New Results

Detailed microbiome analysis of sticker-stripped surface materials of acne lesions

revealed acne-related *Cutibacterium acnes* subtypes: a pilot study

Yutaka Shimokawa[1], Osamu Funatsu[1], Kazuma Ohata[1], Fukashi Inoue[2], Kota

Tachibana[2], Itaru Dekio[3]*

1) KINS LAB, Tokyo, Japan

2) MySkin Corporation, Tokyo, Japan

3) Department of Dermatology, The Jikei University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan

*Correspondence: Itaru Dekio, M.D., Ph.D.

Department of Dermatology, School of Medicine, The Jikei University School of Medicine

3-25-8 Nishi-shinbashi, Minato-ku, Tokyo 105-8461, Japan

Tel: +81-3-3433-1111 ext 3341, Fax: +81-3-5401-0125.

E-mail: d-12@umin.org

Word count: 3661, References: 42, Figures: 7, Tables: 3, Supplementary figures: 2.

Abstract

Cutibacterium acnes (C. acnes) is known to play a central role in pathogenesis of

acne vulgaris. It has been understood that multiple phylotypes of *C. acnes* exist, with

certain types being more prevalent in patient with acne vulgaris and others more common

in healthy individuals. In this context, we conducted a preliminary study using self-collected

samples via an adhesive sticker (MySkin® patch) to analyze the skin microbiome of

Japanese women. The study aimed to determine the role of *C. acnes* and its specific

phylotypes in the development of acne vulgaris.

Participants in this study were Japanese females aged between their 20s and 40s.

Dermatologists evaluate the data from web-based questionnaires and smartphone image

submissions to classify subjects into either Acne group (n = 219) or Non-acne group (n =

77). Quality assessment of DNA extracted from the sticker was conducted, followed by

amplification of the *16S rRNA* region using PCR. Subsequent microbial community analysis

was performed using next-generation sequencing techniques. Genetic classification of *C.*

acnes was accomplished through single locus sequence typing.

Results indicated a bacterial community composition on the facial skin surface

predominantly consisting of *C. acnes* clusters, with over half of these clusters constituted by

C. acnes. Notably, the Acne group exhibited a significantly higher proportion of *C. acnes*

relative to total bacterial presence compared to the Non-acne group. Analysis of *C. acnes*

phylotypes revealed a markedly lower presence of type III (subspecies *elongatum*) in the

Acne group (vs. Non-acne group, $p < 0.05$). No significant differences were observed in the

prevalence of Types IA_1, IA_2, II, and IB between the two groups. The predominantsequence

types (ST) of *C. acnes* identified were IA2_2_F0 (23.9%), IA1_4_A0 (20.6%), and II_2_K0

(18.6%). Within the Acne group, an increase in IA2_1_F1 and a decrease in III_1_L0 were

observed (vs. Non-acne group, $p < 0.05$).

This study underscores the feasibility of using self-collected and mailed-in samples

for qPCR and microbiome analysis, maintaining diagnostic quality comparable to in-person

assessments. Furthermore, the variation in the expression of *C. acnes* phylotypes across

skin surfaces between acne-afflicted and healthy individuals could suggest that shifts in

phylotype expression patterns may be indicative of skin susceptibilities to acne

development.

Introduction

Human skin serves as a barrier that separates the external and internal

environments. It prevents the invasion of harmful substances into the body and blocks the

loss of moisture and beneficial substances from the body. Its surface is home to many

microorganisms, including bacteria, fungi, and viruses, which form colonies. These

microorganisms interact with each other and with their host, creating a stable and complex

ecosystem through cross-talk. This skin microbiome changes with factors such as age,

gender, temperature, pH, ultraviolet exposure, moisture and humidity, and sebum

content[1,2]. In recent years, comprehensive analyses of the skin microbiome have been

conducted using next-generation sequencing techniques, specifically the analysis of

bacterial *16S rRNA* gene. Reports have been emerging about its involvement in

inflammatory skin diseases such as acne vulgaris, atopic dermatitis, and psoriasis[3–6].

