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- 2 Is Cutibacterium (previously Propionibacterium) acnes a potential pathogenic factor in the
- 3 aetiology of the skin disease progressive macular hypomelanosis?
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22 Abstract

23 Progressive macular hypomelanosis (PMH) is a skin condition that normally causes symmetrically distributed hypopigmented macules on the front and back of the trunk, but 24 25 rarely the face. To date, the pathophysiology of the condition is not well understood, but a 26 role for the anaerobic skin bacterium Cutibacterium (previously Propionibacterium) acnes in 27 the development of the disease has been proposed due to its sole presence within lesional, 28 but not normal peri-lesional, skin. The success of antimicrobials in the treatment of PMH also 29 provides circumstantial evidence that this association may be causal, although this is still to be proven. More recent culture and metagenomic typing studies indicate that strains of C. 30 31 acnes subsp. elongatum (type III) may be important in the aetiology of the condition, which 32 would help to explain why PMH does not normally affect the face since such strains are rarely present there, and why no association between this condition and acne vulgaris is found; 33 34 acne appears to primarily involve type IA1 strains from C. acnes subsp. acnes (type I). In this 35 review we summarise current knowledge on the relationship between C. acnes and PMH, and re-examine previous challenges to the view that the bacterium plays a role in the condition 36 37 against the backdrop of newly emerged data.

38 1. Introduction

39 Progressive macular hypomelanosis (PMH) is a relatively uncommon dermatosis usually 40 characterised by ill-defined nummular, non-scaly and symmetric hypopigmented macules that form predominantly on the front and back of the trunk, and without prior history of skin 41 42 injury, infection or inflammation (Fig. 1); these macules can be discrete or display confluence 43 when found in and around the midline¹. Like the very common skin condition acne vulgaris, 44 PMH normally affects adolescents and young adults where its cosmetic effects may have social and psychological impacts^{1,2,3}. The disorder rarely affects the proximal extremities and 45 the skin of the face, which has been a key clinical feature^{1,3}. PMH is found worldwide and 46 47 affects different Fitzpatrick skin types as well as both sexes, but the disorder does appear to be much more prevalent in females^{1,4-7}. PMH is often misdiagnosed as the fungal infection 48 49 pityriasis versicolor, pityriasis alba or post-inflammatory hypopigmentation, and can remain 50 stable, progress slowly over a long time period or, in some cases, spontaneously disappear after mid-life^{1,3,4,8}. While the exact incidence of PMH within different populations is unclear, it 51 52 is likely to be an under-reported disorder as some cases may be misdiagnosed and not all patients, particularly males, will see a clinician for treatment⁶. In this review, we evaluate the 53 54 strength of current evidence supporting a pathogenic role for the anaerobic bacterium Cutibacterium acnes (previously Propionibacterium acnes) in the aetiology of PMH, 55 56 particularly in light of recent culture and metagenomic typing studies, and investigation of 57 porphyrin production by different strains of the bacterium.

2. Histological and electron microscopic features

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Histologically, PMH does not appear to be associated with any significant abnormalities of the dermis apart from a decrease in epidermal pigment, but a mild perifollicular infiltrate of lymphocytes has been observed in some, but by no means all, lesional skin samples^{2,4,6-10}. Detailed ultrastructural studies have provided evidence that PMH results from altered melanogenesis, leading to reduced pigmentation, and changes in melanosome size, aggregation, maturation and distribution^{2,3,6,8-9,11-12}. Furthermore, it does not appear that defects in melanosome degradation play a role in the pathophysiology of PMH as there is no evidence for disintegrated melanosomes in the lysosomal compartments of PMH lesions¹².

3. Evidence supporting a potential role for Cutibacterium acnes in the aetiology of PMH

68 While the underlying cause of PMH is still not clear, a pathogenic role for the Grampositive, anaerobic bacterium C. acnes in the aetiology of the condition has been proposed, 69 70 possibly via the production of a depigmenting factor or an agent that interferes with 71 melanogenesis^{4,5}. *C. acnes* is part of the normal human microbiota and found predominately 72 on the skin and muscosal surfaces. The organism is an opportunistic pathogen most noted for its association with acne vulgaris¹³, but has now also been linked to other human infections 73 and conditions, including medical device and soft tissue infections^{14,15}, cervical disc disease¹⁶, 74 prostate cancer¹⁷ and sarcoidosis¹⁸. 75

