

Functional and Comparative Analysis of Centromeres Reveals Clade-Specific Genome Rearrangements in *Candida auris* and a Chromosome Number Change in Related Species

Aswathy Narayanan,^a Rakesh Netha Vadnala,^b Promit Ganguly,^{a*} Pavitra Selvakumar,^b Shivaprakash M. Rudramurthy,^c Rajendra Prasad,^d Arunaloke Chakrabarti,^c Rahul Siddharthan,^b Kaustuv Sanyal^{a,e}

^aMolecular Mycology Laboratory, Molecular Biology and Genetics Unit, Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research, Bangalore, India

^bComputational Biology, The Institute of Mathematical Sciences/HBNI, Chennai, India

^cDepartment of Medical Microbiology, Postgraduate Institute of Medical Education and Research, Chandigarh, India

^dAmity Institute of Biotechnology, Amity University Haryana, Haryana, India

^eOsaka University, Suita, Japan

ABSTRACT The thermotolerant multidrug-resistant ascomycete *Candida auris* rapidly emerged since 2009 causing systemic infections worldwide and simultaneously evolved in different geographical zones. The molecular events that orchestrated this sudden emergence of the killer fungus remain mostly elusive. Here, we identify centromeres in *C. auris* and related species, using a combined approach of chromatin immunoprecipitation and comparative genomic analyses. We find that *C. auris* and multiple other species in the *Clavispora/Candida* clade shared a conserved small regional GC-poor centromere landscape lacking pericentromeres or repeats. Further, a centromere inactivation event led to karyotypic alterations in this species complex. Interspecies genome analysis identified several structural chromosomal changes around centromeres. In addition, centromeres are found to be rapidly evolving loci among the different geographical clades of the same species of *C. auris*. Finally, we reveal an evolutionary trajectory of the unique karyotype associated with clade 2 that consists of the drug-susceptible isolates of *C. auris*.

IMPORTANCE *Candida auris*, the killer fungus, emerged as different geographical clades, exhibiting multidrug resistance and high karyotype plasticity. Chromosomal rearrangements are known to play key roles in the emergence of new species, virulence, and drug resistance in pathogenic fungi. Centromeres, the genomic loci where microtubules attach to separate the sister chromatids during cell division, are known to be hot spots of breaks and downstream rearrangements. We identified the centromeres in *C. auris* and related species to study their involvement in the evolution and karyotype diversity reported in *C. auris*. We report conserved centromere features in 10 related species and trace the events that occurred at the centromeres during evolution. We reveal a centromere inactivation-mediated chromosome number change in these closely related species. We also observe that one of the geographical clades, the East Asian clade, evolved along a unique trajectory, compared to the other clades and related species.

KEYWORDS *Candida haemulonii*, fungal pathogen, centromere inactivation, geographical clades, karyotype evolution

First isolated from an infected ear of a patient in Japan in 2009, *Candida auris* emerged as a multidrug-resistant opportunistic fungal pathogen causing nosocomial infections worldwide in a short time span (1–5). It can survive at elevated temperatures and high salt concentrations, which otherwise act as physiological barriers to

Citation Narayanan A, Vadnala RN, Ganguly P, Selvakumar P, Rudramurthy SM, Prasad R, Chakrabarti A, Siddharthan R, Sanyal K. 2021. Functional and comparative analysis of centromeres reveals clade-specific genome rearrangements in *Candida auris* and a chromosome number change in related species. mBio 12:e00905-21. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00905-21>.

Editor Michael Lorenz, University of Texas Health Science Center

Copyright © 2021 Narayanan et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Address correspondence to Kaustuv Sanyal, sanyal@jncasr.ac.in.

* Present address: Promit Ganguly, Department of Biological Sciences and Bioengineering, Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur, India. This article is a direct contribution from Kaustuv Sanyal, a Fellow of the American Academy of Microbiology, who arranged for and secured reviews by Kenneth Wolfe, University College Dublin, and Laura Rusche, University at Buffalo, State University of New York.

Received 30 March 2021

Accepted 1 April 2021

Published 11 May 2021

fungal infections (6, 7). As a haploid ascomycete, *C. auris* often displays exceptional resistance to major antifungals like azoles and common sterilization agents, rendering it a difficult pathogen to treat (8–10). As an opportunistic pathogen, *C. auris* colonizes skin and causes systemic infections, thereby posing threats to patients with other clinical conditions like diabetes mellitus, chronic renal disease, and, more recently, COVID-19 infections (11, 12). *C. auris* emerged and evolved simultaneously as distinct geographical clades—South Asian (clade 1), East Asian (clade 2), South African (clade 3), South American (clade 4), and a potential fifth clade from Iran (13, 14). The clades are separated by tens of thousands of single nucleotide polymorphisms but exhibit clonality within a clade (13). The mechanisms that underlie the sudden emergence and spread of *C. auris* as distinct geographical clades, though mostly unknown, represent rapid evolution modes in a fungal pathogen.

A pathogen evolves in nature to survive the evolutionary arms race. Genetic diversity is a prerequisite for the pathogen to adapt to changing conditions. In the absence of sexual reproduction, chromosomal reshuffling serves to generate diversity in some predominantly asexual fungal pathogens (15–18), thereby circumventing evolutionary dead ends. Chromosomal rearrangements and aneuploidy are also known to enhance drug resistance and virulence in primarily asexual fungi (19–21). Centromeres (*CENs*), which appear as the primary constrictions on metaphase chromosomes, are emerging as a central hub of such chromosomal rearrangements contributing to karyotype diversity and speciation (22). Centromeres exhibit diversity in their properties like the length of centromeric chromatin, repeat/transposon content, and GC-richness. However, centromeric chromatin in most species is occupied by the *CEN*-specific histone variant CENP-A^{Cse4}, which replaces canonical histone H3 in the centromeric nucleosomes and is regarded as the epigenetic hallmark defining *CEN* identity (23, 24). Centromeric chromatin also provides the foundation for assembling several multiprotein complexes to form the kinetochore. Dynamic interactions of spindle microtubules and kinetochores result in the precise segregation of sister chromatids in daughter cells during cell division. Centromere clustering near the nuclear periphery is a conserved feature across the fungal kingdom (25–28). Due to spatial proximity, centromeres with homologous DNA sequences often participate in chromosomal rearrangements that result in chromosomal shuffling which can drive karyotype evolution and chromosome number alterations, contributing to the emergence of a new species (16, 17, 29).

C. auris is a sister species of three multidrug-resistant pathogens, namely, *Candida haemulonii*, *Candida duobushaemulonii*, and *Candida pseudohaemulonii*. These species are also closely related to another human fungal pathogen, *Candida lusitanae*, and together are classified under the *Clavispora/Candida* clade of the family Metschnikowiaceae (Order: Saccharomycetales) (30, 31). Centromeres are susceptible to breaks in other fungal pathogens (16, 17, 32) and are likely to contribute to the vast karyotype diversity exhibited by *C. auris* (33). We believed that studying the centromere structure and function in the *C. haemulonii* species complex and associated species may reveal mechanisms/events underlying the rapid evolution of the multidrug-resistant fungal pathogen *C. auris*. In this study, we identified centromeres in all four clades of *C. auris* and leveraged the information to locate centromeres in the *C. haemulonii* complex species. Functional identification of centromeres combined with comparative genome analysis in these group of species helped us propose that a centromere inactivation event from an ancestral species facilitated genome innovations that contributed to the clade-specific parallel evolution of *C. auris*.

RESULTS

***C. auris* possesses small regional CENP-A^{Cse4}-rich, GC-poor, repeat-free centromeres.** The histone H3 variant CENP-A^{Cse4} is exclusively associated with centromeric nucleosomes. The homolog of CENP-A^{Cse4} was identified in *C. auris*, using the *C. albicans* CENP-A^{Cse4} protein sequence as the query against the *C. auris* genome (GenBank assembly GCA_002759435.2 of the clade 1 isolate B8441) (30). The putative *C. auris* CENP-A^{Cse4} protein is 136 amino acids long and shares a 72% sequence identity

with the *C. albicans* homolog (C3_00860W_A) (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). Previous studies suggested that the haploid genome of *C. auris* is distributed in seven chromosomes (30). To locate centromeres on each chromosome, we constructed a strain Caul46 expressing protein A-tagged CENP-A^{Cse4} from a clade 1 Indian isolate Cau46 (see Fig. S2a). Immunofluorescence staining using anti-protein A antibodies revealed punctate localization of CENP-A^{Cse4} at the nuclear periphery, suggesting typical kinetochore clustering at interphase and mitotic stages of the cell cycle (Fig. 1a). High amino acid sequence similarities with other proteins of the CENP-A family and typical localization patterns of the clustered centromeres at the nuclear periphery confirmed that the identified protein is, indeed, CENP-A^{Cse4} in *C. auris*. To identify CENP-A^{Cse4} associated DNA sequences as centromeric chromatin on each chromosome of *C. auris*, we performed CENP-A chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP), followed by sequencing (ChIP-seq), in strain Caul46. Sonicated genomic DNA without antibodies was also subjected to high-throughput sequencing that served as the input DNA control. The CENP-A^{Cse4} ChIP-seq analysis identified a single-peak in each of the 7 different scaffolds of 15 scaffolds of the publicly available, fragmented genome assembly of the clade 1 isolate B8441 (Fig. 1b) (30). The CENP-A^{Cse4} enriched centromeric chromatin across chromosomes spans 2,516 to 2,908 bp, with an average length of 2,727 bp (Table 1). Further analysis of these regions suggests that CENP-A^{Cse4}-enriched core centromere (*CEN*) loci in *C. auris* are largely devoid of open reading frames (ORFs) and represent poly(A) transcriptional cold spots (Fig. 1c). To further confirm ChIP-seq results, ChIP-quantitative PCR (ChIP-qPCR) using specific primers was performed to measure CENP-A^{Cse4} abundance at *CENs* compared to a noncentromeric genomic locus, ~200 kb away from *CEN4* (*far-CEN4*). The same centromeric and noncentromeric primer pairs (see Table S3) were used to assess the canonical histone H3 occupancy in the corresponding regions by histone H3 ChIP-qPCR analysis. As expected, histone H3 levels were significantly depleted at the *CENs* compared to the *far-CEN* region (Fig. 1d). Binding of CENP-A^{Cse4} to transcriptionally inert, histone H3-depleted loci of comparable length on different contigs strongly indicates that these genomic regions correspond to authentic centromeric chromatin.

Homology searches for *CEN* sequences among themselves and against the whole genome did not yield any significant results, suggesting that each DNA sequence underlying centromeric chromatin is unique and different. A dot plot comparing each centromere DNA sequence against itself as well as other centromeric sequences suggested the unique nature of sequences and the absence of DNA sequence repeats in *C. auris* centromeres (Fig. 1e). Searches for specific DNA sequence motifs also did not detect any, except the 40-bp poly(A) and poly(T) stretches, which are present in all the seven regions, though not exclusive to the centromeres (see Fig. S2b). The presence of poly(A) stretches at all centromeres prompted us to analyze the GC content of the *CEN* sequences identified. Two sequence features were investigated using the sliding window approach: GC content (the percentage of G and C residues in the scaffold in a sliding window of 5 kb, with a step size of 1 kb) and GC3 content (GC content at the third position of codons in the annotated ORFs, across the scaffolds, by calculating a moving average of 10 adjacent ORFs). These studies revealed the overlap of *C. auris* centromeres with deep GC and GC3 troughs in all the scaffolds (Fig. 1f).

At each of the seven centromeres in *C. auris*, core CENP-A^{Cse4} chromatin occupies the entire ORF-free region, often extending partially to the neighboring centromere-proximal ORFs. By comparing the lengths of CENP-A^{Cse4}-bound and the associated ORF-free regions in the previously characterized centromeres of Ascomycota, we observed that centromeric chromatin tends to possess a localized region within the gene-poor zones in species like *C. albicans* and *S. cerevisiae*. Exceptionally, the ratio of centromeric chromatin to the remaining ORF-free pericentric region in *C. auris*, similar to that of *C. lusitanae*, is close to 1 (see Fig. S2c). Thus, *C. auris*, like *C. lusitanae* seems to lack pericentric heterochromatin (34). We analyzed RNA-seq data available for *C. auris* (SRR6900290, SRR6900291, SRR6900292, and SRR6900293) to examine variations

