

# The diversity of mycolactone-producing mycobacteria N. Hammoudi, J. Saad, Michel Drancourt

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1	The diversity of mycolactone-producing mycobacteria
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10	
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## 23 ABSTRACT

24	Mycolactone-producing mycobacteria (MPM) form an intriguing group of
25	environmental opportunistic pathogens of mammals and human patients in whom
26	they cause cutaneous and subcutaneous ulcers known as "Buruli ulcer" when they
27	occur in humans. We reviewed whole genome sequence data and ecological and
28	phenotypic characteristics from 44 MPMs and closely related Mycobacterium
29	marinum. This analysis indicated that all the 24 M. marinum isolates were delineated
30	into seven taxa and our comprehensive, polyphasic taxonomic approach led to the
31	proposal of delineating <i>M. marinum</i> genomospecies, 01-07. Likewise, 20 MPMs
32	isolates were delineated into seven additional <i>M. ulcerans</i> genomospecies, 01-07. A
33	taxonomic card explaining the ecology, hosts of isolation and the plasmid harboured
34	is provided for each taxon.
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36	

#### **39 INTRODUCTION**

40 An unique group of opportunistic mycobacterial pathogens secreting plasmid-

encoded mycolactone exotoxins known as mycolactone-producing-mycobacteria 41 42 (MPM), is comprised of mycobacteria currently classified as *Mycobacterium marinum* (*M. marinum*) and *Mycobacterium ulcerans* (*M. ulcerans*) [1] MPMs are unique, being 43 44 the sole mycobacteria known to secrete toxins and are among the mycobacteria that exhibit an extrachromosomal plasmid [2]. Mycolactone is a cytotoxin molecule that 45 causes defective cell adhesion and directional migration of epithelial cells as a result 46 of altered actin assembly and distribution in the cytoplasm by diverting the Wiskott-47 48 Aldrich Syndrome Protein (WASP) family of proteins [3]. In addition, mycolactone 49 exhibits analgesic properties and immunomodulates the inflammatory responses of sensory neurons, Schwann cells and microglia [4], and induces keratinocyte cell 50 51 necrosis causing cutaneous and subcutaneous ulcers in mammals, including in 52 human patients in whom such lesions are known as Buruli ulcer [5]. However, these 53 mycolactone properties may be as opportunistic as the pathogen itself and we 54 recently reported that one primal function of mycolactones was to make immotile M. 55 *ulcerans* communicate with some fungi, attracting those fungi thriving in shared ecological niches [6]. 56

*M. marinum* was first isolated in 1926 by Aronson [7], and was recognised as an opportunistic pathogen for humans in 1951, after it had been isolated from granulomatous skin lesions in swimmers [8]. The clinical manifestation of infections in humans consists of nodular skin lesions that can progress to tenosynovitis, arthritis and osteomyelitis [9]. We also described vivarium granuloma as the *M. marinum* cutaneous infection following contact with reptiles [10]. As for Buruli ulcer, it is a World Health Organization (WHO) notifiable infection and is acknowledged as the

64 third most common mycobacterial disease after tuberculosis and leprosy in 65 populations in several west and central African countries [11]. The current dynamics of Buruli ulcer reveals a global decrease in prevalence and incidence in 2010–2017, 66 67 with a drastic decrease in Côte d'Ivoire, which was once the country reporting the largest number of cases, while the proportion of cases reported in Australia is 68 69 increasing, as it is in other countries such as Ghana and Nigeria [12,13]. Also, a few 70 cases have been reported in Senegal, a country recently regarded as free of Buruli 71 ulcer [14]. In Australia, not only is Buruli ulcer remerging in south-eastern regions and spreading to regions that were previously free of Buruli ulcer, but an increasing 72 73 number of severe cases is bringing into question the diversity of the strains that 74 cause M. ulcerans [12].