76 3.1 Culture and non-culture-based detection

77 Bacterial culture has demonstrated the sole presence and accumulation of *C. acnes* in 78 biopsy samples of PMH lesions, but not biopsies of adjacent non-lesional skin from the same 79 patient^{4,5} (Table 1). Furthermore, 16S rRNA-based quantitative real-time PCR detection of *C.* acnes has found a significantly greater incidence of the bacterium in lesional versus adjacent 80 81 non-lesion skin of patients in respect to genome copy number, consistent with culture results and indicating enrichment in lesions⁵; in the latter case we can speculate that this may reflect 82 localised perturbations in the skin environment that stimulate overgrowth. The presence of C. 83 acnes within hypopigmented lesions from patients with PMH, but not normal pigmented skin 84 from the trunk of the same patient, can also be observed upon Gram-staining, revealing 85

Gram-positive rods with a high population density^{1,4,9}. Furthermore, upon examination of the skin in a dark room with UV radiation from a Wood's lamp, a puntiform orange-red follicular fluorescence within hypopigmented spots is observed due to the presence of porphyrins produced by the bacterium, such as coproporhyrin III; this fluorescence is absent in perilesional normal skin^{1,4,7,10,12}. Interestingly, while this characteristic florescence of PMH lesions upon Wood's lamp examination has been described in many studies, it has not been observed in all (see section 5.1).

Treatments for PMH based on topical corticosteroids and topical or systemic antifungals

3.2 Therapeutic success of antimicrobial-based treatments

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have not proved efficacious, but re-pigmentation of the skin can be achieved using ultraviolet light A (UVA) or narrow-band UVB (NB-UVB)-based treatments, either as a monotherapy or in combination with topical or oral antimicrobials 1,6,9,10,19-24. Such UV treatments are believed to work by stimulating melanogenesis and, potentially, inhibition of C. acnes in the case of NB-UVB (see section 5.3), but the results appear variable and in many cases are only temporary leading to recurrence of the condition^{6,20,21,24}. In a within-patient, left-right trunk comparison study, Relyeld et al.²⁵ demonstrated that topical treatment with 5% benzoyl peroxide (BPO) (morning) and 1% clindamycin hydrogel (night-time) in combination with UVA radiation (antibacterial therapy arm) was much superior for re-pigmentation versus 0.05% fluticasone and UVA treatment only (antiinflammatory therapy arm). This appeared, therefore, to exclude the possibility that treatment success was due solely to UVA treatment, and provided evidence to support a bacterial role, such as C. acnes, in the pathophysiology of PMH. Furthermore, upon a 3-month follow-up, PMH patients were still found to have retained their re-pigmentation, although information on whether this persisted is not available. Since then, there have been many 110 studies investigating the effectiveness of treatments for PMH using topical antibiotic lotions 111 and BPO hydrogels (in combination or separately) alongside narrow-band UVB (NB-UVB) 112 treatment^{6,9,19,21,23}. Treatment success for PMH has also been achieved using the oral tetracycline derivatives doxycycline, minocycline and lymecycline, used in the management of 113 acne, either with or without BPO²⁶⁻²⁹; this provides further circumstantial evidence that *C.* 114 acnes may contribute to the development of PMH. In particular, treatment of PMH with a 115 116 combination of oral lymecycline (300 mg/d) and topical 5% BPO was very successful leading to repigmentation and maintenance during a 6-to-12 month follow-up period^{28,29}. Attempts 117 to treat PMH using oral isotretinoin have also been described in the literature, but the results 118 obtained have been variable³⁰⁻³¹. 119

120 4. The hunt for a novel *Cutibacterium* species associated with PMH

A conundrum in the proposal that *C. acnes* is the cause of PMH has been why the disorder, unlike acne, rarely affects the face where levels of the bacterium are at their highest, and why acne does not predispose individuals to PMH development. This led Relyveld et al.³² to propose that the organism potentially causing PMH may not actually be *C. acnes*, but a closely related *Cutibacterium* species indistinguishable by conventional phenotypic/ biochemical methods.

127 4.1 Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism and 16SrRNA gene analysis

Genetic analysis of skin biopsy-associated bacterial isolates collected from patients with PMH and patients with acne by Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP) typing identified three major genetic clusters that differed in their distribution between the two conditions (p<0.01; Freeman-Halton extension of Fisher's extact test) (Table 2)³². Of note was the observation that isolates from DNA group 3, in contrast to the other DNA groups, were only associated with PMH, but never acne (Fishers exact test; p<0.01), and analysis of