Among the skin microbiome, the most common commensal bacterial species is

Cutibacterium acnes[7,8]. *C. acnes* is a ubiquitous Gram-positive anaerobic bacterium

belonging to the phylum *Actinobacteria* and is primarily found deep within the sebaceous

hair follicles where it comes into contact with keratinocytes[9]. Furthermore, *C. acnes* is

known to metabolize free fatty acids from sebum, which reduces the surface pH. This acidic

environment potentially inhibits pathogenic bacteria such as *Staphylococcus aureus* and

promotes the growth of other healthy commensal bacteria, suggesting its contribution to

barrier homeostasis[10–12].

Based on genotyping, it has become clear that *C. acnes* has multiple subtypes,

ranging from those involved in the onset of acne vulgaris to those existing on healthy skin[13–

15]. Moreover, the subspecies of *C. acnes* are classified as *C. acnes* subspecies *acnes* (*C.*

acnes type I), subspecies *defendens* (*C. acnes* type II), and subspecies *elongatum* (*C.*

acnes type III)[16,17]. Further, based on single locus sequence typing (SLST) and whole

genome sequencing (WGS) methods, the genetic sequence analysis of this species has

been phylogenetically refined and categorized into subtypes IA_1, IA_2, IB, IC, II, and III[17].

Among these, subtype IA_1 of *C. acnes* has been isolated from acne vulgaris and is believed

to have strong pathogenicity[13,18,19]. On the other hand, subtypes IB[15] and II[14] are expressed

in healthy skin and are not believed to be associated with the onset of acne vulgaris[19].

Thus, while there are multiple subtypes of *C. acnes* that seem to have different roles, many

aspects of their detailed ecology remain unknown.

At present, various methods such as cotton swabs, scraping, cyanoacrylate gel

biopsy, and needle biopsy are used to collect skin bacteria for analysis of the skin

microbiome. However, reports suggest that the detection rate of *C. acnes* varies depending

on the sampling method[20–22]. The most common sampling method is the swabbing method

using a cotton swab[23,24], but it is difficult to control the sampling efficiency depending on the

collection site and technique, and it has the disadvantage of poor preservation[20]. In any

case, it has not been envisaged that subjects would collect their own samples, and until

now, it has been difficult to collect samples by mail and analyze the skin microbiome.

However, with recent technological advancements, a sticker stripping kit for self-sampling

called MySkin® patch, which possesses features like preservation and quantification and

can withstand outdoor temperatures for postal services, has been developed. Therefore,

this study conducted a preliminary investigation with the aim to elucidate the relationship

between the skin resident bacterium *C. acnes* and acne vulgaris using samples collected by

self-sampling with the sticker stripping kit MySkin® patch among Japanese women.

Materials and Methods

Samples

From the female Japanese customers in their 20s to 40s who had purchased

products from KINS Co., Ltd., 296 individuals who agreed to the content of this study were

selected as the subjects. This research was conducted based on the Declaration of Helsinki

and the ethical guidelines for medical research, with the approval by the SOUKEN Ethics

Committee in April 2021 (Approval number: 146853_rn-30080). Individuals who had used

antibiotics within a month prior to sample collection were excluded from the study. Subjects

were not given any lifestyle restrictions such as the use of skincare products, except just

before sampling. The condition of the facial skin was determined from a web questionnaire

and a smartphone photo image of the face. The web questionnaire acquired responses to

the question, "Do you currently have visible pimples or acne on your face? Yes/No," and

concurrently, subjects sent photos taken with their smartphones. Dermatologists evaluated

these photos and categorized the patients into Acne group/Non-acne group. Subjects, after

waking up and before washing their faces, applied the dedicated adhesive sticker MySkin®

patch (an oval-shaped sticker with the area of 6.4 mm^2) to the specified locations on their

facial skin for 1 min to collect samples. After collection, the samples were promptly mailed

to the analytical institution. The flow from sample collection to data analysis is shown in Fig.

1. The dedicated skin sticker used in this study, designed for collecting skin microbes, has

superior microbial preservation and has been demonstrated to monitor relative bacterial

count fluctuations[25].

Skin microbiome analysis

Bacterial community analysis was performed by MySkin Co., Ltd. The DNA was

extracted from the skin sticker fragments and after performing a Quality Check (QC), the

obtained DNA was used as a template to amplify the bacterial *16S rRNA* by PCR.

Subsequently, indexes for next-generation sequencer migration were added to the PCR.

