralogs can cause distinct genealogical histories for
268 different parts of the alignment and mislead evolutionary inferences (Casola and Hahn 2009),

269 we first identified putatively non-recombining partitions using GARD (Kosakovsky Pond et al.
270 2006) (Fig. S8), and chose two partitions, P1-414 and P697-981, for maximum-likelihood based
271 analyses using PAML (Yang 2007) (Fig. 5A).

272 We first tested if a subset of the sites evolved under positive selection consistently on *all*
273 branches. We found moderate evidence supporting the hypothesis for the P697-981 partition,
274 where the M8 vs. M7 and M8 vs. M8a tests were significant at a 0.01 level, but the conservative
275 test M2a vs M1a was not (Table S6). All three tests were insignificant for the P1-414 partition.
276 Next, we tested for elevated dN/dS on selected branches of the tree, sign of relaxed selective
277 constraints or positive selection. We first estimated the dN/dS for each branch using a free-ratio
278 model and designated those with dN/dS greater than 10 as the “foreground” (Fig. 5B, C, “FG”).
279 We found strong evidence for the FG branches to have a higher dN/dS than the remainder of
280 the tree (log-likelihood ratio test $P < 0.01$, Fig. 5D). There is no evidence, however, for the
281 dN/dS across the entire domain on the FG branches to be greater than 1 (Fig. 5D, a, row 2). We
282 then tested the more realistic scenario, where a subset of the sites on the FG branches were
283 subject to positive selection. Using the branch-site test 2 as defined in (Zhang et al. 2005), we
284 found evidence for positive selection on a subset of the sites on the FG branches for both
285 partitions (log-likelihood ratio test $P < 0.01$), and identified residues in both as candidate targets
286 of positive selection with a posterior probability greater than 0.99 (Fig. 5D). We conclude that
287 there is strong evidence for relaxed selective constraint on the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain on
288 some branches following gene duplications; there is also evidence for positive selection acting
289 on a subset of the sites on those branches. However, as the free-ratio model estimates were
290 noisy and the Empirical Bayes method used to identify the residues under selection lacks power
291 (Zhang et al. 2005) and can produce false positives (Nozawa et al. 2009), the specific branches
292 and residues implicated must be interpreted with caution.

293 **The yeast Hil family has adhesin-like domain architecture with rapidly diverging central** 294 **domain sequences**

295 We next examined the entire yeast Hil family to reveal the broader patterns of their evolution.
296 We found that the Hil family in general has elevated Ser/Thr content compared with the rest of
297 the proteome (Fig. S9). Moreover, the majority encode tandem repeats in the central domain
298 (Fig. 6A) and contain predicted β -aggregation prone sequences (Fig. 6B). Together, these
299 features further suggest that most yeast Hil family members encode fungal adhesins. While
300 these key features typical of yeast adhesins are conserved, the yeast Hil family exhibits extreme
301 variation in protein length, tandem-repeat content as well as in β -aggregation potential (Fig. 6A,
302 B, S10), extending the pattern seen in *C. auris* (Fig. 2). The length of the protein outside of the

303 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain has a mean \pm standard deviation of 822.4 ± 785.8 aa and a median of
304 608.5 aa. This large variation in protein length is almost entirely driven by the tandem repeats
305 (Fig. 6C, linear regression slope = 1.0, $r^2 = 0.83$). A subset of the Hil proteins (vertical bar in Fig.
306 6A, B) stand out in that they are both longer than the rest of the family (1745 vs 770 aa, median
307 protein length) and have an unusually large number of β -aggregation prone motifs (25 vs 6,
308 median number of TANGO hits per protein). The motifs in this group of proteins are regularly
309 spaced as a result of being part of the tandem repeat unit (median absolute deviation, or MAD,
310 of distances between adjacent TANGO hits less than 5 aa, Fig. 6D). The motif “GVVIVTT” and
311 its variants account for 61% of all hits in this subset and are not found in significant number in
312 the rest of the family. Together, these observations combined with previous experimental
313 studies showing a direct impact of adhesin length and β -aggregation potential on their function
314 (Verstrepen et al. 2005; Lipke et al. 2012) lead us to propose that the rapid divergence of the Hil
315 family following the parallel expansion led to functional diversification in adhesion in pathogenic
316 yeasts and may have contributed to their enhanced virulence.

317 **The yeast Hil family genes are preferentially located near chromosome ends**

318 Several well-characterized yeast adhesin families, including the Flo family in *S. cerevisiae* and
319 the Epa family in *C. glabrata*, are enriched in the subtelomeres (Teunissen and Steensma 1995;
320 De Las Peñas et al. 2003; Xu et al. 2020; Xu et al. 2021). This region is associated with high
321 rates of SNPs, indels and copy number variations, and can undergo ectopic recombination that
322 enables the spread of genes between chromosome ends or their losses (Mefford and Trask
323 2002; Anderson et al. 2015). To determine if the Hil family is also enriched in the subtelomeric
324 region, we compared their chromosomal locations with the background gene density distribution
325 (Fig. 7A) in species with a chromosomal level assembly (Table S7). To account for the shared
326 evolutionary history, we selected one species per closely related group such that the Hil family
327 homologs in these species were mostly derived through independent duplications based on our
328 gene tree (Fig. S2). The result showed that the Hil family genes are indeed enriched at
329 chromosomal ends (Fig. 7B). A goodness-of-fit test confirmed that the difference between the
330 chromosomal locations of the Hil family and the genome background is highly significant ($P =$
331 1.3×10^{-12}). As ectopic recombination between subtelomeres has been suggested to underlie the
332 spread of gene families (Anderson et al. 2015), we hypothesize that the enrichment of the Hil
333 family towards the chromosome ends is both a cause and consequence of its parallel expansion
334 in different *Candida* lineages.

335 Discussion

336 The repeated emergence of human pathogens in the Saccharomycetes class poses serious
337 health threats, as many emerging pathogenic species are multi-drug resistant or quickly gain
338 resistance (Lamoth et al. 2018; Srivastava et al. 2018). This raises an evolutionary question: are
339 there shared genomic changes in independently derived *Candida* pathogens, which could be
340 key factors in host adaptation? Yeast adhesin families were among the most enriched gene
341 families in pathogenic lineages relative to the low pathogenic potential relatives (Butler et al.
342 2009). It has been proposed that expansion of adhesin families could be a key step in the
343 emergence of novel yeast pathogens (Gabaldón et al. 2016). However, detailed phylogenetic
344 studies supporting this hypothesis are rare (Gabaldón et al. 2013), and far less is known about
345 how their sequences diverge and what selective forces are involved during the expansions (Xie
346 et al. 2011; Muñoz et al. 2021). In this study, we found that the Hyr/Iff-like (Hil) family, defined
347 by the conserved Hyphal_reg_CWP domain, is significantly enriched among distantly related
348 pathogenic clades (Fig. 1A, B). This resulted from independent expansion of the family in these
349 clades, including among closely related species (Fig. 1C, D). We also showed that the protein
350 sequences diverged extremely rapidly after duplications, driven mostly by the evolution of the
351 tandem repeats and resulting in large variations in protein length, Ser/Thr content and β -
352 aggregation potential (Fig. 2B, C, Fig. 6). Our evolutionary analyses revealed evidence of
353 relaxed selective constraint and a potential role of positive selection acting on the
354 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain during the family's expansion in *C. auris* (Fig. 5). We also found the
355 Hil family to be strongly enriched near chromosomal ends (Fig. 7). Overall, our results support
356 the hypothesis that expansion and diversification of adhesin families is a key step towards the
357 emergence of yeast pathogens.

358 Genome assembly quality limits gene family evolution studies

359 Like any study of multi-gene family evolution, our work relies on and is limited by the quality of
360 the genome assemblies. Two additional challenges in our study are due to the fact that Hil
361 family genes are rich in tandem repeats (Fig. 2B, 6A), and many are located near chromosome
362 ends (Fig. 7B), both of which pose problems for genome assemblies. For example, we found
363 significant disagreement in length for 8 of the 16 Hil proteins in *C. tropicalis* between a long-read
364 assembly and the RefSeq assembly, consistent with a recent study (Oh et al. 2020) (Table S8);
365 in *C. glabrata*, we identified 13 Hil family genes in a long-read assembly (GCA_010111755.1) vs
366 3 in the RefSeq assembly (GCF_000002545.3); 12 of the 13 genes were in the subtelomeres
367 (Xu et al. 2020). However, similar analyses in additional species didn't reveal these problems,

368 suggesting that the issues were at least in part due to difficulties in some genomes (Text S1).
369 Nonetheless, we acknowledge the possibility of missing homologs and inaccurate sequences,
370 especially in the tandem-repeat region. We thus believe the expected improvements in genome
371 assemblies due to advances in long-read sequencing technologies will be crucial for future
372 studies of the adhesin gene family in yeasts. It is worth noting that our main conclusions about
373 the parallel expansion of the Hil family and its rapid divergence patterns are robust with respect
374 to isolated problems as described above. Also, the long-read technology-based and *de novo*
375 assembled genomes for *C. auris* strains allowed us to confidently assess variation in the Hil
376 family size and tandem repeat copy number between paralogs and among individual strains
377 (Table S4). The accuracy of the tandem-repeat sequences in multiple strains in this species is
378 supported by the conservation of repeat copy numbers within clades (Table S5).

379 **Evidence for adhesin functions in the Hil family**

380 A few members of the Hil family, e.g., Iff4 in *C. albicans* and Awp2 in *C. glabrata* were shown to
381 mediate adhesiveness to polystyrene (Fu et al. 2008; Kempf et al. 2009; Reithofer et al. 2021).
382 While further experimental studies are needed to establish the adhesin functions of other Hil
383 family members, our work provides bioinformatic support for this hypothesis (Fig. 2, 6). The
384 predicted β -helix fold of the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain (Fig. 3), while unusual among
385 characterized yeast adhesins (Willaert 2018), is found in many virulence factors residing on the
386 surface of bacteria or viruses as well as enzymes that degrade or modify polysaccharides
387 (Table S3) (Kajava and Steven 2006). The elongated shape and rigid structure of the β -helix are
388 consistent with the functional requirements of adhesins, including the need to protrude from the
389 cell surface and the capacity for multiple binding sites along its length that facilitate adhesion. In
390 a bacterial adhesin – the serine rich repeat protein (SRRP) from the Gram-positive bacterium, *L.*
391 *reuteri* – a protruding, flexible loop in the β -helix was proposed to serve as a binding pocket for
392 its ligand (Sequeira et al. 2018). Such a feature is not apparent in the predicted structure of the
393 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain. Further studies are needed to elucidate the mechanism of action of
394 this domain and its potential substrates.

395 The cross-kingdom similarity in adhesin effector domain structure is intriguing in several
396 ways. First, it suggests convergent evolution in bacteria and yeasts. Second, it suggests that
397 what is known about the structure-function relationship in bacteria can provide insight into the
398 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in yeast. Notably, the *LrSRRP* shows a pH-dependent substrate
399 specificity that is potentially adapted to distinct host niches (Sequeira et al. 2018). Finally, the
400 similar structure and function of the bacterial and yeast adhesins could mediate cross-kingdom
401 interactions in natural and host environments (Uppuluri et al. 2018).

402 However, not all Hil family homologs are likely to encode adhesins. Sequence features
403 suggest some Hil family proteins may have non-adhesin functions. For example, 39 of 193 Hil
404 proteins (homologs labeled as incomplete were excluded) have the requisite signal sequence
405 (SP+), but lack a GPI anchor attachment site (gpi-, Fig. S1). One, Iff11 in *C. albicans*, was
406 shown to be secreted, and a null mutant of it was found to be hypersensitive to cell wall-
407 damaging agents and less virulent in a murine systemic infection model (Bates et al. 2007).
408 Moreover, 75% of these “SP+, gpi-“ proteins are shorter than 600 amino acids, in contrast to
409 only 4% of the 117 proteins having both a signal peptide and a GPI anchor attachment site.
410 Such short, secreted proteins with tandem repeat sequences identical or similar to those
411 present in the cell-wall associated Hil protein counterparts may serve an important regulatory
412 function by bundling with wall associated adhesins as previously suggested for similar subclass
413 of proteins within the Als family (Oh et al. 2019). It is possible that the Hil family has evolved
414 diverse functions broadly related to cell adhesion.

415 **Ongoing diversification of the Hil family within species**

416 In addition to the parallel expansion and the subsequent rapid sequence divergence in the Hil
417 family between species, we and others also revealed population level variation in both the family
418 size and sequences within *C. auris* (Fig. S5, S6, Table S5) (Muñoz et al. 2021). Notably, among
419 the four geographically stratified clades, Clade II strains lost five of the eight Hil family members
420 (Fig. S6). Besides missing members of the Hil family, Clade II strains also lack seven of the
421 eight members of another GPI-anchor family that is specific to *C. auris* (Muñoz et al. 2021).
422 These coincide with the finding that Clade II strains were mostly associated with ear infections
423 (57/61 isolates according to (Kwon et al. 2019)) rather than hospital outbreaks, as reported for
424 strains from the other clades, and that they were generally less resistant to antifungal drugs
425 (Kwon et al. 2019; Welsh et al. 2019). This raises the question of whether the smaller adhesin
426 repertoire in Clade II strains limits their adhesive capability and results in a different pathology.
427 Similar expansion and contraction of adhesin families have been shown for the *C. glabrata* Hil
428 family (AWP Cluster V) and Epa family (Marcet-Houben et al. 2022), suggesting that dynamic
429 evolution of adhesin families in pathogenic yeasts could be a common pattern. Variation in the
430 tandem repeat copy number in Hil1-Hil4 among *C. auris* strains is also intriguing (Fig. S5). Prior
431 studies of the *S. cerevisiae* Flo proteins have shown that protein length directly impacts cellular
432 adhesion phenotypes (Verstrepen et al. 2005) and thus population level variation in adhesin
433 length could further contribute to phenotypic diversity. Lastly, scans for selective sweeps in *C.*
434 *auris* identified Hil and Als family members as being among the top 5% of all genes, suggesting

435 that adhesins are targets of natural selection in the recent evolutionary history of this newly
436 emerged pathogen (Muñoz et al. 2021).

437 Diversification of the adhesin repertoire within a strain can arise from a variety of
438 molecular mechanisms. For example, chimeric proteins generated through recombination
439 between Als family members or between an Als protein's N terminal effector domain and an
440 Hyr/Iff protein's repeat region have been shown (Butler et al. 2009; Zhao et al. 2011; Oh et al.
441 2019). Some of the adhesins with highly diverged central domains may have arisen in this
442 manner (Fig. S10). Gene conversion between members of the same family can also drive the
443 evolution of adhesin families within a species, as shown in *S. cerevisiae* and *C. glabrata*
444 (Verstrepen et al. 2004; Marcet-Houben et al. 2022). Evidence of this in the Hil family was
445 revealed in our analysis of recombination within the effector domain in *C. auris* (Fig. S8).

