1	Investigation of skin microbiota reveals Mycobacterium ulcerans-Aspergillus sp. trans-
2	kingdom communication
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21 ABSTRACT

22 Background

23 Mycobacterium ulcerans secrete a series of non-ribosomal-encoded toxins known as mycolactones that

24 are responsible for causing a disabling ulceration of the skin and subcutaneous tissues named Buruli

25 ulcer. The disease is the sole non-contagion among the three most common mycobacterial diseases in

26 humans. Direct contact with contaminated wetlands is a risk factor for Buruli ulcer, responsible for *M*.

27 *ulcerans* skin carriage before transcutaneous inoculation with this opportunistic pathogen.

28 Methodology and principal findings

In this study, we analysed the bacterial and fungal skin microbiota in individuals exposed to *M. ulcerans* In Burkina Faso. We showed that *M. ulcerans*-specific DNA sequences were detected on the unbreached skin of 6/52 (11.5%) asymptomatic farmers living in Sindou versus 0/52 (0%) of those living in the non-

32 endemic region of Tenkodogo. Then, we cultured the skin microbiota of asymptomatic *M. ulcerans*

carriers and negative control individuals, all living in the region of Sindou. A total of 84 different

bacterial and fungal species were isolated, 21 from *M. ulcerans*-negative skin samples, 31 from *M.*

35 *ulcerans*-positive samples and 32 from both. More specifically, Actinobacteria, Aspergillus niger and

36 Aspergillus flavus were significantly associated with M. ulcerans skin carriage. We further observed that

37 *in vitro*, mycolactones induced spore germination of *A. flavus*, attracting the fungal network.

38 Conclusion

39 These unprecedented observations suggest that interactions with fungi may modulate the outcome of *M*.
40 *ulcerans* skin carriage, opening new venues to the understanding of Buruli ulcer pathology, prophylaxis
41 and treatment of this still neglected tropical infection.

42

43 Keywords: Aspergillus spp., Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus flavus, Buruli ulcer, Mycobacterium
44 ulcerans, skin microbiota, fungi, Penicillium spp., Penicillium rubens.

45 Author summary

46	Buruli ulcer is a chronic infectious disease caused by the environmental opportunistic pathogen
47	Mycobacterium ulcerans which secretes an exotoxin responsible for its pathogenicity. The reservoir and
48	sources of <i>M. ulcerans</i> in the environment remain elusive and its mode of transmission is unclear. To
49	acquire M. ulcerans infection, at least two conditions must be met, viable bacteria and a skin lesion as
50	demonstrated by experimental animal models. In this study, we showed that M. ulcerans specific DNA
51	sequences could be detected on the healthy skin of asymptomatic farmers living in one region of Burkina
52	Faso where Buruli ulcer cases had already been reported, but not in Buruli ulcer-free regions, suggesting
53	skin carriage after contacts with environmental sources. We also investigated the skin microbiota of <i>M</i> .
54	ulcerans carriers and found significant associations of some bacteria and fungi with skin carriage of M.
55	ulcerans. These associations may due to the effect of mycolactones on some fungi species. As we
56	showed previously with Mucor circinelloides and here with Aspergillus flavus.

57 Introduction

58 Buruli ulcer is a disabling chronic disease of the skin and the subcutaneous tissues [1].

The disease has been reported since 1948 in several tropical regions [2], with the highest incidence being 59 observed in West African countries, including Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Benin [3]. The causative agent 60 61 *Mycobacterium ulcerans* is a non-tuberculous mycobacterium harbouring a 174-kb circular virulence 62 plasmid pMUM [4-5] encoding three genes, *mls*A1, *mls*A2 and *mls*B, responsible for the non-ribosomal 63 synthesis of mycolactone toxins, the main virulence factors of the pathogen [6]. This macrolide exotoxin is secreted by a group of closely related non-tuberculous mycobacteria named Mycolactone Producing 64 65 Mycobacteria (MPM) [7-8]. Comparative analysis of whole genome sequences showed that MPM form a 66 single clonal group that evolved from a *Mycobacterium marinum* parent [9]. This group is divided into 67 three lineages, including frog and fish pathogens in one lineage [10-11], the Japanese strain *M. ulcerans* subsp. *shinshuense* in a second lineage, while the third lineage includes a highly clonal group responsible 68 69 for Buruli ulcer in Africa and Australia [9]. Every strain synthesizes at least one of the eight congeners of mycolactone A/B named mycolactone C, D, E, F, dia-F, S1 and S2 [12]. Each type of mycolactone 70 71 exhibits a variable degree of cytotoxicity, with mycolactone A/B being the most biologically active [13]. 72 Indeed, this macrolide toxin is responsible for cytotoxic effects, namely, apoptosis and necrosis, in 73 addition to immunosuppressive and analgesic effects [12] after M. ulcerans has penetrated breached skin 74 to initiate discrete oedematous lesions that can evolve into typical Buruli ulcer lesions [14]. Currently, 75 the mode of transmission of *M. ulcerans* is debated. While it is clear that *M. ulcerans* must be inoculated 76 through the skin to elicit Buruli ulcer, the specific role of aquatic bugs and mosquitoes as potential 77 vectors is debated along with the possibility of passive entry by any skin breach regardless of its cause. It 78 is not known whether *M. ulcerans* can colonize skin in asymptomatic populations exposed to 79 environments contaminated with *M. ulcerans*. Mycobacteria of the *M. ulcerans* group are known as 80 environmental organisms residing in poorly defined aquatic ecological niches where they could be part

