



Original Article

In depth search of the Sequence Read Archive database reveals global distribution of the emerging pathogenic fungus *Scedosporium aurantiacum*

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Received 1 October 2021; Revised 30 January 2022; Accepted 1 March 2022; Editorial Decision 31 January 2022

Abstract

Scedosporium species are emerging opportunistic fungal pathogens causing various infections mainly in immunocompromised patients, but also in immunocompetent individuals, following traumatic injuries. Clinical manifestations range from local infections, such as subcutaneous mycetoma or bone and joint infections, to pulmonary colonization and severe disseminated diseases. They are commonly found in soil and other environmental sources. To date *S. aurantiacum* has been reported only from a handful of countries. To identify the worldwide distribution of this species we screened publicly available sequencing data from fungal metabarcoding studies in the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of The National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) by multiple BLAST searches. *S. aurantiacum* was found in 26 countries and two islands, throughout every climatic region. This distribution is like that of other *Scedosporium* species. Several new environmental sources of *S. aurantiacum* including human and bovine milk, chicken and canine gut, freshwater, and feces of the giant white-tailed rat (*Uromys caudimaculatus*) were identified. This study demonstrated that raw sequence data stored in the SRA database can be repurposed using a big data analysis approach to answer biological questions of interest.

Lay summary

To understand the distribution and natural habitat of *S. aurantiacum*, species-specific DNA sequences were searched in the SRA database. Our large-scale data analysis illustrates that *S. aurantiacum* is more widely distributed than previously thought and new environmental sources were identified.

Key words: Scedosporium aurantiacum, DNA metabarcoding, SRA database, environment, ITS sequence.

Introduction

Scedosporium is a genus of fungi in the *Microascaceae* family of the *Ascomycota* and compromises saprotrophic mold species, mainly living on decaying organic matter and are found in soil, sewage, and contaminated water.^{1,2} The genus currently includes ten species (*S. aurantiacum*, *S. minutisporum*, *S. desertorum*,

S. cereisporum, S. dehoogii, S. angustum, S. apiospermum, S. boydii, S. ellipsoideum, and S. fusarium). Five of them have been found to be clinically relevant: Scedosporium apiospermum, S. boydii, S. aurantiacum, S. dehoogii and S. minutisporum.³ Scedosporium species can cause localized and severe disseminated infections depending on the immune status of the host.⁴ They

© The Author(s) 2022. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of The International Society for Human and Animal Mycology. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons. org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. are responsible for 25% of non-*Aspergillus* mold infections in organ transplant recipients in the USA and are associated with the occurrence of major trauma.^{5–7} They have also been reported from patients with pulmonary conditions, such as cystic fibrosis, but their significance in these conditions is uncertain.^{8–10} Among them, *S. boydii* and *S. apiospermum* are the most frequently isolated species, but in some regions *S. aurantiacum* is more common.¹¹

S. aurantiacum is an opportunistic pathogen capable of causing a wide variety of localized and superficial infections, such as malignant otitis externa, osteomyelitis, invasive sinusitis, keratitis, and pneumonia.^{7,12} S. aurantiacum, separated from other Scedosporium species by molecular markers, such as β -tubulin, calmodulin, and the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region, was first proposed as a new species in 2005.¹³ Several studies have been undertaken to describe the ecology and environmental distribution of different Scedosporium species mainly in Europe, such as in France,¹⁴ Austria, and The Netherlands,¹ as well as in Australia,¹¹ Thailand,^{15,16} Mexico¹⁷ and Morocco.¹⁸

The distribution of the Scedosporium spp. indicated geographical differences,^{1,14} with S. aurantiacum to be mainly abundant in Australia¹¹ and in agricultural areas in the west of France,¹⁴ with additional reports from The Netherlands, Morocco, Thailand and Mexico.^{1,15-18} In Australia, more than 50% of all environmental Scedosporium isolates were S. aurantiacum, which coincides with the relative high prevalence of scedosporiosis and their presence as colonizers in CF patients in Australia.^{12,19} In total, clinical isolates of S. aurantiacum have been reported from ten countries, including Australia, Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, South Korea, Spain, and United States of America. In comparison, environmental isolates of S. aurantiacum have been reported from 14 countries: Australia, Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Mexico, Morocco, Nepal, Netherlands, Russia, Spain, Thailand, and UK, where it was mainly reported from soil, compost and sewage water.1,11,14-18,20-23