446 **Special properties of the central domain in *C. auris* Hil1-Hil4 and related Hil proteins**

447 A subset of Hil proteins represented by *C. auris* Hil1-Hil4 (Fig. 6A, B, vertical bar) stand out in
448 that they are much longer on average and encode a large number of β -aggregation prone
449 sequences compared with the rest of the family (Fig. 6B, D). Behind these properties is a
450 conserved ~44 aa repeat unit containing a highly β -aggregation prone sequence ("GVVIVTT"
451 and its variants) (Fig. 4B). β -aggregation prone sequences and the amyloid-like interaction they
452 mediate have been extensively studied, especially in the Als protein family in *C. albicans*: they
453 were experimentally shown to mediate aggregation (Otoo et al. 2008; Ramsook et al. 2010) and
454 were crucial for forming protein clusters on cell surfaces known as nanodomains in response to
455 physical tension or sheer forces (Alsteens et al. 2010; Lipke et al. 2012). Recently, they were
456 also shown to mediate cell-cell *trans* interactions via homotypic protein binding (Dehullu et al.
457 2019; Ho et al. 2019). This may underlie biofilm formation and kin discrimination (Smukalla et al.
458 2008; Brückner et al. 2020; Lipke et al. 2021). Most known yeast adhesins, including the Als
459 family proteins, encode between one and three β -aggregation prone sequences (Ramsook et al.
460 2010). *C. auris* Hil1-Hil4 and their close relatives are unusual in that they have as many as 50
461 such sequences, with each predicted by TANGO to have ~90% probability of aggregation,
462 whereas the positive threshold for the algorithm is only >5% over 5-6 residues (Fernandez-
463 Escamilla et al. 2004). The structural implications of the vast number of β -aggregation prone
464 motifs may be that such tandem repeat domains are constitutively amyloid in nature, rather than
465 requiring force or other stimuli as required by the Als proteins. The functional implications are
466 unclear without the requisite experimental tests. However, we speculate that variations in
467 protein length and β -aggregation potential resulting from the central domain divergence could

468 directly impact the adhesion functions as previously suggested (Verstrepen et al. 2005;
469 Boisramé et al. 2011; Lipke et al. 2012).

470 **Structural predictions of the tandem repeat region in *C. auris* Hil1 and Hil2**

471 Given the large number of ~44 aa repeats in the central domain of *C. auris* Hil1-Hil4 and the
472 prediction that each repeat encodes 3-4 short consecutive β -strands (Fig 4B), we wondered
473 what structural properties this region may have and how these features might contribute to the
474 adhesion function. We explored this question using threading based structural prediction tools
475 such as I-TASSER (Yang et al. 2015) and pDOMThreader (Lobley et al. 2009). For the tandem
476 repeat region in the central domain of Hil1, I-TASSER identified (S)-layer protein (SLP)
477 structures (e.g., RsaA from *C. crescentus*, SbsA and SbsC from *G. sterotherophilus*) as among
478 the top structural analogs. These β -strand-rich structures are known to self-assemble to form a
479 2-dimensional array on the surface of bacteria, mediating a range of functions including
480 adhesion to host cells in pathogens (Fagan and Fairweather 2014). pDOMThreader analyses of
481 the central domains in Hil1 and Hil2 identified a different set of templates, namely bacterial self-
482 associating proteins including Ag43a from uropathogenic *E. coli*, pertactin from *B. pertussis* and
483 the *H. influenzae* hap adhesin. Interestingly, these proteins have β -helical structures like the
484 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain, with the β -helices being involved in cell-cell interaction via an
485 interface along the long solenoidal axis for homotypic interactions, and mediating bacterial
486 clumping (Heras et al. 2014) and lead to biofilm formation in *H. influenzae* (Meng et al. 2011).
487 We speculate that the long repeat regions in Hil1 and Hil2 may similarly mediate cell-cell
488 interactions in *C. auris*.

489 The possibility that the central domains in Hil1 and Hil2 form a β -helix is interesting in
490 that β -helix is one of the commonly described structural motifs in functional amyloids, e.g., HET-
491 s from the fungus *Podospora anserina* (Wasmer et al. 2008). Such a solenoid-type amyloid is
492 distinguished from other amyloid types in that the β -helices formed by repeats within the same
493 protein, rather than among distinct monomeric proteins, are suggested to be stabilized not only
494 by polar zippers and hydrophobic contacts, but also by electrostatic interactions between the
495 alternating β -strands (Willbold et al. 2021). Other examples of amyloid forming proteins with a
496 predicted β -helix structure include the imperfect repeat domain in the human premelanosome
497 protein Pmel17 (Louros et al. 2016) and the extracellular curli proteins of Enterobacteriaceae
498 that are involved in biofilm formation and adhesion to host cells (Shewmaker et al. 2009). The
499 proposed solenoidal structure of the central domain of Hil1-Hil4 like proteins, if true, would have
500 two significant implications. First, it confers the necessary rigidity and extended conformation
501 required for cell wall anchored adhesins to extend into the surrounding extracellular milieu.

502 Second, the numerous β -strand rich repeats each containing a highly amyloid prone heptameric
503 sequence, and capable of wrapping into a solenoidal shaped stack, is likely to substantially
504 reduce the rate-limiting nucleation step, which limits the formation of, e.g., an A β amyloid fiber.
505 This would allow the formation of extracellular extensions at low protein concentrations without
506 the need for an extensive fiber lengthening process via the incorporation of additional
507 monomeric units. Finally, the observation of solenoid-mediated intercellular interactions in the
508 Hap adhesins suggests that Hil proteins may likewise have a biofilm related function.

509 **Genomic context**

510 As reported by (Muñoz et al. 2021), we found that the Hil family genes are preferentially located
511 near chromosomal ends in *C. auris* and also in other species examined (Fig. 7). This is similar
512 to previous findings for the Flo and Epa families (Teunissen and Steensma 1995; De Las Peñas
513 et al. 2003; Xu et al. 2020; Xu et al. 2021), as well as the Als genes in some species (Oh et al.
514 2021). This location bias of the Hil and other adhesin families is likely a key mechanism for their
515 dynamic expansion and sequence evolution via ectopic recombination (Anderson et al. 2015)
516 and by Break-Induced Replication (Bosco and Haber 1998; Sakofsky and Malkova 2017; Xu et
517 al. 2021). Another potential consequence of the Hil family genes being located in subtelomeres
518 is that they may be subject to epigenetic silencing as an additional regulatory mechanism, which
519 can be derepressed in response to stress (Ai et al. 2002). Such epigenetic regulation of the
520 adhesin genes was found to generate cell surface heterogeneity in *S. cerevisiae* (Halme et al.
521 2004) and lead to hyperadherent phenotypes in *C. glabrata* (Castaño et al. 2005).

522 **Concluding remarks**

523 To address the lack of candidate adhesins in *C. auris*, we identified and characterized the
524 Hyr/Iff-like (Hil) family in this species and all yeasts. Based on our results, we hypothesize that
525 expansion and diversification of adhesin gene families is a key step towards the evolution of
526 fungal pathogenesis and that variation in the adhesin repertoire contributes to within and
527 between species differences in the adhesive and virulence properties. Future experimental tests
528 of these hypotheses will be important biologically for improving our understanding of the fungal
529 adhesin repertoire, biotechnologically for inspiring additional nanomaterials, and biomedically for
530 advancing the development of *C. auris*-directed therapeutics.

531

532 **Materials and Methods**

533 **RESOURCE AVAILABILITY**

534 **Lead contact**

535 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be
536 fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Bin Z. He (bin-he@uiowa.edu).

537 **Data and code availability**

538 All raw data and code for generating the intermediate and final results are available at the
539 GitHub repository at <https://github.com/binhe-lab/C037-Cand-auris-adhesin>. Upon publication,
540 this repository will be digitally archived with Zenodo and a DOI will be minted and provided to
541 ensure reproducibility.

542 **Software and algorithms list**

NAME	REFERENCE	WEB OR DOWNLOAD URL
AlphaFold2	(Jumper et al. 2021)	https://github.com/sokrypton/ColabFold (links to DeepMind Google Colab Notebook)
BLAST+ v2.12.0	(Camacho et al. 2009)	https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
ClipKit	(Steenwyk et al. 2020)	https://github.com/JLSteenwyk/ClipKIT
Clustal Omega v1.2.4	(Sievers et al. 2011)	http://www.clustal.org/omega/
Custom R, Python and shell scripts	This study	https://github.com/binhe-lab/C037-Cand-auris-adhesin
DALI	(Holm 2022)	http://ekhidna2.biocenter.helsinki.fi/dali/
EMBOSS v6.6.0.0	(Rice et al. 2000)	http://emboss.open-bio.org/
FungalRV	(Chaudhuri et al. 2011)	http://fungalrv.igib.res.in/
GeneRax v2.0.1	(Morel et al. 2020)	https://github.com/BenoitMorel/GeneRax
HmmerWeb (hmmsearch)	(Potter et al. 2018)	https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/search/hmmsearch
Jalview v2.11	(Waterhouse et al. 2009)	https://www.jalview.org/
JDotter	(Brodie et al. 2004)	https://4virology.net/virology-ca-tools/jdotter/
NetNGlyc v1.0	(Gupta and Brunak 2002)	https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/service.php?NetNGlyc-1.0

NAME	REFERENCE	WEB OR DOWNLOAD URL
NetOGlyc v4.0	(Steentoft et al. 2013)	https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/service.php?NetOGlyc-4.0
PAL2NAL.pl	(Suyama et al. 2006)	http://www.bork.embl.de/pal2nal/
PAML v4.9e	(Yang 2007)	http://abacus.gene.ucl.ac.uk/software/paml.html
PredGPI	(Pierleoni et al. 2008)	http://gpcr.biocomp.unibo.it/pr-edgpi/
PSIPred	(Buchan and Jones 2019)	http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/
PyMol v2.5.2	(Schrödinger, LLC 2021)	https://pymol.org/
R package - ggtree v3.2.1	(Yu 2020)	https://github.com/YuLab-SMU/ggtree
R package - phylolm	(Ho and Ané 2014)	https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/phylolm/index.html
R package - rentrez v1.2.3	(Winter 2017)	https://github.com/ropensci/rentrez
R package - treeio v1.18.1	(Wang et al. 2020)	https://github.com/YuLab-SMU/treeio
R v4.1.0	(R Core Team)	https://cran.r-project.org/
RAxML v8.0.0	(Stamatakis 2014)	https://cme.hits.org/exelixis/web/software/raxml/
RAxML-NG v1.1.0	(Kozlov et al. 2019)	https://github.com/amkozlov/raxml-ng
RStudio v1.4	(RStudio Team 2021)	https://www.rstudio.com/
SignalP 6.0	(Teufel et al. 2022)	http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/
TANGO v2.3.1	(Fernandez-Escamilla et al. 2004)	http://tango.crg.es/
XSTREAM	(Newman and Cooper 2007)	https://amnewmanlab.stanford.edu/xstream/download.jsp

543

544 **METHOD DETAILS**

545 **Identify Hyr/lff-like (Hil) family homologs in yeasts and beyond**

546 To identify the Hil family proteins in yeasts and beyond, we used the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain
547 sequence from three distantly related Hil homologs as queries, namely, *C. albicans* Hyr1
548 (XP_722183.2), *C. auris* Hil1 (XP_028889033) and *C. glabrata* CAGL0E06600g (XP_722183.2).
549 We performed BLASTP searches in the RefSeq protein database with an *E*-value cutoff of 1×10^{-5} ,
550 a minimum query coverage of 50% and with the low complexity filter on. All hits were from
551 Ascomycota (yeasts) and all but one were from the Saccharomycetes class (budding yeast). A
552 single hit was found in the fission yeast *Schizosacchomyces cryophilus*. Using that hit as the
553 query, we searched all fission yeasts in the nr protein database, with a relaxed *E*-value cutoff of
554 10^{-3} and identified no additional hits. We thus excluded that one hit from downstream analyses.
555 To supplement the RefSeq database, which lacks some yeast species such as those in the
556 *Nakaseomyces* genus, we searched the Genome Resources for Yeast Chromosomes (GRYC,
557 <http://gryc.inra.fr/>). Using the same criteria, we recovered 16 additional sequences. To allow for
558 gene tree and species tree reconciliation, we excluded three species that are not part of the 322
559 species yeast phylogeny (Shen et al. 2018) and not a member of the Multidrug-Resistant clade
560 (Muñoz et al. 2018). Further details, including additional quality control steps taken to ensure
561 that the homolog sequences are accurate and complete, can be found in Text S1. In total, we
562 curated a list of 215 Hil family homologs from 32 species.

563 **Gene family enrichment analysis**

564 To determine if the Hil family is enriched in the pathogenic yeasts, we performed two analyses.
565 In the first analysis, we divided the species into pathogens vs low-pathogenic potential groups
566 and performed a t-test with unequal variance (also known as Welch's test) as well as a non-
567 parametric Mann-Whitney U test to compare the Hil family size in the two groups. For both tests,
568 we used either the total size of the family, or the number of putative adhesins as the random
569 variable, and the results were consistent. We excluded homologs from *M. bicuspidata* because
570 10 of its 29 Hil family proteins were annotated as incomplete in the RefSeq protein database,
571 and also because as a parasite of freshwater crustaceans, it does not fit into either the human
572 pathogen or the low-pathogenic potential group. *S. cerevisiae* was included in the comparison
573 as an example of species with zero members of the Hil family. We chose *S. cerevisiae* because
574 we could be confident about its lack of a Hil family homolog thanks to its well assembled and
575 well annotated genome.

576 In the second test, we used phylogenetic logistic regression (Ives and Garland 2010) to
577 account for the phylogenetic relatedness between species. We used the `phyloglm` function in
578 the `phylolm` package in R, with {method = "logistic_IG10", btol = 50, boot = 100}. The species
579 tree, including the topology and branch lengths, were based on the 322 species phylogeny from
580 (Shen et al. 2018), supplemented by the phylogenetic relationship for the MDR clade based on
581 (Muñoz et al. 2018). The *P*-values based on phylogenetically specified residual correlations
582 were reported.

583 **Phylogenetic analysis of the Hil family and inference of gene duplications and losses**

584 To infer the evolutionary history of the Hil family, we reconstructed a maximum-likelihood tree
585 based on the alignment of the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain. First, we used hmmscan (HmmerWeb
586 version 2.41.2) to identify the location of the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in each Hil homolog. We
587 used the “envelope boundaries” to define the domain in each sequence, and then aligned their
588 amino acid sequences using Clustal Omega with the parameter {--iter=5}. We then trimmed the
589 alignment using ClipKit with its default smart-gap trimming mode (Steenwyk et al. 2020).
590 RAXML-NG v1.1.0 was run in the MPI mode with the following parameters on the alignment:
591 “raxml-ng-mpi --all --msa INPUT --model LG+G --seed 123 --bs-trees autoMRE”. The resulting
592 tree was corrected using GeneRax, which seeks to maximize the joint likelihood of observing
593 the alignment given the gene family tree (GFT) and observing the GFT given the species
594 phylogeny, using the parameter {--rec-model UndatedDL}. The species tree used is the same as
595 the one used for the phylogenetic logistic regression above. In addition to correcting the gene
596 family tree, GeneRax also reconciled it with the species tree and inferred duplication and loss
597 event counts on each branch. Tree annotation and visualization were done in R using the treeio
598 and ggtree packages (Wang et al. 2020; Yu 2020).

