Comparative analysis of Malassezia furfur mitogenomes and the development of a mitochondria-based typing approach

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One sentence summary: A total of 20 M. furfur mt genomes show a highly conserved gene order but vary in intron abundance and intergenic regions, revealing promising multicopy target regions for typing.

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Malassezia furfur is a yeast species belonging to Malasseziomycetes, Ustilaginomycotina and Basidiomycota that is found on healthy warm-blooded animal skin, but also involved in various skin disorders like seborrheic dermatitis/dandruff and pityriasis versicolor. Moreover, Malassezia are associated with bloodstream infections, Crohn’s disease and pancreatic carcinoma. Recent advances in Malassezia genomics and genetics have focused on the nuclear genome. In this work, we present the M. furfur mitochondrial (mt) genetic heterogenicity with full analysis of 14 novel and six available M. furfur mt genomes. The mitogenome analysis reveals a mt gene content typical for fungi, including identification of variable mt regions suitable for intra-species discrimination. Three of them, namely the trnK–atp6 and cox3–nad3 intergenic regions and intron 2 of the cob gene, were selected for primer design to identify strain differences. Malassezia furfur strains belonging to known genetic variable clusters, based on AFLP and nuclear loci, were assessed for their mt variation using PCR amplification and sequencing. The results suggest that these mt regions are excellent molecular markers for the typing of...
M. furfur strains and may provide added value to nuclear regions when assessing evolutionary relationships at the intraspecies level.

Keywords: Malassezia furfur; mitochondrial genome; typing; phylogeny

INTRODUCTION

The basidiomycetous yeast genus Malassezia is the most dominant fungal component of the human skin microbiome (Findley et al. 2020). Their presence on human skin is usually of a commensal nature, but may also cause skin diseases including seborrhoeic dermatitis (SD)/dandruff, pityriasis versicolor (PV), atopic dermatitis and Malassezia folliculitis (Theelen et al. 2018; Saunte, Gaitanis and Hay 2020). Recently, Malassezia has attracted increased attention as new insights point towards a more invasive role in other parts of the human body and the genus has been linked to other pathologies, such as Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD) and pancreatic cancer (Aykut et al. 2019; Limon et al. 2019; Spatz and Richard 2020). Although Malassezia’s involvement in bloodstream infections (BSIs) of immunocompromised individuals is not a new finding (Brooks and Brown 1987; Kaneko et al. 2012) it is of emerging concern, especially for neonates (Iatta et al. 2014; Theelen et al. 2018). The use of fluconazole as a prophylactic in clinical applications may be a factor contributing to the increased incidence of Malassezia BSIs. One major feature of Malassezia yeasts is the requirement of lipids for growth, as most of their gene repertoire for carbohydrate metabolism has been lost. As the standard culture media in most clinics do not include lipid supplementation, the role of Malassezia in BSIs is likely underestimated (Rhimi et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2020; Theelen et al. 2018).

Malassezia species are not only commensals and pathogens to humans, but also inhabit all warm-blooded animals, with some species found exclusively on animals (Theelen et al. 2018; Guillot and Bond 2020). For instance, the most recently described Malassezia species, Malassezia vespertilionis, was isolated from a bat, illustrating the diverse host-backgrounds of these yeasts (Lorch et al. 2018). Based on culture-independent sequencing data, Malassezia was found to be present even in diverse habitats such as terrestrial and marine ecosystems including deep-sea sediments, soils, corals, sponges, nematodes and cone snails (Amend 2014; Theelen et al. 2018).

Within the genus Malassezia, Malassezia furfur is found on both human and animal skin and has been implicated in various skin diseases, such as SD and PV (Guého et al. 1998; Batra et al. 2005; Theelen et al. 2018; Saunte, Gaitanis and Hay 2020), and is the most frequently observed causative species (Rhimi et al. 2020) in Malassezia BSI. Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) analyses indicated that the species is genetically heterogeneous and implies the presence of multiple physiologically diverse strains. Previous studies showed 4-6 genetically diverse clusters which may be linked to their hosts (Theelen et al. 2001; Gupta et al. 2004), where isolates from deep seated infections primarily belonged to one AFLP-genotype (Theelen et al. 2001; Gupta et al. 2004).

Although, thus far nuclear-based molecular markers have been employed for isolate identification and typing (Sugita et al. 2003, 2005; Gaitanis, Robert and Velegraki 2006; Honnavar et al. 2020), the use of mitochondrial (mt) markers may provide a valuable alternative approach. Mitochondria are semi-autonomous organelles that originated from an alpha-proteobacterium as a result of an endosymbiotic event, and they have their own mt genome (Archibald 2015) present in multiple copies per cell. Fungal mt genomes typically contain 14 conserved protein coding genes associated with cellular respiration and ATP production (atp6, atp8, atp9, cob, cox1-3, nad1-6 and nad4L), two ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes (rns and rnl) and a variable number of transfer RNA genes (trns; Kouvelis, Ghikas and Typas 2004). Additionally, a variable gene encoding a ribosomal protein of the small ribosomal subunit (rps3) is commonly found in fungi (Korovesi, Ntertilis and Kouvelis 2018). The presence of introns which often contain open reading frames (ORFs) and diverse intergenic regions are mostly responsible for the size variability in mt genomes (De Chiara et al. 2020; Megarioti and Kouvelis 2020). Mt variable regions have been used for inter-species discrimination in the fungal kingdom including in Cryptococcus (Kortsinoglou et al. 2019) and Lecanicillium (Kouvelis, Sialakouma and Typas 2008). Moreover, they have been used for intra-species discrimination within Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Wolters, Chiu and Fiumera 2015) and Metarhizium anisopliae (Ghikas, Kouvelis and Typas 2006). An increasing number of studies have provided insight in M. furfur strain fingerprinting with an emphasis on nuclear genetic markers, due to the limited number of available mt genomes (Gupta et al. 2004; Gaitanis, Bassukas and Velegraki 2009; Zhang et al. 2010). Considering the previously observed genetic intra-species variation in M. furfur and proven value of mt target regions for assessing this in other taxa, various mt loci may prove useful for M. furfur strain typing based on mt genetic variation.