75 MPMs are acknowledged as environmental mycobacteria, yet the exact 76 ecosystems in which they thrive in tropical regions which are endemic for Buruli 77 ulcer, remain elusive mainly because past investigations were conducted using 78 PCR-based methods rather than culture, leaving the exact nature and viability of 79 detected mycobacteria unclear. As for *M. ulcerans*, the significant association of Buruli ulcer cases with wetlands and overflowing riverbanks and the detection of 80 81 specific sequences of *M. ulcerans* in water, mud, aquatic insects, and plants has 82 suggested that *M. ulcerans* lives in fresh water-irrigated environments [15]. However, 83 the mode(s) of transmission, natural reservoir(s) and other key aspects of the epidemiology of Buruli ulcer are not fully understood [16], despite *M. ulcerans* being 84 85 recently traced along a food chain, in Côte d'Ivoire [Hammoudi N., Drancourt M, unpublished data]. The paradoxical situation for environmental opportunistic 86 87 pathogens, where fewer environmental than clinical isolates hampers any rational prevention of the disease which, although not contagious and not responsible for any 88

mortality, nevertheless has a huge medical and social impact on populations and is
responsible for functional limitations that have an impact on the social life of affected
individuals.

92 Initial whole genome sequence comparisons of *M. ulcerans* and *M. marinum* all indicate a reductive evolution from a common ancestor closely related to M. 93 94 marinum, counterbalanced by lateral gene transfer, the acquisition of insertion sequences named IS2404 and IS2606, and the acquisition of a 174-kb plasmid 95 96 encoding gene for the non-ribosomal synthesis of polyketide mycolactones [17-19]. 97 Further, PCR-restriction profile analyses of the 16S rRNA gene separated four 98 different genotypic profiles (African, South-East Asian, Mexican and South American) 99 in *M. ulcerans* [20], while nine distinct profiles identified by PCR 2426 correlated with 100 the geographical origin of the isolates [21]. Analysis of specific deletions in the 101 Regions of Difference (RD) revealed that *M. ulcerans* evolved into five InDel 102 haplotypes that separated *M. ulcerans* isolates into so-called "classic" and "ancestral" 103 lineages [22]. A genomic analysis carried out on 123 genomes from the territory of 104 Songololo in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), revealed that several M. 105 ulcerans clones coexist and circulate simultaneously in this region with a 106 homogeneous geographical distribution [23]. However, these genetic and genome 107 sequence-based analyses did not consider the ecology and biology of the isolates. 108 In this study, by combining the ever larger collection of whole genome 109 sequences with ecological and phenotypic data, we propose an updated taxonomy 110 based on the polyphasic deviation of seven taxa, for which a nomenclature is 111 proposed.

#### 112 **GENOMIC DATA.**

113 MPM genomic general data. A total of 44 whole genome sequences (annotated as 114 *M. marinum* (n = 33), *M. ulcerans* (n = 7), *Mycobacterium liflandii* (n = 1), 115 Mycobacterium pseudoshottsii (n = 2) and one unnamed Mycobacterium sp. 012931 116 were retrieved from the Pubmed assembly databases using *M. marinum* and MPM as keywords. Taken together, these genomes, consisting of 260 million bases. 117 exhibited a GC% varying between 62.3% for *M. ulcerans subsp. shinshuensis* strain 118 119 ATCC 33728 (AP017635.1), 63.4% for *M. ulcerans* CSURP9951 and 65.2-65.7% for the 42 remaining isolates (Supplementary Fig. S1). 120 121

Whole genome sequence analysis. Average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis 122 123 revealed using MORPHEUS (Versatile matrix visualisation and analysis software) 124 delineated two large clusters and several small clusters, the *M. marinum* group (1) 125 and the MPMs group (2) (Fig. 1). In detail, on the *M. marinum* group (1) we identified 126 seven different taxa, namely taxon (1.1) including 16 *M. marinum* isolates exhibiting 127 99.32-99.91% ANI values (Fig 1). While eight additional *M. marinum* isolates formed 128 six small groups with ANI values of 97-98.8% with taxon (1.1). In particular, the M. 129 marinum strain Davis1 forms a taxon (1.2) and exhibits ANI values of 98.14-98.88% with M. marinum taxon (1.1). M. marinum B and M. marinum MB2 grouped together 130 and formed a taxon (1.3) with 99.84% identity, and *M. marinum* M and *M. marinum* 131 132 E11 grouped together to form a taxon (1.4) with 99.88% identity, while *M. marinum* SS2 (1.5), *M. marinum* L1506 (1.6) and *M. marinum* DE 4576 (1.7) stood alone and 133 134 formed three distinct taxa. Taken together, the ANI data indicated that isolates 135 currently classified as *M. marinum* consist of new different taxa.