599 To infer the phylogenetic tree for the Hil family homologs in various *C. auris* strains and
600 infer gains and losses within species, we identified orthologs of the *HIL* genes in representative
601 strains from the four major clades of *C. auris* (B8441, B11220, B11221, B11243) (Muñoz et al.
602 2018). Orthologs from two MDR species, *C. haemuloni* and *C. pseudohaemulonis*, and from *D.*
603 *hansenii* were included to help root the tree. The gene tree was constructed as described
604 above. To root the tree, we first inferred a gene tree without the outgroup (*D. hansenii*)
605 sequences in the alignment. Then, the full alignment with the outgroup sequences along with
606 the gene tree from the first step were provided to RAXML to run the Evolutionary Placement
607 Algorithm (EPA) algorithm (Berger et al. 2011), which identified a unique root location. To
608 reconcile the gene tree with the species tree, we performed maximum likelihood-based gene

609 tree correction using GeneRax (v2.0.1) with the parameters: {--rec-model UndatedDL}. The
610 species tree was based on (Muñoz et al. 2018).

611 **Prediction for fungal adhesins and adhesin-related sequence features**

612 **1)** The potential of Hil homologs encoding fungal adhesins was assessed using FungalRV, a
613 Support Vector Machine-based fungal adhesin predictor (Chaudhuri et al. 2011). Proteins
614 passing the recommended cutoff of 0.511 were considered positive. **2)** Signal Peptide was
615 predicted using the SignalP 6.0 server, with the “organism group” set to Eukarya. The server
616 reported the proteins that had predicted signal peptides. No further filtering was done. **3)** GPI-
617 anchor was predicted using PredGPI using the General Model. Proteins with a false positive
618 rate of 0.01 or less were considered as containing a GPI-anchor. **4)** Tandem repeats were
619 identified using XSTREAM with the following parameters: {-i.7 -l.7 -g3 -e2 -L15 -z -Asub.txt -B -
620 O}, where the “sub.txt” was provided by the software package. **5)** β -aggregation prone
621 sequences were predicted using TANGO v2.3.1 with the following parameters: {ct="N" nt="N"
622 ph="7.5" te="298" io="0.1" tf="0" stab="-10" conc="1" seq="SEQ"}. **6)** Serine and Threonine
623 content in proteins were quantified using `freak` from the EMBOSS suite, with a sliding window
624 of 100 or 50 aa and a step size of 10 aa. To compare with proteome-wide distribution of Ser/Thr
625 frequency, the protein sequences for *C. albicans* (SC5314), *C. glabrata* (CBS138) and *C. auris*
626 (B11221) were downloaded from NCBI Assembly database (IDs in Table S7) and the frequency
627 of serine and threonine residues were counted for each protein. **7)** O-linked and N-linked
628 glycosylations were predicted using NetOGlyc (v4.0) and NetNGlyc (v1.0) servers.

629 **Structural prediction and visualization for the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain**

630 To perform structural predictions using AlphaFold2, we used the Google Colab notebook
631 ([https://colab.research.google.com/github/deepmind/alphafold/blob/main/notebooks/AlphaFold.i](https://colab.research.google.com/github/deepmind/alphafold/blob/main/notebooks/AlphaFold.ipynb)
632 [pynb](https://colab.research.google.com/github/deepmind/alphafold/blob/main/notebooks/AlphaFold.ipynb)) authored by the DeepMind team. This is a reduced version of the full AlphaFold version 2
633 in that it searches a selected portion of the environmental BFD database, and doesn't use
634 templates. The Amber relaxation step is included, and no other parameters other than the input
635 sequences are required. DALI was used to search for similar structures in the PDB50 database.
636 Model visualization and annotation were done in PyMol v2.5.2. Secondary structure prediction
637 for *C. auris* Hil1's central domain was performed using PSIPred.

638 **Dotplot**

639 To determine the self-similarity and similarity between the eight *C. auris* Hil proteins, we made
640 dotplots using JDotter (Brodie et al. 2004). The window size and contrast settings were labeled

641 in the legends for the respective plots. The self-alignment for *C. auris* Hil1 tandem repeats was
642 visualized using Jalview v2.11.

643 **Identification of intraspecific tandem repeat copy number variations among *C. auris* strains**

644 To identify polymorphisms in Hil1-Hil4 in diverse *C. auris* strains, we downloaded the genome
645 sequences for the following strains from NCBI: Clade I - B11205, B13916; Clade II - B11220,
646 B12043, B13463; Clade III - B11221, B12037, B12631, B17721; Clade IV - B11245, B12342
647 (Table S4). The amino acid sequences for Hil1-Hil4 from the strain B8441 were used as the
648 query to search the nucleotide sequences of the above assemblies using TBLASTN, with the
649 following parameters {-db_gencode 12 -evalue 1e-150 -max_hsps 2}. Orthologs in each strain
650 were curated based on the BLAST hits to either the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain alone or the
651 entire protein query. All Clade II strains had no hits for Hil1-Hil4. Several strains in Clade I, III
652 and IV were found to lack one or more Hil proteins (Table S5). But upon further inspection, it
653 was found that they had significant TBLASTN hits for part of the query, e.g., the central domain,
654 and the hits were located at the end of a chromosome, suggesting the possibility of incomplete
655 or misassembled sequences. Further experiments will be needed to determine if those *HIL*
656 genes are present in those strains.

657 **Estimation of dN/dS ratios and model comparisons**

658 We used `codeml` in PAML (v4.9e) to perform evolutionary inferences on the Hyphal_reg_CWP
659 domain in *C. auris*. We first used Clustal Omega to align the amino acid sequences for the
660 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain from Hil1-Hil8 from *C. auris* similar to how we generated the multiple
661 sequence alignment for all Hil proteins. A closely related outgroup (XP_018709340.1 from *M.*
662 *bicuspidata*) was included to root the tree. We then generated a coding sequence alignment
663 from the protein alignment using PAL2NAL (Suyama et al. 2006). We used GARD (Kosakovsky
664 Pond et al. 2006) to analyze the coding sequence alignment to detect gene conversion events.
665 The web service of GARD on datamonkey.org was run with the following parameters: {data
666 type: nucleotide, run mode: normal, genetic code: yeast alternative nuclear, site-to-site rate
667 variation: general discrete, rate classes: 3}. Based on the results, we identified two putatively
668 non-recombining partitions, P1 = 1-414 and P2 = 697-981 (the numbers refer to the alignment
669 columns). We then separately analyzed the two partitions in PAML. To test hypotheses about
670 positive selection on a subset of the sites on all branches, we compared models M2a vs M1a,
671 M8 vs M7 and M8a vs M8. The first 4 models were specified by: {seqtype = 1, CodonFreq = 1,
672 model = 0, NSsites = 0,1,2,7,8, icode = 8, fix_kappa = 0, kappa = 2, fix_omega = 0, omega =
673 0.4, cleandata = 1}. The model M8a is additionally specified by { seqtype = 1, CodonFreq = 1,

674 model = 0, NSsites = 8, fix_omega = 1 and omega = 1, cleandata = 1}. To test hypotheses for
675 variable dN/dS on different branches (no variation across sites), we used {model = 0 or 1 or 2,
676 NSsites = 0}, with the rest being the same as the site tests. Model = 0 specified the single ratio
677 model, model = 1 the free ratio model and model = 2 the user-defined model. For the user-
678 defined model, we first used estimates from the free ratio model to designate a set of branches
679 with dN/dS > 10 as the foreground and then tested if their dN/dS was significantly different from
680 the rest of the tree by comparing a two-ratio model with the single-ratio model. Since the results
681 were significant, we further tested if the foreground dN/dS was significantly greater than 1, by
682 comparing the two-ratio model to a constrained version of the model where omega was fixed at
683 1. For branch-site test, we used {model = 2, NSsites = 2, fix_omega = 0, omega = .4} as the
684 alternative model and {model = 2, NSsites = 2, fix_omega = 1, omega = 1} as the null to test for
685 positive selection on a subset of the sites on the foreground branches. Sites under positive
686 selection were identified using the Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) procedure, with a posterior
687 probability threshold of 0.99.

688 **Chromosomal locations of Hil family genes**

689 To compare the chromosomal locations of the Hil family genes to the background distribution,
690 we selected eight species whose genomes were assembled to a chromosomal level and are not
691 within a closely related group, including *C. albicans*, *D. hansenii*, *C. orthopsilosis*, *K. africana*, *K.*
692 *lactis*, *N. dairenensis*, *C. auris* and *C. glabrata* (Table S7). We did not include some species,
693 e.g., *C. dubliniensis*, to minimize statistical dependence due to shared ancestry. The RefSeq
694 assembly for *C. auris* was included even though it was at a scaffold level because a recent
695 study showed that seven of its longest scaffolds were chromosome-length, allowing the
696 mapping of the scaffolds to chromosomes (Muñoz et al. 2021, Supplementary Table 1). To
697 determine the chromosomal locations of the Hil homologs in these eight species, we used
698 Rentrez v1.2.3 (Winter 2017) in R to retrieve their chromosome ID and coordinates. To calculate
699 the background gene density on each chromosome, we downloaded the feature tables for the
700 eight assemblies from the NCBI assembly database and calculated the location of each gene as
701 its start coordinate divided by the chromosome length. To compare the chromosomal location of
702 the Hil family genes to the genome background, we divided each chromosome into five equal-
703 sized bins based on the physical distance to the nearest chromosomal end. We calculated the
704 proportion of genes residing in each bin for the Hil family or for all protein coding genes. To
705 determine if the two distributions differ significantly from one another, we performed a
706 goodness-of-fit test using either a Log Likelihood Ratio (LLR) test or a Chi-Squared test, as
707 implemented in the XNomial package in R (Engels 2015). The LLR test *P*-value was reported.

708 **Acknowledgement**

709 This study was inspired by work conducted during a Bioinformatics course (BIOL:4213) in Fall of
710 2019, whose semester theme was the recently published *C. auris* genomes. Graduate students,
711 Lindsey Snyder and Rachel Smoak, were lead investigators on a group project centered on the
712 genes containing the Hyphal_reg_CWP (PF11765) domain during that course, and were happy
713 to be invited to continue working on these genes long after the semester ended. We would also
714 like to thank members of the Gene Regulatory Evolution lab for discussion. We thank Drs. Yong
715 Zhang (CAS Zoology Institute), Peter Lipke (Brooklyn College), John McCutcheon (ASU),
716 Matthew Hahn (Indiana University), Rich Lenski (MSU), Josep Comeron (University of Iowa),
717 Daniel Weeks (University of Iowa), Lois Hoyer (UIUC) and two other anonymous reviewers for
718 providing useful suggestions and critical comments. Dr. Bin Z. He is supported by NIH
719 R35GM137831. Dr. Jan Fassler is supported by NSF-IOS-1917169. Lindsey F. Snyder was
720 supported by the NIH Predoctoral Training grant T32GM008629. Rachel A. Smoak is supported
721 by an NSF Graduate Research Fellowship Program under Grant No. 1546595, with additional
722 support through the NSF Division of Graduate Education under Grant No. 1633098.

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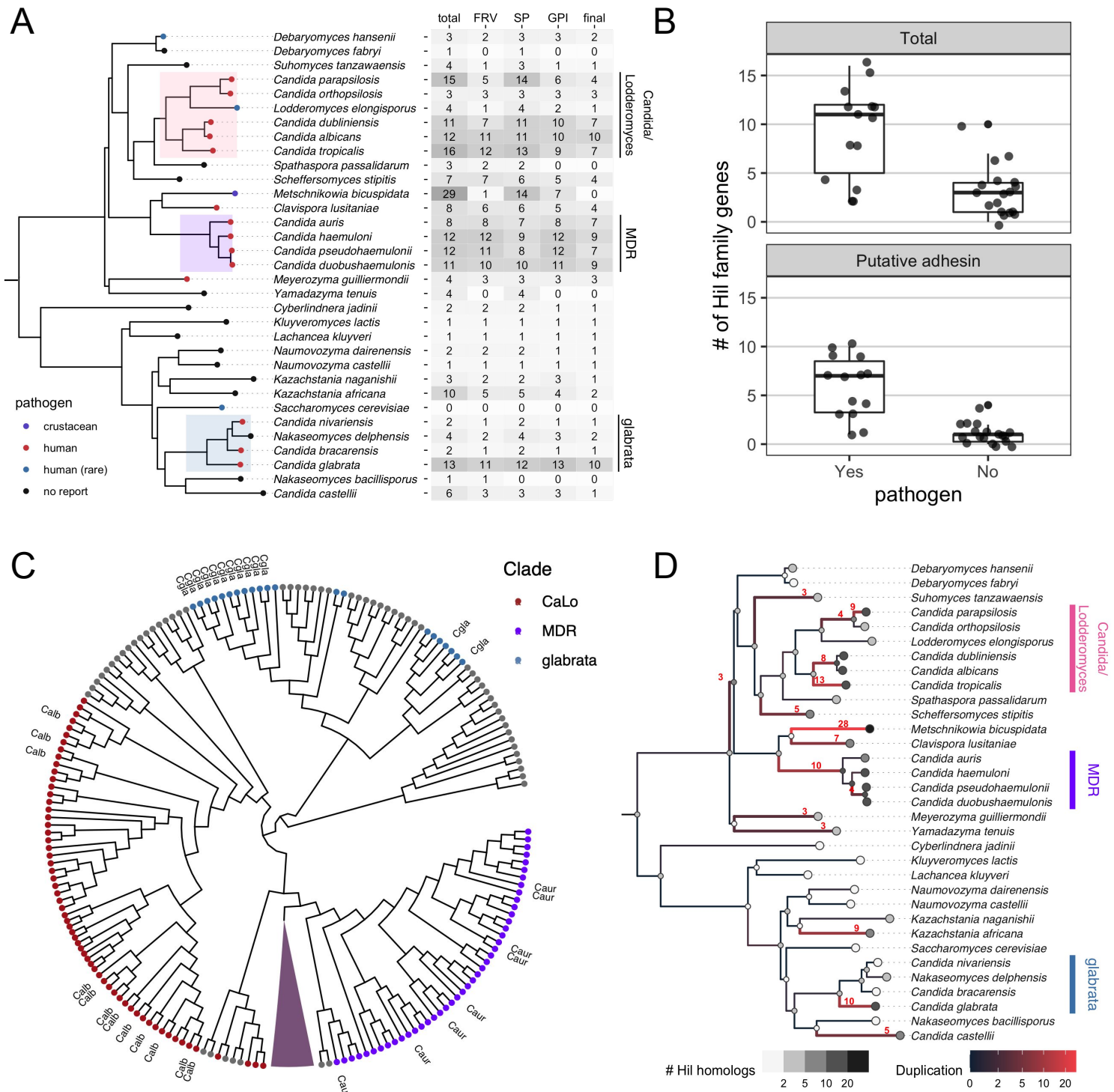


Figure 1. Phylogenetic distribution of the yeast Hil family and its parallel expansion in independently derived pathogenic *Candida* species. Legend on the next page.