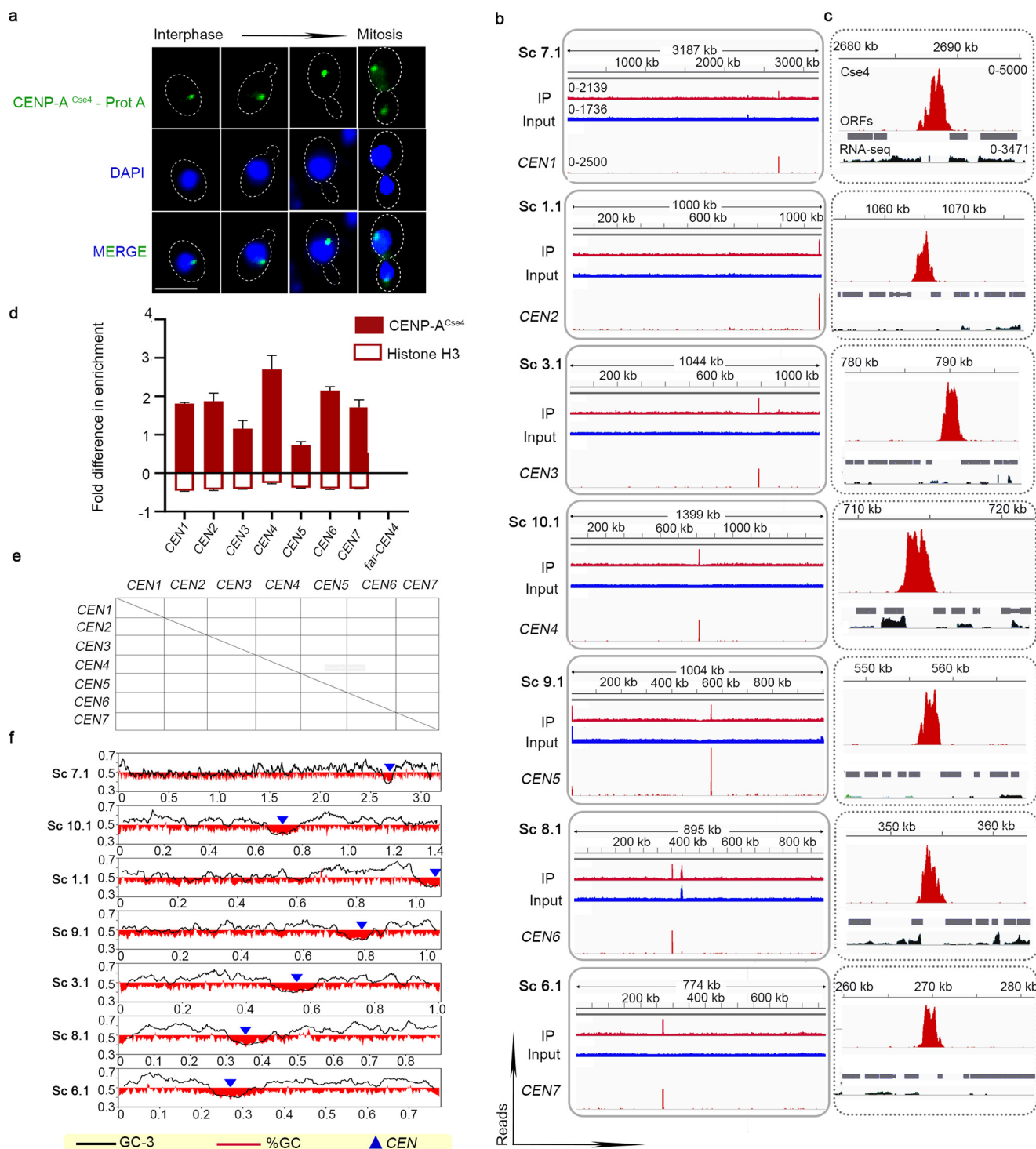


FIG 1 CENP-A^{Cse4}-rich unique DNA sequences that are significantly depleted of histone H3 define small regional centromeres (CENs) in each of seven chromosomes in *C. auris* clade 1. (a) Indirect immunofluorescence of protein A-tagged CENP-A^{Cse4} (green) shows centromeres are clustered at the periphery of the nucleus stained with DAPI (blue) at various stages of the cell cycle. Scale bar, 3 μ m. (b) CENP-A^{Cse4} ChIP-seq reads. Input, total DNA; IP, immunoprecipitated DNA; CEN, input subtracted from IP. (c) Zoomed-in CENP-A^{Cse4} ChIP-seq peaks (red) along with ORFs (gray) and mapped RNA-seq reads (black). The peak values are indicated. (d) Fold difference in CENP-A^{Cse4} and histone H3 enrichment at the CENs compared to a control region (far-CEN4). qPCR values from three technical replicates are shown. The experiments were repeated three times. Error bars indicate the standard errors of the mean (SEM). Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA; ****, $P < 0.0001$. (e) Dot plot analysis revealed the absence of repeats and the unique nature of CEN DNA sequences. (f) CEN positions (blue triangles) overlap with GC (red) and GC3 (black) scaffold minima. Coordinates (in Mb) are shown on the x axis, and the % GC is shown on the y axis. The red bars show the %GC by depicting the amount of deviation from 50% GC (above midline if values are $>50\%$ and below if values are $<50\%$).

TABLE 1 Centromere features in clade 1 isolate of *C. auris*

CEN	Scaffold no. in reference assembly (strain B8441)	Coordinates		Length (bp)	
		Start	End	CENP-A ^{Cse4} -enriched region	ORF-free region
CEN1	PEKT02000007.1	2686849	2689484	2,635	2,576
CEN2	PEKT02000001.1	1063461	1066333	2,872	2,398
CEN3	PEKT02000003.1	788992	791542	2,550	2,244
CEN4	PEKT02000010.1	712902	715418	2,516	2,081
CEN5	PEKT02000009.1	555667	558575	2,908	2,396
CEN6	PEKT02000008.1	352635	355378	2,743	2,192
CEN7	PEKT02000006.1	268329	271195	2,866	2,141

of gene expression at the centromere vicinity that might indicate the presence of pericentric heterochromatin. We could not detect any suppression of gene expression in the centromere neighborhoods (see Fig. S2d and e), confirming that *C. auris*, like *C. lusitanae*, possesses pericentric heterochromatin-deficient centromeres (see Fig. S2f). Pericentric heterochromatin formation is a concerted function of pericentric repeats, RNA interference machinery, chromodomain proteins, methyl transferases as well as histone deacetylases. However, these factors have a patchy distribution in the fungal kingdom (35–38). Orthologs of Dcr1 (the noncanonical Dicer protein) are present (B9J08_002318 in *C. auris*, CXQ85_005187 in *C. haemulonii*, CXQ87_004766 in *C. dubushaemulonii*, and C7M61_003937 in *C. pseudohaemulonii*). However, orthologs of Ago1 (Protein Argonaute), Rdp1 (RNA-dependent RNA polymerase), HP-1 (chromodomain protein), and Clr4 (histone-lysine *N*-methyltransferase) could not be detected in any of these ascomycetes.

Clade-specific karyotype alterations in *C. auris* involve centromeres. Clinical isolates of *C. auris* have been primarily classified into four geographical clades, which exhibit differences in virulence, drug resistance, and genome plasticity (13, 30, 33). Having identified centromeres in a clade 1 isolate, we sought to identify centromere loci in other clades of *C. auris*. Are the centromeres and their neighborhoods conserved in sequence and location across different geographical clades? To answer this, we predicted the putative centromere coordinates in clades 2, 3, and 4 of *C. auris* based on gene synteny, GC content, and ORF content using the available assemblies (GCA_003013715.2 of strain B11220 for clade 2, GCA_005234155.1 of strain LOM for clade 3, and GCA_008275145.1 of strain B11245 for clade 4). The predictions were experimentally tested using strains expressing CENP-A^{Cse4}-protein A fusion proteins in each of these three clades. The predicted loci were enriched with CENP-A^{Cse4} and depleted of canonical histone H3 (Fig. 2a, b, d, e, g, and h). Like clade 1, all seven identified centromeres in each of the three clades overlap GC and GC3 troughs (Fig. 2c, f, and i). Taken together, we identified small regional AT-rich centromere loci with conserved synteny (Fig. 3a) of all chromosomes in each of the four clades of *C. auris*.

The genomes of clade 2 and clade 4 have been assembled into seven scaffolds (GenBank assemblies GCA_003013715.2 and GCA_008275145.1, respectively), while the assemblies of clade 1 (GCA_002759435.2) and 3 (GCA_005234155.1) are fragmented. From MLST analysis based on *RPB2* (39), *TUB2*, and *EFB2* gene sequences, we observed that strain A1, isolated in China (SRS4986047), belongs to clade 3 and that strain CA-AM1 (SRS7388889), isolated in Italy, belongs to clade 1. Both GCA_014673535.1 (for strain CA-AM1) and GCA_014217455.1 (for strain A1), being complete assemblies with seven contigs, were used in clade 1 and clade 3 assembly, respectively, for genome-wide comparisons. Centromere locations in these isolates were also identified. Centromere coordinates of all the isolates analyzed are listed in Table 2. Based on the presence of centromeres and syntenic regions shared with CA-AM1, we propose the merger of scaffold PEKT02000002.1 to PEKT02000001.1, PEKT02000005.1 to PEKT02000003.1, and PEKT02000004.1 to PEKT02000007.1 in the

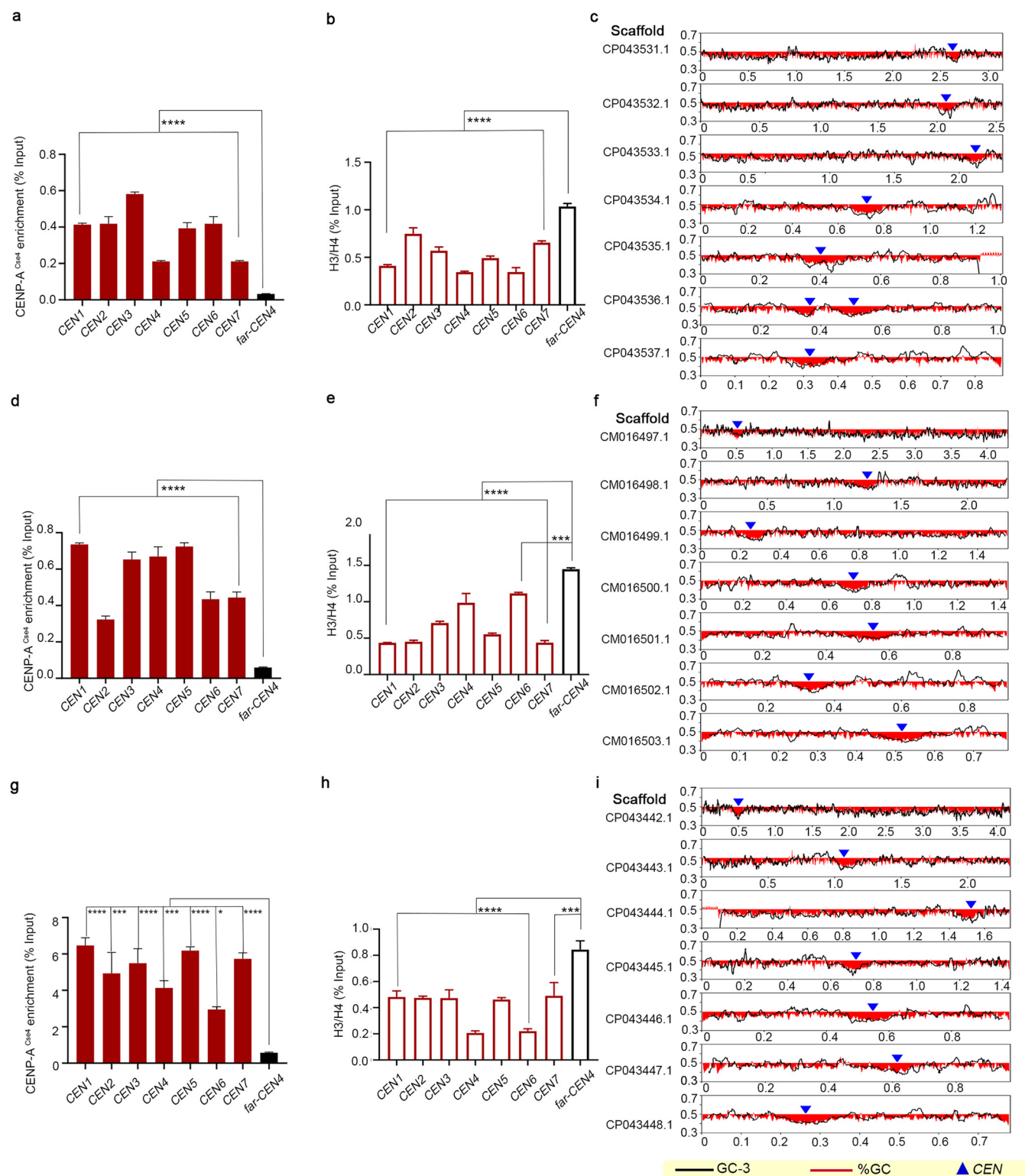


FIG 2 Centromere properties are conserved across the *C. auris* geographical clades. (a, d, and g) CENP-A^{Cse4} enrichment at the CENs in clade 2 (a), clade 3 (d), and clade 4 (g). The corresponding depletion of canonical histone H3 in clade 2 (b), clade 3 (e), and clade 4 (h) is depicted as H3/H4 ratio on the y axis. The percent input values in all the experiments were compared to a control region (*far-CEN4*). qPCR values shown are from three technical replicates. The experiment was repeated twice, with similar results. Error bars indicate standard errors of the mean (SEM). Statistical analysis was done using one-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$; ***, $P < 0.001$). CEN positions (blue triangles) overlap with GC (red) and GC3 (black) scaffold minima in clade 2 (c), clade 3 (f), and clade 4 (i). Coordinates (in Mb) are shown on the x axis, and the %GC is shown on the y axis. The red bars show the %GC by depicting the amount of deviation from 50% GC (above midline if values are $>50\%$ and below if values are $<50\%$). Two copies of the centromere resulting from the detected segmental duplication in clade 2 reference assembly are marked.