81	of an alimentary chain [15]. We previously reported that <i>M. ulcerans</i> could thrive in environmental
82	niches containing bacteria, fungi, algae and mollusks with which M. ulcerans may exchange nutrients
83	[16]. One may hypothesize that the cutaneous microbiota, which is part of the individual, partially
84	controls the expression of the <i>M. ulcerans</i> infection [17]. Indeed, bacteria and fungi present on skin
85	contaminated with <i>M. ulcerans</i> could interact with the pathogen, as previously shown with the
86	antagonism between Staphylococcus lugdunensis and Staphylococcus aureus in the nasal mucosa [18-
87	19].
88	To contribute to this medical debate, we have undertaken the first study to evaluate the possibility of
89	asymptomatic carriage of <i>M. ulcerans</i> on healthy skin, to characterize the cutaneous bacterial and fungal
90	microbiota associated with the asymptomatic carriage of <i>M. ulcerans</i> and to assess the biological
91	interactions between <i>M. ulcerans</i> and the skin microbiota.
92	
93	Methods
94	Ethics Statement
95	This study was approved by the Centre MURAZ Ethics Committee, Burkina Faso, and reference
96	2018- 11/MS/SG/CM/CEI.
97	All adult subjects provided informed oral consent, and a parent or guardian of any child
98	participant provided informed oral consent on the child's behalf after explaining the merits of the
99	study. Written consent could not be obtained because the study was conducted among an illiterate
100	population. The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no
101	procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context (Sec.
102	56.109 IRB review of research).
103	
	Sample collection. Sampling was performed in two regions of Burkina Faso. Sindou is located in

southwest of Burkina Faso near the borders with Côte d'Ivoire and Mali. People sampled in this 105 106 region are farmers in frequent contact with stagnant water because of their daily activities in rice, 107 banana and vegetable cultivation areas that are irrigated from a nearby dam. Cases of Buruli ulcer have already been reported in this region [20]. Tenkodogo, a town located in the province of 108 109 Boulgou and the Central-Eastern region of Burkina Faso, was used as a negative control region 110 free of Buruli ulcer. Additionally, in this region, farmers working near two dams in rice and 111 vegetable cultures were swabbed (the lower legs of the farmers were cleaned with water and then 112 swabbed with sterile swabs (Deltalab, Barcelona, Spain) containing 1 mL of sterile 0.9% sodium 113 chloride solution, the swabbed parts did not contain any visible lesions.). A total of 104 farmers 114 were sampled, 52 farmers in each region. In Sindou region, the average age was 37 years, 30 115 females and 22 males. In Tenkodogo region the male/female ratio was 27/25 respectively with an 116 average age of 20 years. One sample was taken per individual.

117 **Detection of** *M. ulcerans* **DNA.**

Real-time PCR amplifications. Total DNA from the samples and from a six-week-old culture of 118 119 *M. ulcerans* CU001 (positive control) was extracted using a QIAamp Tissue Kit by QUIAGEN-120 BioRobot EZ1, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). To 121 assess PCR inhibition, 10 μ L of an external control was added to 190 μ L of sample volume as 122 previously described [21. Extracted DNA was used in real-time PCR (RT-PCR) to amplify the insertion sequences (IS2404 and IS2606) and the ketoreductase-B domain of the mycolactone 123 polyketide synthase genes (KR-B) [22] using RT-PCR reagents from Roche PCR Kit (Roche 124 125 Diagnostics, Meylan, France) and primers and probes as previously described [21] in a CFX 96TM 126 real-time PCR thermocycler and detection system (BIO-Rad, Marnes-la-Coquette, France). To 127 estimate *M. ulcerans* inoculum in skin swabs, we performed three calibration curves for the 128 IS2404, IS2606, and KR-B genes. The total DNA of the *M. ulcerans* CU001 strain calibrated at 1

