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Title: A longitudinal study of *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization in pigs in Ireland

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- 1 A longitudinal study of Staphylococcus aureus colonization in pigs in Ireland
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22.	Abstract
1.1.	- ADSITACI

23	The emergence of methicillin-resistant <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> (MRSA) in livestock has
24	refocused attention on S. aureus colonization and transmission in pigs. This study
25	investigated the effect of the S. aureus colonization status of a sow on the colonization status
26	of her piglets, and whether pigs carry the same strain of <i>S. aureus</i> throughout production.
27	Nasal swabs were collected from the piglets of six healthy sows two days after birth and two
28	days before and two days after they were moved into each production stage. The average
29	prevalence of <i>S. aureus</i> colonization varied between 26% and 73%. The odds of being <i>S</i> .
30	aureus positive were almost 12 times higher for piglets born to nasal-positive sows than for
31	those born to nasal-negative sows, and three times higher again for piglets born to sows that
32	were both nasal- and vaginal-positive. Isolates recovered from piglets immediately after birth
33	were indistinguishable from those of the dam as determined by phenotypic and molecular
34	typing, including microarray analysis and optical mapping. All isolates belonged to clonal
35	complex 9 and the majority exhibited a novel spa type, t10449. The findings show that the St
36	aureus colonization status of the sow influences the colonization status of her piglets in the
37	early production stages but strains carried by pigs change over time. Multiresistant S. aureus
38	was detected, in particular post-weaning. Results suggest that sow status and management
39	practices, including mixing of pigs and antimicrobial usage at weaning, should be considered
40	when implementing control measures for S. aureus on a farm.

- 41 Word count: 249
- 42 Keywords
- 43 Staphylococcus aureus, pigs, colonization, longitudinal study, typing

44

45	Introduction
46	Staphylococcus aureus is a common commensal organism of the skin and mucosal
47	membranes of both humans and animals (Werckenthin et al., 2001). Antimicrobial resistance
48	in S. aureus, in particular methicillin-resistance, is a concern in both human and veterinary
49	medicine. Livestock-associated methicillin-resistant S. aureus (LA-MRSA) ST398 was first
50	identified in Europe in the early 2000s and was found chiefly in pigs and pig handlers (Voss
51	et al., 2005; Meemken et al., 2009). This event refocused attention on staphylococci of
52	animal origin as a potential public health problem, in particular staphylococci of intensively
53	farmed animals such as pigs, which are frequently exposed to high levels of antimicrobials.
54	
55	Staphylococcus aureus, including MRSA, is a commensal organism in pigs and seldom
56	results in clinical signs in this species although there are some reports of disease in pigs
57	caused by methicillin-susceptible S. aureus (MSSA) or MRSA (Armand-Lefevre et al. 2005;
58	Park et al., 2013; Schwarz et al., 2008; van Duijkeren et al., 2007). The transmission
59	dynamics of S. aureus in individual pigs are of interest when examining possible control
60	measures for MRSA and other multidrug-resistant S. aureus that may emerge in the future.
61	This is especially true in light of recent findings in which colonization with MSSA was found
62	to be protective against MRSA colonization in pig farmers (van Cleef et al., 2014). A small
63	number of studies have investigated the host-organism relationship with S. aureus in pigs,
64	focusing on LA-MRSA; however there are no previous studies on other strains of <i>S. aureus</i> .
65	A longitudinal study by Weese et al. (2010) indicated that there was a significant association
66	between sow and piglet colonization. In addition, their findings suggested that colonization
67	was age related (Weese et al., 2010). Studies by Broens et al. (2011) and Verhegghe et al.
68	(2011) also found an association between colonization status of sows and their piglets.