To expand the knowledge of the environmental distribution of microorganisms, metabarcoding has become the main tool used to characterize complex microbial and other communities from microbial ecology studies to infectious disease surveillance.^{24–26} DNA metabarcoding is the simultaneous identification of a large set of taxa present in a single complex sample.²⁷ The approach combines the concept of DNA barcod ing^{28} with the application of next generation sequencing (NGS). It uses short DNA sequences (barcodes) to standardize the identification of organisms from all kingdoms down to species level by comparison to a reference sequence collection of well identified species.^{28,29} Developments in NGS sequencing has made it possible to generate and analyze millions of targeted amplicons (barcodes) amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from thousands of mixed DNA templates within the same sample simultaneously to determine the species composition of the

sample.²⁹ Metabarcoding is currently the standard tool and the most efficient method for culture-independent assessment of microbiomes.³⁰

In fungi, the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region was established as the primary fungal DNA barcode in 2012.³¹ This is due to its multicopy nature and its easy amplification with universal primers that are compatible with most fungal species.^{31,32} It has been extensively used in both molecular systematics and ecological studies in fungi over three decades.^{2,33,34} The ITS region consists of the ITS1 and ITS2 regions separated by the 5.8S gene and is located between the 18S (SSU) and 28S (LSU) genes in the nrDNA repeat unit.³³ With traditional Sanger sequencing the entire ITS region, which ranges between 280 and 800 bp, has been targeted for molecular identification purposes.³⁵ However, in metabarcoding studies, either the ITS1 or ITS2 region has been amplified and sequenced by NGS technologies, due to the fact that the entire ITS region is too long for commonly used sequencing platforms, such as Illumina, Ion Torrent or the phased out 454 sequencing from Roche.^{2,36}

As molecular identification of various microbial samples has become an essential part of different studies worldwide it has provided new insights into the diversity and ecology of many different fungal communities (mycobiome).^{37,38} As a result, large amounts of partial ITS sequences have been generated by NGS and deposited in public sequence databases, such as the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of the National Institutes of Health (NIH), which is the primary international public archive of highthroughput sequencing data established under the guidance of the International Nucleotide Sequence Database Collaboration (INSDC).³⁹ SRA stores raw sequence data from different NGS technologies, including Roche 454, Illumina, Ion Torrent, Pacific Biosciences and Oxford Nanopore Technologies. SRA has the largest, most diverse collection of NGS data from human, nonhuman and microbial sources.

The current study screened the publicly available metabarcoding data of NIH's SRA database containing fungal sequence data to identify the geographical distribution, and potential ecological sources and reservoirs of the emerging human pathogenic fungus *S. aurantiacum*, serving as pilot study to highlight the potential of repurposing of publicly available raw sequence datasets to answer major biological and public heath questions.

Methods

All data used in this study are publicly available in the SRA database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra). In this study, a subset of SRA datasets containing the ITS1 or ITS2 sequences from fungal metabarcoding studies were identified (192 117) as of June 2020 by using the following keywords: 'fungi', 'fungal diversity' and 'ITS region' on the web interface of SRA database. The query outputs were combined, and duplicate datasets were removed based on their unique identification number.

The SRA toolkit version $2.10.7^{40}$ and the basic local alignment search tool (BLAST) implemented in the toolkit⁴¹ were used to screen and identify the datasets containing *S. aurantiacum* ITS sequences. The query sequence contained the full ITS region (ITS1 + 5.8S + ITS2) and partial SSU and LSU sequences (totalling 661 bp), which was extracted from the contig of the whole-genome assembly of the *S. aurantiacum* strain WM 09.24 (GenBank Accession number: JUDQ01000713.1). The herein used similarity identity threshold for the BLAST analysis was 99% and the E-value was set to less than 1E-80 to minimize the false positive hits. The identified sequence data from positive matches containing either the ITS1 or ITS2 region of *S. aurantiacum* were then manually checked.

All the metadata associated and available for the *S. aurantiacum* positive SRA datasets (Supplementary Table 1), including information about their geographical locations and isolation sources, were downloaded from the SRA database. In some cases, the metadata was incomplete in the SRA database, which prompted screening the relevant publications associated with the SRA data to extract the metadata.

The following databases PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar as of 31 of July 2020 were screened to obtain published data about the occurrence and ecological distribution of *S. aurantiacum* in clinical and environment samples using the keyword *S. aurantiacum*. In addition, the Nucleotide database of NCBI, Westmead Mycology Culture Collection and the Culture collection of fungi and yeasts of Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute was screened for additional clinical and environmental isolates of *S. aurantiacum*.