129	McFarland = 10^{6} CFU was extracted with EZ (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Then, 10-fold serial
130	dilutions of up to 10^{-8} were made to generate a calibration curve for each system. Two reactional
131	mixes were incorporated into each PCR run as negative controls. Samples were considered
132	positive when the KR-B gene was detected with $Ct < 40$ cycles, and at least one of the two PCRs
133	of the insertion sequence gave $Ct < 40$ cycles and KR-B was detected with $Ct < 40$ cycles.
134	Skin microbiota repertoire.
135	Bacterial culture. All RT-PCR-positive samples collected in Sindou were selected for culture. Six
136	negative samples collected in the same region were used as negative controls. For each sample, a cascade
137	dilution (up to 10 ⁻¹⁰) was performed in sterile PBS (Thermo Fisher Diagnostics, Dardilly, France), and
138	100 µL of each dilution was inoculated in duplicate on blood agar plates (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile,
139	France). One blood agar plate was incubated aerobically, and the second was anaerobically incubated at
140	37°C for 72 hours. After incubation, each colony presenting a unique morphology was sub-cultured onto
141	a blood agar plate and incubated at 37°C for 48 hours under the appropriate atmosphere to isolate each
142	colony type.
143	Fungal culture. M. ulcerans PCR-positive samples were cultured in three different culture media,
144	namely, homemade RMI medium, Sabouraud agar (Oxoid, Dardilly, France) and Chromagar (Becton
145	Dickinson, Le Pont de Claix, France) incubated at 30°C for seven days. Each colony was sub-cultured
146	and incubated under the same conditions. The six PCR-negative samples (negative controls) were treated
147	using the same protocol.
148	Matrix assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight identification of colonies. The
149	identification of the bacterial and fungal colonies was carried out using matrix-assisted laser
150	desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry MALDI-TOF-MS as previously described
151	[23,24]. For bacteria, each colony was deposited in duplicate onto a MALDI-TOF MSP 96 target
152	plate (Bruker Daltonics, Leipzig, Germany), and 2 µL of matrix solution (saturated solution of

alpha-cyano-4- hydroxycinnamic acid in 50% acetonitrile and 2.5% trifluoroacetic acid) was 153 154 added to each spot and allowed to dry for 5 mins and then analysed by Microflex spectrometer 155 (Bruker Daltonics) using the software MALDI BioTyper 3.0 (Bruker Daltonics). For the 156 identification of fungi, each colony was incubated in 1 mL of 70% ethanol for 10 min and then 157 centrifuged at 1,300 g for 5 min. The pellet was treated with 20 µL of acetonitrile and formic acid 158 (v.v) at 100% and 70%, respectively. This mixture was then centrifuged at 1300 g for 5 min, and 159 1.5 µL of the supernatant was deposited on a MALDI-TOF-MS target and allowed to dry before 160 1.5 µL of matrix was deposited on each spot, allowed to dry for 5 min and then analysed by par 161 Microflex spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics) using the software MALDI BioTyper 3.0 (Bruker 162 Daltonics). 163 Molecular identification and sequencing. All colonies that remained unidentified by MALDI-TOF-MS 164 were subjected to molecular identification by sequencing the bacterial 16S rRNA [25] and the fungal ITS1, ITS2, β tubulin and TEF regions. The primers used in this study are reported in Table S1. DNA 165 166 extraction was performed using BioRobot EZ1 (Qiagen, Les Ullis, France) using the commercial EZ1 167 DNA Tissue Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen). PCR was performed using 168 Hotstar Taq polymerase according to the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen) using a thermocycler 169 (Applied Biosystem, Paris, France). PCR products were separated by electrophoresis on a 1.5% agarose 170 gel and stained with SYBR® safe (Thermo Fisher Scientific) before being visualized under an ultraviolet 171 transilluminator. PCR products were then purified using a Millipore NucleoFast 96 PCR kit following 172 the manufacturer's recommendations (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) and sequenced using the 173 BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems) with an automatic sequencer ABI 174 (Applied Biosystems). Sequences were assembled using the software ChromasPro 1.7 (Technelysium

175 Pty Ltd., Tewantin, Australia) and blasted in the NCBI databank (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi)

to identify bacterial species and against the Mycobank database <u>http://www.mycobank.org/</u> to identify
fungal species.

Fungi-M. ulcerans biological interactions. The three fungal species found to significantly correlate 178 with the presence / absence of M. ulcerans skin carriage (A. flavus, A. niger and P. rubens) were cultured 179 180 in the presence / absence of mycolactones AB / C extracted from a culture of M. ulcerans CU001 to 181 observe the effect of mycolactones on spore germination and the fungal network. Briefly, agar plates 182 were cut into T-shape, the fungal spores were placed on the middle strand, and two virgin absorbent 183 paper discs were placed on each side of the plates. 20uL of PBS were put on the first disc (negative 184 control) and 20uL of mycolactones AB / C on the second disc. The chemoattractant effect of 185 mycolactone AB / C was measured as previously described [25]. On the other hand, fungal spores were 186 put in Sabouraud liquid medium containing 20uL of mycolactones AB / C or 20uL of PBS as a negative 187 control. The effect of Mycolactone AB/C on spore germination was then monitored as previously

188 described [26].