69	However, these studies examined only MRSA and did not evaluate the isolates further, either
70	phenotypically or genotypically (Broens et al., 2011; Verhegghe et al., 2011). No study to
71	date has investigated and characterized strains of MSSA or MRSA colonizing pigs
72	throughout each production stage. Such studies are essential to provide a better understanding
73	of transmission patterns of this pathogen as a basis for the design of future control
74	programmes. A primary objective of this study was to evaluate S. aureus colonization in
75	individual pigs over time, including whether pigs carry the same strain of the bacterium
76	throughout production. A second objective was to determine the effect of a sow's
77	colonization status on her piglets. The final objective was to fully characterize S. aureus
78	isolated during the different production stages, including antimicrobial resistance patterns.
79	At the time of the study (2011), Irish pigs were considered free of MRSA (EFSA, 2009;
80	Horgan et al., 2011)
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Materials and Methods

90	Animals and sampling
91	Pigs in a large, 2000-sow farrow-to-finish commercial unit were sampled and found to be
92	positive for S. aureus. The unit was selected because it was typical of large units in Ireland
93	and the farmer was willing to cooperate. It was a closed farm whereby all the piglets were
94	born on the farm and no pigs were purchased. There were 30 members of staff who were
95	each assigned to work with pigs in a particular production stage only. First stage weaned pigs
96	received in-feed antimicrobials for the duration of their time in the first stage weaner
97	accommodation (weeks three to seven), receiving tilmicosin (at an inclusion rate of 1
98	kg/tonne feed) from weeks three to five, followed by trimethoprim/sulphadiazine (inclusion
99	rate 2 kg/tonne feed) from weeks five to seven. Second stage weaned pigs (weeks seven to
100	14) received in-feed antimicrobials for the first four days (trimethoprim/sulphadiazine at the
101	same inclusion rate).
102	A total of 50 sows were screened for <i>S. aureus</i> colonization and six sows were selected for
103	inclusion in this study based on their nasal and vaginal colonization status. In line with the
104	study objectives, two sows testing nasal and vaginal negative, two sows testing nasal positive
105	but vaginal negative and two sows testing both nasal and vaginal positive, were selected. All
106	six sows and their litters were studied in parallel and farrowed within one to two days of each
107	other. Each farrowing room housed approximately 14 sows; some, but not all six study sows,
108	were housed within the same room. Both nasal and vaginal swabs (Cotton swab, VWR,
109	Ireland) were collected seven days prior to farrowing. Sows and piglets were sampled two
110	days after farrowing. Thereafter, each pig was individually tagged and samples (nasal swabs)
111	were collected from piglets only. A total of 73 pigs were followed from farrow to finish.
112	Piglets were weaned at approximately three weeks of age. Sampling was conducted on days

17 and 21, two days before and two days after moving to first stage weaner accommodation;
on days 45 and 49, two days before and after moving to second stage weaner
accommodation; and on days 96 and 100, before and after moving to the finishing houses.
Following the farrowing stage piglets were merged, at random, into two groups of 30-40 pigs
and they stayed in these groups in the first stage and second stage weaner houses. Each group
was housed in a separate pen within one room in the first stage weaner house; the room
contained four pens and formed one air space. There were a few pigs in each of the pens
housing the two groups that did not originate from the six litters included in the study. In the
finisher stage groups were sub divided into smaller groups but were not mixed with
unfamiliar pen-mates. Pens housing finisher pigs were of Trobridge design, i.e. rows of pens
side-by-side and opening onto an open-air passage.

125 Microbiological analysis

Swabs were placed in 10 ml Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB) (Oxoid, UK) supplemented with 6.5 % NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich, Ireland), vortexed and incubated for 18-24 h at 37°C. After incubation samples were plated onto Baird-Parker agar plates (Oxoid, UK) and incubated statically for 24 h at 37°C. Five suspect *S. aureus* colonies from each plate were then subcultured onto Columbia Blood Agar Base (Oxoid, UK) supplemented with 5% defibrinated sheep blood (Oxoid, UK) and incubated for 24 h at 37°C. A single colony from the five suspect colonies displaying the typical characteristics of *S. aureus* was then selected and tested using a commercial latex agglutination test for clumping factor and protein A (Pastorex Staph-Plus, Bio-Rad, France). Identification of suspect isolates was confirmed using a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay, as described previously (Maes et al., 2002; Poulsen et al. 2003).