136 Regarding the MPMs isolates, we observed that the taxon (2) (Fig 1), was 137 divided into five large groups One taxon (2.1) represented by six *M. ulcerans namely* M. ulcerans subsp. shinshuense ATCC 33728 (AP017635.1), M. ulcerans subsp. 138 shinshuense ATCC33728 (AP017624.1), M. ulcerans CSURP9951, M. ulcerans 139 140 CSURP9953, *M. ulcerans* CSURP9954 and *M. ulcerans* CSURP9952 isolates was 141 supported by ANI values of 99.88- 99.93%. One taxon (2.2) containing *M. ulcerans* 142 S4018, M. ulcerans SGL03, M. ulcerans Agy99, M. ulcerans CSURQ0185, M. 143 ulcerans Harvey, M. ulcerans CSURP9950 and M. ulcerans CSURP9949 (99.57-144 99.92%); and *M. ulcerans* CSURP7741 stood alone and formed a taxon (2.3) with 145 99.37% with taxon (2.4), which consisted of *M. liflandii*128FXT and *M. marinum* BB170200 with ANI value of 99.61%. One taxon (2.5) comprised Mycobacterium sp. 146 147 012931, M. marinum DL240490, M. pseudoshottsi JCM 15466 and M. pseudoshottsi 148 L15 with ANI values of 99.69-99.87%. Further WGS-based DDH analysis of 44 149 isolates using formula 2 [24] yielded inconsistent results, and we observed that there 150 were inconsistent results between the three DDH formula for the isolates studied 151 (Fig. S2).

152

153 **Core genomics.** These 44 isolates yielded a 18,592-gene pangenome, a 2,250-154 gene, 2,104,697-bp core genome and 16,342 accessory genes which were 155 accessory genes composed of 11,535 cloud genes (0% <= strains < 15%), 4,065 156 shell genes (15% <= strains < 95%) and 742 soft core genes (95% <= strains < 157 99%). A core-genome tree confirmed the ANI results with one large *M. marinum* 158 taxon (1.1) including 16 *M. marinum* isolates and six discrete *M. marinum* taxa (1.2) 159 (1.3) (1.4) (1.5) (1.6) and (1.7). Regarding MPMs, a core-genome tree confirmed the 160 ANI results of a 5-taxon tree, but we demonstrated that the taxon (2.2) containing

seven *M. ulcerans* isolates was subdivided into three taxa, including taxon (2.2.1)
formed by *M. ulcerans* CSURP9949, *M. ulcerans* CSURP9950 and *M. ulcerans str.*Harvey; taxon (2.2.2) including *M. ulcerans* Agy99, *M. ulcerans* SGL 03 and *M. ulcerans* 4018; and taxon (2.2.3) represented by *M. ulcerans* CSURQ0185 (Fig. 2).