To define M. furfur mt genome variability we performed an analysis of 14 M. furfur mt genomes from a Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS) project (unpublished data), including their annotation. Additionally, all available M. furfur mt genomes were added (Wu et al. 2015) for a complete comparative mt genome analysis. Through this approach, the most variable mt regions suitable for intra-species discrimination were identified. Three of these domains were then used for primer design and amplification. A selected number of strains, representing known genetic variation based on AFLP and nuclear loci (Theelen et al. 2001; Gupta et al. 2004), were assessed for their variation in these mt variable regions, and evaluated for their usefulness for the typing of M. furfur strains of clinical and other origins.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Malassezia furfur strains

In this study, 20 M. furfur strains were used for the in silico mt genome analysis. In addition to the six M. furfur published mt genomes (Wu et al. 2015), 14 mt genomes were retrieved from unpublished WGS data (Table 1). A total of 23 other M. furfur strains were included in the analysis to assess the intraspecific variation (Table 1).

Culture and DNA extraction

Malassezia furfur cells were grown on modified Dixon agar (mDA; Guého, Boekhout and Begerow 2010) at 30 °C for 48 h. For Illumina sequencing purposes, cells were harvested in 50 mL tubes. DNA was extracted with the QIAGEN Genomic DNA Purification procedure for yeast samples (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), with some modifications. In detail, lyticase incubation was performed for 2 h at 30 °C, and RNase/Proteinase incubation followed for 2 h at 55 °C. Genomic DNA was then purified with
Table 1. Malassezia furfur strains used for the in silico mitogenomic comparative analysis and for in vitro experiments, their source and location. Accession numbers of *M. furfur* known and newly acquired, mt genomes (Wu et al. 2015; this study) and their mt genome sizes are also presented. Asterisk (*) denotes that these strains have been used only for the whole mt genome comparative analysis. NA: Non-Available, PV: pityriasis versicolor and SD: seborrheic dermatitis. A hashtag (#) indicates strains originating from deep-seated human body parts.

| Strain       | Source                                      | Country       | Mt genome accession number | Mt genome size (bp) | Current study |
|--------------|---------------------------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| CD864        | Chronic pruritic skin disease, poodle       | Brazil        | MW683316                   | 48 849              | In silico/PCR |
| MAL18        | Blood                                       | Italy         | MW683317                   | 48 977              | In silico/PCR |
| MAL24        | Arm skin                                    | Italy         | MW683318                   | 48 977              | In silico/PCR |
| MAL26        | Blood                                       | Italy         | MW683319                   | 48 958              | In silico/PCR |
| MAL32        | Urine                                       | Italy         | MW683320                   | 48 281              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS9374      | Chest, healthy human                         | Canada        | MW683314                   | 47 717              | In silico     |
| CBS9365      | Elephant in zoo                             | Italy         | MW683313                   | 48 188              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS4169      | Eye lid, man                                | Netherlands   | MW683308                   | 45 715              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS6000      | Dandruff, man                               | India         | MW683310                   | 49 317              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS6001      | PV, man                                     | India         | MW683311                   | 49 274              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS5534I     | Infected skin, man                           | Canada        | MW683309                   | 49 217              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS1878      | Dandruff, man, unknown                      |                 | KY911081.1                 | 48 161              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS4172      | Skin, eland                                 | NA            | KY911082.1                 | 48 279              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS7019      | PV, trunk, 15-year-old girl                 | Finland       | KY911083.1                 | 49 305              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS7710      | Skin, man                                   | Netherlands   | KY911084.1                 | 47 901              | In silico     |
| CBS5782      | Skin of ear, healthy man                    | France        | KY911085.1                 | 47 903              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS14141I    | Catheter, blood, human                      | France        | KY911086.1                 | 48 933              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS8735I     | Bronchial wash, man                         | Canada        | MW683312                   | 49 046              | In silico/PCR |
| PM315        | Anal swab, neonate                          | Germany       | MW683321                   | 49 213              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS14139I    | Urine                                       | France        | MW683315                   | 49 242              | In silico/PCR |
| CBS9370      | Back of healthy individual                  | Canada        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| PM312I       | Urine, neonate                              | Germany       | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS14140I    | Catheter, blood                             | France        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS7854      | Seborhoic scalp, man                        | Finland       | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS4162      | Ear, pig                                    | NA            | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS5101      | PV, skin scales, man                        | USA           | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS7969      | Back, Asian elephant                        | France        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS4171      | Ear, cow                                    | NA            | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS4170      | Ear, horse                                  | NA            | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS6046      | PV                                          | USA           | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS6093      | Oval-cell variant of CBS5534                | NA            | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS6094      | Normal skin of rump                         | USA           | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS7043      | 24-year-old, man                            | Belgium       | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS7981      | PV, skin, woman                             | France        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS8736      | PV lesion, trunk, woman                     | Canada        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS5332      | Infected skin, man                          | Canada        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS9369      | Scalp, man                                  | Canada        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS9585      | SD, submammary fold, man                    | Greece        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS7985      | Wing, Struthio camelus (ostrich)            | France        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS9574      | PV, back, man                               | Greece        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS9575      | SD, back, man                               | Greece        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS9589      | SD, nasolabial folds, man                   | Greece        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |
| CBS9595      | SD, back, man                               | Greece        | NA                         | NA                  | PCR           |