The DNA concentration of each sample was measured, and all samples were adjusted to

be of the same concentration. The adjusted DNA was purified and then sequenced using a

next-generation sequencer (MiSeq, Illumina Inc.) to produce the library. The library was

analyzed using the next-generation sequencer, targeting the V1-V2 regions of the *16S*

rRNA gene for bacterial community analysis. The microbiome analysis tool QIIME2 was

used, and for bacterial species prediction, the *16S rRNA* gene database Greengenes was

employed. For the single gene-based subtype structure analysis of *C. acnes*, a *C. acnes*-

specific genomic region that can classify into six subtypes (IA_1, IA_2, IB, IC, II, III) was

utilized. A unique database regarding *C. acnes* was used to determine the subtypes.

Bacterial species in each sample were summarized by taxonomic rank, and from the

number of 16S rRNA reads, the relative abundance of each bacterium was calculated, and

the bacterial composition and percentages were determined. Based on these data,

hierarchical clustering using the Ward's method was performed to group the microbial

communities. Alpha diversity was evaluated using the Shannon index[26]. Moreover, for the

C. acnes subtype analysis, in conjunction with the *16S rRNA* gene-based microbiome

analysis, a single locus sequence typing (SLST) analysis of *C. acnes* was conducted.

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was conducted using ExTaq (TaKaRa) to amplify

the SLST locus. Following amplification, the PCR products were purified using magnetic

beads (Sera-Mag™ Select, Cytiva). These purified samples were then analyzed using the

MiSeq sequencing platform. The resulting sequences were trimmed and classified into

SLST classes using the self-built SLST database.

The primer sequences used for the SLST analysis are shown below.

Fw-R3B:TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGacaccagggggtcaacttgg

Rv-R3AB:GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGatgttacccatgtaatgggcagg

The uppercase represents the adapter sequences for MiSeq sequencing, while the

lowercase indicates the sequences used for acne bacteria typing.

Copy number analysis by qPCR

For *C. acnes*, the copy numbers in the materials were determined by calculating

bacterial cell numbers per fixed area of the sticker from qPCR quantification. First, the skin

adhesive sticker fragments were placed in a tube and immersed in 1 ml of buffer, followed

by a spin-down and then left at 100 ℃ for 15 minutes. For the residual liquid after

removing the sticker, nucleic acid extraction was performed using the phenol/chloroform

method. A standard solution was adjusted and used by stepwise dilution of the standard

DNA with a known number of copies. The sequence of the PCR primers is confidential, but

it is possible to provide information upon request. PowerUp™ SYBR™ was used for

detection, and nucleic acid amplification was performed using the qPCR device

(QuantStudio, Applied Biosystems).

Statistical Analysis

The measurement results are shown as mean ± standard error, and if the *p*-value is

less than 0.05, it was judged as statistically significant. For comparisons between two

groups, Welch's *t*-test was used, and for comparisons among three or more groups, one-

way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and *post-hoc* testing using the Bonferroni method were

appropriately applied. Statistical processing was performed using HAD[27].

Results

Sample Quality

Quality control of the DNA extracted from the mailed samples was conducted. After

PCR (both the first and second times), agarose gel electrophoresis was performed to

confirm that the PCR product was of the expected size (data not shown). In addition,

quantification was carried out using qPCR, utilizing PCR primers corresponding to a portion

of the P5 and P7 sequences to verify that adapter sequences had been added to both ends

of the library. Based on these verifications, it was determined that the extracted DNA was

suitable for use in the *16S rRNA* gene-based microbiome analysis.

Skin microbiome analysis

Out of 296 participants aged between 20s and 40s (Table 1), a comprehensive

analysis of the resident bacteria on the facial skin was initially conducted on 76 randomly

selected Japanese women (56 in the Acne group and 20 in the Non-acne group). As a

result of hierarchical clustering analysis, the bacterial flora was classified into three groups:

C. acnes-dominant, *Neisseriaceae*-dominant, and others (Fig. 2-A). The most prevalent

was the cluster where *C. acnes* was dominant, in which 50-90% or more was composed of

C. acnes. Subsequently, there were many clusters dominant with *Neisseriaceae*, which are

resident bacteria of the oral cavity. On the other hand, regarding the fungal flora, it was

divided into five major groups, consisting of clusters dominated by *Malassezia restricta* and

Malassezia globosa, which are also suggested to be involved in acne vulgaris, and other

clusters (Fig. 2-B). Interestingly, in the other clusters, there were participants who were

dominated by *Rothia mucilaginosa*[28], which is a resident bacterium of the oral cavity, and

Wickerhamomyces anomalus[29], known as a pathogenic yeast.