134 multiple bacterial colonies isolated from acne and PMH samples did not demonstrate the 135 presence of mixed AFLP types. 16S rRNA gene sequencing revealed very high sequence identities between all clusters, with only a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) at position 136 827 separating DNA groups I and II³², which is a characteristic difference between the well 137 138 described C. acnes type I (C. acnes subsp. acnes) and type II (C. acnes subsp. defendens) phylotypes³³, while group 3 isolates differed from group 1 due to a SNP at position 1243 139 140 (G1243A). While biochemical analysis with the rapid ID 32A multi-test identification system 141 confirmed DNA groups 1 and 2 as C. acnes (99.9% certainty), isolates from DNA group 3 gave ambiguous results and could not be identified phenotypically despite the molecular results 142 143 indicating a unique C. acnes cluster; 16S rRNA identity is not, however, always a guarantee of 144 species identity, especially in the case of a recently diverged and very closely related sister taxon³⁴. This led to the proposal that organisms from DNA group 3 may represent a novel and 145 146 very closely related bacterium from the genus Cutibacterium³².

147 4.2 PCR phylotyping and single- and multi-locus sequence type analysis

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At the time of the original AFLP study of Relyveld et al.³², knowledge on the intraspecies diversity of *C. acnes* was only developing, as were the molecular methods for more detailed population genetic analysis of the bacterium. Today, our appreciation of *C. acnes* at the interspecies level is much more complete (Table 3), and specific molecular typing tools for the bacterium, particularly multiplex-PCR phylotyping, high-resolution single and multilocus sequence typing (HR-SLST and MLST, respectively) and ribotyping³⁵⁻³⁹, have also been established enabling researchers to deeper explore the association of specific lineages with skin health and disease.

Against this new landscape of understanding, and utilising the improved typing methods now available, Barnard et al.⁴⁰ conducted a population genetic analysis of *C. acnes* isolates

recovered from the lesional skin of patients with PMH. They demonstrated a strong statistical association between strains from the more recently described type III phylogenetic lineage (now known as *C. acnes* subsp. *elongatum*^{41,42}) and lesions, but not those representing other phylogenetic groups, including those associated with acne (type IA₁). Strikingly, *in silico* 16S rDNA SNP analysis revealed that the isolates from AFLP DNA group 3 (G1243A) previously described in association with PMH were also consistent with the type III lineage (Fig. 2). Furthermore, analysis of the biochemical phenotype of three representative type III strains from PMH lesions using the Rapid ID 32A multi-tests identification system failed to correctly identify the isolates as *C. acnes*, consistent with the previous results obtained for AFLP DNA group 3 strains³².

A subsequent study by Peterson et al.²⁹ based on HR-SLST metagenomic analysis of skin surface swabs taken from 24 PMH back lesions and adjacent non-lesional skin regions of eight female patients, confirmed the association of type III strains with PMH. Interestingly, treatment of patients using a combination of lymecycline (300 mg/d) and 5% BPO led to a reduced proportion of type III within patients' samples, and a parallel reduction or disappearance of their PMH lesions. In patients whose type III population was almost totally eliminated there was almost no lesions remaining and the type distribution after treatment generally reverted to that of controls (Fig. 1). Investigation of eight healthy female volunteers also found that type III strains were more common on the back, especially the lower back, but normally not present on the forehead or buccal mucosa; one patient was, however, found to have a significant proportion of type III strains on their forehead despite, presumably, no PMH lesions at this site (presence or absence of facial PMH was not definitely stated for this patient). Unlike previous studies, a relatively high proportion of type III isolates was also found on non-lesional skin, but this may have reflected issues around clear differentiation

182 between lesional and non-lesional sites using skin swab sampling as opposed to skin biopsy.

5. Challenges to the proposal that *C. acnes* is involved in the aetiology of PMH

184 5.1 PMH in the apparent absence of lesional *C. acnes*

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Despite independent studies highlighting a strong association of C. acnes with PMH, a number of cases where C. acnes appears absent in lesional skin, as judged by Wood's lamp examination, histological staining and, in some cases, microbiological culture from skin swabs or biopsies have been reported^{6,8,43-44}. It is important, however, to note that a negative Wood's lamp result does not confirm that C. acnes is absent, only that levels are below the density detection limit (~10³ organisms)⁴⁵. Furthermore, a recent investigation found that type II and III strains produce very low levels of porphyrin compared with type I organisms, and that cultures of type II and III strains on solid media do not fluoresce upon Wood's lamp illumination⁴⁶. This indicates that lesions dominantly or solely colonised with type III strains may not have detectable follicular fluorescence. It also highlights that PMH lesions normally appear to have a mixed phylotype composition containing at least fluorescent type I strains, as well as type III in the majority of instances. The absence of mixed types and the detection of mostly type III strains based on previously described culture-based studies of lesional skin biopsies may, therefore, reflect the differential growth of dominant clones of this subspecies present in high numbers.