137	Antimicrobial susceptibility testing
138	One hundred and seventy of a total of 281 S. aureus isolates collected underwent
139	antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Isolates were selected in order to ensure pigs from all
140	litters were represented at each sampling point. Isolates from a number of pigs that were
141	positive on multiple occasions were also selected for testing in order to determine changes in
142	isolates from individual pigs over time. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing was performed
143	using The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST)
144	methodology (EUCAST, 2014). Testing was performed for the following agents: amikacin,
145	ampicillin, chloramphenicol, clindamycin, ciprofloxacin, erythromycin, fusidic acid,
146	gentamicin, kanamycin, mupirocin, rifampicin, streptomycin, sulphonamide, tetracycline,
147	tobramycin, trimethoprim and vancomycin. The zone size interpretative criteria and disk
148	concentrations used are listed in supplemental Table S1. For those antimicrobial agents for
149	which EUCAST interpretative criteria are available, the EUCAST 2014 interpretative criteria
150	were used (EUCAST, 2014). For those antimicrobial agents for which no EUCAST
151	interpretive criteria are available, those recommended by The Clinical Laboratory Standards
152	Institute (CLSI, 2013) were used. As neither EUCAST nor CLSI interpretative criteria are
153	available for testing of streptomycin, the interpretative criteria of Rossney et al. (2007), were
154	used. The EUCAST and CLSI recommended S. aureus strains ATCC29213 and
155	ATCC25923 were used as a quality controls for antimicrobial susceptibility testing.
156	Susceptibility to methicillin was determined using 30 μg cefoxitin disks and EUCAST
157	methodology and interpretative criteria.
158	Molecular Typing
159	A total of 60 S. aureus isolates were typed using pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE)
160	following digestion of high molecular weight chromosomal DNA in agarose plugs with the

161	restriction endonuclease SmaI as described by O'Mahony et al, (2005). All isolates from
162	sows that were nasal-positive two days after farrowing were typed. A selection of isolates
163	recovered from the piglets from each sow were chosen for typing based on their colony
164	morphology and antimicrobial susceptibility patterns. At least one isolate representing each
165	antimicrobial resistance pattern was typed. All isolates from a single pig, which was positive
166	on all sampling days (animal no. 230), were typed. The S. aureus reference strain NCTC
167	8325 was used as a control strain.
168	All isolates that were analysed using PFGE were also <i>spa</i> typed. <i>Spa</i> typing was performed
169	as described by Shopsin et al. (1999). The <i>spa</i> repeat region was amplified using primers <i>spa</i> -
170	1113F (5'-AAAGACGATCCTTCGGTGAGC-3') and spa 1514R (5'
171	CAGCAGTAGTGCCGTTTGCTT-3'), described previously by Hasman et al. (2009). The
172	spa types were determined using Ridom StaphType 1.5.0 software and clustered in spa-
173	derived clonal complexes (spa-CC) by Based Upon Repeat Pattern (BURP) as described by
174	Mellmann et al. (2007).
175	A subgroup of 23 isolates from the 60 isolates was subjected to DNA microarray analysis
176	using the StaphyType Kit (Alere Technologies GmbH, Germany) as described by Monecke et
177	al. (2008). These isolates were chosen in order to ensure at least one of each antimicrobial
178	susceptibility pattern, PFGE pattern and spa type was analyzed. In addition, isolates obtained
179	from pigs that were repeatedly positive for <i>S. aureus</i> during production were analyzed.
180	Isolates that exhibited phenotypic resistance to particular antimicrobial agents for which
181	associated resistance genes were not detected by the DNA microarray, or for which resistance
182	genes were detected by the DNA microarray but the associated resistance phenotype was not
183	detected, were further investigated by PCR. These investigations included PCRs using

184	primers to detect tet(K), aadE, dfrS1, lnu(A), lnu(B) erm(C), blaZ and vga(A) (Supplemental
185	Table S2).
186	Two isolates, one from pig no. 230 (230 D2) and one from its dam (no. 4069N), both
187	obtained on day 2 after farrowing, were analysed using whole genome mapping. The isolates
188	were gently lysed using Argus® HMW DNA isolation kit (Opgen, Inc) to generate high
189	molecular weight DNA (HMW-DNA). HMW-DNA was loaded on a MapCard and digested
190	in situ with the restriction endonuclease NcoI, stained with a fluorescent DNA dye, JoJo-1
191	(Invitrogen), and processed using the Argus Optical Mapping System (OpGen, Inc). The
192	NcoI-generated restriction fragments detected by the Argus system were re-assembled into
193	overlapping contigs to eventually create a circular restriction map. Generated restriction maps
194	were compared with in silico maps of all sequenced S. aureus strains available in the NCBI
195	database and edited using an in silico generated optical map of S. aureus ECT-R2 (NCBI
196	accession no: NC_017343) as a reference. Edited maps of 230 D2 and 4069N were then
197	compared with each other using MapSolver (OpGen, Inc).
198	
199	Statistical analysis
200	Odds ratios were calculated to compare the odds of piglets being S. aureus positive for dams
201	with different S. aureus status (Supplemental Table S4). A logistic mixed effects model was
202	fitted to the data using the Imer package (Bates et al., 2012) in R (R Development Core
203	Team, 2012) to investigate the probability of a piglet having S. aureus, depending on the
204	status of its dam. Random effects were included for pig and sow. This method of analysis
205	allows for the fact that observations from the same experimental unit (pig) are correlated.