Alpha diversity

The *α*-diversity (species richness) on the facial skin was compared between the

bacterial and fungal communities. The Shannon index for bacterial communities showed a

median value of 1.35 in the Acne group and 1.66 in the Non-acne group, with the Acne

group being significantly lower ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 3-A). On the other hand, there was no

noticeable difference in the α-diversity of the fungal communities between the two groups

(Fig. 3-B). Therefore, subsequent analyses focused solely on bacteria.

Relationship between acne vulgaris and C. acnes

Among the 296 participants, 219 were categorized into the Acne group, identified as

having acne vulgaris, while 77 were categorized into the Non-acne group, determined as

not having acne. Using the DNA samples extracted from facial skin, the proportion of *C.*

acnes within the entire bacterial community was investigated. As a result, the proportion of

C. acnes was significantly higher in the Acne group (51.7%) compared to the Non-acne

participants (44.3%) ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 4-A). The logarithmic count of *C. acnes* per single

sticker strip was significantly reduced in the Acne group (4.12) compared to the Non-acne

group (3.72) ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 4-B). Furthermore, the proportion of *C. acnes* within all

bacteria decreased with age, and the proportion in individuals in their 40s was significantly

lower compared to those in their 20s ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 5).

C. acnes phylotypes

Next, we investigated the proportion of *C. acnes* subtypes in all 76 participants.

Subtype IA_1 (42.8%) was the most common, followed by the subtype IA_2 (24.5%), Type II

(21.5%), subtype IB (10.0%), and type III (1.1%), as shown in Fig. 6. When comparing the

proportions of *C. acnes* subtypes between the Acne group and the Non-acne group, there

was no difference observed in the proportions of IA_1, IA_2, Type II, and IB types (data not

shown). On the other hand, for Type III, while the Acne group had a proportion of 0.6%, the

Non-acne group showed a higher proportion of 2.5%. The Acne group had a significantly (*p*

< 0.01) lower proportion of type III as shown in Fig. 7.

Clonal complex of C. acnes

Upon further investigation of the detailed sequence types (ST) of *C. acnes*, the

constituent ratios, starting from the highest, were as follows: IA2_2_F0 23.9%, IA1_4_A0

20.6%, II_2_K0 18.6%, IA1_5_A2 11.1%, IB_1_H0 10.5%, IA1_6_D0 3.0%, IA1_5_A1

3.0%, II_3_K1 2.5%, III_1_L0 2.0%, IA2_1_F1 1.7% (Table 2). The result was sorted by

presence or absence of acne vulgaris. As a result, for ST III_1_L0, the Acne group had

2.5% while the Non-acne group had 0.6%, showing a significant difference (*p*<0.01, without

correction). For ST IA2_1_F1, the Acne group had 2.3%, while the Non-acne group had

0.2%, displaying a significant difference (*p* < 0.05, without correction) (Table 3). Upon

comparison by age group, the biggest differences between age groups (20s and 40s) were

found in IA1_4_A0 (11.1%), IA1_5_A2 (6.6%), IA1_6_D0 (-6.0%), and IA2_2_F0 (-6.3%).

However, no statistically significant differences were observed.

Discussion

There is a growing demand for skin microbiome analysis from the perspective of skin

disease treatment and beauty. Consequently, a technique that can sample skin bacteria

easily and accurately is highly sought after. Various sampling methods, such as cotton

swabs, scrapings, cyanoacrylate gel biopsy, and needle biopsy, have been devised and

used in research for collecting the skin microbiome (flora)[20]. Among them, the swabbing

method using a moistened cotton swab has been reported to be able to collect a bacterial

flora equivalent to that of a biopsy, and it has been relatively commonly used[23,24]. However,

the swab method had drawbacks, such as difficulty controlling efficiency depending on the

sampling site and technique, and poor preservation.

In this study, we used a patch adhesive sticker with high preservation and

adhesiveness (MySkin® patch), allowing subjects to sample microbes from their own facial

surface. We evaluated samples sent by post and confirmed that there was no issue using

them for microbiome analysis. Previously, Ogai *et al.* collected samples using either the

cotton swab method or the sticker-stripping method and investigated the microbial

composition using both next-generation sequencing and culture methods. They reported

that the results of both methods were equivalent[24]. MySkin® patch is designed for even

more convenient collection, such as having a constant seal area, and also possesses

excellent bacterial preservation properties, making it possible for subjects to collect

samples themselves. Indeed, this study demonstrated that samples could be easily

collected and sent by mail.