200 5.2 Rare occurrence of PMH on the face where *C. acnes* type III are normally absent.

A lack of facial involvement in PMH, despite high concentrations of C. acnes at this site, has been one of the biggest challenges to the view the bacterium has a role in the development of this condition. The observation of an association between C. acnes type III strains and PMH does, however, help to explain, at least in part, this intriguing clinical feature 205 of the disease since type III strains normally appear to be absent or found in very low

abundance on the face of most individuals³⁸. While a recent study reporting four adult cases with apparent facial PMH, in addition to trunk, arm and leg lesions, appears inconsistent with this view, no microbiological analysis was described for these patients⁴⁷. As a result, 208 conclusions regarding the potential role of the bacterium in these specific facial cases of PMH 210 cannot be completely dismissed. It was interesting to note that the patients were much older (40-65 years) than normally seen and it is currently unclear how the distribution of *C. acnes* phylogroups and specific strain types on the skin may modify as we age; we can speculate 213 that in some older individuals type III strains may become more abundant on the face due to age-related changes in cutaneous physiology that influence bacterial diversity. The previous 215 observation of a PMH patient with significant levels of type III on their forehead does highlight that, while uncommon, the bacterium can indeed be present on the face of some individuals²⁹ (section 4.2). However, the presumed presence of only truncal lesions on this patient does complicate the view that a lack of facial PMH is solely down to the absence of type III organisms at this skin site. Other factors, including the nature of the strain type(s) present, their abundance and interaction with other microbiota, may well be important factors, alongside host response and other variables.

5.3 Antibacterial therapy versus phototherapy

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A number of studies have challenged the original findings of Relyeld et al.²⁵ in regards to the effectiveness of antimicrobial treatment and phototherapy versus phototherapy alone. In particular, Sim et al.²¹ and Selim et al.⁶ did not find any significant difference in repigmentation of PMH lesions using daily topical 5% BPO and 1% clindamycin antimicrobial treatments with NB-UVB versus NB-UVB monotherapy. Furthermore, in many cases recurrence of the condition occurred, although some patients retained a degree of clinical improvement. While such observations question the pathogenic role for C. acnes in PMH, a key difference between these studies and that of Relyeld et al.²⁵ relates to the use of NB-UVB rather than UVA plus psoralen (PUVA). NB-UVB has been shown, in vitro, to have antibacterial effects on cutibacteria which is not observed with UVA, potentially explaining the contradictory results^{48,49}. It is interesting to note, however, that in the study of Selim et al.⁶ only two PMH patients had hypopigmented lesions that demonstrated fluorescence under a Wood's lamp indicating absent or low levels of C. acnes, or colonization with low porphyrinproducing strains, while data from Sim et al.²¹ in relation to Wood's lamp analysis was not described. In contrast, Hassan et al.⁹ found that topical (2% erythromycin lotion) and systemic (100 mg doxycycline b.i.d) antimicrobial treatments alongside NB-UVB for 3 months did give superior results compared to NB-UVB alone, and with no relapse in a 6 month follow up period.

6. Future research. 241

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Additional studies are clearly needed to further dissect the underlying biological mechanisms driving the development of PMH. To date, our understanding of the underlying biology of type III strains and their interaction with other microbiota, alongside their niche requirements and capacity to cause disease, remains unclear, but an inflammatory phenotype has been observed, as well as the presence and absence of unique genomic elements when compared to other phylotypes^{40,50}. It will be important to determine whether *C. acnes*, and particularly type III strains, have the capacity to interfere with melanogenesis via a depigmenting factor(s) or stimulation of a specific host response; initially, this could be achieved using appropriate in vitro cell culture models to study host-interacting properties. It is also interesting that some patients confuse PMH with leprosy, a chronic granulomatous disease caused by another intracellular bacterium, Mycobacterium leprae¹. In particular, the 253 tuberculoid from of the disease is characterised by a very small number of scaly, well defined

hypopigmented macules of varying symmetry on the skin, although poorly defined macules with mild hypopigmentation and erythema are also present in lepromatous forms⁵¹. Previous work has suggested this reflects marked reductions in the number of normal melanocytes in the lesions and the presence of atrophic melanocytes with reduced activity, while other studies suggest it may reflect defective transfer of melanosomes from melanocytes to keratinocytes^{52,53}. In the tuberculoid form of the condition, acid-fast bacilli are rarely found, which may be a relevant observation when considering PMH lesions in the apparent absence of C. acnes (see section 5.1). While hypomelanosis disorders can also be caused by other types of microorganisms, such as fungi and yeasts, hypopigmentation in leprosy appears more noteworthy in the context of PMH given that mycobacteria and cutibacteria are distantly related actinomycetes, and have also been linked to another granulomatous disease, sarcoidosis⁵⁴. While highly speculative, it may be that the hypopigmentation observed in both conditions is driven by some shared or similar characteristic of these bacteria (secretory or host-response). Previous studies on leprosy pathogenesis may, therefore, have informative aspects for researchers interested in future PMH studies, despite the many obvious differences between the two diseases.