Figure 1. Phylogenetic distribution of the yeast Hil family and its parallel expansion in independently derived pathogenic *Candida* species. A) Species tree is based on the phylogeny for 332 yeast species from (Shen *et al.* 2018), except for three species in the MDR clade other than *C. auris*, whose phylogenetic relationships are based on (Muñoz *et al.* 2018). The tip colors show the pathogenic status of the species. The highlighted clades are enriched in known human pathogens. In the table, the first column shows the total number of Hil family homologs per species. The number of homologs that pass each of the three tests for determining their adhesin status are shown in the next three columns. FRV = FungalRV, SP = Signal Peptide and GPI = GPI-anchor. See Materials and Methods for details. The number of homologs passing all three tests is shown in the “final” columns. (B) Boxplots comparing the number of Hil homologs (upper) or the number of putative adhesins passing all three tests (lower) per species between known pathogens and low pathogenic-potential species. Individual species numbers are shown as dots on top of the boxplot. Homologs from *M. bicuspidata* were excluded (see text). Both comparisons are significant at a 0.005 level by either a t-test with unequal variance or Mann-Whitney U test. (C) Maximum likelihood tree based on the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain of the Hil family was constructed using RAxML-NG and corrected with GeneRax based on the species tree. The tree is shown as a cladogram. All 29 homologs in *M. bicuspidata* formed a single group, which is shown as a triangle in dark plum. Homologs from the species in the three highlighted clades in (A) are colored accordingly. CaLo = *Candida/Lodderomyces*. Homologs from *C. albicans*, *C. auris* and *C. glabrata* are labeled as Calb, Caur and Cgla, respectively. (D) Species tree showing the number of inferred duplication events on each branch. The gray colors of the tip and internal nodes represent the identified and inferred number of Hil homologs, respectively. The branch color shows the inferred number of duplication events, with 3 or more duplications also shown as a number next to the branch.

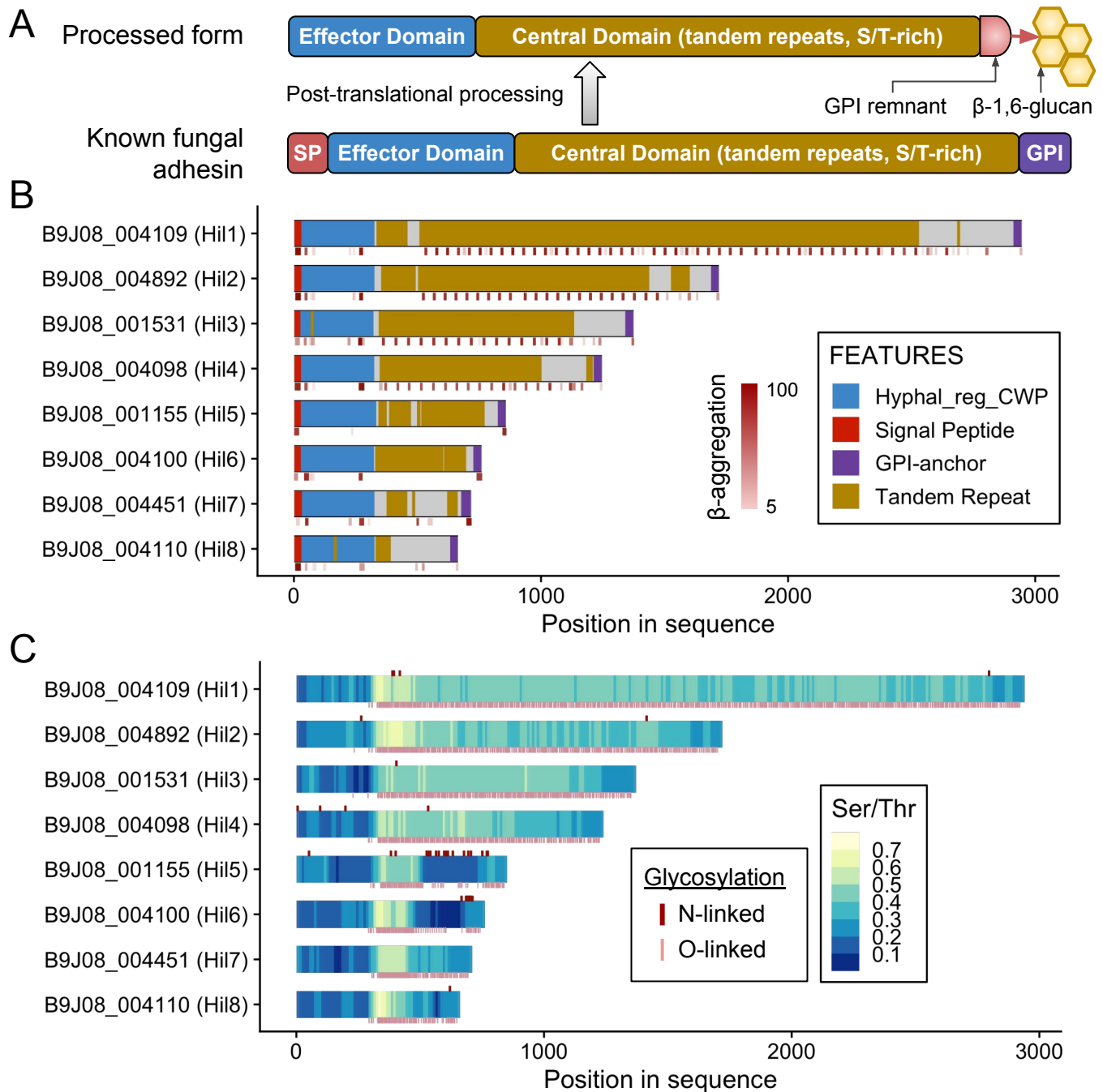


Figure 2. Domain architecture and adhesin-associated features of the *C. auris* Hil family. (A) Diagram depicting the domain organization of a typical yeast adhesin before and after the post-translational processing, adapted from (de Groot *et al.* 2013). (B) Domain features of the eight Hil proteins in *C. auris* (strain B8441). Gene IDs and names are labeled on the left. The short stripes below each diagram are the TANGO predicted β -aggregation prone sequences, with the intensity of the color corresponding to the score of the prediction. (C) Serine and Threonine (Ser/Thr) frequencies in each protein are plotted in 50 aa sliding windows with step size of 10 aa. N-linked and O-linked glycosylation sites were predicted by NetNGlyc 1.0 and NetOGlyc 4.0, respectively, and are shown as short ticks above and below each protein schematic.

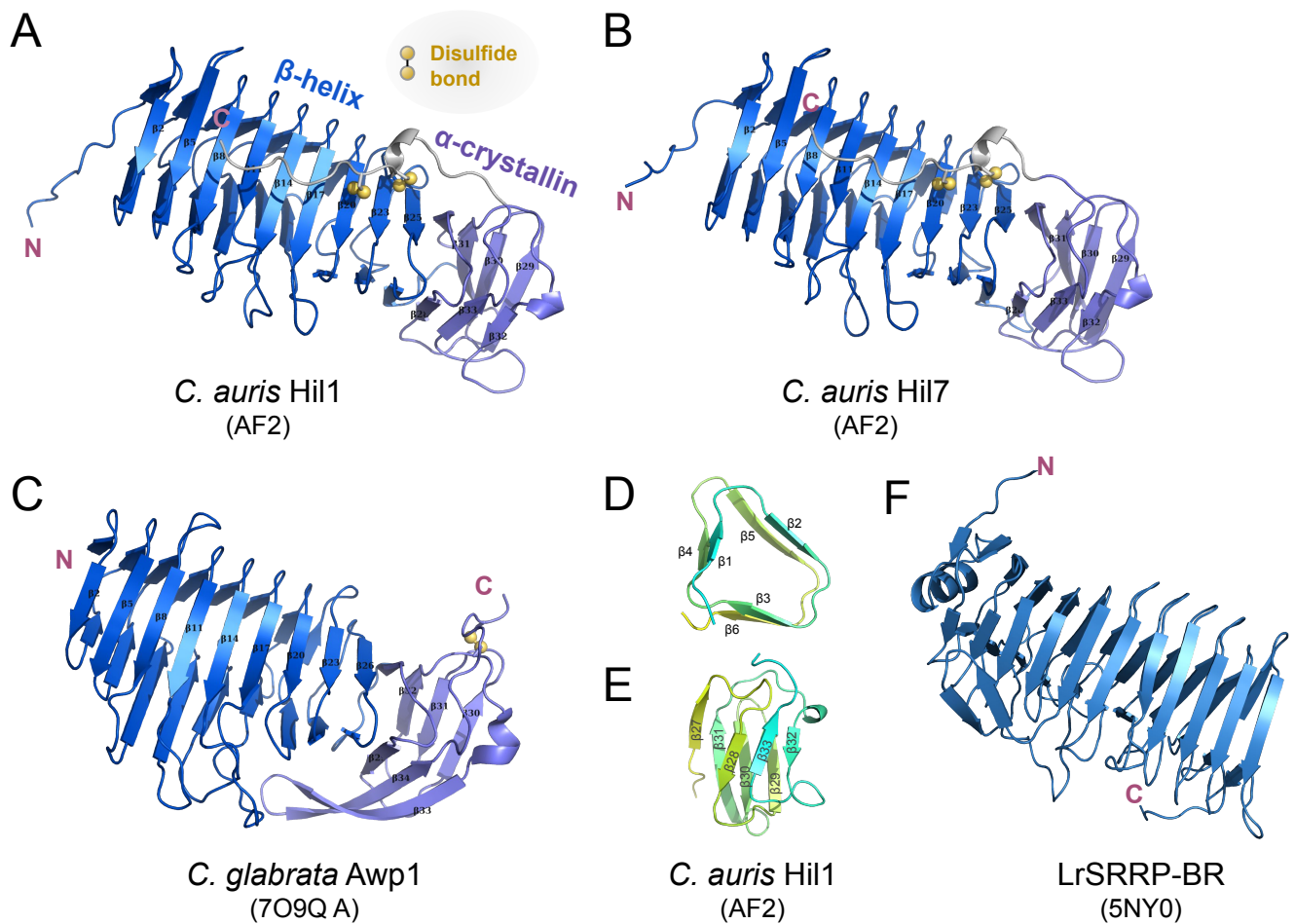
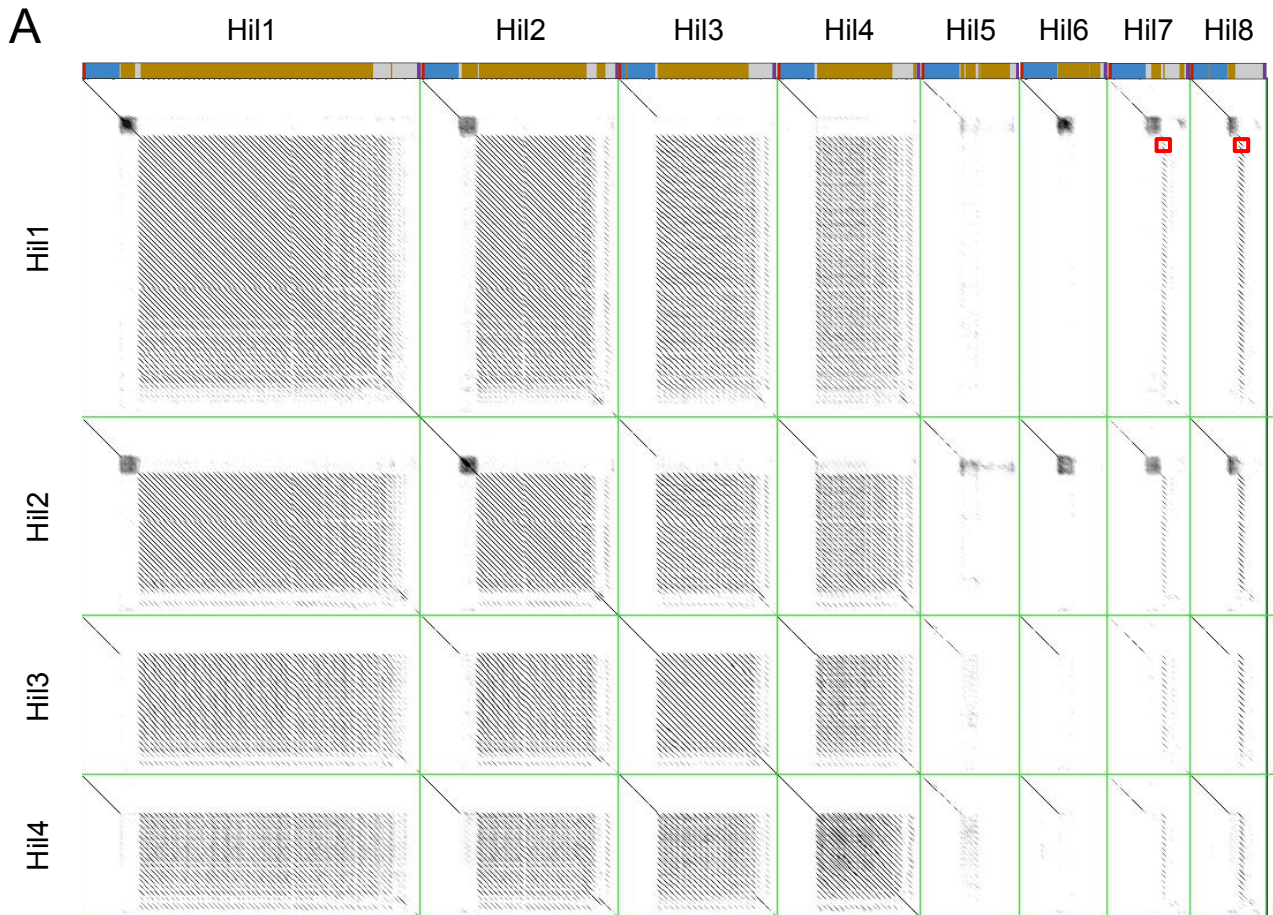
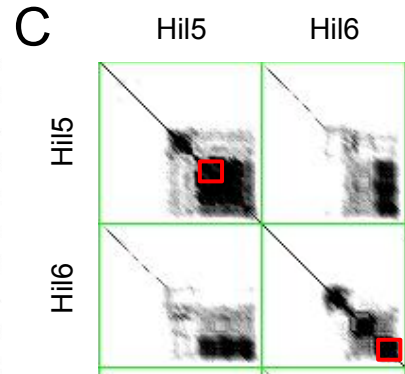


Figure 3. Predicted structures of the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in two *C. auris* Hil proteins are similar to yeast and bacterial adhesins. (A) and (B) AlphaFold2 (AF2) predicted structures of the Hyphal_reg_CWP domains from *C. auris* Hil1 and Hil7, which consist of a β -helix followed by a α -crystallin domain, with the C-terminal loop linked to the β -helix via two disulfide bonds. (C) Crystal structure of the *C. glabrata* Awp1 effector domain, which is highly similar to *C. auris* Hil1 and Hil7, but with the disulfide bond in a different location. (D) cross-section of the first two rungs of the β -helix in (A), showing the three β -strands per rung. The cyan-to-yellow gradient follows the N- to C-terminus. (E) α -crystallin domain in (A), showing the seven β -strands forming two antiparallel β -sheets. Color is the same as in (D). (F) crystal structure of the Serine Rich Repeat Protein Binding Region (SRRP-BR) from the gram-positive bacterium *L. reuteri*, which adopts a β -helix fold.