166 **SNP-core genome analysis.** A pairwise SNP genetic distance tree of the 44 studied 167 isolates confirmed the ANI and core-genome tree separating the MPMs from *M*. 168 *marinum* (Fig. 3). Regarding the *M. marinum* taxon (1), we observed a group (1.1) 169 including 16 *M. marinum* isolates with cut-off SNP varying between 1 and 5,604; 170 taxon (1.2) related to taxon (1.1) of *M. marinum* taxon with SNP values varying 171 between 13,841 and 14,670; taxa (1.3) (1.4) (1.5) (1.6) (1.7) far from taxon (1.1) with 172 SNP values over 21,000. In detail, taxon (1.3) including two strains with 152-SNP 173 values, and the group (1.4) including two strains with 0-SNP values. Regarding the 174 MPMs taxon (2), we found that the taxon (2.1) including *M. ulcerans subsp.* 175 shinshuense ATCC 33728 (AP017635.1), M. ulcerans subsp. shinshuense 176 ATCC33728 (AP017624.1), *M. ulcerans* CSURP9951, *M. ulcerans* CSURP9953, *M.* 177 ulcerans CSURP9954 and M. ulcerans CSURP9952 grouped together with SNP 178 pairwise distance varying between 7-198 SNP; taxon (2.2.1) including *M. ulcerans* 179 CSURP9949, M. ulcerans CSURP9950 and M. ulcerans str. Harvey with SNP 32-180 206; taxon (2.2.2) *M. ulcerans* Agy99, *M. ulcerans* strain SGL03 and *M. ulcerans* 181 4018 with SNP 70-84; taxon (2.2.3) including only *M. ulcerans* CSURQ0185 close to 182 taxon (2.2.1) with SNP 1526-1669 and taxon (2.2.2) with SNP 1973-1991. Taxon 183 (2.3) including *M. ulcerans* CSURP7741 close to taxon (2.4) with SNP 5988-6868; 184 Furthermore, taxon (2.4) including *M. liflandii*128FXT and *M. marinum* strain 185 BB170200 with 2,528 SNPs between them; taxon (2.5) including *M. pseudoshottsii* 

JCM 15466, *M. pseudoshottsii* and *M. marinum* strain DL240490 with 23-217 SNPs
and this value was up to 1,159 SNPs with *Mycobacterium* sp. 01293.

188

189 **Plasmidome.** The no ribosomal synthesis of mycolactones is encoded by a 174-210-190 kb giant plasmid [17, 18]. The mycolactone molecule is composed of an invariant 191 core-lactone and a side chain which is esterified to a highly unsaturated acyl side 192 chain, the latter structure varying according to the different MPM strains. Accordingly, 193 recent studies showed different types of mycolactones A/B, C, D, E, F and G 194 produced by mycobacteria phenotypically distinct from *M. ulcerans* and not 195 necessarily associated with Buruli ulcer [1, 25] such as M. liflandii, M. pseudoshottsii 196 and some *M. marinum* isolates [26-28]. The pan-genomic analysis carried out on the 197 44 genomes used in this study showed a clustering of 20 MPMs genomes, these 20 198 genomes hosting at least one of the plasmids responsible for the synthesis of 199 mycolatone (pMUM01, pMUM02, pMUM03, pSHT-P). The total plasmid sequence is 200 represented by three very large genes involved in mycolactone biosynthesis: 201 (mlsA1: 51 kb, mlsA2: 7 kb and mlsB: 42 kb). MlsA1 and MlsA2 form a complex synthesising the core-lactone of mycolactone, while MIsB is required for side chain 202 203 synthesis [17, 26, 29]. Furthermore, we noted that a taxon (2.1) formed by three 204 Japanese isolates, one Ugandan isolate and one USA isolate, all harboured the 205 plasmid pSHT-P. The 166-kb pSHT-P plasmid contains 72 CDSs and was found for 206 the first time in *M. ulcerans* subsp. *shinshuense* isolated in Japan [29]. The taxon 207 (2.2), formed by five strains from different African countries, one strain from Australia, 208 and one strain from the USA, all harbour the plasmid pMUM01. The 174,155-bp 209 pMUM01 plasmid was revealed in *M. ulcerans* in 2004 by Stinear *et al.*, and encodes 210 for 81 predicted CDS, with 62.7% GC content [17, 26]. Taxon (2.3), formed by the

211 French Guiana *M. ulcerans* strain CSURP7741 and taxon (2.4) including *M.* 212 liflandii128FXT and *M. marinum* BB170200 isolated from frogs and fish respectively, 213 all these isolates host the 190-kb plasmid pMUM02 encoding for 95 CDSs with a 62.9% GC, initially described in *M. liflandii* [30]. Taxon (2.5), including *Mycobacterium* 214 215 sp. 012931, *M. pseudoshottsii* JCM 15466, *M. pseudoshottsii* and *M. marinum* strain 216 DL240490, is characterised by plasmid pMUM03 [31]. In addition, we noted the 217 presence of one or two types of mycolactone synthesis plasmids in addition to the 218 common plasmid that characterises the taxon. For example, in taxon (2.2), M. 219 ulcerans CSURQ0185, M. ulcerans CSURP9949 and M. ulcerans CSURP9950 220 contain the plasmid pSHT-P, in addition to plasmid pMUM01 which is characteristic 221 of this taxon (2.2).