Genomic-tip 100/G prep columns according to the manufacturer's instructions. For PCR and sequencing of nuclear IGS and mt loci of all other *M. furfur* strains, DNA extraction was performed with the CTAB method as described by O’Donnell et al. (1997) with some modifications: two 10 μL loops of fresh yeast cells were suspended in 750 μL CTAB buffer and mechanically disrupted in a TissueLyser II (Qiagen®) at 3 0 Hz for 8 min. The mixture was heated for 1 h at 65 °C with vigorously agitation (vortex) halfway. After lysis, two purification steps were performed with phenol–chloroform and chloroform, respectively. Extracted DNA was dissolved in 100 μL TE and 10x diluted in MQ water, prior to PCR.

WGS

Illumina reads were generated using the TruSeq v3 PE Cluster Generation Kit and SBS kits, on the Illumina HiSeq2000 system (HCS v2.2.58, RTA v1.18.64) (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Paired end reads were trimmed with Trimmomatic v0.33 (Bolger, Lohse and Usadel 2014) and contigs were generated with SPAdes v3.13.0 (Bankevich et al. 2012), using standard settings. PacBio reads were generated on the PacBio RSII system. All acquired PacBio reads were further processed and initial contigs were created with the HGAP3 software pipeline of the PacBio SMRT portal, SMRT analysis v3.1 (PACBIO, Menlo Park, CA), with standard
settings. The obtained contigs were further processed using program SeqMan of Lasergene Suite 11 (DNASTAR Inc. Madison, WI; Burland 2000), using the publicly known mt genome of \textit{M. furfur} CBS 1878 KY911081.1 as a reference template to create mt contigs. These were further analysed as described below.

### Mt genome and gene order (synteny) analyses

The previously published mt genomes with GenBank accession numbers KY911081.1, KY911082.1, KY911083.1, KY911084.1, KY911085.1 and KY911086.1 were available in annotated versions. The additional 14 mt genomes were annotated in this study and deposited to GenBank (accession numbers: MW683308–MW683321). The mt genomes were retrieved manually by aligning all contigs from the WGS data against the above known mt genomes using tBLASTn/BLASTx/BLASTn (Altschul et al. 1990). The mt scaffolds were annotated as follows: the protein coding and the ribosomal (tRNA) genes were identified using BLASTx and BLASTn, respectively. The tRNA genes were detected using the web-based tRNAscan-SE platform (Chan and Yamada 2019). The mt circular map of strain CBS5334 was created using the Geneious Prime 2021 (Biomatters, Auckland, New Zealand). A comparative genome analysis was performed to locate the similarities and the differences in mt gene order (synteny) among the examined strains. The 20 mt \textit{M. furfur} genomes were aligned by multiple sequence alignment program MAFFT using the E-INS-i method (Kuraku et al. 2013; Katoh, Rozewicki and Yamada 2019), and the mito-\textit{M. furfur} matrix was produced.

### Primer design, PCR amplification and sequencing

Based on the mt comparative analysis of the \textit{M. furfur} strains (mito-\textit{M. furfur} matrix), three highly variable regions were identified, i.e. the \textit{trnK–atp6} intergenic region, the \textit{cox3–nad3} intergenic region and the second intron (region between exon2 and exon3) of \text{cob}, and further used for typing of all strains (Table 1).

Therefore, three primer sets were designed, using the program PrimerSelect of Lasergene Suite 11 (DNASTAR Inc. Madison, WI; Burland 2000), and the online bioinformatics software Primer 3 plus, using default settings (Untergasser et al. 2012; Table 2). Additionally, the nuclear ribosomal intergenic spacer (IGS) was added in the analysis using previously published primers as this region is also informative for the typing of \textit{M. furfur} (Sugita et al. 2002, 2003, 2005). The above mentioned mt regions and the IGS region were amplified for the 41 studied strains. PCR amplification reactions were performed with MyFi DNA polymerase (Bioline Meridian BIOSCIENCE, Cincinnati, OH) in a Sensoquest LabCycler according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The thermocycling protocol was 5 min at 95°C, 35 cycles of 15 s at 95°C, 20 s at 46°C and 20 s at 72°C for \textit{trnK–atp6} and \textit{cox3–nad3} PCR reactions. For the \text{cob} (exon2–exon3) intronic and IGS regions the same protocol was used, but with different annealing temperatures (50°C and 55°C, respectively).