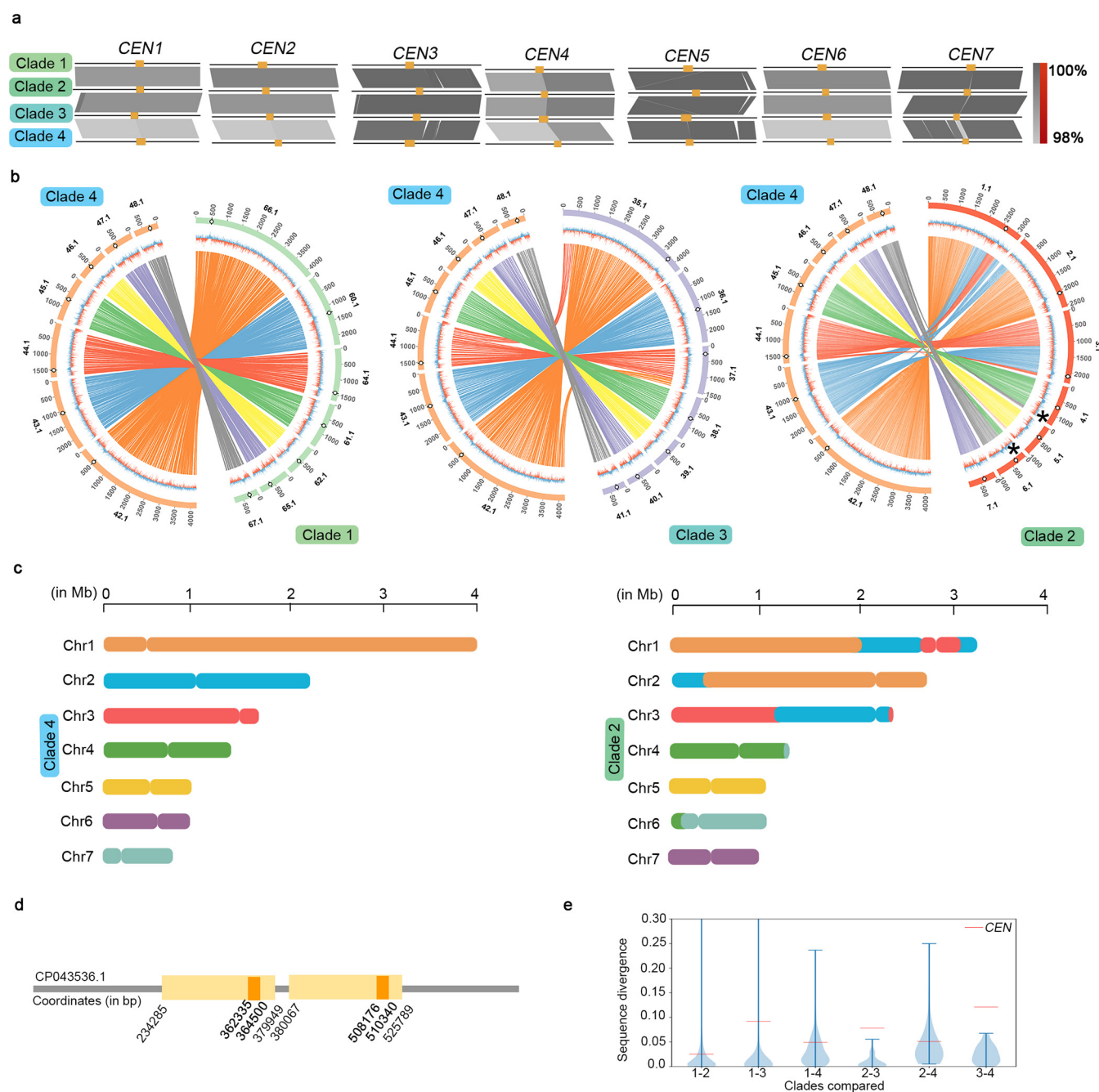


FIG 3 Chromosomal rearrangements resulted in an exclusive centromere relocation in clade 2. (a) Diagram showing immediate *CEN* neighborhood conservation (20 kb each to the left and right of *CENs*, marked in orange) in each of the four clades. Gray-shaded sections connect homologs; inversions, if present, are indicated in red. The sequence similarity is shown as a percentage. (b) Circos plots showing synteny conservation between different clades. Scaffold numbers are shown on the outermost track with empty circles marking centromere positions, the GC content is shown in the middle track (red, GC content below genome average; blue, AT content above genome average), and the innermost track shows the synteny blocks. A reciprocal translocation event in clade 2 is marked by an asterisk (*). (c) Linear synteny plot showing *CEN* relocations in clade 2 with respect to those of clade 4. *CEN* positions in clades 1 and 3 are similar to clade 4 *CEN* locations. *CENs* are shown as chromosomal constrictions. Chromosomes are drawn to scale, and chromosomal sizes are shown. (d) Schematic depicting segmental duplication (yellow) in clade 2, placing two copies of the centromere sequences (orange) in the same chromosome in the assembly GCA_003013715.2. The scaffold number and the coordinates are shown. (e) Violin plot depicting divergence at the centromere sequences compared to intergenic regions in each pair of clades.

current reference assembly of clade 1 to fill the gaps and construct an improved assembly.

Next, we performed genome-wide comparisons using the publicly available chromosome-level assemblies of *C. auris* to study the involvement of centromeres in clade-specific rearrangements, if any. All combinations of pairwise comparisons revealed

TABLE 2 Centromeres in four geographical clades of *C. auris* scaffold map

Scaffold no. (coordinates) ^a		Clade 1, strain B8441 (GCA_002759435.2)*	Clade 2, strain B11220 (GCA_003013715.2)†	Clade 3, strain LOM (GCA_005234155.1)‡	Clade 4, strain B11245 (GCA_008275145.1)†	Clade 1, strain CA-AM1 (GCA_014673535.1)†	Clade 3, strain A1 (GCA_014217455.1)†
CEN1	PEKT02000007.1	CP043532.1 (2073492–2075942)	CM016497.1 (512473–514997)	CP043442.1 (498292–500725)	CP061166.1 (506242–508839)	CP041135.1 (3784930–3787568)	
CEN2	PEKT02000001.1	CP043533.1 (2125357–2127677)	CM016498.1 (1247622–1249916)	CP043443.1 (1069183–1071379)	CP061160.1 (1241526–1244388)	CP041136.1 (1281760–1284636)	
CEN3	PEKT02000003.1	CP043531.1 (2624933–2627082)	CM016499.1 (251284–253638)	CP043444.1 (1521159–1524233)	CP061164.1 (1432703–1435251)	CP041137.1 (251504–254010)	
CEN4	PEKT02000010.1	CP043534.1 (724286–726406)	CM016500.1 (712095–714914)	CP043445.1 (716366–718504)	CP061161.1 (735191–737700)	CP041138.1 (721942–724449)	
CEN5	PEKT02000009.1	CP043535.1 (398873–401244)	CM016501.1 (546843–550014)	CP043446.1 (547070–549346)	CP061162.1 (550709–553616)	CP041139.1 (447449–450385)	
CEN6	PEKT02000008.1	CP043537.1 (317145–319270)	CM016502.1 (322203–324715)	CP043447.1 (613673–615766)	CP061165.1 (627643–630375)	CP041140.1 (594422–597157)	
CEN7	PEKT02000006.1	CP043536.1 (508176–510340)	CM016503.1 (515084–517108)	CP043448.1 (262325–264369)	CP061167.1 (270648–273501)	CP041141.1 (271272–274040)	

^a*, Incomplete with 15 scaffolds; †, complete with 7 scaffolds; ‡, incomplete with 9 scaffolds.^bSegmental duplication.

interclade chromosomal changes in *C. auris*. Representative images using clade 4 (GCA_008275145.1) assembly as the reference is shown in Fig. 3b. Centromeres were numbered from 1 to 7 in the clade 4 assembly based on the decreasing sizes of the chromosomes harboring them. Centromeres of clades 1, 2, and 3 were numbered based on synteny with clade 4 *CENs*. Cross-clade comparisons revealed the genome of clade 2 to be the most rearranged one compared to the other three clades, as reported previously (40) (Fig. 3b). We did not observe any major chromosomal rearrangements between clade 4 and clade 1 assemblies used, while two translocation events were observed between clade 3 and clade 4. Compared to clade 4, five of seven chromosomes in clade 2 had undergone chromosomal rearrangements, resulting in chromosome shuffling. Three of these rearrangements in chromosomes 1, 3, and 6 involve synteny breaks near the centromeres (101 kb away from the centromere in chromosome 1, 91 kb away from the centromere in chromosome 3, and 68 kb away from the centromere in chromosome 6). These structural changes resulted in centromere relocations in clade 2 compared to other clades, generating significant karyotype alterations (Fig. 3c). We also detected a segmental duplication in the clade 2 reference assembly (GCA_003013715.2). Duplication of a 145-kb fragment in contig 000006 in the clade 2 assembly places two copies of the centromere region on the same contig, separated by 144 kb (Fig. 3d).

Centromeres were earlier shown to be the most rapidly evolving loci in two closely related species of the CTG-Ser1 clade: *Candida albicans* and *Candida dubliniensis* (26). A similar genome-wide analysis among the clades of *C. auris* suggested that centromeres exhibit high incidence of substitution mutations compared to the intergenic regions of the genome. This is true for all the clades, though the extent of sequence divergence is different (Fig. 3e; see also Table S3). Hence, a geographical clade-specific accelerated evolution of centromere sequences in the same species is evident from these analyses.

***C. haemulonii* and related species share centromere properties with *C. auris*.**

The size of the *C. auris* genome is 12.2 to 12.4 Mb that falls in the same range with genomes of phylogenetically related, multidrug-resistant, pathogenic species *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C. pseudohaemulonii* of sizes 13.3, 12.6, and 12.6 Mb, respectively (based on corresponding NCBI GenBank assemblies; see Materials and Methods). Since all these species of the *C. haemulonii* complex share similar biochemical properties, the misidentification of species in clinics is quite common. Gene synteny around the *CEN* neighborhoods in these species is conserved compared to *C. auris*, enabling the prediction of *CEN* coordinates (Fig. 4a and Fig. 5a and e). The predicted *CEN* regions were also found to be histone H3 depleted and overlapping with scaffold GC- and GC3 minima (Fig. 4b and c and Fig. 5b, d, f to h), suggesting that these are the bona fide *CENs*. The identified regions are largely free of ORFs and have lengths comparable to those of *C. auris* *CENs* (Table 3). Comparisons utilizing the available chromosome level assembly of *C. duobushaemulonii* revealed that this species has a chromosomal organization more similar to clades 1, 3, and 4 than to clade 2 of *C. auris* (see Fig. S3a to c), further corroborating the distinctiveness of clade 2, isolates of which are usually drug sensitive.

A centromere inactivation event accounts for the chromosome number alteration between *C. lusitanae* and *C. auris*. *Candida lusitanae*, another opportunistic pathogen, is classified under the *Clavipora/Candida* clade of Metschnikowiaceae and is phylogenetically close to *C. auris* (Fig. 6a). It was previously reported to have eight AT-rich short regional *CENs* made up of unique DNA sequences (34). On the other hand, we report that *C. auris* has seven functional *CENs* identified in this study. To trace the events that led to the chromosome number reduction during the divergence of these two species, we compared the gene synteny across the centromeres in *C. lusitanae* and *C. auris*. Though the genomes are highly rearranged (see Fig. S3d), we found that the gene synteny around centromeres is conserved between the two species. Intriguingly, chromosome 8 of *C. lusitanae* was rearranged as three distinct fragments that fused with other chromosomes of *C. auris*. As a result, two *C. lusitanae* centromeres (*CICEN2* and *CICEN8*) were mapped to the same *C. auris* chromosome, based on

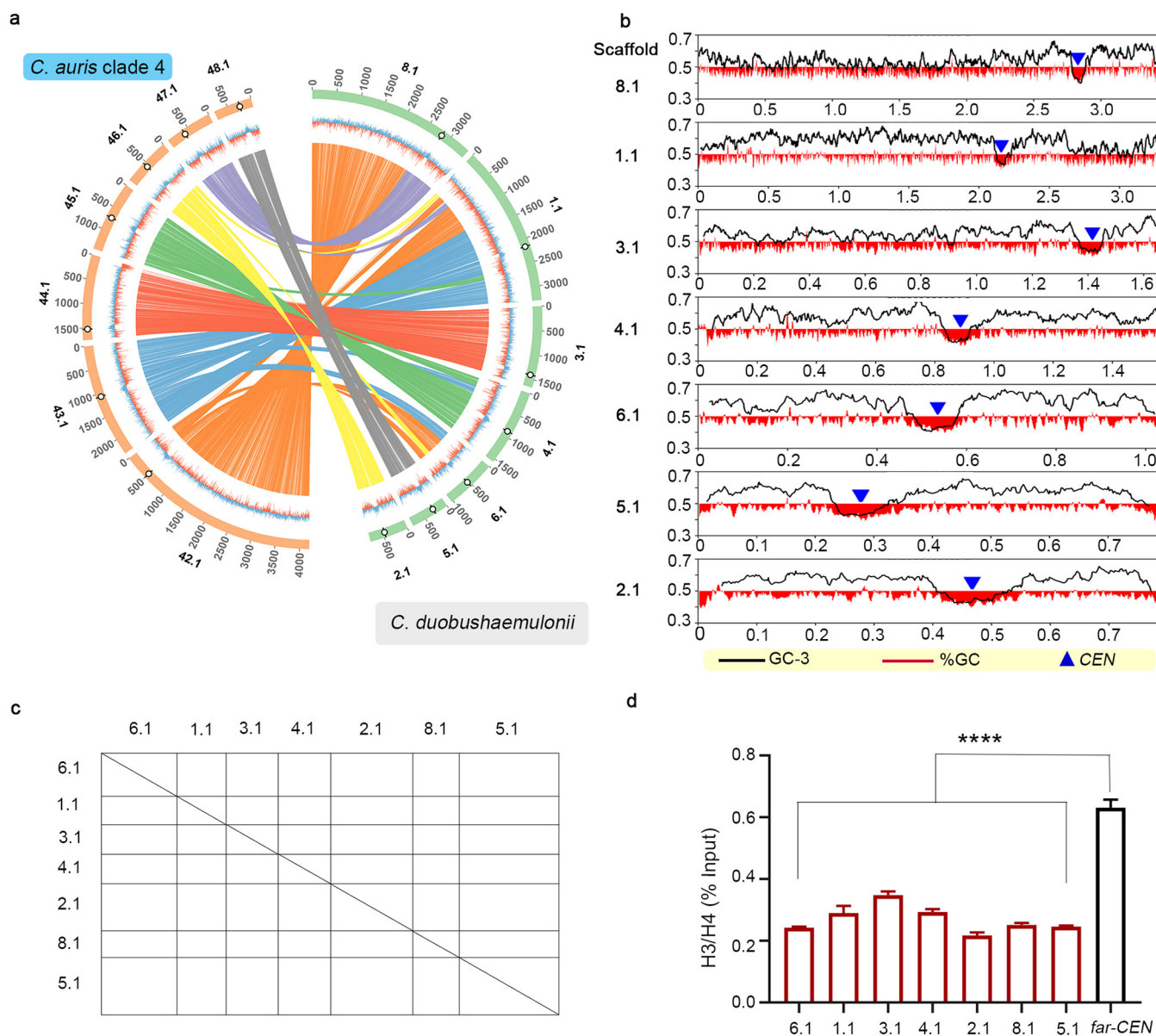


FIG 4 Conservation of centromere properties of the *C. haemulonii* complex species, including *C. auris*. (a) Loci in *C. duobushaemulonii* chromosome-level assembly syntenic to *C. auris* CENs. The outermost track of the circos plot depicts genome scaffolds with empty circles marking CEN locations, the middle track depicts %GC (red, GC content below genome average; blue, AT content above genome average), and the innermost track shows the syntenic blocks. (b) CEN positions (blue triangles) overlap with GC (red) and GC3 (black) minima. Coordinates (in Mb) are shown on the x axis, and the %GC is shown on the y axis. The red color bars show the %GC by depicting the amount of deviation from 50% GC (above midline if values are >50% and below if values are <50%). (c) Dot plot establishing the repeat-free and unique nature of centromere sequences in *C. duobushaemulonii*. The scaffold numbers are shown. (d) Depletion of histone H3 at CENs on different scaffolds (shown on the x axis) compared to a noncentromeric control region (far-CEN). qPCR values from three technical replicates, represented as percent input, are shown. The experiments were performed three times, with similar results. Error bars indicate standard errors of the mean (SEM). Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$).