C. acnes is the most abundant resident bacterium of facial skin and is found in both

acne patients and healthy subjects[30,31]. Since it is anaerobic, its main niche is believed to

be the deeper area of the sebaceous hair follicles[32,33]. Thus, to study the relationship

between acne vulgaris and *C. acnes*, methods involving follicle or skin biopsy have been

primarily used[20]. However, follicle tissue sampling such as skin biopsy is more challenging.

One study that have employed swab sampling, *C. acnes* has been reported to constitute

more than 30% of the facial microbial community in acne patients[21]. On the other hand,

another report that sampled 55 facial acne patients using the swab method and found that

even in acne-affected areas, the proportion of propionic acid-producing bacteria such as *C.*

acnes was much lower (less than 2%)[22].

In this study, we obtained web questionnaires and image analysis from photographs

taken with smartphones from subjects to differentiate between the Acne group and the Non-

acne group. It is widely known that the proliferation of *C. acnes* is a factor in the onset of

acne vulgaris[5,13,34]. In this study, we also examined the relative abundance of *C. acnes* in

the samples. As a result, the rate of *C. acnes* was significantly higher in the Acne group.

From this, it was believed that even with data from web questionnaires and images taken

with smartphones[35,36], one can grasp the skin condition of the subjects, and it is possible to

differentiate between the Acne group and the Non-acne group.

Results of hierarchical clustering analysis on skin resident bacteria showed a group

where the microbial community was dominated by *C. acnes*, and the proportion of *C. acnes*

was high. When comparing the Acne group and the Non-acne group, both the proportion

and copy number of *C. acnes* were significantly higher in the Acne group. However,

considering that many subjects were diagnosed with acne vulgaris even in groups

dominated by *Neisseriaceae* and others, it is unlikely that *C. acnes* alone has a pronounced

influence on the disease. Our new finding is that there might be various factors other than

C. acnes in the pathogenesis of acne vulgaris. Moreover, the alpha diversity (species

richness) of the facial skin microbial community was significantly lower in the Acne group

(Fig. 6-A). This result is consistent with the observation that the incidence of acne vulgaris

decreases with age, and α-diversity increases[37,38].

C. acnes is generally composed of several phylogenetic subtypes, commonly

referred to as IA_1, IA_2, IB, IC, II, III[17]. At the genome level, even finer classifications are

possible[17,39]. In this study, a genetic analysis was conducted to determine the phylotype

ratio of *C. acnes* in all subjects. IA_1 was found to be the most prevalent type, consistent with

a previous report[40]. It has been reported that the IA_1 type, isolated from common acne,

possesses strong pathogenicity[13,18,19]. In the hair follicles of acne patients, the dominant

strain of *C. acnes* is IA_1. On the surface of the face, not only IA_1 but also IA_2, IB, and II are

present[40,41]. When we examined the phylotype of *C. acnes* on the facial skin surface, we

found a cocktail of IA$_1$, IA$_2$, IB, II, and III, with no significant difference between the Acne

and Non-acne groups. This result may be due to the wider area of sampling rather than

pinpoint acne lesions. Meanwhile, type III, which showed a significant difference between

the groups, has been found in normal skin but not in common acne areas[14,19]. In our

research, type III was confirmed in both Acne and Non-acne groups. It's suggested that the

reason that type III, which is rarely reported in the face, was found in the Acne group might

be due to the inability to strictly separate common acne lesion from surrounding areas

during sticker sampling. Further detailed verification is needed in the future, but for narrow

lesion sampling, biopsies or swabs might be suitable. Type III is reported to lack toxic

factors and has a different morphology and metabolic pathway than types I and II[42]. In our

results, type III in the Acne group showed significantly lower values compared to the Non-

acne group. Further analysis is needed to understand how the decreased expression of

type III in normal skin areas relates to the onset of common acne.