All PCR amplicons were purified with magnetic beads in a MicroLab STAR liquid handling System (Hamilton, Reno, NV), and were sequenced in both directions using the BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) in a 3730xl DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, MA). The forward and reversed sequences were analyzed using SeqMan of the Lasergene Suite 11 software package (DNASTAR Inc. Madison, WI; Burland 2000), and similarity searches in the retrieved consensus sequence were performed with BLAST (Altschul et al. 1990). The sequences of all amplicons are deposited into GenBank. (Accession numbers for \textit{trnK–atp6} intergenic region: MZ494193–MZ494233; for \textit{cox3–nad3} intergenic region: MZ494234–MZ494274; for \text{cob} exon2–exon3 [\text{cobi2}] intronic region: MZ494275–MZ494315 and for IGS: MZ494316–MZ494356).

### Phylogenetic analyses

Nucleotide sequences of all amplified regions were collected to create matrices for phylogenetic trees. The sequences were aligned by Lasergene’s MegAlign v.11 program (Burland 2000) using the ClustalV method with default settings. When necessary, alignments were edited manually. Single region matrices (IGS and the three selected mt regions) and the concatenated dataset of mt regions were created for phylogenetic purposes. The phylogenetic tree constructions were performed using Neighbor Joining (NJ) and Bayesian Inference (BI) methods through PAUP4 (Wilgenbusch and Swofford 2003) and MrBayes (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003) software, respectively. For NJ analyses, reliability of nodes was evaluated using 10 000 bootstrap iterations for all concatenated and individual datasets. For BI analyses, the determination of the evolutionary model, which was best suitable for each dataset, was performed using the program jModelTest (ver. 2.0; Guindon and Gascuel 2003; Darriba et al. 2012). The Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) was applied, and the best nucleotide substitution model was found. In detail, HKY + G and TPM3uf + I + G were applied for the individual datasets and for the concatenated dataset, respectively. In all cases, four independent MCMC analyses were performed, using 5 million generations and sampling set adjustment for every 100 000 generations. The remaining parameters were set to default in all cases. Additionally, all mt coding genes for the 20 strains of \textit{M. furfur} with known complete mitogenomes were aligned as a single matrix, and NJ and BI methods were employed for the construction of the phylogenetic tree as described in Fig. 5.

### RESULTS

#### Mt comparative analysis

Comparative mt genome analysis revealed a highly conserved gene order among \textit{M. furfur} strains (Table S1, Supporting Information). The gene content for all examined mt genomes consisted of 15 protein coding genes, two ribosomal (tRNA) genes and 24 tRNA genes (Fig. 1A). However, the sizes of the mt genomes ranged from 45 715 (strain CBS4169) to 49 317 bp (strain CBS6000; Table 1) attributable to differences in intron abundance and variable intergenic regions.

In detail, introns were located only in \textit{cox1}, \text{cob} and \textit{rnl} genes. Introncs of \text{cob} and \textit{rnl} were without ORFs, while \textit{cox1} introns contained ORFs. Specifically, the \textit{cox1} gene consisted of five exons. In all examined genomes of this study \textit{cox1}i1 (\textit{cox1} intron 1) and \textit{cox1}i4 contained a single ORF, and \textit{cox1}i3 contained two ORFs. In addition, \textit{cox1}i2 was ORF-less, but in nine strains, i.e. CBS514141, CBS6001, CBS5334, CBS6000, CD864, MAL18, MAL24, MAL26 and MAL32, an ORF was present. All ORFs encoded putative homing endonucleases (HEs) belonging to the LAGLIDADG family (as defined by Belfort et al. 2002). Furthermore, strain CBS514141 lacked \textit{cobi2} while all other strains retained it. Finally, in almost all examined strains \textit{rnl} contained three introns of either subtypes IB or IA. In detail, \textit{rnl}i1 was group IB, while the
Table 2. Primers used in this work, the region which they amplify and their reference in literature.

| Region amplified                     | Primer’s name  | Sequence (5’-3’)           | Reference               |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| trnK—atp6 intergenic region          | MF1trnKF       | AACCCATTGAAAAGGAGAAC        | Current work            |
|                                      | MF1atp6R       | CAAGAGGAAATGAATAAATGAG     | Current work            |
| cox3–nad3 intergenic region          | MF2cox3F       | CTTTTTGAACCTTTGAATATGGTGA  | Current work            |
|                                      | MF2nad3R       | ATTAATGTTTCTGATTATATGTA    | Current work            |
| cob exon2–exon3 intronic region      | MF3cob_2F      | CTATATGGCGATGGCAATG      | Current work            |
|                                      | MF3cob_3R      | AGACGGCTGAAATGAATGTA       | Current work            |
| Ribosomal Intergenic Spacer (IGS)   | 26SF           | ATCCTTTGCGACGACTTGA        | Sugita et al. (2002)    |
|                                      | 5SR            | AGCCGACTTTCGCAGATCGG       |                         |