synteny analysis (Fig. 6b). ChIP-seq analysis revealed CEN2 to be functional in *C. auris* out of the two regions as CENP-A^{Cse4} is recruited only at CEN2. This observation illustrates a clear example of “evolution in progress” as the region corresponding to *C. lusitaniae* CEN8 becomes nonfunctional in *C. auris* despite gene synteny conservation between the two species around this region. C1CEN8, the functional centromere of chromosome 8 in *C. lusitaniae*, spans a region of ~4.5 kb, while the average centromere length is 4.3 kb. The size of the corresponding syntenic regions of the inactivated centromere (inCEN) is 1.1 kb in *C. auris*. In comparison, the functional centromeres of the same species have an average length of 2.7 kb. We posit that the significant,

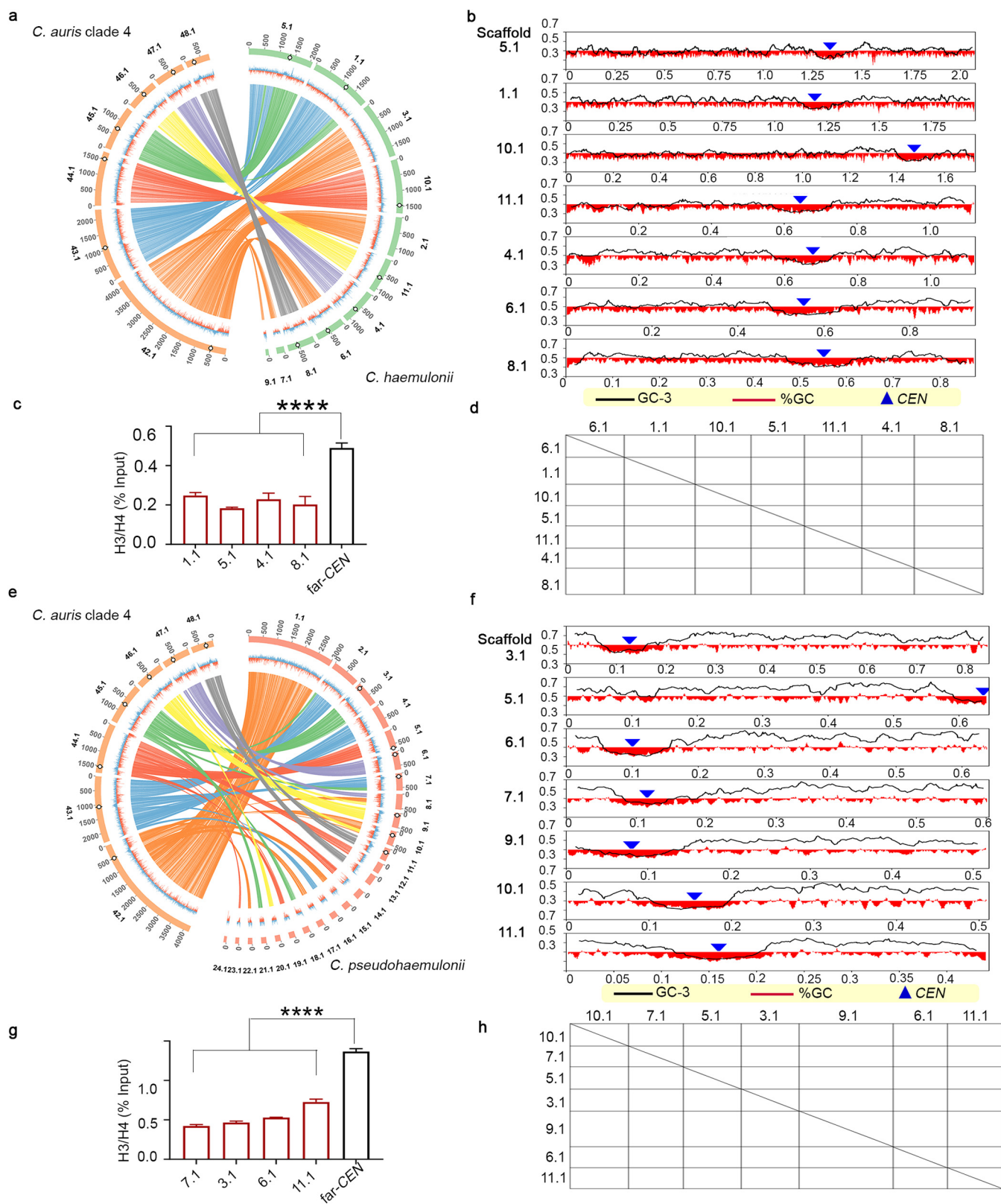


FIG 5 Putative centromeres in *C. haemulonii* and *C. pseudohaemulonii* have properties similar to *C. auris* centromeres. Circos plots show synteny conservation between *C. auris* clade 4 and *C. haemulonii* (a) and between *C. auris* clade 4 and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (e). Genomic scaffolds are shown on the outermost track with the centromere positions marked by empty circles, the middle track shows %GC (red, GC content below genome average; blue, AT content above genome average), and the innermost track depicts synteny blocks. CEN positions (blue triangles) overlap with GC (red) and GC3 (black) scaffold minima in *C. haemulonii* (b) and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (f). Coordinates (in Mb) are shown on the x axis, and the %GC is shown on the y axis. The red (Continued on next page)

TABLE 3 Centromeres in the *C. haemulonii* complex species scaffold map

	Scaffold no. (coordinates)		
<i>C. auris</i> CEN	<i>C. haemulonii</i> (GCF_002926055.2)	<i>C. duobushaemulonii</i> (GCF_002926085.2)	<i>C. pseudohaemulonii</i> (GCF_003013735.1)
CEN1	PKFO01000006.1 (551656–554089)	PKFP01000006.1 (533466–536672)	PYFQ01000010.1 (154148–156382)
CEN2	PKFO01000001.1 (1190716–1193669)	PKFP01000001.1 (2156789–2158893)	PYFQ01000007.1 (114370–116463)
CEN3	PKFO01000010.1 (1471204–1473502)	PKFP01000003.1 (1414893–1417085)	PYFQ01000005.1 (636137–638343)
CEN4	PKFO01000005.1 (1337308–1339535)	PKFP01000004.1 (885454–887675)	PYFQ01000003.1 (125155–127358)
CEN5	PKFO01000011.1 (642822–645213)	PKFP01000002.1 (465383–468840)	PYFQ01000009.1 (78470–82034)
CEN6	PKFO01000004.1 (676456–678623)	PKFP01000008.1 (2827810–2829780)	PYFQ01000006.1 (99229–101295)
CEN7	PKFO01000008.1 (549908–552739)	PKFP01000005.1 (275743–279947)	PYFQ01000011.1 (159135–161216)

centromere-specific attrition of DNA sequence accompanied by the reduction of AT-content resulted in the centromere inactivation in *C. auris* (Fig. 6c). Analysis at the sequence level reveals divergence at the inCEN to be intermediate of that of centromeres and intergenic regions, further suggesting a “transition from centromeric to intergenic region” (see Table S3).

A distinct CEN-associated structural change observed in *C. auris*, compared to the syntenic CEN in *C. lusitanae*, is a pericentric inversion altering the relative positions of three ORFs (Fig. 6d). In addition to the presence of inCEN, five centromere regions in *C. lusitanae* (CICEN1, CICEN2, CICEN5, CICEN6, and CICEN7) have syntenic centromeres in *C. auris*. The remaining two centromeres of *C. auris* identified through CENP-A^{Cse4} ChIP-seq are located at synteny breakpoints. The immediate ORFs flanking CEN3 in *C. lusitanae* are conserved in *C. auris* but are separated by a length of 55 kb. The centromere is located adjacent to one of the synteny blocks, resulting in partial synteny conservation (Fig. 6e). We also mapped a synteny breakpoint at the centromere on chromosome 2 of *C. auris*. The ORFs on either side of the *C. auris* CEN2 maps to different chromosomes in *C. lusitanae* (Fig. 6f).

The same patterns were observed in *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, and *C. pseudohaemulonii*, where sequences syntenic to CICEN8-flanking blocks map to the same scaffold bearing CICEN2 synteny regions (Fig. 6g; see also Fig. S4a and b). The region corresponding to CICEN8 has undergone differential sequence attrition in these species, resulting in reduced sequence length (840 bp in *C. haemulonii*, 361 bp in *C. duobushaemulonii*, and 496 bp in *C. pseudohaemulonii*) as observed in *C. auris* inCEN. CEN-specific sequence loss has also resulted in the reduction of AT-content in these species. CEN-associated inversions and synteny breakpoints in these species are also identical to those in *C. auris* (Fig. 6h to j; see also Fig. S4c to h). The typical patterns of CEN-associated changes in *C. auris* and other species of the *C. haemulonii* complex suggest that these events must have occurred in an immediate common ancestor before species divergence.

Putative small regional, AT-rich centromeres identified in other species of the *Clavispora/Candida* clade. Around 40 ascomycetous species are classified under the *Clavispora/Candida* clade of Metschnikowiaceae (41). To explore the centromere properties in the *Clavispora/Candida* clade, we attempted CEN identification in other species for which genome assemblies are available (Fig. 6a). We could locate putative centromeres in several fungal species of the *Clavispora/Candida* clade of Metschnikowiaceae based on the conserved gene synteny and other conserved centromere properties of *C. auris* and *C. lusitanae* as references (see Table S4). Two possible chromosome number states were detected in the *Clavispora/Candida* clade, and the analyzed genomes

FIG 5 Legend (Continued)

color bars show the %GC by depicting the amount of deviation from 50% GC (above midline if values are >50% and below if values are <50%). Histone H3 depletion at the CENs of *C. haemulonii* (c) and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (g) is shown. The percent input values at CENs on different scaffolds (shown on the x axis) were compared to a noncentromeric control region (far-CEN). The values shown are from three technical replicates, and the experiment was repeated twice, with similar results. Error bars indicate standard errors of the mean (SEM). Statistical analyses were done using one-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$). Dot plot depicting the uniqueness of CEN sequences and absence of repeats in *C. haemulonii* (d) and *C. pseudohaemulonii* (h). Scaffold numbers are shown.

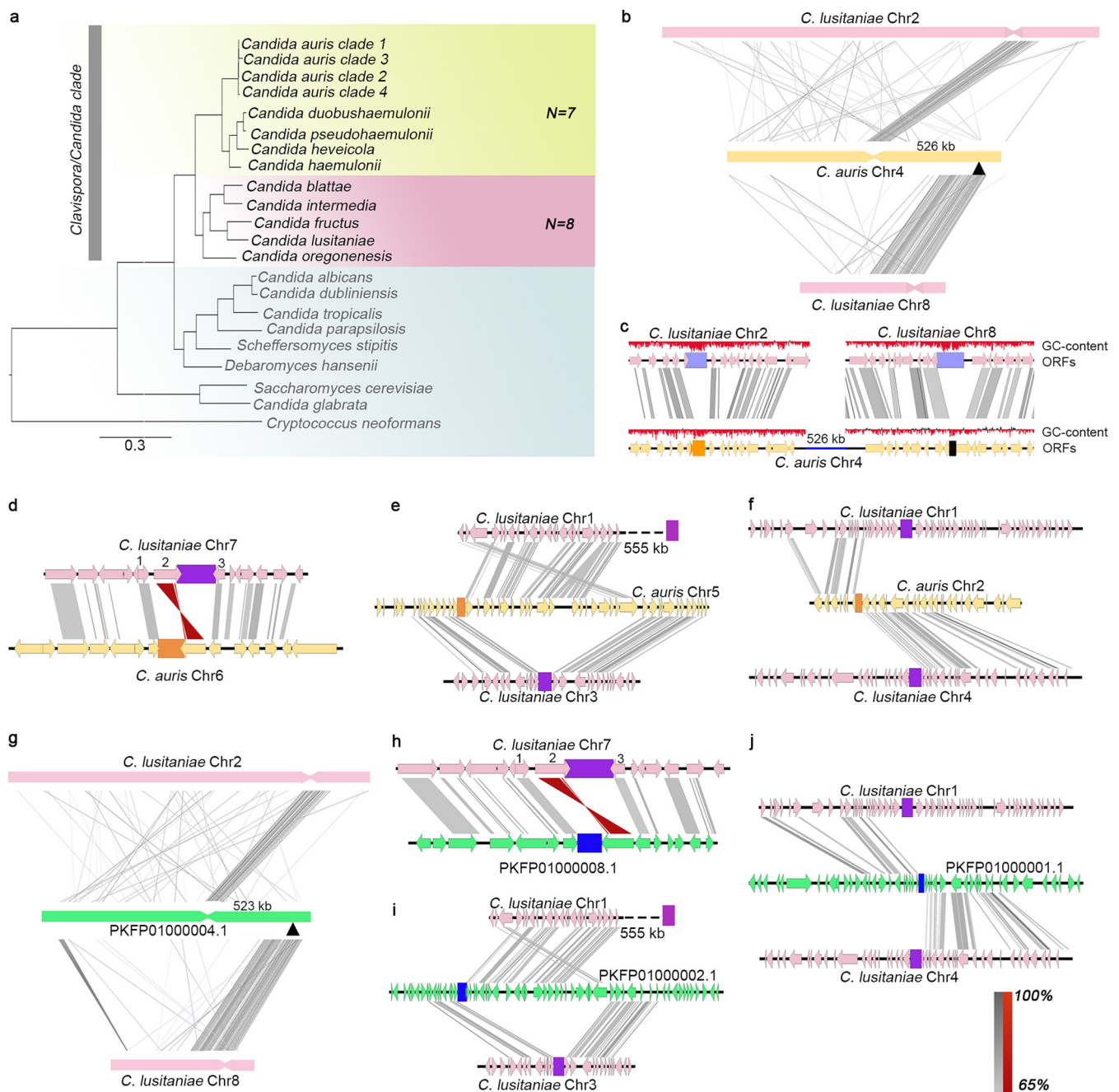


FIG 6 CEN inactivation mediated chromosome number variation in *C. auris* and *C. duobushaemulonii*. (a) Phylogenetic tree depicting the relatedness of *C. auris* geographical clades and other member species of the *Clavispora/Candida* clade. Other species in Ascomycota with characterized/predicted centromeres are shown. *Cryptococcus neoformans* (Basidiomycota) are shown as the outgroup. The two chromosome number states detected in *Clavispora/Candida* clade are represented by $n=7$ and $n=8$. (b) Chromosome-level view depicting the mapping of *C. lusitaniae* CEN2 and CEN8 onto a single scaffold in *C. auris*. Gray-shaded bars connect homologs; inversions, if present, are indicated in red. Inactive CEN (inCEN) is shown by a black triangle. The sequence similarity of homologs is shown in the key as a percentage. (c) ORF-level view showing sequence loss and subsequent loss of AT content at inCEN. (d) Pericentric inversion in *C. auris* changing the positions of ORFs 1, 2, and 3, with respect to the *C. lusitaniae* centromere (purple). *C. auris* CENs are indicated in orange. (e) Rearrangement involving CEN-proximal synteny breaks separating the two synteny blocks on the same chromosome. (f) Synteny breakpoint mapped to the centromere location in *C. auris* chromosome 2. (g) CEN inactivation; (h) pericentric inversion; (i and j) synteny breaks and rearrangements in *C. duobushaemulonii*. CENs are indicated in blue. Inactive CEN is shown as a black triangle.