When examining the detailed sequence types of *C. acnes*, the strains with the

highest proportion in all subjects were IA2_2_F0 (23.9%), IA1_4_A0 (20.6%), and II_2_K0

(18.6%). IA2_1_F1 ($p < 0.05$ vs Non-acne group) higher in acne patients, while III_1_L0

was lower ($p < 0.01$ vs Non-acne group) (Table 3, Supplemental figure 2). Also, our study

revealed that various types of *C. acnes* phylotypes were expressed on the skin surface of

the face. Our method of using specialized sticker to collect samples from specific facial

areas captures both acne and healthy tissues. This may indicate skin conditions prone to

developing acne. Dagnelie *et al.* reported that the detailed phylotype expression patterns of

C. acnes differ with the onset of acne[40]. In the future, increasing the number of subjects and

conducting larger-scale analyses may clarify statistical differences between groups.

In this study, we could successfully conduct postally collected skin microbiome

samples and made analysis by online basis from customers of a company. Although

preliminary, our results suggest the potential for online consultations to provide diagnostic

quality comparable to in-person assessments in testing and diagnosing skin-related

diseases. Especially in the post-COVID era, the advancement of such research could

significantly contribute to the diversification of diagnostic methods and the development of

dermatology.

References

1.   Skowron, K. *et al.* human skin microbiome: impact of intrinsic and extrinsic factors

on skin microbiota. *Microorganisms* **9**, (2021).

2.   Smythe, P. & Wilkinson, H. N. The skin microbiome: Current landscape and future

opportunities. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **24**, (2023).

3.   Chilicka, K., Dzieńdziora-Urbińska, I., Szyguła, R., Asanova, B. & Nowicka, D.

Microbiome and probiotics in acne vulgaris-a narrative review. *Life* **12**, (2022).

4.   Chen, L. *et al.* Skin and gut microbiome in psoriasis: Gaining insight into the

pathophysiology of it and finding novel therapeutic strategies. *Front. Microbiol.* **11**, 589726

(2020).

5.   Huang, C. *et al.* The updates and implications of cutaneous microbiota in acne. *Cell

Biosci.* **13**, 113 (2023).

6.   Fyhrquist, N. *et al.* Microbe-host interplay in atopic dermatitis and psoriasis. *Nat.

Commun.* **10**, 4703 (2019).

7.   Christensen, G. J. M. & Brüggemann, H. Bacterial skin commensals and their role

as host guardians. *Benef. Microbes* **5**, 201–215 (2014).

8.   McGinley, K., J., Webster, G., F., Leyden J., J. Regional variations of cutaneous

propionibacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **35**, 62-6. (1978)

9.   Aubin, G.G., Portillo, M.E., Trampuz, A. & Corvec, S. *Propionibacterium acnes*, an

emerging pathogen: From acne to implant-infections, from phylotype to resistance. *Med Mal*

Infect **44**, 241–250 (2014).

10. Yang, M., Zhou, M. & Song, L. A review of fatty acids influencing skin condition. *J.*

Cosmet. Dermatol. **19**, 3199–3204 (2020).

11. O'Neill, A. M. & Gallo, R. L. Host-microbiome interactions and recent progress into

understanding the biology of acne vulgaris. *Microbiome* **6**, 177 (2018).

12. Ahle, C. M., Feidenhansl, C. & Brüggemann, H. *Cutibacterium acnes. Trends*

Microbiol. **31**, 419–420 (2023).

13. Fitz-Gibbon, S. *et al. Propionibacterium acnes* strain populations in the human skin

microbiome associated with acne. *J. Invest. Dermatol.* **133**, 2152–2160 (2013).

14. McDowell, A. *et al.* An expanded multilocus sequence typing scheme for

Propionibacterium acnes: investigation of 'pathogenic', 'commensal' and antibiotic resistant

strains. *PLoS One* **7**, e41480 (2012).

15. Lomholt, H. B. & Kilian, M. Population genetic analysis of *Propionibacterium acnes*

identifies a subpopulation and epidemic clones associated with acne. *PLoS One* **5**, e12277

(2010).

16. Dekio, I., Asahina, A. & Shah, H. N. Unravelling the eco-specificity and

pathophysiological properties of *Cutibacterium* species in the light of recent taxonomic

changes. *Anaerobe* **71**, 102411 (2021).

17.   Mayslich, C., Grange, P. A. & Dupin, N. Cutibacterium acnes as an opportunistic

pathogen: An update of its virulence-associated factors. *Microorganisms* **9**, (2021).