189 Statistical analyses.

190 The first exploratory step of unsupervised analysis of the cutaneous bacterial and fungal 191 microbiota used a main component analysis by integrating the presence or absence of each of the 192 fungi detected in at least one individual and adding the variable "detection of *M. ulcerans* by 193 PCR". We complemented this analysis with a supervised comparison between individuals 194 positive and negative for *M. ulcerans* by PCR. To do this, we compared the detection frequency 195 in the two groups. Statistical significance was calculated by the two-sided exact Fisher's test. 196 Owing to the possible risk of missing important findings, adjustments for multiple comparisons 197 were not performed, as suggested for exploratory work [27]. A double-clustering heatmap was 198 used to visualize the potential clustering of cultured fungal and bacterial repertoires with M. 199 *ulcerans*-positive or negative skin samples. Finally, we carried out a discriminant factor analysis

200	to test whether the fungal skin microbiota discriminated against individuals who were positive or
201	negative for M. ulcerans skin carriage. The principal component and discriminant factor analyses
202	were performed using XLSTAT v2019.1 statistical and data analysis solution (Long Island, NY,
203	USA (https://www.xlstat.com)). Multivariate analysis was performed via the Genmod procedure
204	with the SAS 9.4 statistical software using a negative binomial distribution, adjusted for the
205	effect of time (quantitative variable) and by using generalized estimating equations to account for
206	the non-independence of repeated measures to analyse the results of germination assays. The
207	Wilcoxon signed rank test and Chi-squared test were used to compare the attraction effect of
208	fungi by mycolactones and to compare M. ulcerans prevalence in the two geographical regions of
209	Sindou and Tenkodogo, respectively. Statistical tests were performed on the website biostaTGV,
210	https://biostatgv.sentiweb.fr.

211 **Results**

M. ulcerans DNA detection. Negative controls introduced in every batch of real-time PCR remained 212 213 negative, and positive controls were positive for all the targeted sequences IS2404, IS2606 and KR-B, 214 allowing the establishment of calibration curves. Of the 52 swabs collected in the region of Sindou, eight 215 were positive for IS2404, six were positive for IS2606, two were positive for both IS2404 and IS2606, 216 one was positive for both IS2404 and KR-B, two were positive for both IS2606 and KR-B, one was 217 positive for all three targeted sequences and 32 samples were negative (Fig. 1). Therefore, 6/52 (11.5%) 218 swabs were positive for at least two M. ulcerans DNA sequences. As expected, only three samples were 219 positive for IS2404 only in Tenkodogo, so none of the 52 skin samples collected in this negative control 220 region were positive for *M. ulcerans*, confirming the probable absence of *M. ulcerans* in this region. The 221 difference in the prevalence of RT-PCR-based detection of M. ulcerans between the two regions was

222	significant ($P = 0.04$, N-1 Chi-squared test). Based on the calibration curves established during this
223	study, the Ct values observed here were extrapolated to 9-50 colony forming units (CFU) of M. ulcerans.
224	Skin microbiota identification. A total of 84 different species of microorganisms (62 bacterial and 22
225	fungal species) belonging to 45 different genera were recovered from the twelve samples. Thirty-one
226	different species of microorganisms (19 bacterial and 12 fungal species) grew exclusively in M.
227	ulcerans-PCR positive samples. Thirty-two different species (22 bacterial and 10 fungal species) grew
228	only from M. ulcerans-PCR negative samples. Twenty-one bacterial species grew on both M. ulcerans-
229	PCR positive samples and <i>M. ulcerans</i> -PCR negative samples. No fungal species were found in both
230	types of samples simultaneously (Fig. 2). Globally, the microbiota of M. ulcerans-PCR positive samples
231	was statistically enriched for Actinobacteria (Fisher's test p-value = 0.03). The genus Aspergillus and the
232	species Aspergillus flavus were significantly associated with M. ulcerans-PCR positive samples (two-
233	sided Fisher's exact test p-value = 0.0021 and 0.015, respectively), and the genus <i>Penicillium</i> was
234	significantly associated with <i>M. ulcerans</i> -PCR negative samples (p-value = 0.0021, Fisher's exact test).
235	All Zygomycetes, Acidovorax, Brevundimonas, Cutibacterium, and Homoserinibacter species were
236	recovered from PCR M. ulcerans-positive samples, whereas all Penicillium, Cellulosimicrobium,
237	Franconibacter, Ochrobactrum, Porphyromonas, Roseomonas, Achromobacter and Lelliottia species
238	were recovered from <i>M. ulcerans</i> -PCR-negative samples, but these associations were not statistically
239	significant (Fig. 2). The dendrogram obtained by the agglomerative hierarchical classification of the
240	species recovered from samples harboured two distinct clusters perfectly separating the M. ulcerans-
241	PCR positive samples from the <i>M. ulcerans</i> -PCR negative samples (Fig. 3). These results highly suggest
242	that the skin microbiota was significantly correlated with <i>M. ulcerans</i> carriage.
243	Principal component analysis. After submission of the results of fungal and bacterial
244	culturomics and PCR M. ulcerans to PCA analysis, two varifactors (F1 and F7; representing both
245	a total of 28.3% of the variance of the data) were selected because these two varifactors