were classified into two groups: (i) species which have eight AT-rich putative centromeric loci of comparable sizes and (ii) species with seven AT-rich putative centromeric loci with an eighth locus that had undergone sequence loss despite synteny conservation around the orthologous but presumably inactivated centromere locus. *C. lusitaniae* has eight AT-rich, ORF-free centromeres of comparable lengths. *Candida fructus*

was found to possess eight loci syntenic to each of the eight centromeres in *C. lusitaniae*. The identified regions are also depleted of ORFs, are GC-poor, and harbor GC skews as reported in the case of *C. lusitaniae* and *C. albicans* centromeres (34, 42) (Fig. 7). Each of *C. auris*, other species of the *C. haemulonii* complex, and *Candida heveicola* has seven ORF-free loci, which are GC-poor. The eighth locus, though syntenic to *CEN8* of *C. lusitaniae*, has undergone sequence attrition in each of them and is likely to be inactive, like the *inCEN* of *C. auris*. We could identify loci in other related species, including *Candida intermedia*, *Candida blattae*, and *Candida oregonensis* syntenic to each of the seven centromeres of *C. auris*. All the predicted regions are ORF-free, AT-rich, and constituted by unique, repeat-free sequences (see Fig. S5a and b). We also identified an eighth locus syntenic to *C. lusitaniae CEN8* in these species. Unlike the *inCEN* in *C. auris* with a drastically reduced sequence length, the eighth locus is of similar size as other predicted centromeres in these three species (see Fig. S5a and c). The conservation of sequence length suggests that they may have eight functional centromeres. Exceptionally due to a possible assembly error, two putative centromeres identified in *C. intermedia* map to the same scaffold. Our *in silico* analyses collectively suggest the existence of two chromosome number states and remarkably similar centromere properties shared by these closely related organisms of the *Clavispora/Candida* clade. While all these putative *CEN* loci show similar gene synteny, ORF abundance, sequence length, and GC content, further experimental validation is required before assigning them as authentic *CEN* loci of the respective organisms.

Clade 2 of *C. auris* follows a unique evolutionary trajectory. We posit that *C. lusitaniae* and *C. fructus* might have shared an immediate common ancestor CA1 with eight functional *CENs*, one on each chromosome ($n=8$). Chromosomal rearrangements placed regions syntenic to *CICEN2* and *CICEN8* of these two species on the same chromosome in the *C. haemulonii* complex species as well as three clades (clades 1, 3, and 4) of *C. auris*, out of which *CICEN2* is active, and *CICEN8* is inactive (*inCEN*) (Fig. 8a). This finding indicates the existence of an immediate common ancestor ($n=7$), CA2, with a *CICEN2-inCEN* configuration shared by *C. auris* and other species of the *C. haemulonii* complex. Synteny analyses enabled us to reconstruct *CEN*-based ancestral genomes of the immediate common ancestors of *C. lusitaniae-C. fructus* (CA1) and *C. haemulonii* complex-*C. auris* (CA2), representing chromosome number states of $n=8$ and $n=7$, respectively (Fig. 8a). We also hypothesize parallel evolution of the geographical clades of *C. auris*, at different time scales, diverging from a common ancestor CA3, which was derived from the ancestor CA2. Out of the four clades, clade 2 has a remarkably rearranged genome. The location of *inCEN* serves as a useful index for representing inter-clade differences. The synteny block containing *C. lusitaniae CEN8* is conserved in *C. haemulonii*, *C. pseudohaemulonii*, and *C. duobushaemulonii*, as well as in *C. auris* clades 1, 3, and 4. The genes in the block are found distributed in two chromosomes in clade 2, indicating that a break occurred within the block, followed by a downstream reciprocal translocation event (Fig. 3b; see also Table S5). The terminal chromosomal translocation (TCT) event in which Chr4 and Chr7 of CA3 exchanged chromosome ends might have repositioned *inCEN* resulting in a *CICEN5-inCEN* configuration (Fig. 3b and Fig. 8b), exclusive to clade 2. This structural change further confirms the divergence of clade 2 from the common ancestor CA3 along a different evolutionary trajectory (Fig. 8c). On analyzing the whole-genome synteny conservation, we observed that the chromosomes of clade 2 are more rearranged with respect to *C. duobushaemulonii* chromosomes, compared to the chromosomes of the other clades (see Fig. S3), supporting the inference that clade 2 is uniquely rearranged. Also, the conservation of the *C. lusitaniae CEN8*-containing synteny block among the *C. haemulonii* complex species and all of the *C. auris* clades except clade 2 further suggests that clade 2 underwent major karyotype changes different from all the other clades and related species. These observations prompted us to reject an equally possible, alternative model of clade 2 being the ancestral unique strain where the event leading to chromosome number

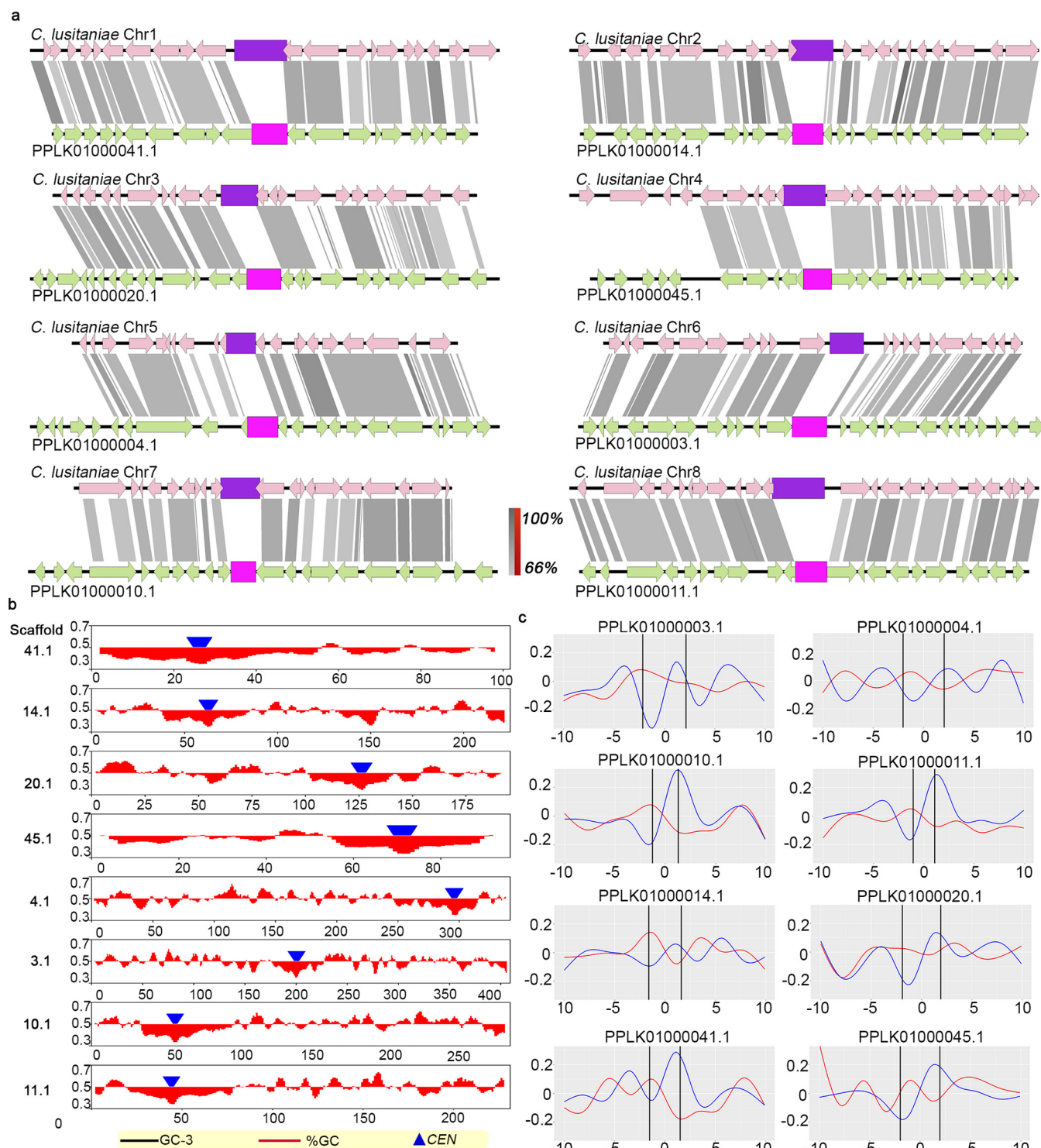


FIG 7 Eight putative centromeres identified in *C. fructus*. (a) Eight loci in *C. fructus* syntenic to *C. lusitaniae* centromeres (purple). Putative CENs in *C. fructus* are indicated in pink. Gray shading connects homologs; inversions (if present) are indicated in red. The sequence similarity is shown as a percentage in the key. (b) Putative CEN positions (blue triangles) overlap with GC (red) and GC3 (black) scaffold minima. Coordinates (in Mb) are shown on the x axis, and the %GC is shown on the y axis. (c) Plots showing the presence of GC-skews (blue) and AT-skews (red) at the putative CENs (||). Distance from CEN (in kb) is shown on the x axis, and the skew is shown on the y axis. The red color bars show the %GC by depicting the amount of deviation from 50% GC (above midline if values are >50% and below if values are <50%).

reduction happened. In this case, clade 2 would have shared higher similarity with *C. lusitaniae* with respect to the syntenic block harboring inCEN. Other rearrangements causing CEN relocations provide additional lines of evidence for the clade-specific divergence.

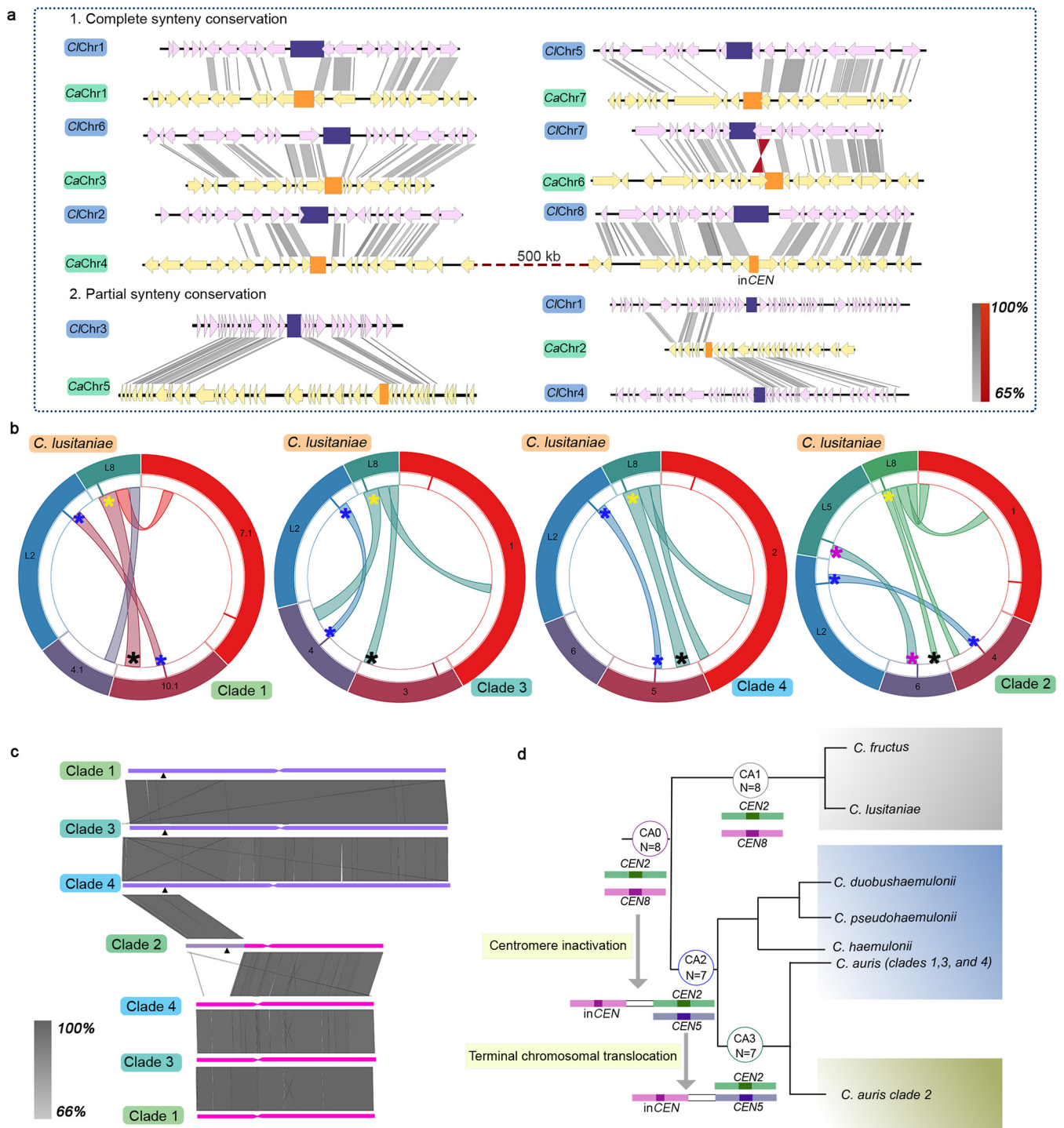


FIG 8 *C. auris* clade 2 evolved via a unique evolutionary trajectory. (a) Representative genome of the common ancestor of *C. auris* and the *C. haemulonii* complex species ($n=7$), depicting chromosomal rearrangement patterns with respect to the common ancestor of *C. lusitaniae* and *C. fructus* ($n=8$). *CENs* in the common ancestor ($n=8$, chromosomes shown as *ClChr*) are indicated in purple, and *CENs* in the common ancestor ($n=7$, chromosomes shown as *CaChr*) are indicated in orange. Homologs are connected by gray shading, and inversions, if present, are indicated in red. The sequence similarity is shown as a percentage in the key. (b) *C. lusitaniae* *CEN2* (on Chr2, L2) and *CEN8* (on Chr8, L8) map to the same scaffold in *C. auris* clades 1, 3, and 4, whereas *CEN5* (on Chr5, L5) and *CEN8* map to the same scaffold in *C. auris* clade 2. Corresponding genomic scaffolds are shown in the outermost track, and the synteny blocks are depicted in the innermost track. The inactive centromere is marked in black and the corresponding active centromere in yellow. (c) Terminal chromosomal translocation event resulting in the relocation of *inCEN* (black triangles) in clade 2. Constrictions mark *CENs* syntenic to *C. lusitaniae* *CEN2* and *CEN5*. Sequence similarity is shown as a percentage in the key. (d) A *CEN*-based model tracing the event of centromere inactivation in the common ancestor *CA0*, resulting in chromosome number reduction in *CA2*, while *CA1* maintains the chromosome number of 8. *CA2* represents the common ancestor of *C. auris* and *C. haemulonii* complex, and *CA3* is the common ancestor of all *C. auris* clades. A TCT event further repositions the inactive *CEN* in clade 2, representing the unique evolutionary trajectory of *C. auris* clade 2. *CENs* are numbered using *C. lusitaniae* as the reference.