Covariates/cofactors included age, sow status and production stage. The S. aureus status of

the sow seven days pre-farrowing was included as two indicator variables; N_pos for nasal

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208	positive pre-farrowing, and NV_pos for vaginal and nasal positive. When both indicators are
209	set to zero, the model predicts the S. aureus status of piglets from sows that were S. aureus-
210	negative in both the nose and vagina.
211	Linear, quadratic and cubic terms for age and interaction effects between age and indicators
212	of sow status were included. The quadratic and cubic terms included were age ² and age ³ ,
213	divided by 100 and 1000 respectively to ensure numerical stability of the model-fitting
214	algorithm.
215	To investigate the effect of moving between production stages on the probability of a piglet
216	testing positive for S. aureus, three indicator variables were used. Production stage 1 (birth
217	to weaning, farrowing house) was set to be the baseline level and the effect of each
218	production stage was estimated relative to stage 1. The p-values were calculated from
219	likelihood ratio tests (LRT) obtained by comparing reduced models to the full model, fitted
220	with all terms of interest. Terms of interest included age (linear, quadratic and cubic),
221	production stage (3 indicator variables), sow status and all two-way interactions between sow
222	status with age. The model was then re-fitted with only statistically significant terms
223	included.
224	An additional model employing <i>S. aureus</i> status of the pig at previous testing as a predictor
225	of current S. aureus status was investigated alongside the above predictors. This predictor
226	was not found to be statistically significant under likelihood ratio testing and hence results of
227	this additional model are not included here.
228	Results
229	Sow status

Nasal swabs from a total of 16 of the 50 sows sampled seven days prior to farrowing were positive and of these, four sows were positive in both the vagina and nares. Six of the sows were chosen for inclusion in this study as follows; two nasal positive sows, two nasal and vaginal positive sows and two negative sows. Of the six sows that were chosen and sampled two days after farrowing both of the nasal positive sows remained colonised, one of the nasal and vaginal positive sows was positive at both sites and only one of the negative sows was negative at the time of this sampling. Individual piglets from each sow were followed from farrowing to the finishing stage.

Piglet carriage of S. aureus

Figure 1 shows the average prevalence of *S. aureus* carriage in piglets from litters grouped according to the status of the sows seven days prior to farrowing. Additional information on how many individual piglets changed or maintained their carriage status between sampling points is given in Tables S3a to S3d in supplemental materials. One pig tested positive on all seven sampling occasions (pig 230) and all samples from one pig tested negative. Most piglets (60 of 73) changed status at least twice during the course of the study. The highest prevalence of *S. aureus* carriage was observed on day two following farrowing (in piglets of positive sows), but decreased prior to leaving this production stage. The lowest prevalence of *S. aureus* was observed in piglets from the negative sows (Table S3b). The prevalence of *S. aureus* increased in pigs from all sows on day 21, two days after weaning, with a further increase on day 45, just prior to leaving first stage weaner accommodation. The prevalence of *S. aureus* decreased in pigs on day 49 but another increase was observed at day 96 prior to moving to finishing houses.