represented the highest variance of the variable "PCR M. ulcerans". F1 and F7 contributed 20.4% 246 247 and 7.9% of the overall variability, respectively. Aspergillus flavus, Propionimicrobium 248 lymphophilum and Propionimicrobium freudenreichii were strongly associated with a positive PCR for *M. ulcerans*, whereas *Penicillium rubens*, *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Lelliota* 249 250 *nimipressuralis* were associated with a negative PCR. Surprisingly, detection of Aspergillus fungi 251 positively correlated with PCR detection of *M. ulcerans*. Indeed, *A. flavus* was the fungus 252 exhibiting the strongest positive association with *M. ulcerans*. On the other hand, and 253 unexpectedly, we observed that the detection of *Penicillium* fungi was anti-correlated with the 254 detection of *M. ulcerans*. No *Penicillium* detection positively correlated with *M. ulcerans* 255 detection, while *P. rubens* and *P. chrysogenum* were the only fungi to anti-correlate with *M.* 256 ulcerans (Fig. 4).

Factor discriminant analysis. Interestingly, factor discriminant analysis identified five fungal 257 258 and bacterial species that significantly discriminated *M. ulcerans*-PCR positive and negative 259 samples, including A. flavus, Brevundimonas diminuta, Propionimicrobium lymphophilum, 260 Pantoea dispersa and P. rubens (p-values: 0.001, 0.01, 0.049, 0.049, 0.049, respectively – Table 261 S2). The discriminant analysis showed that the cutaneous fungal and bacterial microbiota 262 discriminated with 100% accuracy between M. ulcerans positive and negative groups (receiver 263 operator curve analysis: area under curve = 1 - no error in the confusion matrix – perfect 264 clustering).

Fungi-*M. ulcerans* biological interactions. Mycolactones significantly increased spore germination of *A. flavus* after a 10-hour incubation (stimulated 91.2% vs. control 28.75%; P <.0001), significantly
increased spore germination of *A. niger* (stimulated 75.42% vs. control 69.17%; P <.0001), and
significantly decreased spore germination of *P. rubens* (stimulated 45.2% vs. control 50.7%; P <.0001)

(Fig. 5). Moreover, we observed that mycolactones significantly attracted *A. flavus* and *A. niger* during
the T-test assay (*P*-value: 0.013 and 0.003, respectively) (Fig. 6).

271

272 **DISCUSSION**

273 Using a standard RT-PCR assay to detect the asymptomatic skin carriage of *M. ulcerans* in skin samples 274 collected from individuals living in Burkina Faso, we detected a prevalence of 11.5% of *M. ulcerans* 275 carriage in individuals residing in the Sindou region, Burkina Faso, where Buruli ulcer cases have been 276 previously reported [20]. Our data agree with a previous report of cutaneous carriage of *M. ulcerans* in 277 Ghana among people practising agriculture without any protective clothing and in infants crawling on 278 the soil [28]. Thus, the data reported here confirm that in Buruli ulcer-endemic areas, some people are 279 asymptomatic skin carriers of *M. ulcerans*. The *M. ulcerans* inoculum we detected on the skin has been reported to be sufficient to initiate Buruli ulcer lesions in a murine model [29]. These observations 280 281 suggest that asymptomatic skin carriage could be a previously undescribed condition in the natural history of Buruli ulcer. 282

283 Exploration of the skin microbiota at the interface of healthy and diseased skin is in its infancy, 284 especially regarding Buruli ulcer [30]. Comparison of skin microbiota between M. ulcerans-PCR positive and negative samples revealed a specific cutaneous microbiota associated with asymptomatic M. 285 286 *ulcerans* skin carriage, even predicting *M. ulcerans* skin carriage. Other skin pathogens and diseases 287 (leprosy and psoriasis) have been previously related to a specific skin microbiota [31-32]. The novelty in our study was to find significant, antiparallel associations between *M. ulcerans* and fungi: *M. ulcerans* 288 289 was detected on the skin along with *Aspergillus*, in which spore germination and the fungal network 290 were stimulated by mycolactones, whereas the detection of *M. ulcerans* has never been associated with the the presence of *Penicillium* species in the skin, Accordingly, spore germination of *P. rubens* was 291 292 inhibited by mycolactones. Therefore, our clinical observations were not fortuitous but revealed