DISCUSSION

Centromere identification revealed a typical centromere landscape in multiple species of the *Clavispora/Candida* clade—small regional *CENs* constituted by AT-rich unique sequences and embedded in ORF-free regions that are devoid of any detectable pericentric heterochromatin, DNA motifs, or repeats. These closely related species either contain seven chromosomes or eight chromosomes. We propose that a centromere inactivation event in a common ancestor with eight chromosomes led to this diversity. The inactive centromere, in a pseudodicentric chromosome that might have formed at an intermediate stage, underwent substantial but differential attrition of centromere DNA sequence. This process might have played a crucial role in the emergence of multiple species with seven chromosomes. Inactivation of centromere function mediated by DNA sequence deletion has been suggested previously (43–45). Several synteny breakpoints mapped to the identified centromeres, compared to representative species of the eight-chromosome state, add to the growing evidence that suggests centromeres as a hub of fragility in different systems (46, 47) and downstream chromosomal rearrangements. Spatial proximity of clustered centromeres in fungal species facilitates intercentromeric recombination, possibly mediated by replication fork stalling and higher chances of double-stranded breaks, thus contributing toward karyotype evolution (17, 48, 49). The role of AT-rich sequences and poly(A) stretches in these events, owing to their melting features and potential propensity to form non-B DNA, warrants further study as centromeres in many fungal species coincide with GC or GC3 troughs (16, 28, 50–53).

Whole chromosome and segmental aneuploidy are correlated with drug resistance in other fungal pathogens (54). The *C. auris* genome is known to be highly plastic (33). Considering the multidrug resistance and karyotype plasticity of *C. auris*, it is likely that gross chromosomal rearrangements are taking place in different clinical isolates, contributing to their drug resistance or virulence. Mapping of centromere loci should help trace such genomic rearrangement events. Centromere sequences in different geographical clades were found to evolve rapidly and differentially than the rest of the genome, suggesting that centromeres are potential candidate loci to study evolutionary trajectories emerging within a species. *C. auris* clade 2 has the most rearranged genome and consists of atypical isolates that differ from the other clades in terms of drug tolerance, as well as pathogenicity (40, 55, 56). The unique nature of centromere sequences can be used for accurate species-level and clade-level identification.

In this study, we reveal that the genome of clade 2 differs from the rest of the clades in the position of orthologous centromeres on the chromosomes and the location of the inactive centromere. Chromosome-level comparisons also reveal that karyotype of clade 2 is more rearranged and hence different from *C. duobushaemulonii* than the other clades. These observations directed us to conclude that *C. auris* clades diverged from a common ancestor that shares ancestry with the *C. haemulonii* complex species, and from which clade 2 diverged along a different trajectory during the parallel evolution of the geographical clades. Significant karyotype alterations, evident from the centromere and inactive centromere locations are likely to have contributed to the distinctiveness of *C. auris* clade 2, compared to other clades and the *C. haemulonii* complex species. Ascomycetous pathogens such as *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* exist as clades that exhibit geographical specificity and clade-specific phenotypic features (57, 58). Rare or no interclade recombination is observed in these species, and little is known about the genomic rearrangements or the variations at centromeres operating at the clade level, which can, in turn, affect the recombination frequency.

We conjecture that such centromere-associated clade-specific differences might not be restricted to *C. auris*. Further exploration of centromere sequences and associated structural changes within a species and species complexes will yield deeper insight into the role of centromeres in generating diversity in primarily asexual fungi.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains, media, and growth conditions. Strains of various *Candida* species used in the study (listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material) were grown in YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, and 2%

dextrose) at 30°C. The identity of the strains was confirmed by amplification and sequencing of the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) and D1/D2 regions, followed by BLAST analysis (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/Blast.cgi>). The clade status of different *C. auris* isolates used was confirmed by amplifying and sequencing regions of three housekeeping genes (*TUB2*, *EFB1*, and *RPB1*) harboring polymorphic sites (*TUB2*, bp 534; *EFB1*, bp 698; and *RPB1*, bp 552 [with respect to clade 1]).

Construction of *C. auris* strain expressing CENP-A^{Cse4}-protein A fusion protein. The homolog of CENP-A^{Cse4} in *C. auris* was identified by BLAST using *C. albicans* CENP-A^{Cse4} sequence as the query against the *C. auris* genome. It was distinguished from the canonical histone H3 sequences by confirming the presence of CENP-A^{Cse4}-specific amino acid residues (59). For tagging CENP-A^{Cse4} with protein A at the C terminus, approximately 900 and 800 bp were used as upstream and downstream sequences, respectively, to construct the tagging cassette. The 900-bp fragment (including the complete ORF and native promoter sequence) was amplified from the genomic DNA and cloned as a KpnI-SacI fragment in the pBS-TAP-NAT plasmid. The downstream sequence was cloned as a SpeI-NotI fragment. The 3.7-kb tagging construct, as a KpnI-NotI fragment, was used to transform Cau46R. The transformation of the strains was performed as previously described (60). Nourseothricin (Jena Bioscience) was added at a concentration of 100 µg/ml in the media for selecting transformants. The colonies obtained were subcultured in the presence of nourseothricin and integration of the tagging construct in NAT⁺ transformants was confirmed by PCR.

Western blotting. Cells were grown overnight in YPD until mid-log phase, and 3 optical density (OD) equivalent cells were harvested for protein lysate preparation. The cells were suspended in 400 µl of ice-cold trichloroacetic acid (12.5%), vortexed briefly, and stored at −20°C overnight. The samples were later thawed and pelleted by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm at 4°C for 10 min. The pellets were washed twice with 400 µl of ice-cold acetone (80%), air-dried, suspended in an appropriate volume of lysis buffer (0.1 M NaOH and 1% SDS), and boiled for 10 min. The proteins in the lysate were separated on 12% polyacrylamide gels. The separated samples were transferred from the gels to the nitrocellulose membranes, which were then probed with anti-protein A antibodies (Sigma, P3775; 1:5,000 dilution in 2.5% [wt/vol] skim milk powder in 1× PBS) and horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit secondary antibodies (Abcam, 1:10,000 dilution in 2.5% [wt/vol] skim milk powder in 1× PBS). The blots were developed using Chemiluminescence Ultra substrate (Bio-Rad) and imaged using the VersaDoc system (Bio-Rad).

Preparation of spheroplasts. Cells were grown in 50 ml of YPD until reaching an optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 0.8 and washed with water by centrifugation at 3,000 rpm for 5 min. Cells were then incubated in 10 ml of 2-mercaptoethanol solution (5% in water; Himedia, catalog no. MB041) for 1 h at 30°C at 180 rpm. The cells were pelleted, washed, and resuspended in SCE buffer (1 M sorbitol, 100 mM sodium citrate, 10 mM EDTA [pH 8.0]). Lysing enzyme from *Trichoderma harzianum* (Sigma, catalog no. L1412) was added at a concentration of 2.5 mg/ml, and the suspension was incubated at 37°C at 80 rpm for 2 h. The cells were examined under a microscope to determine the proportion of spheroplasts in the suspension. The prepared spheroplasts were further processed based on the corresponding experimental design.

Indirect immunofluorescence. The *C. auris* CENP-A^{Cse4}-protein A strain was inoculated to 1% (vol/vol) from an overnight culture and was grown until reaching an OD₆₀₀ of 0.8. The cells were fixed by adding formaldehyde to a final concentration of 1% for 15 min. Spheroplasts were prepared from the fixed cells (as described above), washed with 1× PBS, and diluted in 1× PBS to a density appropriate for microscopy. Slides for microscopy were washed and coated with poly L-lysine (10 mg/ml). Portions (20 µl) of the diluted cell suspension were added onto slides, followed by incubation at room temperature for 5 min. The suspension was aspirated, and the slide was washed to remove unbound spheroplasts. The slide was treated with ice-cold methanol for 6 min, followed by ice-cold acetone for 30 s. Blocking solution (2% nonfat skim milk powder in 1× PBS) was added to each well, and the slide was incubated for 30 min at room temperature. The blocking solution was aspirated, and rabbit anti-protein A antibodies (Sigma, P3775; dilution, 1:1,000) were added. The slide was incubated in a wet chamber for 1 h. The antibodies were aspirated, and the slide was washed 15 times, incubating the slide for 2 min for each wash. Secondary antibodies were added (Alexa Fluor 568-goat anti-rabbit IgG; Invitrogen, A11011; dilution, 1:1,000). The slide was incubated in the dark in a wet chamber for 1 h at room temperature. The washes were repeated, and mounting medium (70% glycerol with 100 ng/ml DAPI [4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole]) was added. Clean coverslips were mounted onto the wells, and the slides were imaged using an inverted fluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axio observer; Plan Apochromat, 100× oil). Images were processed using Zeiss ZEN system software and ImageJ.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation. *C. auris* CENP-A^{Cse4}-protein A strain was inoculated to 1% (vol/vol) from an overnight culture, grown until reaching an OD₆₀₀ of 1.0, and cross-linked by the addition of formaldehyde to a final concentration of 1% for 15 min. Quenching with 0.135 M glycine for 5 min was followed by preparation of spheroplasts (as described above). The following buffers were used to wash the prepared spheroplasts: 1× PBS (ice-cold), Buffer-1 (0.25% Triton X-100, 10 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 10 mM Na-HEPES [pH 6.5]), and Buffer-2 (200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 10 mM Na-HEPES [pH 6.5]). Then, 1 ml of lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES [pH 7.4], 1% Triton X-100, 140 mM NaCl, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA) was added to the pellet obtained after the final wash, along with protease inhibitor cocktail (1×). The resuspended spheroplasts were sonicated to obtain chromatin fragments in the size range of 100 to 400 bp. The lysate was cleared by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. One-tenth of the lysate volume was separated to be used as the input DNA. The remaining lysate was divided into two equal fractions: anti-protein A antibodies were added to one of the fractions (immunoprecipitation [IP] fraction) at a 20-µg/ml concentration. The other fraction served as the antibody-minus

control. Both the fractions were incubated overnight on a Rotaspin at 4°C. Protein A-Sepharose beads were added, and the samples were incubated on a Rotaspin at 4°C for 6 h. This was followed by collecting the beads by centrifugation and sequential washes with the following buffers: twice with 1 ml of low-salt wash buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 150 mM NaCl), twice with 1 ml of high-salt wash buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 500 mM NaCl), once with 1 ml of LiCl wash buffer (0.25 M LiCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris [pH 8.0]), and twice with 1 ml of 1× Tris-EDTA (10 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 1 mM EDTA). For each wash, the beads were rotated on a Rotaspin for 5 min in the corresponding buffer, followed by centrifugation at 5,400 rpm for 2 min. The beads were suspended in 0.25 ml of elution buffer (0.1 M NaHCO₃, 1% SDS), incubated at 65°C for 5 min, and rotated on the Rotaspin for 15 min. The supernatant was collected after centrifugation. The elution step was repeated to obtain a final eluted volume of 0.5 ml. The elution buffer was also added to the stored input sample to obtain a final volume of 0.5 ml. Decrosslinking of the three samples (input, IP, and antibody-minus) was done by adding 20 µl of 5 M NaCl and overnight incubation at 65°C. Proteins in the samples were removed by adding 10 µl of 0.5 M EDTA, 20 µl of 1 M Tris (pH 6.8), and 2 µl of proteinase K (20 mg/liter), followed by incubation at 45°C for 3 h. An equal volume of phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) was added to purify the samples, and the aqueous phase was extracted by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 10 min. DNA was precipitated by adding 3 M sodium acetate (1/10th of the volume [pH 5.2]), 1 µl of glycogen (20 mg/ml), and 1 ml of absolute ethanol, followed by incubation at −20°C overnight. The precipitated DNA was collected by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 30 min at 4°C and was washed once with 70% ethanol. Air-dried pellets were resuspended in 20 µl of sterile MilliQ water with 10 mg/ml RNase. ChIP-DNA from duplicates were pooled for ChIP-seq.

The same protocol was followed to determine canonical histone H3 and histone H4 occupancy at the centromeres in *C. haemulonii*, *C. duobushaemulonii*, *C. pseudohaemulonii*, and different clades of *C. auris*, with some differences. Anti-H3 antibodies (Abcam [ab1791], at a final concentration of 13 µg/ml), and anti-H4 antibodies (Abcam [ab10158], at a final concentration of 13 µg/ml) were used for immunoprecipitation. The bead washes were performed for 15 min.

ChIP-seq. (i) Library preparation. ChIP DNA obtained from CENP-A^{Cse4}-protein A (4 ng) was used to generate a sequencing library using NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep kit for Illumina (catalog no. E7645S). In brief, the fragmented DNA was subjected to end repair followed by A-tailing and adapter ligation. The product DNA was enriched by PCR amplification using Illumina index adapter primers and purified using AMPure beads to remove unused primers. The library was quantitated using a Qubit DNA high-sensitivity quantitation assay, and the library quality was checked on a Bioanalyzer 2100 using an Agilent 7500 DNA kit.