B

543- GVETDSGVVIVTTDSDGSLTTTTSVIPPFFTTYTSSWVTNSAG - 586
 587- ETETDSGVVVVTTNSEGELTTSTSVIPPPYTTYTSTWTTT DGNG - 630
 631- DVETDSGVVIVTTGSDGSLTTTTSVIPPFFTTFTSTWTTTNTDG - 674
 675- ETETDSGIVVVVTTDSNGQLTTSTSIIPPFFTTYTSTWTTSSQSDG - 718
 719- SEVTDSGVVIVTTDSDGSLTTTTSVIPPFFTTYTSTWATTNSNG - 762
 763- ETETNSGVVVVTTGSDGELTTTSTIIPPFFTTYTSTWISTNSNG - 806
 807- ATETDSGVVVVTTDSDGALTTTTSIIPQFFTTYTSTWTSTNSDG - 850
 851- DTETDSGVVVVTTNSDGALTTSTSVIPQFFTTFTSTWTSSNSNG - 894
 895- AVQTDSGVVIVTTGSDGSLTTTTSVIPPFFTTYTSTWTSSNSDG - 938
 939- ETETDSGVVVVTTDSNGELTTTTSIIPPFFTTFTSTWTSTKSDG - 982



D

Hil5 514

GDNGP	GDHG S	GDNG S	GDNG S	GDNG S	GDNG S	GDNGG S	GDNGG S
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 555 x 49

Hil6 606

GGNG	GGNGNG	GGNGNG	GGNGNG	GGNGNG	GGNGNG	GENGNG	GGNGNG
------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

 G 647 x 15

Figure 4. Dotplot shows the tandem repeat structure within and similarity between *C. auris* Hil proteins. (A) Hil1-Hil4 are compared to all eight Hil proteins in *C. auris* including themselves in dotplots (JDotter, Brodie et al 2004) with a sliding window of 50 aa and Grey Map set to 60-245 (min-max). A schematic for each protein is shown above each column (colors same as in Fig. 2). The regions highlighted by the red boxes in row 1 reveal the presence of a single copy of the 44 aa repeat unit in Hil7 and Hil8. (B) Wrapped sequence of aa 543-982 from Hil1 showing the conserved period and sequence of the 44 aa tandem repeat. The magenta and plum fonts indicate motifs predicted by TANGO to have strong (probability > 90%) or moderate (30-90%) β -aggregation potential. The yellow highlighted regions are predicted to form β -strands by PSIPred, with cartoons shown above. (C) Dotplots between Hil5 and Hil6 with the same settings as in (A), showing the low complexity repeats unique to these two. Regions within the two red boxes are shown in (D), with residue numbers shown on both ends. The rectangles delineate individual repeats, with the number of copies for each repeat shown to the right.

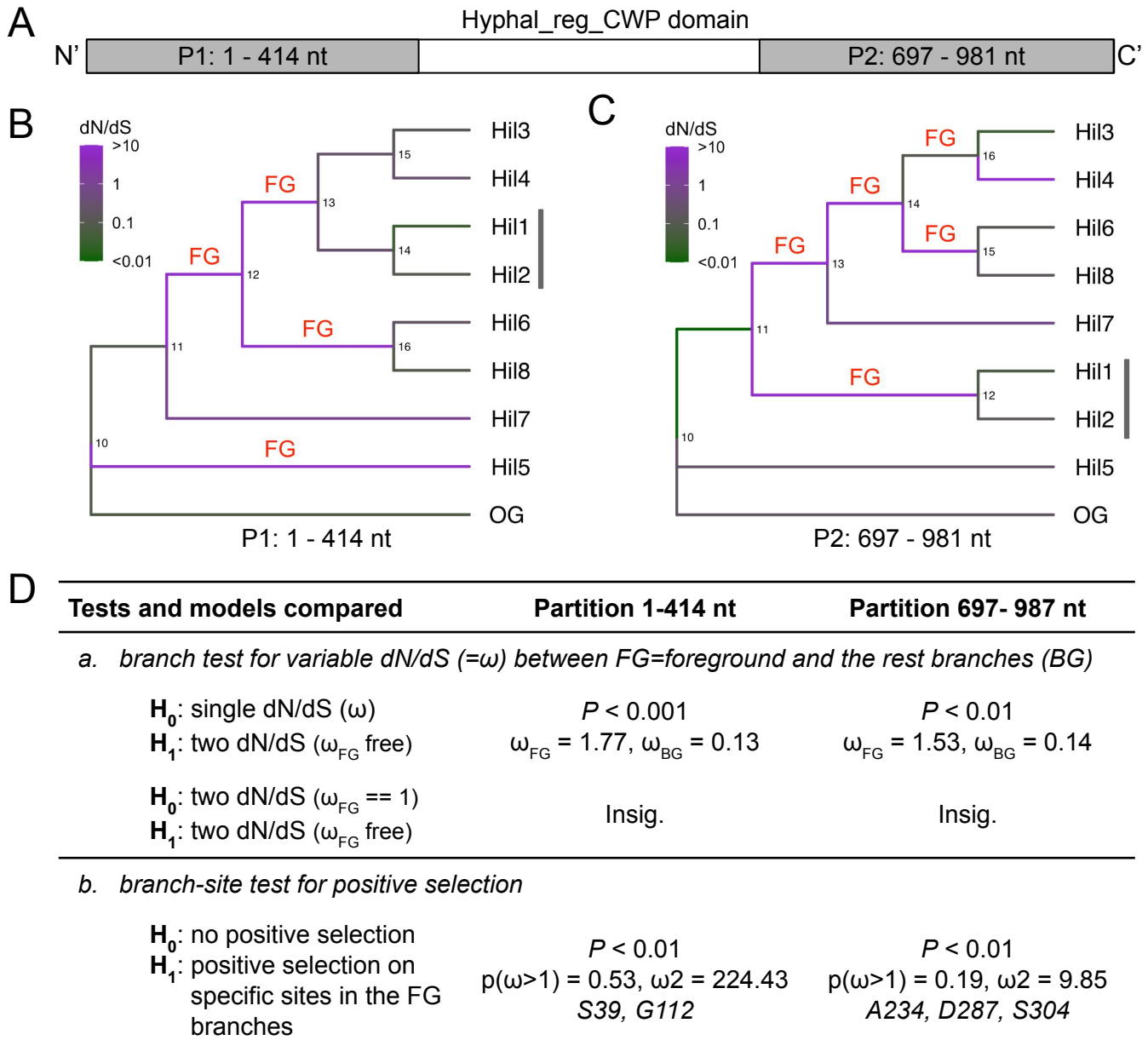


Figure 5. Maximum-likelihood-based analyses for selective pressure variation and role of positive selection on the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain in *C. auris*. (A) Schematic showing the putative non-recombining partitions within the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain determined by GARD (see Fig. S8). The two partitions labeled in gray were studied separately. The numbers refer to the columns in the coding sequence alignment. (B, C) Phylogenetic trees were reconstructed for the two partitions and are shown as a cladogram. The vertical bar next to the Hil1/Hil2 pair indicates the difference in topology between the two trees. Branch colors are based on the dN/dS values estimated from a free-ratio model in PAML. “FG” designate foreground branches, whose dN/dS were greater than 10, except for branch 14..16 in (C), which was selected instead of 16..Hil4 because this would require fewer evolutionary changes in selective forces. We also analyzed the scenario with 16..Hil4 as the foreground and the conclusions remained the same with slightly different *P*-values. (D) Summary of the maximum-likelihood-based tests for selective force heterogeneity and for positive selection. “Insig.” means *P*-value > 0.05. In the branch-site test, $p(\omega > 1)$ is the total proportion of sites with dN/dS > 1 on the FG branches, and ω_2 their estimated dN/dS. The listed sites were identified as being under positive selection with a posterior probability greater than 0.99 by the Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB). The one-letter code and number refer to the amino acid in the OG sequence and the alignment column (Fig S7).

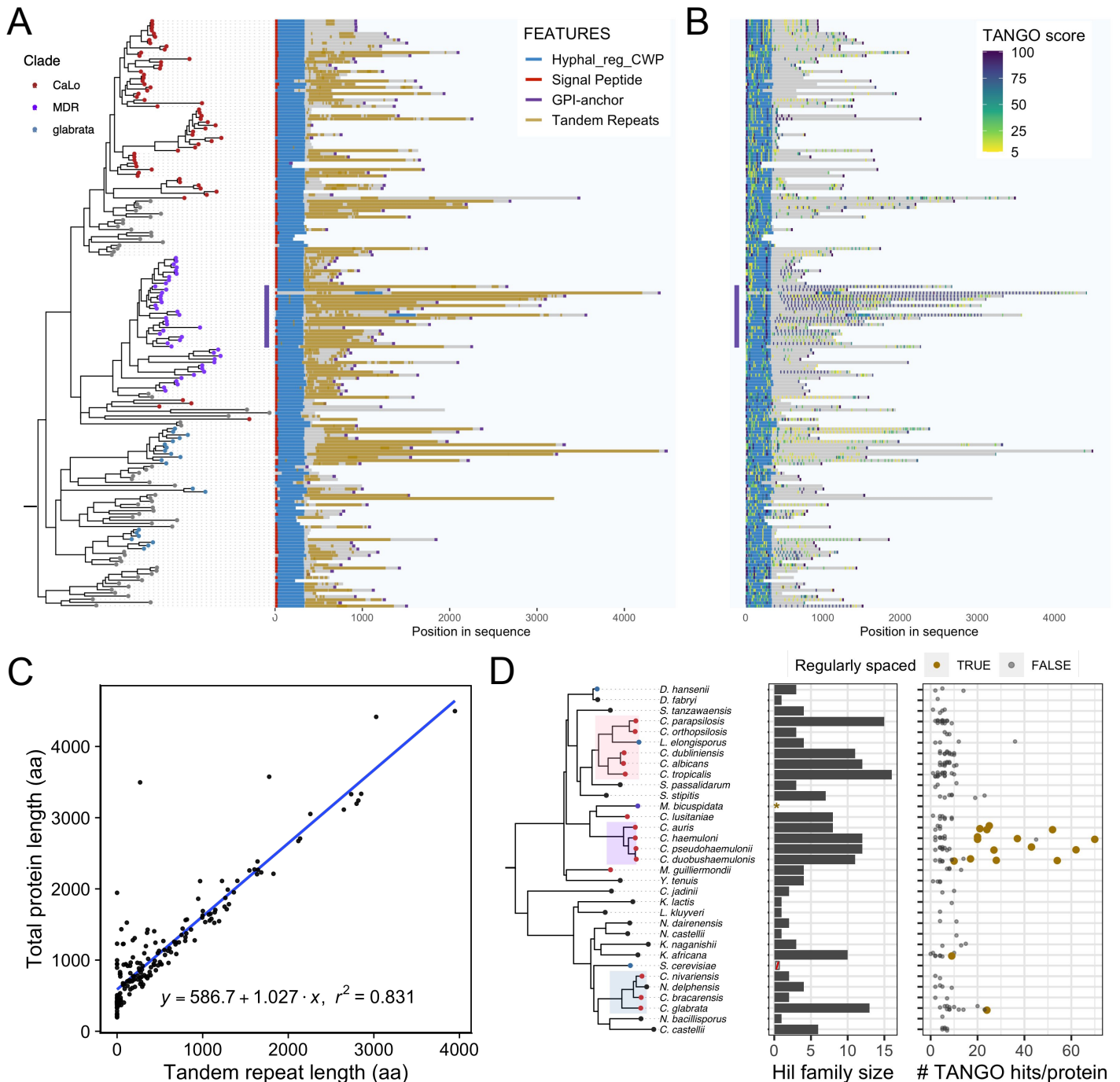


Figure 6. Evolution of protein length and β -aggregation potential in the yeast Hil family. (A) Domain schematic shows that most homologs have a signal peptide at the N-terminus, then the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain and a highly repetitive region central domain, followed by the C-terminal GPI-anchor peptide. Homologs from *M. bicuspidata* were not included because many were annotated as incomplete. They were also excluded from other results in this figure. (B) Distribution of TANGO predicted β -aggregation sequences. The score for each sequence is shown as a color gradient and represents the median of the per-residue probability of aggregation. A vertical bar marks a group of MDR clade sequences that have a large number of β -aggregation prone sequences arranged in regular intervals. (C) X-Y plot showing the relationship between total protein length and tandem repeat sequence length for Hil family homologs. The linear regression line is shown in blue, with coefficients and r^2 values below. (D) The species tree on the left is the same as in Figure 1. The middle panel shows the number of Hil homologs per species. *M. bicuspidata* homologs were excluded; *S. cerevisiae* was included in the species tree but no Hil homolog was identified in it (see text). The right panel shows the number of predicted β -aggregation prone motifs per Hil homolog. Only motifs with a median probability $\geq 30\%$ were counted. Proteins are colored in gold if they have five or more such motifs and if the Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) of the inter-motif distances is < 5 aa.