Figure 1. (A) The linear representation of the circular mt genome of *M. furfur* strain CBS5334, beginning with the *rnl* gene. Features are presented by bars and their orientation is indicated by the pointed end. In detail, conserved protein coding genes, rRNA genes, tRNA genes and the inverted repeat are presented in blue, red, pink and orange, respectively. The single amino acid letters represent the respective tRNA genes (e.g., K → trnK). Genes *rnl*, *cox1* and *cob* are interrupted by intronic regions. Introns of the *cox1* gene contain ORFs encoding putative homing endonucleases (HEs) of LAGLIDADG family. GC and AT content are shown with dark blue and light green colors, respectively. The other mt genomes examined present the same gene order (synteny) but differ in intronic and intergenic region abundance and size, as well as in the intra-IR orientation. (B) The large inverted repeat (IR) of the *M. furfur* mt genome (orange), containing the duplicated mt genes *atp9*, *trnL* and *trnR*. The 550 bp intra-IR fragment can be found in both orientations (i/ii) among *M. furfur* strains (Table S1, Supporting Information).
other two, i.e. rnlL1 and rnlL3, were of group IA. The only exceptions were strains CBS4169 (with only the third intron—rnlL3), CBS9374 (containing only rnlL1 and rnlL2) and CBS9365 (hosting rnlL2 and rnlL3).

All M. furfur strains contained a remarkable feature in their mt genome, namely an approximately 8000 bp region duplicated in inverted orientations and split by a ca. 550 bp fragment. This small fragment was found in two orientations among the different examined strains (Fig. 1B and Table S1, Supporting Information). The inverted repeated (IR) region contained three genes (atp9, trnL and trnR), which were also duplicated. The intact IR fragment, regardless of its orientation, contained the tRNA genes trnM and trnH (Fig. 1B).

Based on the aligned mt genomes (mito- M. furfur matrix), variability for each of the protein coding genes was assessed and aminoacid sequence divergence was ranging from 0.5% (at gene nad3) to 1.6% (at gene rps3; Table S2, Supporting Information). However, higher variability (see below) was observed in all intergenic regions, showing better potential for typing. Therefore, the most variable intergenic regions were further analyzed in the following sections.

**Strain typing**

Following the comparative mt genome analysis, intraspecific variation of 41 M. furfur strains was assessed, using the ribosomal IGS region as a nuclear benchmark to compare with three identified mt target regions (see Materials and methods).

**Ribosomal IGS**

The IGS region was amplified for the selected strains using primers 26SF and 5SR (Table 2). IGS Amplicons contained noticeable size variation ranging from 433 to 491 bp (Table S3, Supporting Information). A phylogenetic tree based on these sequences clustered M. furfur strains in seven well-supported groups (A1, A2, B, D, E, G and H; Fig. 2). Groups A1 and A2 did not present any significant differentiation, other than one or two Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs; 99.8% identity; Table S4, Supporting Information). In closely related groups, such as group A1 and B, IGS amplicons differ in one SNP and in a three nucleotide (nt) deletion in sequences of group B (98.2% identity). On the contrary, IGS sequences of groups A1 and E presented only 81.1% identity due to SNPs and deletions. Interestingly, variation within IGS groups was low and in most cases the sequences were identical. IGS amplicons from group H had distinct sequences compared to sequences of the other M. furfur strains (identity ranging from 49.6 to 50.8%), and clustered basal to all other sub-clusters of three and five strains, respectively—Table S4, Supporting Information). Furthermore, group H was divided into two well-supported groups (A, B, D, E, G and H; Fig. 2). Groups A1 and A2 did not present any significant differentiation, other than one or two Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs; 99.8% identity; Table S4, Supporting Information). In closely related groups, such as group A1 and B, IGS amplicons differ in one SNP and in a three nucleotide (nt) deletion in sequences of group B (98.2% identity). On the contrary, IGS sequences of groups A1 and E presented only 81.1% identity due to SNPs and deletions. Interestingly, variation within IGS groups was low and in most cases the sequences were identical. IGS amplicons from group H had distinct sequences compared to sequences of the other M. furfur strains (identity ranging from 49.6 to 50.8%), and clustered basal to all other M. furfur groups. Additionally, group H was divided into two smaller sub-clusters of three and five strains, respectively, which showed a differentiation of ca. 2.7% divergence in the IGS region. Only strain CBS7985 of cluster H presented a larger divergence which ranged from 5.9 to 4.3% compared to sub-clusters A and B, respectively (Table S4, Supporting Information). For example, IGS sequences of strains CBS9575 (491 bp) and CBS7985 (455 bp) shared only 94.1% identity because of four deletions and two insertions in CBS7985 (Table S4, Supporting Information).

Moreover, with consideration of host background it became evident that IGS group A (A1/A2) contained strains of different sources, including all strains from deep-seated body parts (except MAL18 which was situated at group G). IGS group B consisted of five strains isolated from animals and two associated with human skin disease. Group E exclusively contained strains isolated from diseased skin, although the sample size was low (n = 5) and the background of one strain was unknown.

Based on the comparative analysis of the available mtogenomes, the three most promising variable regions were selected for the development of PCR-assays to evaluate their suitability for strain typing in M. furfur.