(ii) Data analysis. ChIP-seq yielded 20,816,547 reads for the input, and 20,959,149 reads for IP. Based on the FastQC (v0.11.8) report, adaptor sequences and orphan reads were removed using Trim Galore! (v0.4.4) (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/>). The output file was mapped onto the GenBank reference assembly for *C. auris* clade 1 (GCA_002759435.2) to obtain the sequence alignment map in SAM format. Conversion to BAM, sorting, and indexing was achieved using SAMtools (v1.9) (61). Identification and excision of duplicates were made using MarkDuplicates scripted by Picard tools (v1.119) (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>). The processed binary alignment map was used as input for MACS2 (v2.1.1) (62), along with the genome control reads (processed in the same way as the immunoprecipitation sample) to generate peaks. The peaks were then sorted based on the *P* value, the false discovery rate value, and the fold change. The peaks were visualized using Integrative Genomic Viewer (v2.4.1) (63). Enrichment peaks were curated (fold enrichment, ≥2.6), and the coordinates of the peaks obtained from MACS2 post-peak calling were used to extract sequences from the genome assemblies. The extracted sequences were scanned for repeats using SyMap (v4.2) (64), and the result was depicted as a dot plot.

ChIP-qPCR analysis. Real-time PCR was used to confirm CENP-A^{Cse4} enrichment and H3 depletion in the centromere sequences, using primers specific to centromeres and noncentromeric loci (listed in Table S3) and SensiFAST SYBR No ROX kit. Dilutions of 1:50 for input and 1:20 for the IP were used to determine CENP-A^{Cse4} enrichment. Dilutions of 1:50 for input and 1:5 for the IP were used to determine histone H3 and H4 occupancy. The program used the following sequence: 94°C for 2 min, 94°C for 30 s, appropriate *T_m* for 30 s, and 72°C for 30 s for 30 cycles. The adjusted *C_T* values (log₂ of dilution factor subtracted from the *C_T* value of the input or IP) were used to calculate the percentage input using the formula: $100 \times 2^{(\text{adjusted } C_t \text{ of input} - \text{adjusted } C_t \text{ of IP})}$. Three technical replicates were taken for the assay, and the standard error of the mean was calculated. The plots were generated using GraphPad Prism 8.

Ortholog search and phylogenetic tree construction. Available annotation files for *S. cerevisiae* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000146045.2/), *C. glabrata* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000002545.3/), *C. albicans* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000182965.3/), *C. tropicalis* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000006335.3/), *C. dubliniensis* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000026945.1/), *C. parapsilosis* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000182765.1/), *D. hansenii* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000006445.2/), *S. stipitis* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000209165.1/), *C. neoformans* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000091045.1/), *C. auris* clade 1 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_002759435.2/), *C. auris* clade 2 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_003013715.2/), *C. auris* clade 4 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_008275145.1/), *C. duobushaemulonii* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_002926085.2/), *C. haemulonii* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_002926055.2/), *C. pseudohaemulonii* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_003013735.1/), *C. lusitanae* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000003835.1/), and *C. intermedia* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000003835.1/).

www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_900106115.1/) were downloaded from GenBank. Transcription and proteome data of *C. lusitanae* were used to annotate the *C. fructus* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_003707795.1/) genome. *C. auris* clade 3 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_005234155.1/), *C. heveicola* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_003708405.1/), *C. oregonensis* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_003707785.2/), and *C. blattae* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_003706955.2/) genome assemblies were annotated using transcriptome and proteome data of *C. auris* clade 2, using MAKER (v2.31.10) (65). For all given species, clusters of orthologous proteins were identified using OrthoMCL (v2.0.9) (66). The single-copy orthologs present in all the species were identified and aligned using Clustal Omega (v1.2.4) (67). All the alignments were concatenated for each species, including the gaps. The gaps and corresponding sequences in all other species were removed. MrBayes (v2.3.5) (68) was used for tree construction, which was visualized using FigTree (v1.4.4) (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>). Orthologs for proteins involved in heterochromatin formation and RNAi was done using phmmer option in HMMER (EMBL-EBI) (69).

In silico analyses. (i) Gene synteny. Centromere prediction in a candidate species was made by aligning the respective genome assembly to the reference species assembly using Mauve (Geneious v11.1.4; Biomatters, Ltd.), and the conserved synteny blocks corresponding to the ORFs flanking centromeres in the reference assembly were identified. For confirming synteny conservation, candidate species-specific local genome databases were created using Geneious. BLAST analysis of five individual ORFs on either side of the centromeres in the reference species assembly was performed against the local genome database of the candidate species, using the protein sequences as queries. For genome-level comparison, coordinates of all the synteny blocks conserved between two species were obtained using SyMap (v4.2), and the circos plots were drawn using Circos (v0.69-8) (70). Scaffold-level and ORF-level synteny analyses identifying rearrangements were done using Easyfig (v2.2.2) (71).

(ii) Centromere sequence features. Python scripts were written to determine the GC% at the third position of codons. The percentages of G and C at the third position of codons (except the stop codons) were calculated, followed by calculating the average values in a sliding window of 10 ORFs. These values were plotted for each scaffold of the genome. Annotations that are not a multiple of three were not considered for the analysis. GC% was also calculated for the whole scaffolds with a window size of 5 kb and a sliding step of 1 kb. GC skew $[(G - C)/(G + C)]$ and AT skew $[(A - T)/(A + T)]$ were plotted for a region of 10 kb flanking the centromeres using a window size of 100 bp and a sliding step of 1 bp. The skew calculation was done in Julia (v1.2.0), and the plotting was done in R. The “geom_smooth” function with “gam” method in ggplot2 (72) was used to smoothen the curve.

To study trends in centromere sequence evolution in different clades of *C. auris*, protein sequences were extracted using `agat_sp_extract_sequences.pl` from the AGAT suite (<https://github.com/NBISweden/AGAT>), and orthologous genes found using `rsd_search` (73). Intergenic sequence that occurred between the same pair of orthologous genes in pairs were identified as orthologous intergenic sequence and aligned using FSA (74), which we previously found to have high specificity for true homology in aligning intergenic DNA sequence (75). In each of the pairwise alignments generated by FSA, sequence divergence was estimated as $\#mutations/\#matches$, where $\#matches$ is the number of positions where an aligned pair of nucleotides is reported; and $\#mutations$ is the number of match positions where the alignment is a mismatch. The means and sample standard deviations over all intergenic sequences were calculated and compared to the observed numbers in centromeres.

If available, the respective genome assembly annotation files were used to report the length of ORF-free regions. Otherwise, all predicted ORFs larger than 600 bp were considered as coding sequences. Motif search was done using MEME in the MEME Suite (76).

(iii) Gene expression. For determining the transcriptional status of centromeres, the raw sequencing reads (SRR6900290, SRR6900291, SRR6900292, and SRR6900293) (30) were aligned to the reference genome of clade 1 (GenBank assembly GCA_002759435.2) using HISAT2 (v2.1.0) (77). The aligned reads were then graphically visualized in the IGV to analyze gene expression levels at/around the centromeres on different chromosomes. For studying the transcriptional status of ORFs overlapping with or flanking the centromeres, the abundance of annotated transcripts was quantified using pseudo alignment program kallisto (v0.46.1) (78). The expression of genes around/overlapping the centromere in TPM (transcripts per million) were compared to the global gene expression level.

Data availability. ChIP-seq data have been deposited in NCBI under BioProject PRJNA612018.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material is available online only.

FIG S1, TIF file, 2.3 MB.

FIG S2, TIF file, 1 MB.

FIG S3, TIF file, 2.1 MB.

FIG S4, TIF file, 2.1 MB.

FIG S5, TIF file, 1.2 MB.

TABLE S1, DOCX file, 0.01 MB.

TABLE S2, DOCX file, 0.02 MB.

TABLE S3, DOCX file, 0.01 MB.

TABLE S4, DOCX file, 0.01 MB.

TABLE S5, DOCX file, 0.02 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank N. Chauhan for providing the strains, V. Yadav for preliminary gene synteny analyses, L. Sreekumar for reagents, and Clevergene Biocorp Pvt., Ltd., Bengaluru, India, for generating ChIP-seq data.

This study was funded by the Indian Council of Medical Research (AMR/149/2018-ECD-II), Government of India, to K.S., A.C., S.M.R., and R.P. K.S. acknowledges the financial support of JC Bose National Fellowship (Science and Engineering Research Board, Govt. of India, JCB/2020/000021) and intramural funding from JNCASR. A.N. was a National Postdoctoral Fellow (PDF/2016/003256), supported by the Science and Engineering Research Board, Department of Science and Technology, Government of India. R.N.V., P.S., and R.S. acknowledge Department of Atomic Energy, Government of India for funding and the computing facilities provided by The Institute of Mathematical Sciences.

REFERENCES

- Satoh K, Makimura K, Hasumi Y, Nishiyama Y, Uchida K, Yamaguchi H. 2009. *Candida auris* sp. nov., a novel ascomycetous yeast isolated from the external ear canal of an inpatient in a Japanese hospital. *Microbiol Immunol* 53:41–44. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1348-0421.2008.00083.x>.
- Morales-López SE, Parra-Giraldo CM, Ceballos-Garzón A, Martínez HP, Rodríguez GJ, Álvarez-Moreno CA, Rodríguez JY. 2017. Invasive infections with multidrug-resistant yeast *Candida auris*, Colombia. *Emerg Infect Dis* 23:162–164. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2301.161497>.
- Ruiz-Gaitán A, Moret AM, Tasiás-Pitarch M, Aleixandre-López AI, Martínez-Morel H, Calabuig E, Salavert-Lletí M, Ramírez P, López-Hontangas JL, Hagen F, Meis JF, Mollar-Maseres J, Pemán J. 2018. An outbreak due to *Candida auris* with prolonged colonization and candidaemia in a tertiary care European hospital. *Mycoses* 61:498–505. <https://doi.org/10.1111/myc.12781>.
- Schelenz S, Hagen F, Rhodes JL, Abdolrasouli A, Chowdhary A, Hall A, Ryan L, Shackleton J, Trimlett R, Meis JF, Armstrong-James D, Fisher MC. 2016. First hospital outbreak of the globally emerging *Candida auris* in a European hospital. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control* 5:35. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-016-0132-5>.
- Vallabhaneni S, Kallen A, Tsay S, Chow N, Welsh R, Kerins J, Kemble SK, Pacilli M, Black SR, Landon E, Ridgway J, Palmore TN, Zelzany A, Adams EH, Quinn M, Chaturvedi S, Greenko J, Fernandez R, Southwick K, Furuya EY, Calfee DP, Hamula C, Patel G, Barrett P, Lafaro P, Berkow EL, Moulton-Meissner H, Noble-Wang J, Fagan RP, Jackson BR, Lockhart SR, Litvintseva AP, Chiller TM. 2017. Investigation of the first seven reported cases of *Candida auris*, a globally emerging invasive, multidrug-resistant fungus—United States, May 2013–August 2016. *Am J Transplant* 17:296–299. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ajt.14121>.
- Casadevall A, Kontoyiannis DP, Robert V. 2019. On the emergence of *Candida auris*: climate change, azoles, swamps, and birds. *mBio* 10:e01397-19. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01397-19>.
- Jackson BR, Chow N, Forsberg K, Litvintseva AP, Lockhart SR, Welsh R, Vallabhaneni S, Chiller T. 2019. On the origins of a species: what might explain the rise of *Candida auris*? *J Fungi* 5:58. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof5030058>.
- Cadnum JL, Shaikh AA, Piedrahita CT, Sankar T, Jencson AL, Larkin EL, Ghannoum MA, Donskey CJ. 2017. Effectiveness of disinfectants against *Candida auris* and other *Candida* species. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 38:1240–1243. <https://doi.org/10.1017/ice.2017.162>.
- Chowdhary A, Prakash A, Sharma C, Kordalewska M, Kumar A, Sarma S, Tarai B, Singh A, Upadhyaya G, Upadhyay S, Yadav P, Singh PK, Khillan V, Sachdeva N, Perlin DS, Meis JF. 2018. 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* 73:891–899. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkx480>.
- Emara M, Ahmad S, Khan Z, Joseph L, Al-Obaid I, Purohit P, Bafna R. 2015. *Candida auris* candidemia in Kuwait, 2014. *Emerg Infect Dis* 21:1091–1092. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2106.150270>.
- de Cássia Orlandi Sardi J, Silva DR, Soares Mendes-Giannini MJ, Rosalen PL. 2018. *Candida auris*: epidemiology, risk factors, virulence, resistance, and therapeutic options. *Microb Pathog* 125:116–121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2018.09.014>.
- Rodríguez JY, Le Pape P, Lopez O, Esquea K, Labiosa LA, Alvarez-Moreno C. 2020. *Candida auris*: a latent threat to critically ill patients with COVID-19. *Clin Infect Dis* 2020:ciaa1595. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1595>.
- Lockhart SR, Etienne KA, Vallabhaneni S, Farooqi J, Chowdhary A, Govender NP, Colombo AL, Calvo B, Cuomo CA, Desjardins CA, Berkow EL, Castanheira M, Magobo RE, Jabeen K, Asghar RJ, Meis JF, Jackson B, Chiller T, Litvintseva AP. 2017. Simultaneous emergence of multidrug-resistant *Candida auris* on 3 continents confirmed by whole-genome sequencing and epidemiological analyses. *Clin Infect Dis* 64:134–140. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciw691>.
- Chow NA, de Groot T, Badali H, Abastabar M, Chiller TM, Meis JF. 2019. Potential fifth clade of *Candida auris*, Iran, 2018. *Emerg Infect Dis* 25:1780–1781. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2509.190686>.
- Sun S, Yadav V, Billmyre RB, Cuomo CA, Nowrousian M, Wang L, Souciot JL, Boekhout T, Porcel B, Wincker P, Granek JA, Sanyal K, Heitman J. 2017. Fungal genome and mating system transitions facilitated by chromosomal translocations involving intercentromeric recombination. *PLoS Biol* 15:e2002527. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2002527>.
- Sankaranarayanan SR, Ianiri G, Coelho MA, Reza MH, Thimmappa BC, Ganguly P, Vadhana RN, Sun S, Siddharthan R, Tellgren-Roth C, Dawson TL, Heitman J, Sanyal K. 2020. Loss of centromere function drives karyotype evolution in closely related *Malassezia* species. *Elife* 9:1–33. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.53944>.
- Guin K, Chen Y, Mishra R, Muzaki SRB, Thimmappa BC, O'Brien CE, Butler G, Sanyal A, Sanyal K. 2020. Spatial inter-centromeric interactions facilitated the emergence of evolutionary new centromeres. *Elife* 9:1–28. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.58556>.
- Schotanus K, Heitman J. 2020. Centromere deletion in *Cryptococcus deuterogattii* leads to neocentromere formation and chromosome fusions. *Elife* 9:1–26. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.56026>.
- Selmecki A, Gerami-Nejad M, Paulson C, Forche A, Berman J. 2008. An iso-chromosome confers drug resistance *in vivo* by amplification of two genes, ERG11 and TAC1. *Mol Microbiol* 68:624–641. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2008.06176.x>.
- Poláková S, Blume C, Zárte JÁ, Mentel M, Jørck-Ramberg D, Stenderup J, Piškur J. 2009. Formation of new chromosomes as a virulence mechanism in yeast *Candida glabrata*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 106:2688–2693. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0809793106>.
- Legrand M, Jaitly P, Feri A, d'Enfert C, Sanyal K. 2019. *Candida albicans*: an emerging yeast model to study eukaryotic genome plasticity. *Trends Genet* 35:292–307. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tig.2019.01.005>.
- Guin K, Sreekumar L, Sanyal K. 2020. Implications of the evolutionary trajectory of centromeres in the fungal kingdom. *Annu Rev Microbiol* 74:835–853. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-micro-011720-122512>.
- McKinley KL, Cheeseman IM. 2016. The molecular basis for centromere identity and function. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 17:16–29. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm.2015.5>.
- Yadav V, Sreekumar L, Guin K, Sanyal K. 2018. Five pillars of centromeric chromatin in fungal pathogens. *PLoS Pathog* 14:e1007150–7. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1007150>.