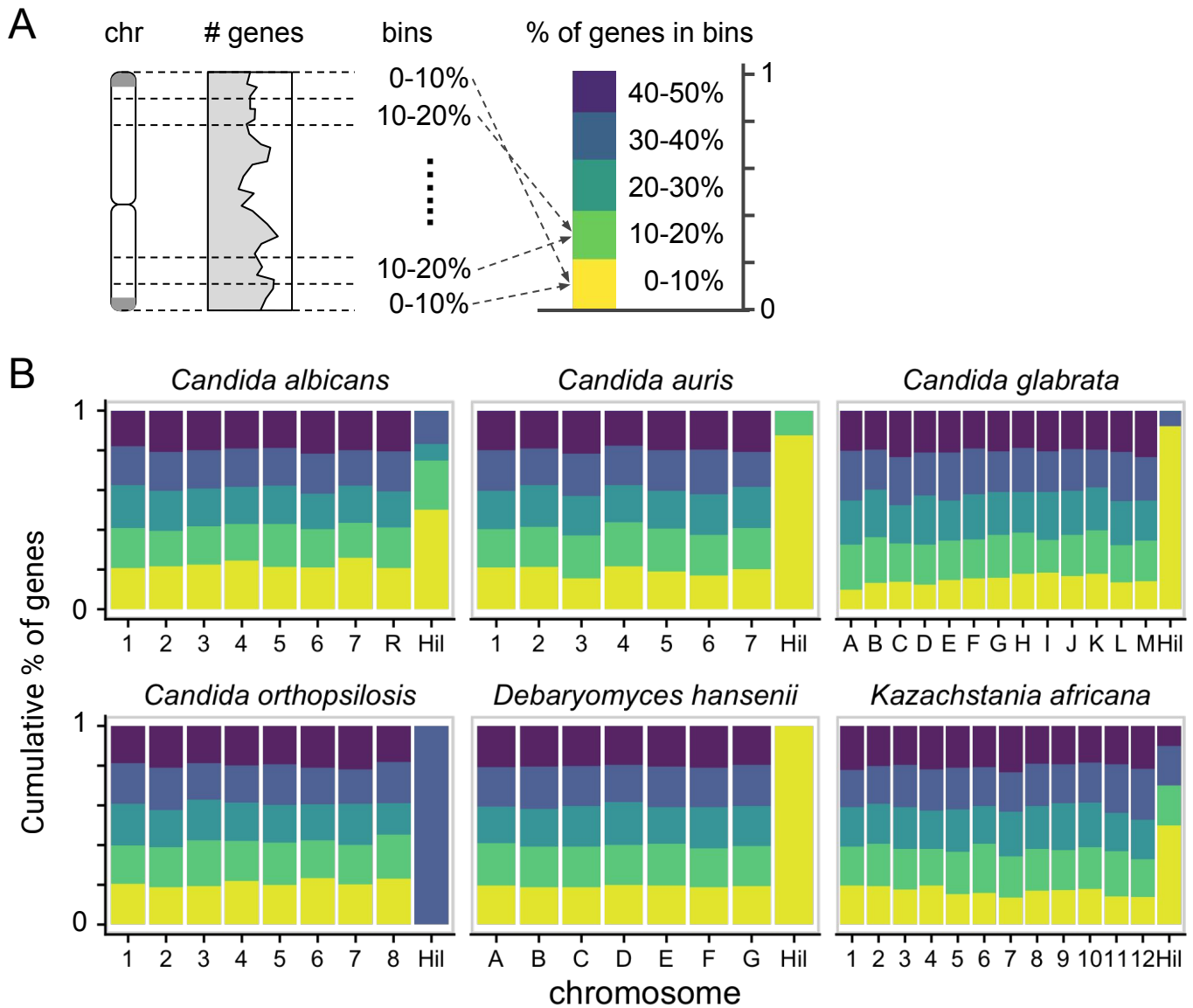
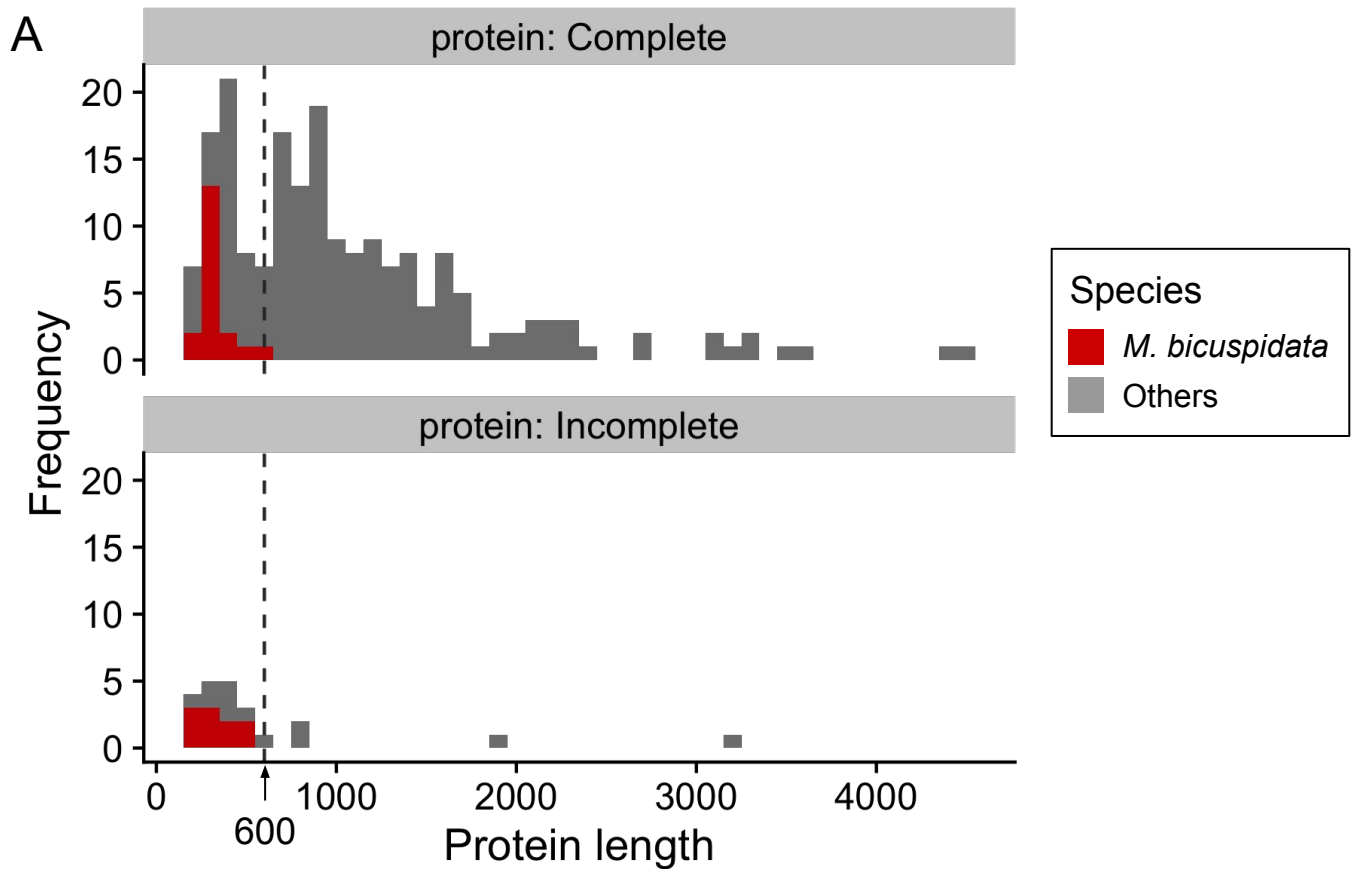


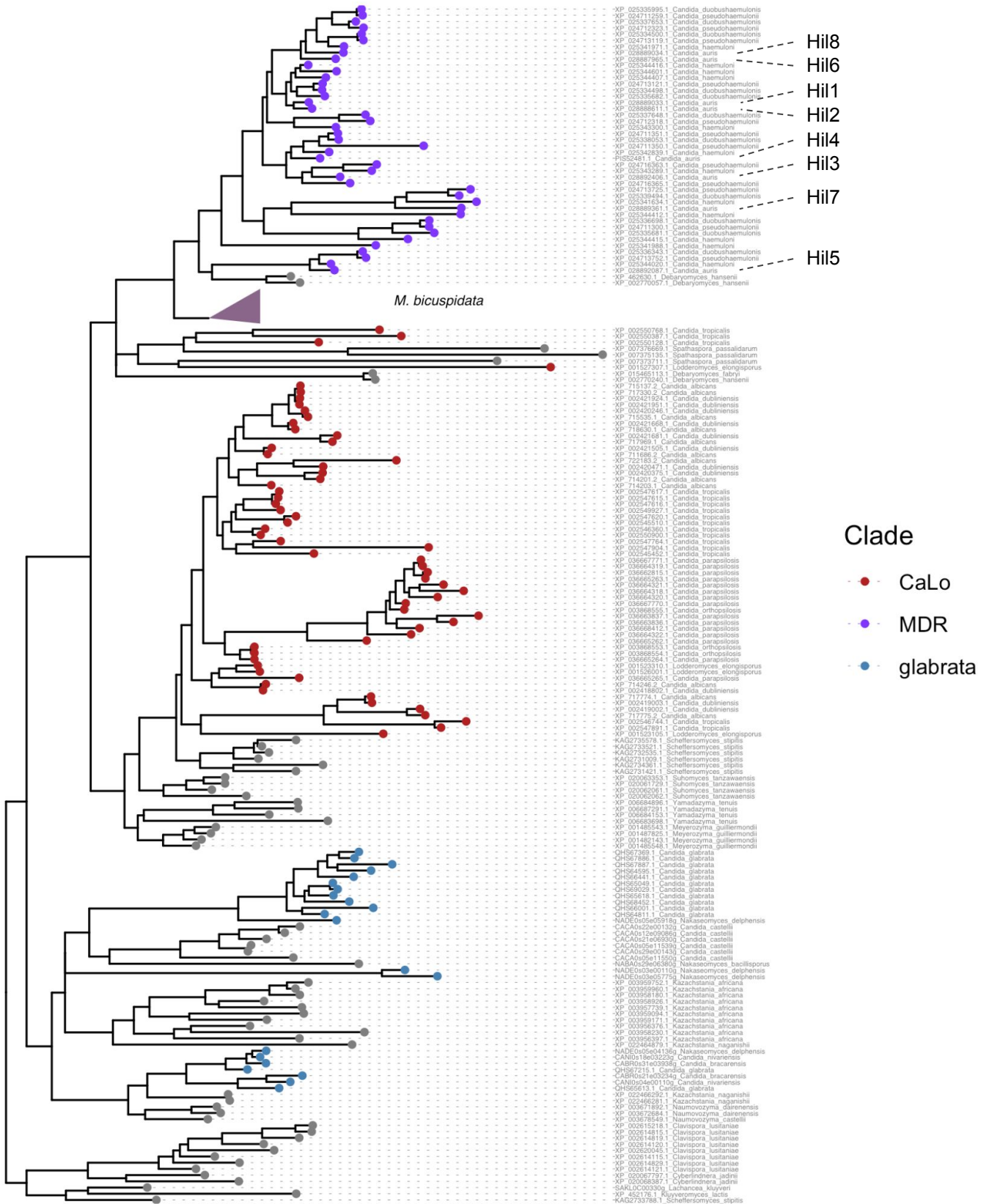
Figure 7. Hil family genes are preferentially located near the chromosome ends. (A) Schematic of the analysis: each chromosome (chr) is folded in half and divided into five equal-length “bins”, ordered by their distance to the nearest telomere. The cumulative bar graph on the right summarizes the gene density distribution in the five bins. (B) Folded gene density distribution for six species with a chromosomal level assembly and more than two Hil family genes. The bin colors are as shown in (A). The Hil homologs in each species are plotted as a separate group. A goodness-of-fit test comparing the distribution of the Hil family genes to the genome background yielded a P -value of 1.3×10^{-12} .



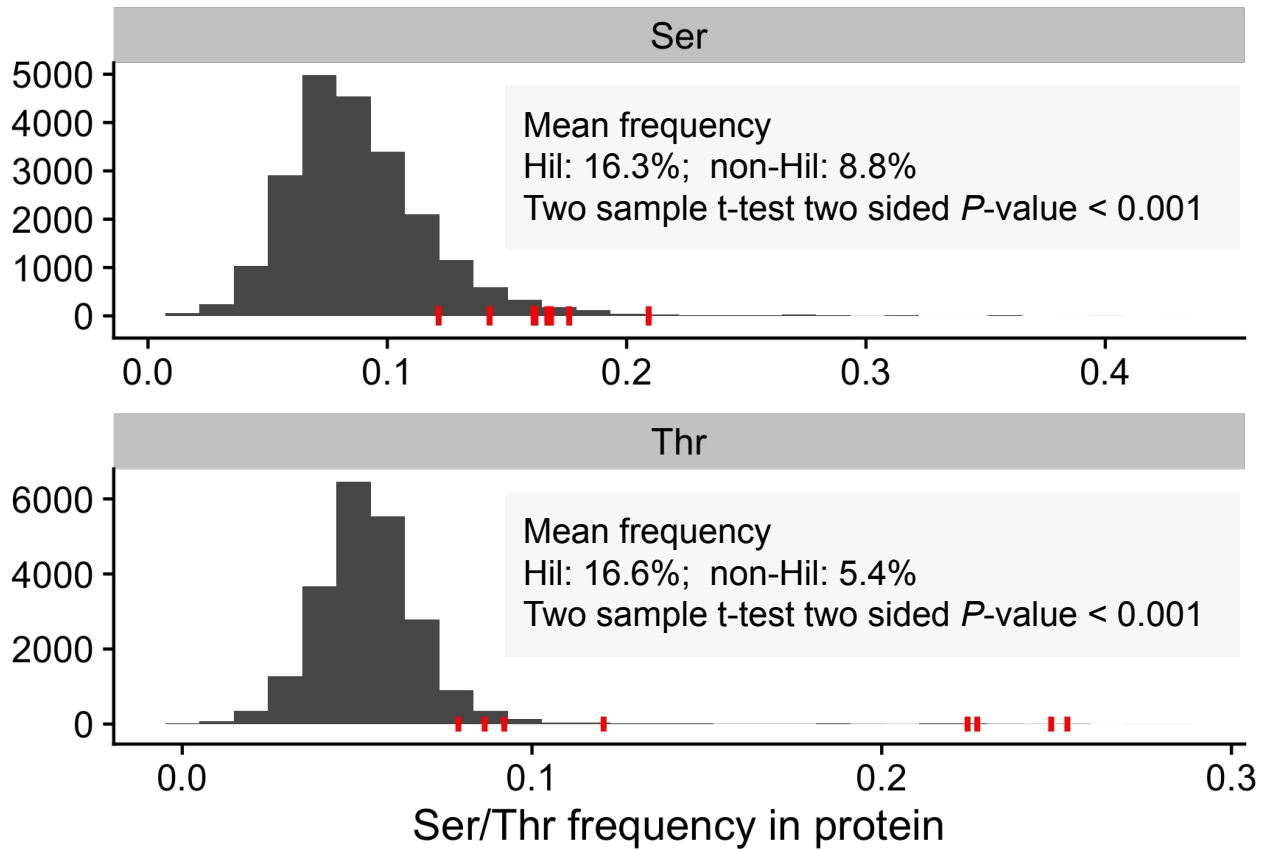
B

length	sp-gpi-	sp-GPI+	SP+gpi-	SP+GPI+	total
>600	3	14	9	112	138
251-600	12	5	27	4	48
0-250	3	0	3	1	7

Supplementary Figure 1. Hil family proteins' length distribution and grouping by signal peptide (SP) and GPI-anchor signal presence. (A) Histogram showing the distribution of protein lengths for Hil family proteins from 32 yeast species. Top: protein sequence records were labeled as complete or "NA"; bottom: proteins labeled as incomplete (no-right, no-left, no-ends). Most of the short sequences (<600 aa, dashed vertical line) came from the species *M. bicuspidata* (red) (B) Summary of the number of Hil family proteins predicted to have a signal peptide (SP+) and GPI-anchor signal (GPI+), grouped by protein length. Proteins labeled as incomplete were excluded from this table.