**trnK-atp6 intergenic region**

trnk–atp6 intergenic region amplicons revealed considerable size variation, from 694 to 777 bp in CBS7982 and CBS6001, respectively, with a mean size of 759 bp (Table S3, Supporting Information). An exception is strain CBS9370 with an amplicon size of only 222 bp resulting from a 580 bp deletion (position 120–700 in the alignment). Among the 41 strains in this study, 31% of the matrix’s sites were diverse. Malassezia furfur strains grouped in seven well-supported clusters (a–g; Fig. 3A). Cluster c consisted of 20 M. furfur strains but without statistical support (Bootstrap values < 50%). Sequence divergence between strains of different clusters ranged from 0.1 to 8.0% (Table S4, Supporting Information). Within observed clusters differentiation among strains was also observed. Cluster g was the most diverse with 13 SNPs. Clusters a and b were exceptions as amplicons differ in only one or two SNPs. Consequently, the mt trnk–atp6 intergenic region showed an intriguing divergence, which however did not result in a clear clustering pattern.

**cox3–nad3 intergenic region**

This was the most variable region, with more than 45% of the aligned sequence sites indicating divergence across all strains examined. This divergence may be attributed to amplicon size variability. In detail, the amplicon size ranged from 755 (strain CBS9595) to 867 bp (strain CBS14141), due to deletions and insertions (Table S3, Supporting Information). As a result, each strain provided a unique sequence for the cox3–nad3 intergenic region. The only exceptions were strains CBS4169 and CBS4170, which were identical (100%—Table S4, Supporting Information). Phylogenetic analyses based on the matrix of this region classified strains in seven well-separated clades (clusters h–n; Fig. 3B). The five strains belonging to cluster n showed the highest intra- and inter-specific divergence (only 97.5% and ca. 78.1% identity, respectively—Table S4, Supporting Information).

**cob1 region**

Primers MF3cob_2F and MFcob_3R were used to clarify the intron presence in the cob gene. Amplification resulted in two types of products: one of smaller size (375–387 bp) without an intron, and a second larger-sized type (801–826 bp; Table S3, Supporting Information) with a 445 bp ORF-less ID intron inserted into position 429 of the cob gene. In the exon sequence of the amplified region (end of exon2–beginning of exon3), more than 80% of variable sites were detected. The complete amplified region was used in the phylogenetic tree construction (Fig. 3C). The 41 M. furfur strains grouped in six clusters (a–t). The strains that did not contain an intron in that region were located basally in the phylogenetic tree (clusters o and t). Interestingly, cluster o consisted of strains with both types of the amplified region, i.e. strains containing the ID intron (PM312 and PM315) and intronless ones (CBS5332, CBS7854, CBS14140 and CBS14141).

**Concatenated mt phylogenies**

In order to assess how well each of the chosen individual mt regions reflect genetic variation and clustering between M. furfur strains for typing purposes when compared with a broader multi-locus mt approach, the phylogeny of a concatenated mt dataset was constructed, based on the combined number of
Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of 41 M. furfur strains as produced by BI based on IGS. The NJ tree is identical. Phylogenetic relationships among taxa are well-supported. Posterior probabilities (PP) and Bootstrap support (BS) are presented in black and red numbers, respectively. IGS groups (A, B, D, E, G and H) are marked with different colors.
informative sites of all three individual mt regions. The concatenated matrix based phylogenetic tree was well-supported (Fig. 4), and mt-based relationships of the strains well-defined. Malassezia furfur strains were classified in five main groups and 10 subgroups (Fig. 4). Strains belonging to group I were significantly divergent using the concatenated dataset, although the clustering received high support (100% PP and 96% BS). An exception is CBS6046, which may be considered as another subgroup basal to the group I. Group II consisted of four subgroups (II1, II2, II3 and II4) and group III of three (III1, III2 and III3). Group II was a sister clade to group I (with support of 100% and 97% PP and BS, respectively), while group III was a sister clade to both (100% support for both statistical methodologies applied). Strain CBS9370 was located basally to the previous three groups and was designated as group IV. Strains belonging to group V were the most diverse.

If the origin of the strains was taken into account, it became evident that group I consisted of five strains isolated from animal and two from human skin (the source of the basal strain CBS6046 was from diseased human skin). Strains found on human skin could be also found in subgroups II1, II2, II4 and II5. Strains originating from deep-seated body sites were all positioned in subgroups II3, III1 and III3, though these clusters were not exclusive for these strain backgrounds. The strains originating from diseased skin of human individuals from Greece comprised group V with the addition of a strain from an ostrich located in France.

Based on the available 20 mt genomes of M. furfur strains, phylogenetic relationships were also determined using the 15 concatenated protein coding genes, in order to evaluate phylogenetic differences between a protein coding gene-based approach (Fig. 5) and the concatenated intergenic target regions (Fig. 4). However, the limited number of available mt genome sequences per genotype, prevents any assumptions for the relationships between genotype and host background.