293	transkingdom mycobacteria-fungi interactions, supporting preliminary observations made with the
294	Zygomycete Mucor circinelloides [26]. Of note, the transkingdom communication concerned P. rubens,
295	a penicillin-producing strain, alias P. chrysogenum, made famous by Sir Alexandre Fleming [33].
296	All these observations suggest for the first time that transkingdom communications between fungi
297	and mycobacteria are of medical interest, partially driving the natural history of Buruli ulcer. These
298	observations will stimulate additional studies to disclose whether this holds true for other mycobacterial
299	infections of medical interest.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

- Fig. 1: Real-time PCR detection of *M. ulcerans* from 52 swabs collected in the Sindou region,
- 400 IS2404 and IS2606 are specific insertion sequences for *M. ulcerans* KR-B ketoreductase-B gene.
- 401 Fig. 2: The different microorganisms grown from 12 skin samples comprising 6 M. ulcerans
- 402 positive samples and 6 negative samples are presented with their relative frequency differences
- and associated P-values. A total of 84 species distributed among 62 bacteria and 22 fungi werecultured.
- 405 Fig. 3: The agglomerative hierarchical classification dendrogram of individuals according to their
- 406 cutaneous microbiota associated with the detection (P1 to P6) or absence (N1 to N6) of *M*.
- 407 *ulcerans. M. ulcerans* PCR-negative samples and *M. ulcerans* PCR-positive samples were clearly
- 408 separated into two distinct clusters according to the composition of the skin microbiota.
- 409 Fig. 4: PCA of 84 bacterial and fungal species isolated from individuals in Burkina Faso revealed
- 410 a strong association of A. flavus, P. lymphophilum and P. freudenreichii with M. ulcerans skin
- 411 carriage.
- 412 Fig. 5: Mycolactone-induced spore germination of A. flavus, A niger and P. rubens in the
- 413 presence of PBS as a negative control.
- Fig. 6: Fungi attraction test: mycolactones (right side disk) attract *A. flavus* and *A. niger* in the
 presence of PBS as a negative control (left side disk).

416 Supplementary data

- 417 Supplementary Table 1: Primers used in this study for the PCR-based identification of fungi and
- 418 bacteria.

	Name	Sequences 5'-3'
	ITS3	GCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGC
	ITS4	TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC
	Bt2a	GGTAACCAAATCGGTGCTGCTTTC
	Bt2b	ACCCTCAGTGTAGTGACCCTTGGC
Fungal	Al33F	GAYTTCATCAAGAACATGAT
sequences	A133R	GACGTTGAADCCRACRTTGTC
	Al34F	TTCATCAAGAACATGAT
	A134R	GCTATCATCACAATGGACGTTCTTGGAG
	ITS1	TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG
	ITS2	GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC
	FD1	AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG
	rP2	ACGGCTACCTTGTTACGACTT
	536F	CAGCAGCCGCGGTAATAC
Bacterial	536R	GTATTACCGCGGCTGCTG
sequences	800F	ATTAGATACCCTGGTAG
	800R	CTACCAGGGTATCTAAT
	1050F	TGTCGTCAGCTCGTG
	1050R	CACGAGCTGACGACA

419

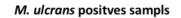
421 Supplementary Table 2: Factor discriminant analysis (FDA) revealed five fungal and bacterial

422 species that significantly discriminated *M. ulcerans*-PCR positive and negative samples.

423

Variable	Lambda	F	DDL1	DDL2	p-value
Propionimicrobium lymphophilum-0	0,667	5,000	1	10	0,049
Brevundimonas diminuta-0	0,500	10,000	1	10	0,010
Pantoea dispersa-0	0,667	5,000	1	10	0,049
Penicillium rubens-0	0,667	5,000	1	10	0,049
Aspergillus flavus-0	0,286	25,000	1	10	0,001

424



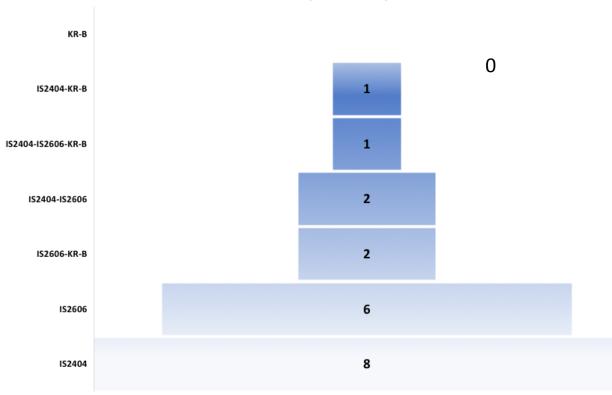


Fig. 1.