222

Genomospecies. Combining the ANI, pan-genome and core genome results
enabled us to reclassify the *M. marinum* strain BB170200 and *M. marinum* strain
DL240490 (both isolates from unspecified fish in Israel) as *M. liflandii* included in
taxon (2.4) and *M. pseudoshotii* included in taxon (2.5), respectively (Fig. 2 and Fig.
3). The *Mycobacterium* sp. 012931 had already been published as *Mycobacterium*sp. related to the *M. marinum* group [32] but in this study we showed that this
mycobacterium is related to the *M. pseudoshotii* taxon (2.5).

230

### 231 ECOLOGY AND PHENOTYPIC CHARACTERISTICS.

Geography and Hosts. The pan-genomic analysis carried out on the 44 genomes
used in this study separated 24 *M. marinum* genomes, forming group (1) and 20
MPMs genomes forming group (2). We reviewed the geographical and ecological
origins and type of mycolactone for each of the 44 isolates here studied, using the

NCBI database and the PATRIC web site. Thus, of the 24 genomes of *M. marinum* 236 237 isolates, 16 isolates regrouped on the taxon (1.1) were isolated from the USA, the 238 United Kingdom, Israel, Sweden, and an unspecified European country (10, 3, 1, 1) genomes, respectively. The unique *M. marinum* strain Davis1 forming taxon (1.2) 239 240 was isolated from a human sample from the USA. The taxon (1.3) groups two strains, 241 *M. marinum* MB2 isolated from fish from Thailand, and *M. marinum* B isolated from a 242 human sample in France. The two USA isolates, *M. marinum* M and *M. marinum* E11 243 forming taxon (1.4) were isolated from human and fish samples, respectively. Wille 244 M. marinum MSS2 taxon (1.5), and M. marinum DE4576 taxon (1.7) both were 245 isolated from fish in the USA. Taxon (1.6), formed by *M. marinum* HL1506, was isolated from fish from China. Thus, 22 *M. marinum* were isolated from fish, of which 246 247 12 were marine fish, eight were freshwater fish and two were ubiquitous fish. Three 248 strains were isolated from humans, including one isolated from a man working in an 249 aquaculture pool during an outbreak of *M. marinum*, and one *M. marinum* strain 1218 250 RDel variant of *M. marinum* strain 1218R from in a laboratory in the United Kingdom. 251 All these strains lack plasmids encoding the synthesis of mycolactone, except for 252 three strains (*M. marinum* M, *M. marinum* strain Davis1 and *M. marinum* strain 253 VIMS9) which harbour pMUM03, pMUM01/pSHT-P and pMUM02 respectively. 254 Intriguingly, *M. marinum* is among the non-tuberculous mycobacterial species most 255 associated with mycobacterial fish diseases which infect more than 200 species of 256 freshwater and marine fish [33]. In humans it is responsible for a skin infection after 257 exposure to freshwater and marine fish over a wide geographical area from the 258 subarctic to the tropics [34]. *M. marinum* infections are reported in striped bass in the 259 USA [35], in sturgeon fish from China [36], and in captive-bred Australian lungfish 260 [37]. In Africa, *M. marinum* has been isolated from the skin of healthy humans and

261 also from the soil [38, 39] and from koi fish exhibiting skin ulcerations on the head in 262 South Africa [40]. It has also been reported to cause sporadic infections in rainbow and brown trout in Italy [41]. Water and food that is contaminated by mycobacteria 263 264 are the potential sources of infection for fish [42, 43]. Grady AW et al. suggest digestive transmission through the ingestion of contaminated food and cannibalism of 265 266 infected fish [44]. Furthermore, in humans, *M. marinum* penetrates the skin with minor traumas in fishponds and swimming pools [45] as well as skin lesions that 267 268 have occurred during the preparation of seafood [46].