**DISCUSSION**

Detailed knowledge on Malassezia mt genomes and genes is scarce. A study focusing on M. sympodialis, explored the mt genome of this species (Gioti et al. 2013) revealing a typical mt genome of 38,622 bp containing 15 protein-coding genes, two rRNA genes and 25 tRNAs (Gioti et al. 2013). Another study on comparative genomics of various Malassezia species compared general phylogenetic topologies between nuclear and mt genes and concluded that both trees corresponded well at an inter-species level. However, differences were observed for some species, including M. furfur, at the intra-species level, albeit based on only very few strains (Wu et al. 2015). In our comparative analysis of 20 mitogenomes it is shown that the M.
Figure 4. Phylogenetic tree of *M. furfur* strains as produced by BI based on the concatenated dataset of trnK–atp6 and cox3–nad3 mt intergenic regions, and cob exon2–exon3 mt intronic region. The corresponding tree using NJ analysis is identical. Phylogenetic relationships among taxa are well supported with high PP (black numbers) and BS (red numbers) values. Mt groups and subgroups (I-V) are distinguished by color.
Figure 5. Phylogenetic tree of the 20 \textit{M. furfur} strains with known mt genome as produced by BI based on the 15 mt genes. The species \textit{M. obtusa} CBS7876 (GenBank assembly accession: GCA_001264985.1) was used as outgroup. For the NJ method, reliability of nodes was evaluated using 10,000 bootstrap iterations. For BI analysis, the evolutionary model, as found using the program was GTR + I + G. A total of four independent MCMC analyses were performed, using 5 million generations and sampling set adjustment for every 100,000 generations. Clade support (Posterior Probabilities) is shown (black numbers). Whenever an NJ identical topology exists, Bootstrap Support values (red numbers) are presented. Next to the phylogenetic tree, the two bars represent the corresponding IGS (Fig. 2) and concatenated mt (Fig. 4) phylogenetic groups’ coloring. NA: non-available.

\textit{furfur} mt genome has a conserved gene content and order but is highly variable in size, ranging from 45,715 to 49,317 bp. This diversity has also been observed in other fungal species such as \textit{Rhizosphagus irregularis}, \textit{Cordyceps militaris} and \textit{Lachancea thermostolerans} (Formey et al. 2012; Freel, Friedrich and Schacherer 2015; Zhang et al. 2017), with a size divergence of approximately 3 kb. The largest size variation has been detected in the mt genome of \textit{S. cerevisiae}, with a size variation of approximately 22 kb among strains (Foury et al. 1998; De Chiara et al. 2020). In other studies, correlation has been shown between genome size fluctuation and both intron abundance and size diversity of intergenic regions, in accordance with this study (Wolters, Chiu and Fiumera 2015; Deng et al. 2018; De Chiara et al. 2020). From our study, it appears that strains with larger mt genomes belong to groups III, IV, III1 and III3 of the concatenated mt phylogenetic tree and groups A1, A2, E and G of IGS tree. Thus, it is evident that mt genome expansion and reduction in size is unlikely to be a unidirectional evolutionary process.
We observed a duplicated and inverted region of ca. 8000 bp with three included genes (atp9, tnl, and trnR), interrupted by a ca 550 bp intra-IR fragment, found in two orientations among different strains. Similarly, an inverted repeat region was previously also identified for M. symposium, with a size of 5900 bp (Gioti et al. 2013; Zhu et al. 2017). These large IRS are common in fungal mt genomes and have been described for a plethora of fungal genera, including the ascomycetous yeast genus Candida, significantly fluctuating in length from 109 bp in Candida salmanticensis to 14 379 bp in Candida maltosa, with varying gene content, and having a substantial impact on mt genome size (Valach et al. 2011). They have also been linked to conversions between circular and linear mt genome forms (Valach et al. 2011). Large inverted repeats have also been described for other fungi such as the genus Termittomyces, where the IR was half the size of the complete mt genome, duplicating several genes (Nieuwenhuis et al. 2019). Another example is the mushroom Agrocybe aegerita, where the presence of the IRS was hypothesized to mediate intramolecular recombination (Liu et al. 2020). Biological implications of large IRS need further examination and requires a genus wide approach in Malassezia.

In addition to previous observations (Theelen et al. 2001; Gupta et al. 2004), an ongoing exploration of the sub-species variation in M. furfur is further unraveling the genetic heterogeneity of this species based on nuclear loci. The IGS region highlights this variability and was used in this study as a nuclear reference locus for the known nuclear intraspecific variation. The multiplicity nature of mt genomes, as well as known differences in evolutionary rates, make them promising targets for developing molecular markers for typing approaches (Ghikas, Kouvelis and Typas 2010; Kortsinoglou et al. 2019, 2020). Based on the comparative analysis of the analyzed 20 M. furfur mt genomes, three highly variable regions of interest were discovered and were assessed for a total of 41 strains, representing intra-species variation, which was compared to the IGS based clustering. Firstly, the trnK-atp6 mt intergenic region is more diverse than the IGS region (Table S4, Supporting Information), and therefore, has potential for genotyping. Moreover, the tree topology is different when compared to the respective tree of the mt concatenated matrix (Figs 3A and 4). In this amplified domain a number of nucleotide substitutions were detected (Table S4, Supporting Information) but this differentiation may reduce applicability for assessing intra-species diversity of the M. furfur mt genome as it provides branches that are not well supported (Fig. 3A). Possible usefulness of this region for typing should be further examined with a larger number of strains. Secondly, the cox3-nad3 region demonstrated the best strain discrimination resolution compared to the other examined regions and presented almost the same topology to that obtained from the concatenated matrix. Thus, the cox3-nad3 region may be a good alternative to the concatenated approach for typing, better representing the general mt variation. Thirdly, the cob intronic region showed the lowest discriminatory information but adds value by providing evidence of mt intron variability, a feature also described as a contributor to fungal mt genome length variation (De Chiara et al. 2020; Megarioti and Kouvelis 2020). It is interesting that the second ID intron, at position 429 of the cob gene, can also be found in fungal species belonging to Pezizomycotina (Cinget and Bélanger 2020), indicating that this intron seems to be an ancestral element due to its existence in two divergent fungal phyla (Basidiomycota and Ascomycota). Moreover, this intron was found to be highly mobile. Cinget and Bélanger (2020) showed that this intron was related to an adaptive fungicide resistance as a result of a mutation in the cob gene and it has a regulatory role in cob gene maturation (Grasso et al. 2006; Vallieres et al. 2011).