18.   McLaughlin, J. *et al.* Propionibacterium acnes and acne vulgaris: New insights from

the integration of population genetic, multi-omic, biochemical and host-microbe studies.

Microorganisms **7**, (2019).

19.   McDowell, A., Nagy, I., Magyari, M., Barnard, E. & Patrick, S. The opportunistic

pathogen *Propionibacterium acnes*: Insights into typing, human disease, clonal

diversification and CAMP factor evolution. *PLoS One* **8**, e70897 (2013).

20.   Platsidaki, E. & Dessinioti, C. Recent advances in understanding Propionibacterium

acnes (Cutibacterium acnes) in acne. *F1000Res.* **7**, (2018).

21.   Grice, E. A. *et al.* Topographical and temporal diversity of the human skin

microbiome. *Science* **324**, 1190–1192 (2009).

22.   Dreno, B. *et al.* Skin microbiome and acne vulgaris: *Staphylococcus*, a new actor in

acne. *Exp. Dermatol.* **26**, 798–803 (2017).

23.   Dekio, I. *et al.* Detection of potentially novel bacterial components of the human

skin microbiota using culture-independent molecular profiling. *J Med Microbiol.* **54**, 1231-

1238 (2005).

24.   Ogai, K. et al. A Comparison of techniques for collecting skin microbiome samples:

Swabbing versus tape-stripping. *Front. Microbiol.* **9**, 2362 (2018).

25.   Inoue, F., Tachibana, K. & Sutani, T. Adhesive tape for collecting skin indigenous

microorganisms, method of evaluating physical condition of subject, method of presenting

information to subject and method of screening for substance capable of improving or

preventing physical condition, and adhesive tape for collecting skin metabolites. *US Patent*

Publication number 20220338795 (2022).

26.   Shannon, C. E. A mathematical theory of communication. *The Bell System*

Technical Journal **27**, 379–423 (1948).

27.   Shimizu, H. (2016). An Introduction to the Statistical Free Software HAD

Suggestions to Improve Teaching, Learning and Practice Data Analysis. Journal of Media,

Information and Communication, 1, 59-73. - references - scientific research publishing.

https://www.scirp.org/(S(351jmbntvnsjt1aadkozje))/reference/ReferencesPapers.aspx?Refe

renceID=1990046.

28.   Fukukawa, Y., Okazaki, M. & Ohkusu, K. A case of *Rothia mucilaginosa*

(*Stomatococcus mucilaginosus*) bacteremia in a patient with acute myelocytic leukemia and

evaluation of the ability to identify for this organism used identification kits. *J. Japanese*

Soc. Clin. Microbiol. **20**, 50–55 (2010).

29.   Mehta, V. *et al. Wickerhamomyces anomalous*: A rare cause of fungemia causing

febrile neutropenia in acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Case Rep. Infect. Dis.* **2020**, 8847853

(2020).

30.   Rozas, M. *et al.* From dysbiosis to healthy skin: Major contributions of

Cutibacterium acnes to skin homeostasis. *Microorganisms* **9**, (2021).

31.   Miura, Y. *et al.* Quantitative PCR of *Propionibacterium acnes* DNA in samples

aspirated from sebaceous follicles on the normal skin of subjects with or without acne. *J.*

Med. Dent. Sci. **57**, 65–74 (2010).

32.   Gehse, M., Höffler, U., Gloor, M. & Pulverer, G. Propionibacteria in patients with

acne vulgaris and in healthy persons. *Arch. Dermatol. Res.* **275**, 100–104 (1983).

33.   Bek-Thomsen, M., Lomholt, H. B., Scavenius, C., Enghild, J. J. & Brüggemann, H.

Proteome analysis of human sebaceous follicle infundibula extracted from healthy and

acne-affected skin. *PLoS One* **9**, e107908 (2014).

34.   Dréno, B., Dagnelie, M. A., Khammari, A. & Corvec, S. The skin microbiome: A new

actor in inflammatory acne. *Am. J. Clin. Dermatol.* **21**, 18–24 (2020).

35.   Lee, S. *et al.* Sample-to-answer platform for the clinical evaluation of COVID-19

using a deep learning-assisted smartphone-based assay. *Nat. Commun.* **14**, 2361 (2023).

36.   Mikołajczyk, M., Patrzyk, S., Nieniewski, M. & Woźniacka, A. Evaluation of a

smartphone application for diagnosis of skin diseases. *Postepy. Dermatol. Alergol.* **38**, 761–

766 (2021).