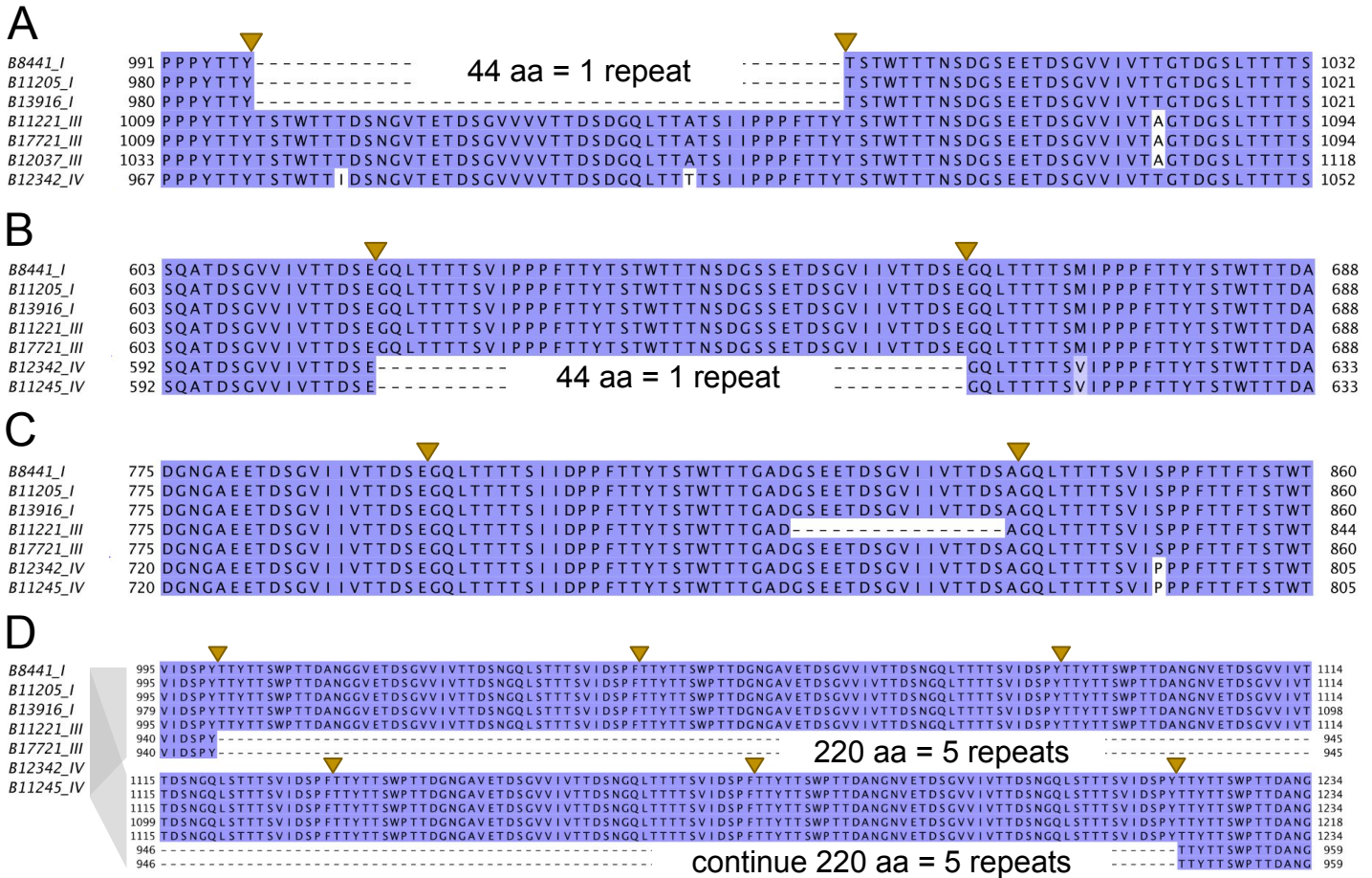
Supplementary Figure 2. Maximum likelihood tree for the Hil family genes. This tree is identical to the one shown in Fig 1C, except that it is shown in a rectangular format with the sequence names in the form of refseqID_species_name. We identified and named the *C. auris* homologs as Hil1-8 to be consistent with the latter figures. Note that all 29 *M. bicuspidata* homologs form a single clade, which is collapsed for the ease of viewing. Their sequence IDs can be found in Table S1.



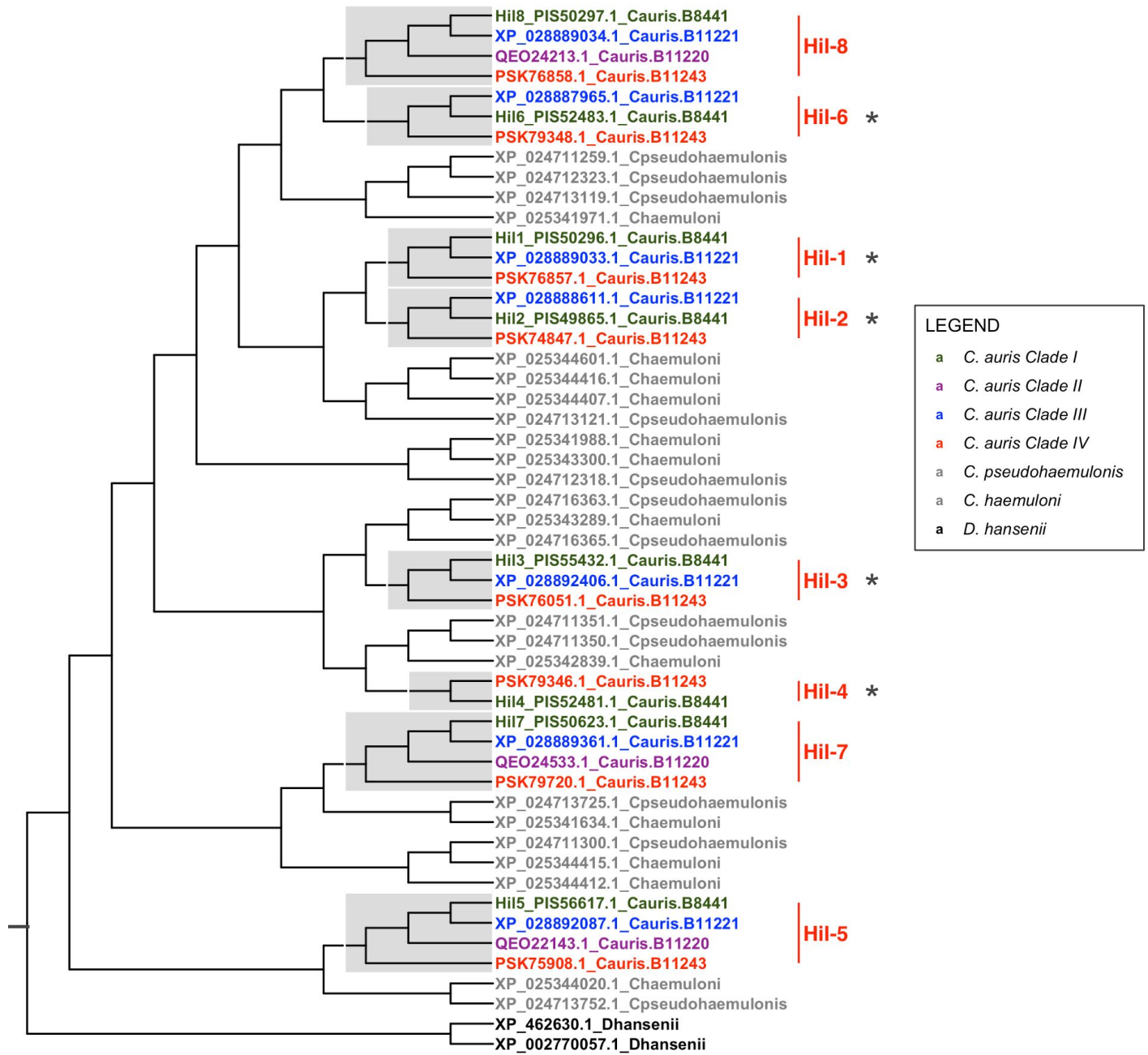
Supplementary Figure 3. Comparison of the Ser/Thr frequencies in *C. auris* Hil family members with all protein-coding genes in *C. auris*. B8441 strain genome is used for this analysis. The frequency of Ser or Thr residues as a percent of the entire protein length is plotted as a histogram for all protein-coding genes. Red ticks indicate the eight Hil genes. A student's t-test was used to assess the significance of the difference in Ser/Thr frequencies between the Hil family proteins vs the rest of the proteome.

1 DSGVIVTT DSDGSLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSSWVTTNSAGETET
2 DSGVVVTT NSEGELTTSTSVIPPPYTTYTSTWTTTNDGNDVET
3 DSGVIVTT GSDGSLTTTTSVIPPPFTTFTSTWTTTNDGETET
4 DSGIVVTT DSNGLTTSTSIIPPPFTTYTSTWTSSQSDGSEVT
5 DSGVIVTT DSDGSLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWATTNSNGETET
6 NSGVVVTT GSDGELTTTTSTIPPPFTTYTSTWISTNSNGATET
7 DSGVVVTT DSDGALTTTTSIIPQPFTTYTSTWTSTNSDGDTE
8 DSGVVVTT NSDGLTTSTSVIPQPF TTTFTSTWTSSNSNGAVQT
9 DSGVIVTT GSDGSLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWTSSNSDGETET
10 DSGVVVTT DSNGLTTTTSIIPPPFTTFTSTWTSTKSDGAVET
11 DSGVIIVTT NSEGDLTTTTSIIPPPYTTYTSTWTTTDSNGVET
12 DSGVVVTT DSDGQLTTATSIIPPPFTTYTSTWTTTNSDGESE
13 DSGVIVTAGTDGSLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWIT TNSNGAVET
14 DSGIIVTT NSGGSLTTSTSVLPPTTYTSTWTTSDGDGNVQT
15 DSGVIVTT GSDGALSTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWISTNSDGETET
16 DSGVVVTT DSNGLTTTTSIIPPPFTTFTSTWTTTDENGATE
17 DSGVVVTT GTDGLTTTTSVIPPPYTTFTSTWTTNSNGDIET
18 DSGVIVTT NSDGLTTTTSVIPPPYTTFTTTWATTNSDGTTE
19 DSGVIVTT DSEGQLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWTSNKSDGAVET
20 DSGVIVTT DSDGALTTTTSIIPQPF TTYTSTWTSTNSNGAIET
21 ESGVVVTT DSNGLTTSTSVIPLPL TTTFTTTWTTTNSAGETET
22 DSGVVV ETNSNGALTTTTSTFPEPFTTFTSTWTTTDDSGAIAT
23 DSGVIVTT GSDGSLSTTTSVIPPPFTTYTTTWTSTNSNGGVET
24 DSGVIVTT NSDGALETTTVIDPPFNTYTSTWTTTADAGAIET
25 DSGVVVTT GSDGSLTTTTSVIPHPFTTYTSTWTTGSDGDTE
26 DSGIVVTT DSDGALTTSTSLLPVPTTYTSTWIT TNSDGSQAT
27 DSGVIVTT DSEGQLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWTTTGANGGEET
28 DSGVIIVTT DSDGQLATTTSVIPPPFTTFTSTWTTTNSDGNQAT
29 DSGVIVTT DSDGQLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWTTTNDGNGAET
30 DSGVIIVTT DSEGQLTTTTSVIPPPFTTYTSTWTTTGADGSEET
31 DSGVIIVTT DSAGQLTTTTSVIPPPFTTFTSTWTTTNDGNGE
32 DSGVIIVTT DSDGALTTTTAVIPPAAGSGTDALSSSINDVPYTTYTSTWTTTNDGNGIET
33 DSGVIVTT DSQGLTTTTSIIDSPFTTYTSTWATTDNNGNVET
34 DSGVIVTT DSNGLTTTTSVIDSPYTTYTTSWPTTDANGGVET
35 DSGVIVTT DSDGQLSTTTVIDSPFTTYTTSWPTTDANGAVET
36 DSGVIVTT DSNGLTTTTSVIDSPYTTYTTSWPTTGADGAVET
37 NSGVIVTT DSDGQLTTTTSVIDSPYTTYTSIW TTTDSVGNVET
38 DSGVIVTT DSDGQVTTTTSRFENSPSDLTEYTTT WASTDSDGNIKT
39 DSGVVVTT DSAGSTTTSTSTFDTPYTTFTSTWTTTNGNDVKT
40 DSGVIIVTT DSVGQLTTTTSQFDSQQSGLTDYTTT WTTTDRNGNPST
41 ASGVVVTT DSDGQITSTTSQFSDKSSGLTDYTTT WTTTDTDGSVVT
42 DSGVIVTT DSAGSLTTTTSVFDTPI TTTFTSTWTTTNDGSIET
43 DSGVIIVTADSNGQLTTTTSQSDNRPSGLTDYTTT WTTTNTDGA
44 DSGVVVTT DSQQLTTITSVIESPVTASSGSSDKPSGITEFTTT WTTT
45 DSGVIVTT DADGSLTTTTSQIDNVSSGLEFTSSWTTT LSDGSVET
46 DGLVIVTT DSNGLKTTTSQFEDI PSLSEFTTSTWTTT DADGDTRI
47 DSGVIVTT DSDNRLTTTTSQFASVDPTDFTSYITSWATNGDGS
48 DSGAVIVTT NSDGLVTTTTSVISSSHGAVSTSES
49 DS-NIVTT DSEGSLTTSTVTLCPCQCTHFTSTWTTNSSEGAIET
50 DSGVVVTT DSVGSLTTYTKDCPEASGELSTFISTYTTTDTDGNIKTT

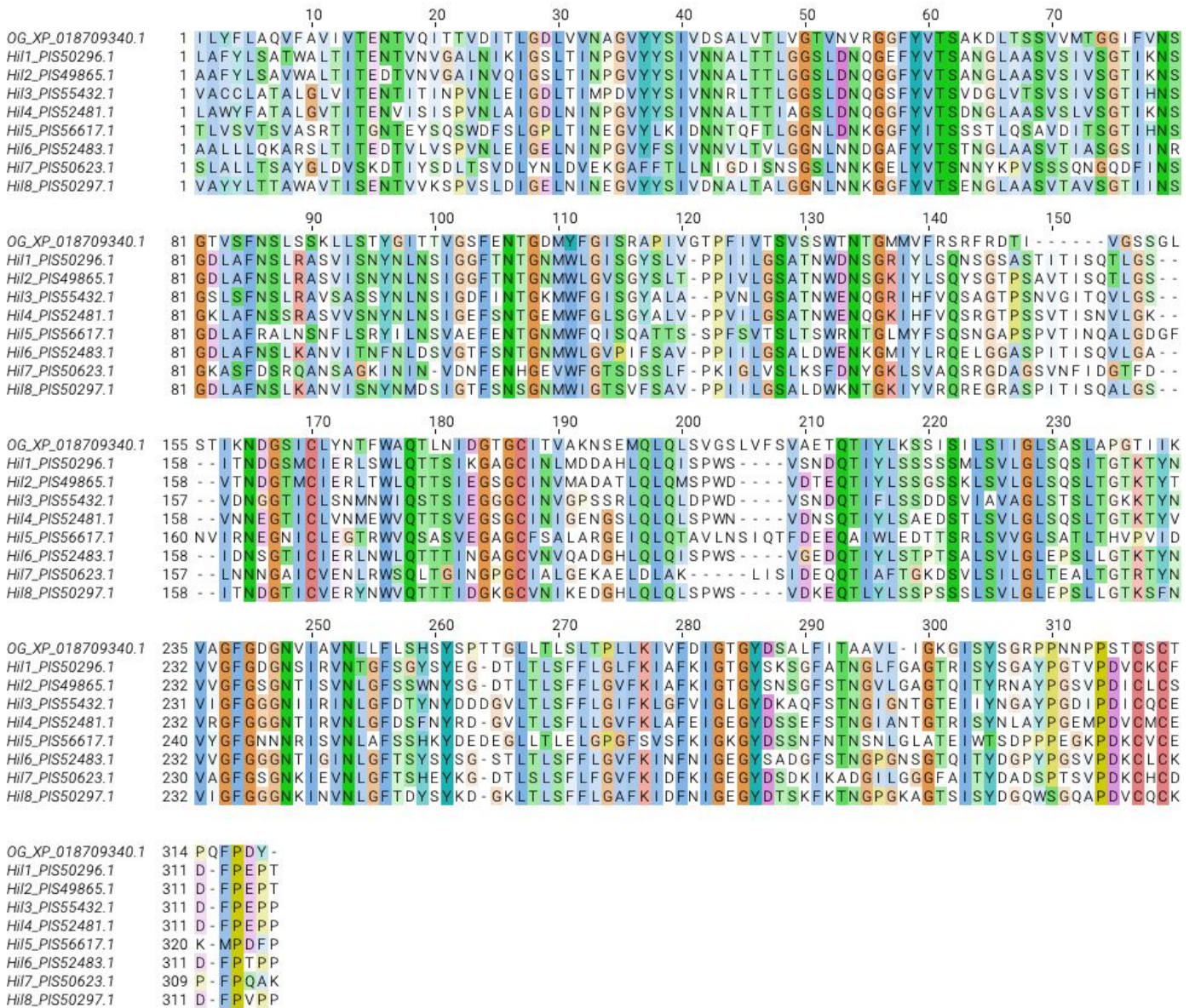
Supplementary Figure 4. Tandem repeats in the *C. auris* Hil1 central domain. The majority of the 50 tandem repeat copies have a conserved 44 aa period. Dark and light orange highlights show sequences predicted by TANGO to have strong (>90%) or moderate (30-90%) β -aggregation potentials.