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The observation of PMH in twins, along with our current understanding of the epidemiology of the condition, also hints at a multifactorial inheritance aetiology driven by both genetics and environmental factors that may include specific strains of *C. acnes* and hormonal influences given its apparent increased rate in females and description of an acceleration of hypopigmentation in one patient after pregnancy⁸. The penetrance of PMH is, therefore, likely to be an interplay of these different influences, and further studies of genetic factors that may influence development of the disease and its clinical course should also be an important area of focus. We also need to better understand the pathophysiology of those

278 rare cases where PMH involves the face, as well as any differences that occur in the 279 development of the condition in the presence and apparent absence of lesional *C. acnes*.

280 7. Conclusion

281 While a number of independent studies have found a strong association between C. acnes 282 type III and PMH, a definite causal role is still to be determined. Nevertheless, the 283 demonstration that type III strains are associated with the condition does help to explain, at 284 least partly, the observations that PMH does not normally affect the face, nor is linked to the 285 development of acne. Although reports of PMH in the apparent absence of C. acnes do 286 complicate our understanding of the bacterium's role in the disease, further studies are required to definitely confirm this. It may be that *C. acnes* is only one of a number of different 287 288 factors that can influence the development of PMH or that, in some instances, the bacterium initiates a biological response that leads to hypopigmentation, even after it becomes no 289 290 longer detectable within lesions.

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Table 1. Key studies demonstrating an association between *C. acnes* and PMH based on culture analysis of lesional and adjacent non-lesional skin biopsies.

			Lesional skin		Non-lesional skin		
Study	$M:F^{a}$	Biopsy	+	-	+	-	p-value ^b
Westerhof et al.	0:8	2 mm	7	1	1	7	0.04
Cavalcanti et al.	9:27	4 mm	33	2	4	31	<0.001
Total	9:35	-	40	3	5	38	<0.0001

^aMale:Female ratio

^bStatistical analysis was performed using McNemars test.

Table 2. Association of *C. acnes* AFLP genetic groups with acne and PMH

Disorder	DNA group 1	DNA group 2	DNA group 3	Total
Acne	9	2	0	11
PMH	6	0	8	14
Total ^b	15	2	8	25

 $^{^{\}it a}{\rm Data}$ taken from the study of Relyveld et al. $^{\it 32}$

^bp<0.01 (Freeman-Halton extension of Fisher's extact test) for differences between acne and PMH in regards to DNA group distribution.

Table 3. Association of *C. acnes* phylotype and subspecies status with AFLP and other typing methods.

Phylotype	Subspecies	AFLP typing group ^a	<i>recA</i> typing phylotype	MLST ₈ CC ^b	Ribotypes ^c
IA ₁	acnes	1	IA ₁ /IB ^d	CC1; CC3; CC4	RT1; RT5; RT532
IA ₂	acnes	1	IB	CC2	RT3; RT16
IB	acnes	1	IB	CC5	RT1
IC	acnes	1	IC	CC107	RT5
II	defendens	2	II	CC6; CC30; CC71, CC72	RT2; RT6
Ш	elongatum	3	III	CC77	RT9

^aAFLP group from the study of Relyveld et al.³²

^bCC= clonal complex (https://pubmlst.org/cacnes/)

^cRibotypes based on the study of Fitz-Gibbon et al.³⁸

 $^{^{}d}$ IA₁ = CC1 and CC3; IB = CC4.

470	FIGURE	LEGENDS:

Figure 1. Clinical responses of PMH lesions to antimicrobial treatment. Lesional skin on the back of two patients before (a and c) and after (b and d) daily treatment with lymecycline (300 mg/d) and BPO washes for 3 months. Figure and modified legend are from Petersen et al²⁹.

Figure 2. Alignment of the 16S rDNA sequence from strain ATCC6919 (type IA₁), KPA171202 (type IB) and NCTC10390 (type II) versus type III isolates. The 16S rDNA G>A SNP described by Relyveld et al.³² as a genetic marker of AFLP DNA group 3 strains is highlighted. This SNP was present in eight of the 10 type III isolates analysed, but absent in type strains from the other major *C. acnes* lineages. Figure and modified legend are from Barnard et al.⁴⁰