37.   Jugé, R. *et al.* Shift in skin microbiota of Western European women across aging. *J.*

Appl. Microbiol. **125**, 907–916 (2018).

38.   Heng, A. H. S. & Chew, F. T. Systematic review of the epidemiology of acne

vulgaris. *Sci. Rep.* **10**, 5754 (2020).

39.   Both, A. *et al.* Genomics of invasive *Cutibacterium acnes* isolates from deep-seated

infections. *Microbiol Spectr.* **11**, e0474022 (2023).

40.   Dagnelie, M.-A. *et al.* Decrease in diversity of *Propionibacterium acnes* phylotypes

in patients with severe acne on the back. *Acta Derm. Venereol.* **98**, 262–267 (2018).

41.   Lomholt, H. B., Scholz, C. F. P., Brüggemann, H., Tettelin, H. & Kilian, M. A

comparative study of *Cutibacterium* (*Propionibacterium*) *acnes* clones from acne patients

and healthy controls. *Anaerobe* **47**, 57–63 (2017).

42.   McDowell, A., Perry, A. L., Lambert, P. A. & Patrick, S. A new phylogenetic group of

Propionibacterium acnes. *J. Med. Microbiol.* **57**, 218–224 (2008).

Figure legends

Figure 1

   A simplified schema summarizing the skin microbiome analysis. Skin sampling was

conducted using the sticker-stripping method (for 1 minute, before face wash in the

morning).

Figure 2

   Taxonomic composition of bacteria (A) and fungi (B) based on *16S rRNA* and ITS

sequences. Acneic subjects are highlighted in red bar at the bottom of figure.

Figure 3

   Alpha diversity (Shannon index) of facial skin bacteria (A) or fungi (B) microbiome

samples from Acne (n = 56) or Non-acne (n = 20) subjects. The lines inside the rectangles

represent the median, and the whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum values.

Statistical differences were calculated using Welch's *t*-test with Holm's correction

Figure 4

   The percentage (A) and log copy number (B) of *C. acnes* among total bacteria in

facial skin samples from Acne (n = 219) or Non-acne (n = 77) subjects. Statistical

differences were calculated using Welch's *t*-test with Holm's correction.

Figure 5

Changes in the proportion of *C. acnes* in total bacteria in facial skin samples were

observed among the following age groups: 20s (n = 43), 30s (n = 181) and 40s (n = 70).

Statistical differences were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by the Holm's *post*

hoc test.

Figure 6

C. acnes phylotype composition of all subjects.

Figure 7

The percentage comparison among *C. acnes* phylotype in facial skin samples from

Acne (n = 56) or Non-acne (n = 20) subjects. Statistical differences were calculated using

Welch's *t*-test with Holm's correction.

Tables

Table 1. Subject characteristics.

Characteristics	Acne	Non-acne
n	219	77
Age (average)	40.3	34.7

477
478

Table 2. The composition of *C. acnes* sequence types (ST)

Sequence types (ST)	Ratio (%)
IA2_2_F0	23.9
IA1_4_A0	20.6
II_2_K0	18.6
IA1_5_A2	11.1
IB_1_H0	10.5
IA1_6_D0	3.0
IA1_5_A1	3.0
II_3_K1	2.5
III_1_L0	2.0
IA2_1_F1	1.7

479
480

Table 3. The composition of *C. acnes* sequence types (ST)

Sequence types (ST)	Acne (%)	Non-acne (%)	Difference (%)
II_2_K0	17.5	21.8	4.3
IA1_1_E0	0.1	2.5	2.4
III_1_L0	0.6**	2.5	2.0
IA1_6_D0	2.6	4.4	1.8
IA1_5_A1	3.3	2.3	-1.0
II_3_K1	2.8	1.6	-1.2
IA1_5_A2	11.5	10.0	-1.5
IA2_1_F1	2.3*	0.2	-2.1
IA1_4_A0	21.2	18.9	-2.3

*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$ vs. Non-acne

Fig. 1

A Bacteria

C. acnes *Neisseriaceae* *Streptococcus*

B Fungi

Malassezia_restricta *Malassezia_globosa* *Wickerhamomyces_anomalus* *Rhodotorula_mucilaginosa*

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

Fig. 7