Within 20 MPMs genomes forming group (2), divided into five taxa, taxon (2.1) 269 270 comprises three strains from Japan, one strain from Uganda, one from the USA, and one from Ghanaian. Taxon (2.2) divided into three taxa includes taxon (2.2.1) that 271 272 combines two Australian strain, and USA strain. Three African strains forming taxon 273 (2.2.2) were isolated from Benin, Ghana and RDC (n=1/ country). One single strain of 274 *M. ulcerans* CSUR0185, isolated in Côte d'Ivoire forms taxon (2.2.3). The (2.3) 275 formed by the unique French Guiana strain *M. ulcerans* P7741. Taxon (2.4) includes 276 two *M. pseudoshottsii* strains from the USA, the *M. marinum* strain DL240490 from 277 Israel, and the *Mycobacterium* sp. 012931 from China. Some 36 countries with 278 tropical, subtropical and temperate climates have reported Buruli ulcer, including the 279 Western Pacific regions of Australia, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea and Sri Lanka, 280 the American countries (French Guiana, Mexico and Peru) and African countries, where the highest concentrations of cases are found in Benin, Cameroon, Côte 281 282 d'Ivoire, the RDC and Ghana [13]. To date, the exact source and mode of 283 transmission of Buruli ulcer remains unknown, although communities associated with 284 rivers, swamps, wetlands and human-induced changes in the aquatic environment, 285 especially those created as a result of environmental disturbances such as

286 deforestation, dam construction and agriculture are recognised as sources of 287 contamination [47]. Like most environmental mycobacteria, *M. ulcerans* proliferates 288 in aquatic environments with pH values ranging from 5.5 to 6.5 [48]. In Australia, the 289 PCR investigation of environmental sources of infection revealed the presence of *M*. 290 ulcerans DNA in marsh water used for golf course irrigation [49]. Furthermore, a non-291 random collocation of human Buruli ulcer cases was found during the investigation of 292 faeces samples of ringtail possum and brushtail possum in Australia [50]. In addition, 293 cases of Buruli ulcer have been described in domestic mammalian species in 294 Victoria, including long-footed possum koalas, horses, alpaca dogs and cats. All 295 animal cases were identified in locations where human cases of Buruli ulcer have 296 been reported [15, 51-53]. In addition, Johnson PDR and collaborators have 297 suggested the role of mosquitoes in the transmission of *M. ulcerans*, following its 298 detection in five different species of mosquitoes captured at Point Lonsdale in 299 Australia [54]. In contrast, in Africa, it was reported that 10.3% of biofilm/plant 300 samples (3/29), 1.7% of water samples (1/65) and 1.5% of soil samples (2/119) were 301 positive for the detection of *M. ulcerans* DNA in the Zio and Yoto districts of the 302 southern maritime region of Togo [55] and 34% aquatic sites in Ghana that were 303 tested for *M. ulcerans* were reported positive [56]. Furthermore, Aboagye Sy reports 304 a seasonality around detection of *M. ulcerans* in the environment, reporting 11% and 305 3% positive environmental samples during the rainy and dry seasons, respectively. In 306 the same study, the authors reported that *M. ulcerans* DNA was mainly detected in 307 snails (5/6, 83 %), moss (8/40, 20 %), soil (55/586, 9 %) and vegetation (55/675, 8 308 %) [57]. *M. ulcerans* was detected in samples of stagnant water, soil, water filtrate 309 residues, plants and in the aquatic Heteroptera from Côte d'Ivoire [58, 59]. An 310 experimental study demonstrating that water bug bites can transmit *M. ulcerans* 

infection to mice, because *M. ulcerans* was detected in the salivary glands of water
bugs. Marsollier and collaborators considered water bugs to be potential transient
hosts for *M. ulcerans* [60].