Individual geographical locations obtained from the *S. aurantiacum* positive SRA datasets, together with the published unique locations of clinical and environmental occurrence of *S. aurantiacum* were plotted on the world map using the QGIS, geographic information system (version 3.10.9-A Coruña with Grass 7.8.3).⁴²

Results

The described database search identified 1706 SRA sequence data sets that contained either the ITS1 or ITS2 region of *S. aurantiacum* (Supplementary Table 1). After assessing the associated metadata together with the published unique locations of clinical and environmental occurrence of *S. aurantiacum* (Table 1) they were plotted on the world map using the QGIS software (Figure 1). The obtained results from screening the SRA database indicate that *S. aurantiacum* has a wide geographic distribution (Figure 1). All in all, *S. aurantiacum* was identified in 26 countries and two islands (Reunion and Christmas Island) (Table 1). Among them, *S. aurantiacum* has not been reported before in: Afghanistan, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Christmas Island, Costa Rica, Czech Republic, El Salvador, Finland, Israel, New Zealand, Philippines, Portugal, Reunion, Singapore,

Table 1. Geographical distribution of *Scedosporium aurantiacum* based on metabarcoding datasets in the Sequence Read Archive database. Countries in bold indicates locations where *S. aurantiacum* has not been previously reported.

Location of SRA data with ITS1/ITS2 sequences of <i>S. aurantiacum</i>	Number of SRA datasets with ITS1/ITS2 sequences of <i>S. aurantiacum</i>
Afghanistan	1
Australia	135
Austria	9
Belgium	34
Brazil	21
Canada	79
China	965
Christmas Island	1
Costa Rica	1
Czech Republic	4
El Salvador	2
Finland	8
France	3
Germany	26
Israel	1
Italy	1
Japan	1
Netherlands	15
New Zealand	1
Philippines	1
Portugal	2
Reunion	2
Singapore	1
South Korea	22
Spain	6
Switzerland	14
United Kingdom	241
United States of America	109

Switzerland, and United Kingdom. The highest number of *S. aurantiacum* positive SRA data were from China (965), followed by the United Kingdom (241) and Australia (135).

The environmental sources of the *S. aurantiacum* positive SRA data included mainly various soils, sludge, and sediment samples (88% of the samples) (Table 2). The herein reported study also identified several new sources from which *S. aurantiacum* had not yet been reported, such as human and bovine milk, chicken and canine gut, freshwater, and feces of the giant white-tailed rat (*Uromys caudimaculatus*) (Table 2).

Discussion

So far, *S. aurantiacum* has been reported from only a few countries, with limited studies being done to assess its global distribution. Environmental isolates of *S. aurantiacum* have only been reported previously from Australia,¹¹ France,^{3,14} The Netherlands,¹ Morocco,¹⁸ Thailand^{15,16} and Mexico.¹⁷ Clinical reports of *S. aurantiacum* have previously not demonstrated



Figure 1. Geographical distribution of *Scedosporium aurantiacum*. Countries in yellow indicate the location of previously published clinical isolates. Green dots represent the location of environmental isolates previously reported. Red dots represent the location of SRA datasets identified in the current study containing either the ITS1 or ITS2 sequences of *S. aurantiacum*.

Table 2. Environmental sources of *Scedosporium aurantiacum* based on metabarcoding datasets in the Sequence Read Archive database. Source of sequence in bold indicates locations where *S. aurantiacum* has not been previously reported.

Origin of SRA data with ITS1/ITS2 sequences of <i>S. aurantiacum</i>	Number of SRA datasets with ITS1/ITS2 sequences of <i>S. aurantiacum</i>
Air samples	3
Anaerobic reactor	1
Bovine milk	2
Canine gut	2
Chicken gut	5
Compost	11
Dust	2
Early phase of fermentation	1
Feces of giant white-tailed rat	1
Freshwater	3
Human lung	3
Human milk	3
Mangrove	4
Rhizosphere	125
Rumen	30
Sediment	17
Sewage sludge	61
Soil	1405
Spent growing medium	18
Straw residue	1
Tree hollow	7
Wood	1

any association with environmental isolates of the same species. Till now both clinical and environmental isolates have been reported only from Australia,^{11,12} Austria,¹ France,^{3,14} and The Netherlands.^{1,43} Clinical cases of S. aurantiacum have been reported from Japan,⁴⁴ South Korea,⁴⁵ and Spain,⁴⁶ while environmental isolates have been reported from Italy,²⁰ Mexico,¹⁷ Morocco¹⁸ and Thailand.^{15,16} The present study searched the publicly available raw sequence data of the NCBI SRA database to assess the geographical distribution and environmental niches and reservoirs of the emerging fungal pathogen S. aurantiacum. It identified the occurrence of S. aurantiacum in 16 additional countries and two islands from where it had not been reported previously (Table 1). The highest number of locations was found in datasets from China, the United Kingdom and Australia (Table 1). However, it is important to note that this high numbers are very likely due to extensive number of metabarcoding studies carried out in these countries. As metabarcoding studies are still relatively expensive (~\$100 US per sample) they are still infeasible in many countries.