The mt-based trees provide different discriminatory results when compared with the IGS-based topology and several interesting conclusions may be extracted for strain genotyping. Based on the IGS phylogeny, strains CBS7982, CBS9369 and CBS9589 of group H are phylogenetically distant from strains of group A1/A2 (Fig. 2). On the contrary, a mt-based phylogeny showed that these strains are more closely related to strains of group A1/A2, rather than the other members of IGS group H (mt concatenated groups III2 and III3). This observation may be indicative of mt recombination in these groups. For the 15 protein coding gene phylogenetic approaches, CBS 7982 (III2/H) also clustered with III3/A2 strain CBS 14141, supporting this finding (Fig. 5). A similar phenomenon is observed for IGS G strain CBS5332, which belongs to the III mt concatenated type, a group otherwise almost exclusively containing strains belonging to nuclear IGS type A1/A2. For this strain, no mt genome sequence was available.

The strains analyzed in this work may be divided in three main categories according to their host and pathogenicity: The first group is pathogenic to animal skin, the second is pathogenic to human skin, and the third consisted of deep-seated strains (Table 1). IGS-based phylogeny clusters most animal pathogenic strains (group B) as members of a sister clade to most deep-seated strains (group A; Fig. 2). On the contrary, phylogeny-based on the mt concatenated data clearly separates the strains infecting animals (group I) from the human deep-seated strains (groups III1 and III3; Fig. 4). This discrimination based on the mt concatenated matrix may be attributed to the differential evolution of the intergenic mt regions which are usually under neutral selection (Kimura 1991; Bartelli et al. 2013), while the IGS region contains several regulatory elements (Pantou, Mavridou and Typas 2003) which might diminish changes throughout evolution. Thus, the IGS region shows less discrimination and sisterhood of the animal skin and deep-seated pathogenic strains. Based on a limited number of samples, this seems also the case when considering the 15 mt protein coding genes (Fig. 5). When comparing mt phylogeny of the concatenated mt target regions (Fig. 4) with the phylogeny based on all protein coding genes (Fig. 5), some differences can be observed. Specifically, mt groups III1 and III3 seem to be scattered over the tree based on the protein coding genes.

One of the most striking observations is that previous suggestions of a specific genotype in deep-seated infections (Theelen et al. 2001; Gupta et al. 2004) is also observed in this study using IGS and mt target sequence data. Ongoing research evaluating a large set of over 150 clinical isolates from various patients and geographies further confirms this finding (B. Theelen, unpublished observations). This genotype is not exclusive for deep-seated isolates, but deep-seated isolates are not observed in any other genotype. There is one exception, pertaining to strains MAL26 and MAL32, which are both neonatal strains originating from the same patient, belonging to genotype IGS G, whereas all other neonatal and deep-seated isolated belong to genotype IGS A1/A2. Both isolates belong to mt group III1. Interestingly, the limited genotype variation for deep seated isolates found for IGS and the mt target regions does not seem to be supported when considering the mt protein coding gene phylogeny (Fig. 5). This may be attributed to the conservation of gene sequences, since they are crucial to cell surviving and thus, difficult to introduce any changes.
Overall, the use of various mt regions for typing of M. furfur can be debated, depending on purpose and functional clustering. Future analysis of a larger set of strains, including from clinical origin, will determine which region(s) will provide the best resolution for intraspecies discrimination. Presently, it can be concluded that the use of the cox3–nad3 mt intergenic region presents the most promising typing prospect for isolates of M. furfur because it best represents the concatenated mt variation, and the general clustering is similar to that based on IGS, but it provides additional discrimination within clusters. Both IGS and cox3–nad3 domains may provide further insights into the different evolutionary processes of nuclear and mt DNA. Based on the limited number of samples and their host backgrounds, at this stage it is difficult to draw conclusions regarding genotype to host specificity or pathogenicity, but our comparative mitogenome analysis indicated several very promising regions for strain typing. Our study adds to the general knowledge of mt genome organization in the genus Malassezia, and more specifically in M. furfur, a relevant species involved in skin disease and emerging in BSls. Various heterogenous mt regions were identified, providing promising multiplex targets for future typing studies, diagnostic assay development and evolutionary studies.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA
Supplementary data are available at FEMSYR online.

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