Species

Relative frequency difference

P value

Species Klebsiella variicola Enterococcus malodoratus Staphylococcus epidermidis Bacillus cereus Lactobacillus plantarum Bacillus dielmoensis Bacillus megaterium Clostridium subterminale Stenotrophomonas maltophila Propionibacterium acnes Cryptococcus laurentii Gymnascella aurantiaca Pochonia chlamydosporia Exophiala xenobiotica Sordariomycete sp Penicillium commune Dothideomycete Microbacterium paludicola Cellulomonas iranensis Cellulosimicrobium cellulans Franconibacter pulveris Pantoea terrea Pantoea anthophila Ochrobactrum haemophilum Roseomonas gilardii Pseudomonas stutzeri Pantoea calida Bacillus benzoevorans Bacillus niacini Bacillus subtilis **Bacillus** drentensis Bacillus paralicheniformis Porphyromonas uenonis Penicillium crustosum Micrococcus yunnanensis Achromobacter spanius Paenibacillus yonginensis Bacillus marisflavi Staphylococcus hominis Penicillium rubens Penicillium chrysogenum Lelliottia nimipressuralis

Aspergillus flavus Aspergillus niger Acidovorax temperans Brevundimonas diminuta Cellulomonas massiliensis Propionimicrobium lymphophilum Microbacterium paraoxydans Microbacterium oleivorans Propionibacterium freudenreichii Micrococcus luteus Pseudomonas aeruginosa Pantoea dispersa Bacillus marasmi Paenibacillus alvei Staphylococcus capitis Lactobacillus reuteri Bacillus pumilus Pichia carribica Cutibacterium acnes Microbacterium hydrocarbonoxydans Microbacterium testaceum Homoserinibacter gongjuensis Purpureocillium lilacinum Aspergillus nidulans Aspergillus tubingensis Curtobacterium citreum Microbacterium arborescens Ruminococcus merdae Lodderomyces elongisporus Arxula adeninivorans Ogataea thermomethanolica Exophiala spinifera Syncephalastrum racemosum Rhizopus oryzae Acinetobacter lwoffii Microbacterium lacticum Cellulomonas parahominis Microbacterium neinengenese Collinsella massiliensis Klebsiella pneumoniae Enterobacter cloacae Pantoea stewartii

Fig. 2.

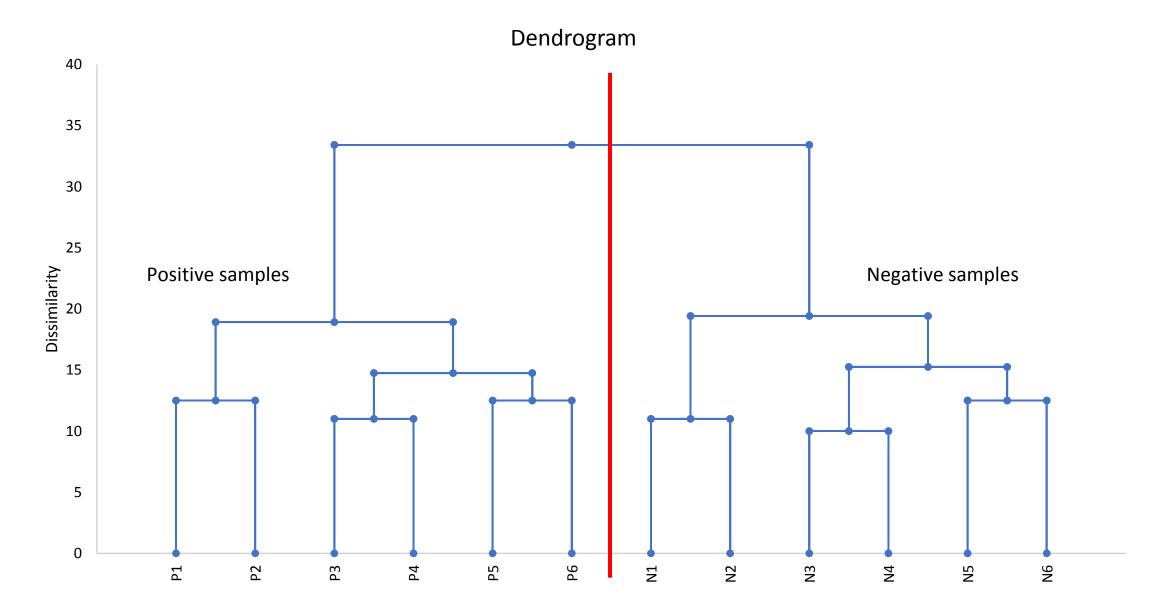


Fig. 3.