25. Sanyal K, Carbon J. 2002. The CENP-A homolog CaCse4p in the pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans* is a centromere protein essential for chromosome transmission. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 99:12969–12974. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.162488299>.
26. Padmanabhan S, Thakur J, Siddharthan R, Sanyal K. 2008. Rapid evolution of Cse4p-rich centromeric DNA sequences in closely related pathogenic yeasts, *Candida albicans* and *Candida dubliniensis*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105:19797–19802. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0809770105>.
27. Fang Y, Coelho MA, Shu H, Schotanus K, Thimmappa BC, Yadav V, Chen H, Malc EP, Wang J, Mieczkowski PA, Kronmiller B, Tyler BM, Sanyal K, Dong S, Nowrousian M, Heitman J. 2020. Long transposon-rich centromeres in an oomycete reveal divergence of centromere features in *Stramenopila-Alveolata-Rhizaria* lineages. *PLoS Genet* 16:e1008646–30. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1008646>.
28. Navarro-Mendoza MI, Pérez-Arques C, Panchal S, Nicolás FE, Mondo SJ, Ganguly P, Pangilinan J, Grigoriev IV, Heitman J, Sanyal K, Garre V. 2019. Early diverging fungus *Mucor circinelloides* lacks centromeric histone CENP-A and displays a mosaic of point and regional centromeres. *Curr Biol* 29:3791–3802. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.09.024>.
29. Ola M, O'Brien CE, Coughlan AY, Ma Q, Donovan PD, Wolfe KH, Butler G. 2020. Polymorphic centromere locations in the pathogenic yeast *Candida parapsilosis*. *Genome Res* 30:684–696. <https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.257816.119>.
30. Muñoz JF, Gade L, Chow NA, Loparev VN, Juieng P, Berkow EL, Farrer RA, Litvintseva AP, Cuomo CA. 2018. Genomic insights into multidrug-resistance, mating and virulence in *Candida auris* and related emerging species. *Nat Commun* 9:1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-07779-6>.
31. Gabaldón T, Naranjo-Ortiz MA, Marcet-Houben M. 2016. Evolutionary genomics of yeast pathogens in the Saccharomycotina. *FEMS Yeast Res* 16:1–10.
32. Chatterjee G, Sankaranarayanan SR, Guin K, Thattikota Y, Padmanabhan S, Siddharthan R, Sanyal K. 2016. Repeat-Associated fission yeast-like regional centromeres in the ascomycetous budding yeast *Candida tropicalis*. *PLoS Genet* 12:e1005839–28. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1005839>.
33. Bravo Ruiz G, Ross ZK, Holmes E, Schelenz S, Gow NAR, Lorenz A. 2019. Rapid and extensive karyotype diversification in haploid clinical *Candida auris* isolates. *Curr Genet* 65:1217–1228. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00294-019-00976-w>.
34. Kapoor S, Zhu L, Froyd C, Liu T, Rusche LN, Rine J. 2015. Regional centromeres in the yeast *Candida lusitanae* lack pericentromeric heterochromatin. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 112:12139–12144. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1508749112>.
35. Bühler M, Moazed D. 2007. Transcription and RNAi in heterochromatic gene silencing. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* 14:1041–1048. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nsmb1315>.
36. Alper BJ, Job G, Yadav RK, Shanker S, Lowe BR, Partridge JF. 2013. Sir2 is required for Clr4 to initiate centromeric heterochromatin assembly in fission yeast. *EMBO J* 32:2321–2335. <https://doi.org/10.1038/emboj.2013.143>.
37. Hickman MA, Froyd CA, Rusche LN. 2011. Reinventing heterochromatin in budding yeasts: Sir2 and the origin recognition complex take center stage. *Eukaryot Cell* 10:1183–1192. <https://doi.org/10.1128/EC.05123-11>.
38. Drinnenberg IA, Weinberg DE, Xie KT, Mower JP, Wolfe KH, Fink GR, Bartel DP. 2009. RNAi in budding yeast. *Science* 326:544–550. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1176945>.
39. Prakash A, Sharma C, Singh A, Kumar Singh P, Kumar A, Hagen F, Govender NP, Colombo AL, Meis JF, Chowdhary A. 2016. 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* 22:277.e1–277.e9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2015.10.022>.
40. Muñoz JF, Welsh RM, Shea T, Batra D, Gade L, Howard D, Rowe LA, Meis JF, Litvintseva AP, Cuomo CA. 2021. Clade-specific chromosomal rearrangements and loss of subtelomeric adhesins in *Candida auris*. *Genetics* <https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/iyab029>.
41. Daniel HM, Lachance MA, Kurtzman CP. 2014. On the reclassification of species assigned to *Candida* and other anamorphic ascomycetous yeast genera based on phylogenetic circumscription. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* 106:67–84. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10482-014-0170-z>.
42. Koren A, Tsai H, Tirosh I, Burrack LS, Barkai N, Berman J. 2010. Epigenetically-inherited centromere and neocentromere DNA replicates earliest in S phase. *PLoS Genet* 6:e1001068–17. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1001068>.
43. Jäger D, Philippsen P. 1989. Stabilization of dicentric chromosomes in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* by telomere addition to broken ends or by centromere deletion. *EMBO J* 8:247–254. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1460-2075.1989.tb03370.x>.
44. Gordon JL, Byrne KP, Wolfe KH. 2011. Mechanisms of chromosome number evolution in yeast. *PLoS Genet* 7:e1002190–3. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002190>.
45. Lhuillier-Akakpo M, Guérin F, Frapporti A, Duharcourt S. 2016. DNA deletion as a mechanism for developmentally programmed centromere loss. *Nucleic Acids Res* 44:1553–1565. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkv1110>.
46. Simi S, Simili M, Bonatti S, Campagna M, Abbondandolo A. 1998. Fragile sites at the centromere of Chinese hamster chromosomes: a possible mechanism of chromosome loss. *Mutat Res Fundam Mol Mech Mutagen* 397:239–246. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0027-5107\(97\)00219-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0027-5107(97)00219-4).
47. Kim TM, Xi R, Luquette LJ, Park RW, Johnson MD, Park PJ. 2013. Functional genomic analysis of chromosomal aberrations in a compendium of 8000 cancer genomes. *Genome Res* 23:217–227. <https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.140301.112>.
48. Greenfeder SA, Newlon CS. 1992. Replication forks pause at yeast centromeres. *Mol Cell Biol* 12:4056–4066. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mcb.12.9.4056>.
49. Aze A, Sannino V, Soffientini P, Bachi A, Costanzo V. 2016. Centromeric DNA replication reconstitution reveals DNA loops and ATR checkpoint suppression. *Nat Cell Biol* 18:684–691. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncb3344>.
50. Talbert PB, Henikoff S. 2020. What makes a centromere? *Exp Cell Res* 389:111895. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yexcr.2020.111895>.
51. Zhang H, Freudenreich CH. 2007. An AT-rich sequence in human common fragile site fra16d causes fork stalling and chromosome breakage in *S. cerevisiae*. *Mol Cell* 27:367–379. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2007.06.012>.
52. Yadav V, Yang F, Reza MH, Liu S, Valent B, Sanyal K, Naqvi NI. 2019. Cellular dynamics and genomic identity of centromeres in cereal blast fungus. *mBio* 10:e01581–19. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01581-19>.
53. Lynch DB, Logue ME, Butler G, Wolfe KH. 2010. Chromosomal G+C content evolution in yeasts: systematic interspecies differences, and GC-poor troughs at centromeres. *Genome Biol Evol* 2:572–583. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gbe/evq042>.
54. Kwon-Chung KJ, Chang YC. 2012. Aneuploidy and drug resistance in pathogenic fungi. *PLoS Pathog* 8:e1003022–11. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1003022>.
55. Sekizuka T, Iguchi S, Umeyama T, Inamine Y, Makimura K, Kuroda M, Miyazaki Y, Kikuchi K. 2019. Clade II *Candida auris* possess genomic structural variations related to an ancestral strain. *PLoS One* 14:e0223433. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0223433>.
56. Iguchi S, Itakura Y, Yoshida A, Kamada K, Mizushima R, Arai Y, Uzawa Y, Kikuchi K. 2019. *Candida auris*: a pathogen difficult to identify, treat, and eradicate and its characteristics in Japanese strains. *J Infect Chemother* 25:743–749. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiac.2019.05.034>.
57. Soll DR, Pujol C. 2003. *Candida albicans* clades. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* 39:1–7. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0928-8244\(03\)00242-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0928-8244(03)00242-6).
58. Dodgson AR, Pujol C, Denning DW, Soll DR, Fox AJ. 2003. Multilocus sequence typing of *Candida glabrata* reveals geographically enriched clades. *J Clin Microbiol* 41:5709–5717. <https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.41.12.5709-5717.2003>.
59. Keith KC, Baker RE, Chen Y, Harris K, Stoler S, Fitzgerald-Hayes M. 1999. Analysis of primary structural determinants that distinguish the centromere-specific function of histone variant Cse4p from Histone H3. *Mol Cell Biol* 19:6130–6139. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mcb.19.9.6130>.
60. Sanyal K, Baum M, Carbon J. 2004. Centromeric DNA sequences in the pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans* are all different and unique. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 101:11374–11379. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0404318101>.
61. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin R, 1000 Genome Project Data Processing Subgroup. 2009. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* 25:2078–2079. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352>.
62. Zhang Y, Liu T, Meyer CA, Eickhout J, Johnson DS, Bernstein BE, Nusbaum C, Myers RM, Brown M, Li W, Liu XS. 2008. Model-based analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS). *Genome Biol* 9:R137. <https://doi.org/10.1186/gb-2008-9-9-r137>.
63. Robinson JT, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Winckler W, Guttman M, Lander ES, Getz G, Mesirov JP. 2011. Integrative genomics viewer. *Nat Biotechnol* 29:24–26. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1754>.

64. Soderlund C, Bomhoff M, Nelson WM. 2011. SyMAP v3.4: a turnkey synteny system with application to plant genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res* 39:68. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkr123>.
65. Holt C, Yandell M. 2011. MAKER2: an annotation pipeline and genome-database management tool for second-generation genome projects. *BMC Bioinformatics* 12:491. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-12-491>.
66. Li L, Stoeckert C, Roos DS. 2003. OrthoMCL: identification of ortholog groups for eukaryotic genomes. *Genome Res* 13:2178–2189. <https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.1224503>.
67. Sievers F, Wilm A, Dineen D, Gibson TJ, Karplus K, Li W, Lopez R, McWilliam H, Remmert M, Söding J, Thompson JD, Higgins DG. 2011. Fast, scalable generation of high-quality protein multiple sequence alignments using Clustal Omega. *Mol Syst Biol* 7:539. <https://doi.org/10.1038/msb.2011.75>.
68. Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck JP. 2003. MrBayes 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference under mixed models. *Bioinformatics* 19:1572–1574. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btg180>.
69. Potter SC, Luciani A, Eddy SR, Park Y, Lopez R, Finn RD. 2018. HMMER web server: 2018 update. *Nucleic Acids Res* 46:W200–W204. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gky448>.
70. Krzywinski M, Schein J, Birol I, Connors J, Gascoyne R, Horsman D, Jones SJ, Marra MA. 2009. Circos: an information aesthetic for comparative genomics. *Genome Res* 19:1639–1645. <https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.092759.109>.
71. Sullivan MJ, Petty NK, Beatson SA. 2011. Easyfig: a genome comparison visualizer. *Bioinformatics* 27:1009–1010. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr039>.
72. Wickham H. 2009. ggplot2: elegant graphics for data analysis. Springer, New York, NY.
73. Wall DP, Fraser HB, Hirsh AE. 2003. Detecting putative orthologs. *Bioinformatics* 19:1710–1711. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btg213>.
74. Bradley RK, Roberts A, Smoot M, Juvekar S, Do J, Dewey C, Holmes I, Pachter L. 2009. Fast statistical alignment. *PLoS Comput Biol* 5:e1000392. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000392>.
75. Jayaraman G, Siddharthan R. 2010. Sigma-2: multiple sequence alignment of noncoding DNA via an evolutionary model. *BMC Bioinformatics* 11:464–413. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-11-464>.
76. Bailey TL, Boden M, Buske FA, Frith M, Grant CE, Clementi L, Ren J, Li WW, Noble WS. 2009. MEME Suite: tools for motif discovery and searching. *Nucleic Acids Res* 37:W202–W208. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkp335>.
77. Kim D, Paggi JM, Park C, Bennett C, Salzberg SL. 2019. Graph-based genome alignment and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT genotype. *Nat Biotechnol* 37:907–915. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-019-0201-4>.
78. Bray NL, Pimentel H, Melsted P, Pachter L. 2016. Near-optimal probabilistic RNA-seq quantification. *Nat Biotechnol* 34:525–527. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.3519>.