314

315 **Phenotype.** The mycolactone toxin has been strictly associated with *M. ulcerans*, 316 however, recent studies have shown different types of mycolactones A/B, C, D, E, F 317 and G produced by other mycobacteria that are phenotypically distinct from M. 318 ulcerans and not necessarily associated with Buruli ulcer [1, 25]. These 319 mycobacteria, isolated from different hosts from different geographical regions, form 320 the mycolactone-producing mycobacterial complex (MPM), comprising *M. ulcerans*, *M. liflandii*, *M. pseudoshottsii* and some isolates of *M. marinum* [27, 28]. Thus, the 321 322 mycolactone production capacity is broader than previously assumed, and the 323 genetic diversity of the MPM complex is also greater than previously assumed. 324 Clustering the geographical origin of isolation, the host of isolation and the plasmid 325 yielded a representation in agreement with those mentioned above and further 326 clarified that the *M. marinum* strain BB170200 (PEDI01000001.1) and *M. marinum* strain DL240490 (PEDJ01000001.1) are two new unnamed species, interestingly 327 isolated from freshwater and saltwater fish (Figure S3). 328

329

#### 330 CONCLUSIONS

This study highlighted the profound bias in genome datasets: all the currently named
 *M. ulcerans* isolates were made from clinical sources, evidently obscuring the
 probable genomic diversity of environmental *M. ulceran*s and underlying the absolute
 necessity to boost the culture-based evaluation of environments, while none of the 24
 *M. marinum* isolates here investigated were made from the environment. Despite this

336 limitation, our study was able to firmly delineate a group of isolates as *M. ulcerans* 

and a group of isolates as *M. marinum*. In between, nine isolates were here

tentatively named *M. marinum*, *M. ulcerans* and *M. guyanensis* sp. nov.; a temporary

339 classification aimed to stimulate contributing researchers in the field. We report clear-

- 340 cut characteristics for the laboratory identification of these two species.
- 341

#### 342 **METHODS**

343 Whole genome sequence retrieval and analysis. In order to retrieve the MPM

344 genome sequences, we consulted the Assembly

345 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/) and EBI (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/genomes/)

346 databases using the keyword "*Mycobacterium*" in April 2020. Seven genomes of *M*.

347 *ulcerans* and one genome of *M. marinum* strains from different geographical origin

were then sequenced in our laboratory using MiSeq platform (Illumina, Inc., San

- 349 Diego, CA, USA). All these genomes were assembled using SPAdes software
- version 3.5.0 [61] and annotated using Prokka version 1.12 [62]. The selected

351 genomes were then analysed using different comparative genomics tools such as

352 ANI, DHH, Roary and SNP-distance.

353

Identity cards. NCBI/PubMed, Google Scholar were used to perform a literature
review as well as the Web of Science website, using the following keywords "Buruli
ulcer", "*Mycobacterium ulcerans"* "*M. ulcerans* genotype" "genetic diversity of *M. ulcerans*" and "epidemiology of *M. ulcerans*". The geographic origin and host of
isolation of the strains of these genomes was verified on the Patric and NCBI
websites.

360

### 362 Figure Legends

- 363 **Figure 1.** Average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis using MORPHEUS (Versatile
- 364 matrix visualisation and analysis software), displays the coloured names of isolates

indicating the different taxa of *M. marinum* and MPMs.

- 366 **Figure 2.** Analysis of the core-genome tree confirming the results of ANI. The 44
- 367 genomes of the isolates used in this study are grouped in different taxa represented
- 368 by different colours.
- 369 **Figure 3.** Single-nucleotide polymorphism tree of the 44 isolates studied confirmed
- the ANI and the core-genome tree separating the MPMs from M. marinum isolates.
- 371 The different colours represent the different taxa found during the ANI and core-
- 372 genome analysis.

### 374 Supplementary Data

- **Figure S1.** Presentation of GC% of 44 genomes used in this study. 42 genomes
- have a GC% of 65.2-65.7%, and the genomes of M. ulcerans subsp. shinshuensis
- 377 strain ATCC 33728 (AP017635.1), and M. ulcerans CSURP9951 have 62.3% and
- 378 63.4% respectively. The total of these 44 genomes is 260 million bases.
- 379
- **Figure S2.** DDH analysis of 44 isolates yielded inconsistent results, despite the use
- 381 of the three HDD formulations for the isolates studied.
- 382
- 383 **Figure S3.** Identity card representing the geographical origin, host of isolation and
- 384 plasmid type of 44 MPM and *M. marinum* genomes investigated in this study.

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- 387
- 388

389 **References.** 

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