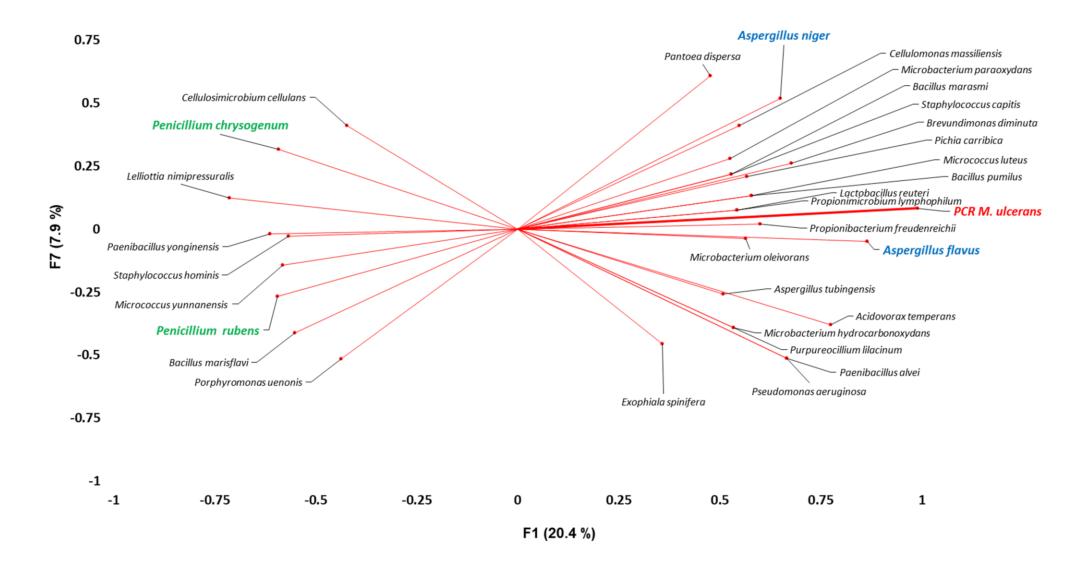
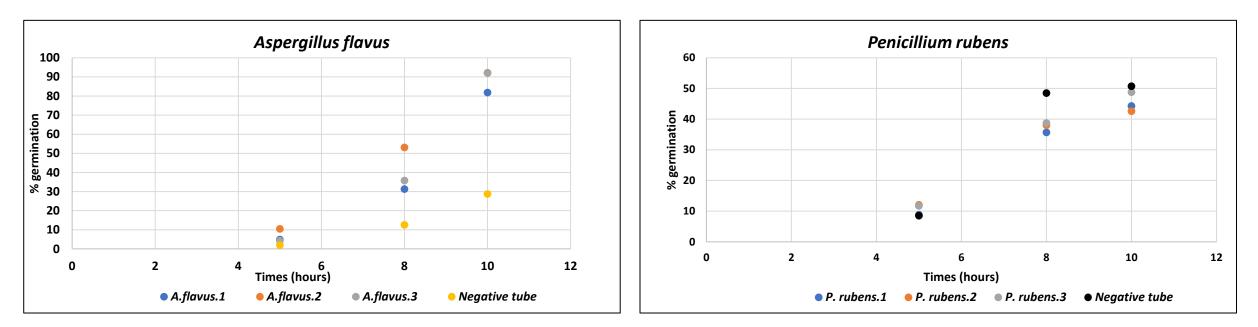
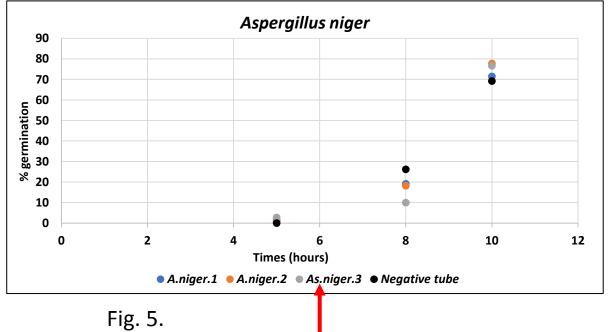
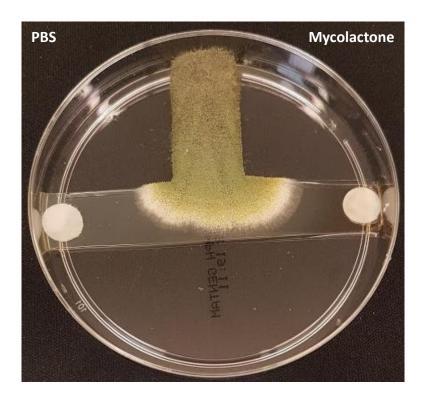


Fig. 4.







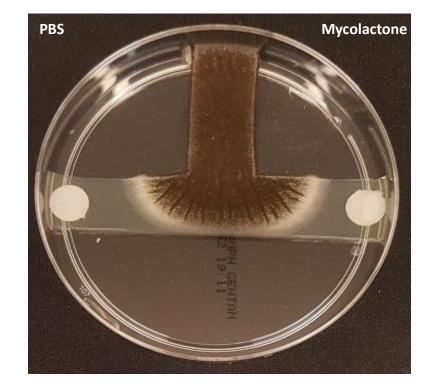


Fig. 6.