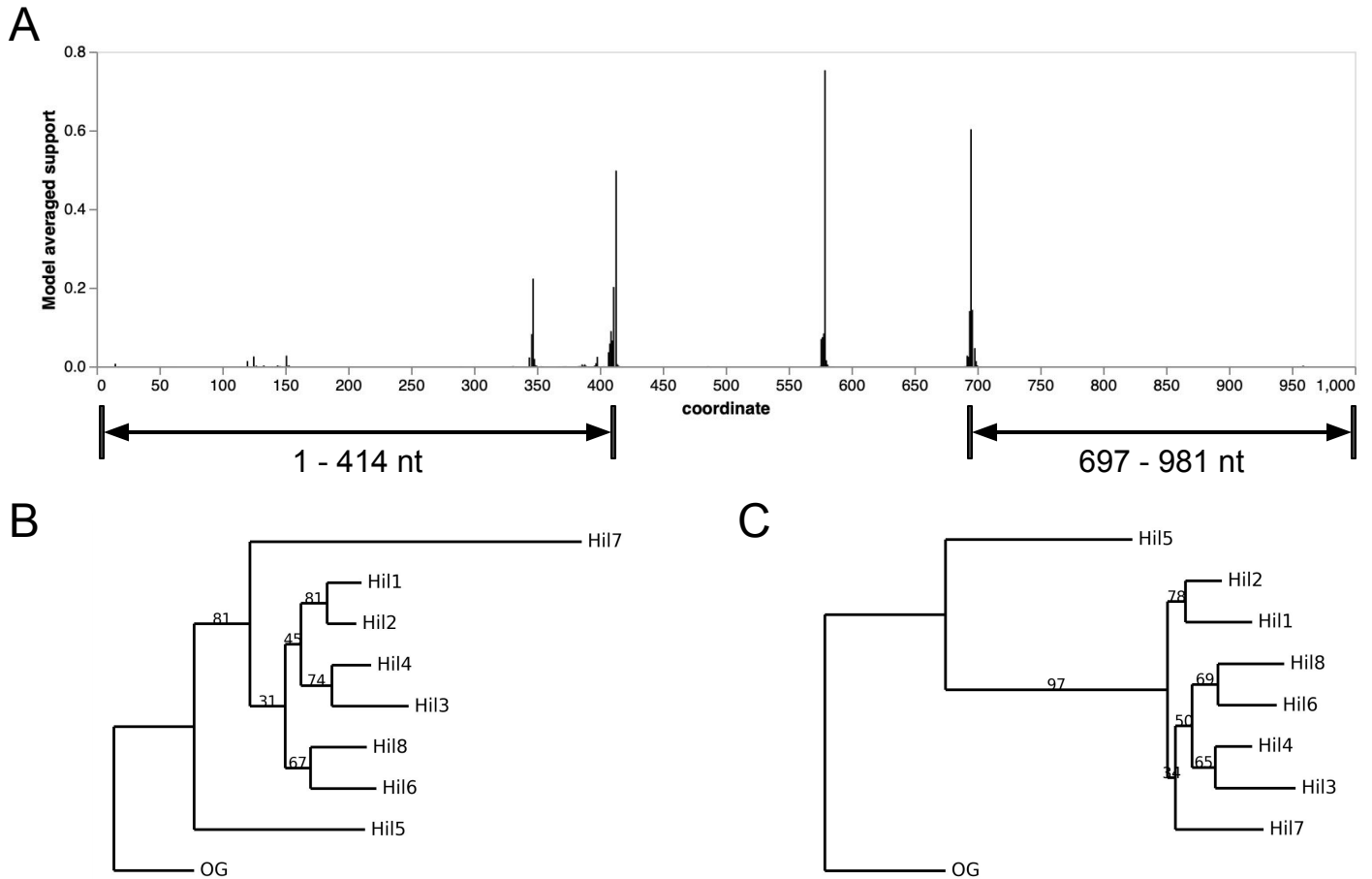
Supplementary Figure 5. Examples of tandem repeat copy number variation in Hil1-Hil4 among the *C. auris* strains. (A) A 44 aa indel in Hil1 removes exactly one repeat in all three Clade I strain orthologs. (B) A similar indel polymorphism of exactly one repeat length in Hil2 affecting the Clade IV strains. (C) An indel polymorphism in Hil2 that affects one Clade III strain and spans 16 aa, not a full repeat, but includes a predicted strong β -aggregation prone sequence "GVIIVTT". (D) An indel polymorphism in Hil2 that spans 220 aa or five full repeats affecting the Clade IV strains. Similar patterns were observed in Hil3 and Hil4.



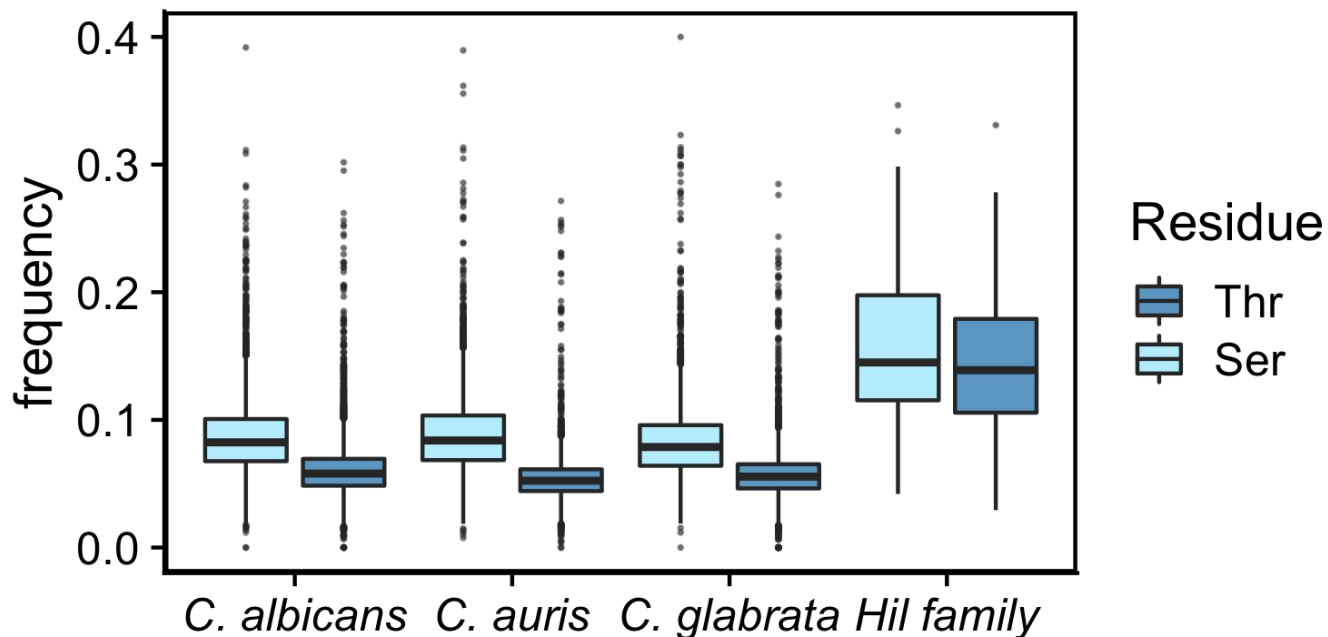
Supplementary Figure 6. Reconciled Hil family gene tree based on the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain alignment in the four clades of *C. auris* strains and two closely related species. The tree is rooted by the two homologs from the outgroup *D. hansenii*. The gene tree was corrected with the species/strain tree based on (Muñoz et al 2018) using GeneRax (v2.0.4). Hil genes lost in *C. auris* Clade II strains are labeled with an asterisk next to the Hil1-8 group labels.



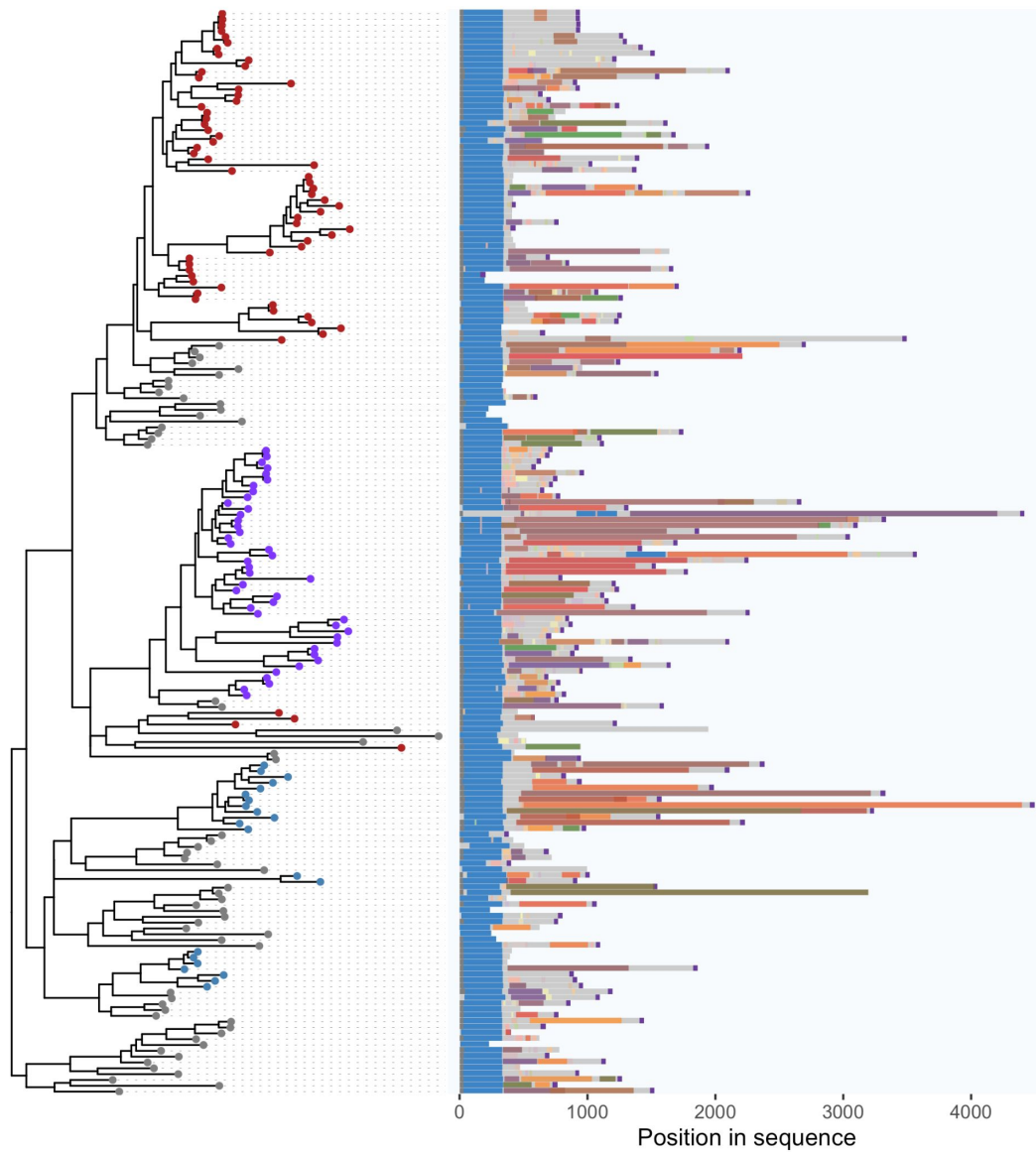
Supplementary Figure 7. Multiple sequence alignment of *C. auris* Hil1-8 Hyphal_reg_CWP domain. The domain regions were identified using HMMScan against the Pfam-A database. The sequences were aligned with clustalo v1.2.4 and the result visualized in Jalview v2.11.1.4 with the ClustalW color scheme. OG = outgroup from *M. bicuspidata*



Supplementary Figure 8. Detecting intra-domain recombination and identifying non-recombining partitions in the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain using GARD. (A) Model averaged support for breakpoint locations along the Hyphal_reg_CWP domain alignment for the eight Hil proteins in *C. auris* and an outgroup sequence from *M. bicuspidata* (protein ID: XP_018709340.1) to root the gene tree. Based on the GARD output, we chose the N- and C-terminal partitions for downstream analyses, i.e., coordinates 1-414 nt and 697-981 nt. (B) A maximum likelihood tree for partition 1-414 was constructed using RAxML-NG v1.1.0. Branch length is proportional to the amount of sequence divergence. OG stands for outgroup. Bootstrap support for internal splits are shown as a percentage and are based on 1000 replicates or until bootstrapping converges. (C) tree for 697-981nt, same format as in (B)



Supplementary Figure 9. Yeast Hil family proteins have on average higher Ser/Thr frequencies than the rest of the proteome. Proteome-wide distribution of Thr/Ser frequencies per protein from three species, compared with the yeast Hil family proteins (*M. bicuspidata* homologs were excluded because a large number of them were incomplete). The boxes represent the interquartile range (IQR), the middle thick line the median, the whiskers the 1.5 x IQR and the dots outliers outside that range.



Supplementary Figure 10. Domain schematic for the Yeast Hil family showing rapidly evolving tandem repeat sequences in the central domain of the proteins. Same as Fig. 6A except that tandem repeats belonging to different sequence clusters as determined by XSTREAM (Newman and Cooper 2007) are shown in different colors.