The obtained results suggest that *S. aurantiacum* has a wide distribution rather than being limited to certain countries. One of the reasons *S. aurantiacum* has not been reported more often could be possible misidentification since this species cannot be morphologically distinguished from the closely related species *S. apiospermum*, as it was only recently described on the basis of sequence analysis of a number of genetic loci.¹³ As such, it can be assumed that many routine clinical laboratories, in which molecular identification methods are not available or too

expensive, will misidentify this species. Another reason could be that many countries have not reported *S. aurantiacum* infections in scientific papers despite correctly identifying them. For example, a recent study about the identification and susceptibility of clinically relevant *Scedosporium* spp. in China has not reported any *S. aurantiacum* isolates,⁴⁷ which is in sharp contrast with the herein obtained metabarcoding based findings.

The screening of the SRA database also showed that the distribution of *S. aurantiacum* does not show any clear relationship with climate conditions, as the obtained results show that *S. aurantiacum* specific sequences have been found in metabarcoding datasets obtained in samples from temperate, arid, and tropical zones, as well as in the Mediterranean and tundra regions.

The environmental sources of *S. aurantiacum* as identified in the current study remain predominantly various soils, sewage and sediments as has been reported previously.^{1,3,16–18} The current study also identified additional sources, such as human and bovine milk, chicken and canine gut, freshwater, and feces of the giant white-tailed rat (*Uromys caudimaculatus*).

Having shown that S. aurantiacum has a wide distribution it is important to see the current study in the light of its biases and limits. To discuss these biases in detail is out of the scope of this paper. However, a non-exhaustive list includes statistical sampling error, sequencing error, and the BLAST algorithm itself.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ From the technological side of metabarcoding, there are many well documented technical artifacts, including DNA extraction and amplification as well as PCR biases, which can result in the non-detection of certain species even if they are present in the samples.⁵¹⁻⁵⁶ Another potential source of bias and error are the bioinformatic tools used, e.g., the BLAST algorithm and the SRA database search function. Despite being the most widely used alignment based sequence similarity search algorithm⁵⁷ it comes with major disadvantages, being generally memory and time consuming, limiting its use for large-scale sequence data. The selection of relevant subset data from the complete SRA database (\sim 18 petabytes) is not without any challenge. Although, many scientific journals require submitting raw sequence data to the SRA database prior publication, there are few standards about how much associated metadata should be submitted together with the raw sequence data. In a number of cases, this practice resulted in insufficient or incomplete metadata sets associated with the raw sequence data, which makes the subsequent filtering process challenging and incomplete. Sometimes, there is not even any information submitted whether the dataset contains fungal ITS sequence or not. In other cases, the metadata is only available in the publication but not in the SRA database.

Overall, the current study identified 192 117 publicly available datasets containing either ITS1 or ITS2 sequences. With a rough estimation of about \$100 US sequencing cost per sample, the herein presented study screened \sim \$19.21 million US worth of sequence data from many countries to assess the global ecological distribution of an emerging opportunistic fungal pathogens. This study about the emerging human pathogen, *S. aurantiacum* massively expanded our knowledge of its natural reservoir as the potential for being the source of human infection. The herein described wider environmental presence if this human pathogen alerts public health authorities to pay attention to these potential infection sources, when accessing the risk for vulnerable individuals. It highlights the potential application of the SRA database to search for the geographical and environmental distribution of fungal species or in fact any microorganism to answer questions about disease reservoirs, potentially enabling the prediction of outbreaks and to increase the preparedness of public health authorities. It should be viewed as a pilot study using the vast hidden treasure of the SRA database to answer certain biological questions.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at MMYCOL online.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge the University of Sydney HPC service at The University of Sydney for providing (HPC, visualisation, database) resources that have contributed to the research results reported within this paper. The authors wish to thank the support staff at the U.S. National Library of Medicine (NLM) for their assistance with the Sequence Read Archive. The authors thank the submitters of original data for their submission of raw sequence data to the public SRA database which allowed the data repurposing carried out in this study.

Funding

This study was supported by a National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) grant (#APP1121936) from Australia to W.M.

Author contributions

L.I. and W.M. conceived the concept. L.I. and M.R. carried out the analysis. L.I., and W.M. analyzed and interpreted the data. L.I., M.R., and W.M. wrote the manuscript. All authors approved the submitted version for publication.

Declaration of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the contents and writing of the paper.

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