254	Statistical analysis
255	The significance of the effect of the nasal status of the sow on the <i>S. aureus</i> status of the
256	piglets was assessed from the fitted model by examining together the main effect and the two
257	interaction effects (with the linear and quadratic terms for age) (Table 1).
258	The main effects alone are not statistically significant at the 0.05 level (although the main
259	effect for nasal status of the sow is statistically significant at the 0.1 level). However, the
260	interaction effects between age (linear and quadratic term) and nasal status of the sow, as
261	well as the interaction between age (linear term) and vaginal status of the sow are highly
262	significant (p<0.01) (Table 1).
263	The odds of a piglet being S. aureus positive at two days of age were predicted to be almost
264	12 times higher (Odds Ratio (OR) = 11.822) for pigs born to sows that were nasal positive at
265	the farrowing stage, than for those born to sows that were nasal negative (Table 1). The
266	odds of a piglet being S. aureus positive were estimated to be a further 3 times higher for a
267	piglet born to a sow who was both nasal and vaginal positive, compared to piglets from sows
268	that were nasal positive alone ($OR = 3.149$). The effect of the sow on the bacterial status of
269	piglets (for sows that are nasal positive) reduced as piglets got older (Figure 2). By the time
270	the pigs were approximately 60 days old, the predicted odds ratio was greatly reduced (to
271	approximately 0.5), indicating that piglets from sows that were nasal positive pre-farrowing
272	are predicted to be only half as likely to be <i>S. aureus</i> positive than piglets from sows that
273	were S. aureus negative. Finally, the predicted difference in the probability of testing S.
274	aureus positive between piglets from nasal positive and negative sows reduced towards zero
275	as the pigs reached the final stage of production (i.e. the odds ratio moved towards one)
276	(Figure 2).

277	Figure S1 shows that piglets from sows that were vaginal positive pre-farrowing have a
278	higher predicted odds of testing S. aureus positive than those piglets from sows that were not,
279	but after they are around 60 days old, their odds of being S. aureus positive are predicted to
280	become lower than for piglets from sows that were either S. aureus negative, or only nasal
281	positive.
282	
283	In comparison to piglets in the farrowing house, the probability of pigs testing positive for <i>S</i> .
284	aureus was estimated to be lowest in second stage weaned pigs. The indicator variable for
285	second stage weaner house was the only significant indicator variable of the three included
286	for production stage, and hence is the only one of the three included in the final model (Table
287	1). The estimated odds ratio for pigs being nasal positive on entering the second stage weaner
288	production stage is approximately 0.25 (p=0.03), i.e. the odds of piglets being <i>S. aureus</i>
289	positive during production stage weaner 2 was estimated to be about four times less
290	compared to all other stages of production.
291	
292	Antimicrobial Resistance
293	In total, 170 isolates identified as S. aureus by PCR assay were investigated for methicillin
294	resistance and underwent antimicrobial susceptibility testing. The results are summarized in
295	Table 2, with more details provided in Supplemental Table S4. No MRSA were detected
296	based on susceptibility to cefoxitin. All isolates from sows were resistant to tetracycline alone
297	and 88 % of isolates from piglets on day 2 had the same resistance pattern as that of the sows.
298	The resistance patterns post weaning were different from those pre-weaning. Resistance to

ampicillin, erythromycin and clindamycin was commonly observed in isolates from first and

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300	second stage weaners. Tetracycline resistance was not observed in the S. aureus isolates
301	from first stage weaners but isolates from six second stage weaned pigs on day 96 and from
302	four finisher pigs showed resistance to tetracycline only. Nine different resistance patterns
303	were detected in isolates from pigs in the finishing stage (Table 2 and Supplemental Table
304	S4).
305	
306	Molecular Typing
307	Table 3 summarizes the genotypic characteristics of 23 isolates. A total of 60 isolates were
308	typed using pulsed field electrophoresis (PFGE) and two SmaI- PFGE patterns, A and B,
309	were identified. There were several band differences between the two patterns (Supplemental
310	Figure S2). All isolates except one were assigned to pattern A ($n = 59$). The same 60 isolates
311	which were typed using PFGE analysis were subjected to spa typing. Two different spa types
312	were identified with t10449 ($n = 55$) being the dominant type over t1334 ($n = 5$).
313	A total of 23 isolates were characterised using DNA microarray profiling for assigning
314	isolates to MLST clonal complexes (CCs) and sequence types (STs) and for the detection of
315	antibiotic resistance and virulence genes (Table 3). All isolates belonged to clonal complex 9
316	(CC9) and were negative for (i) the Panton-Valentine leukocidin (PVL) toxin genes, (ii) the
317	exfoliative and enterotoxin genes, (iii) the immune evasion complex genes, and (iv) mec and
318	SCCmec associated genes.
319	The majority of isolates (22/23, 95.7%) harboured at least one antimicrobial resistance gene
320	including those encoding resistance to macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin $B\left(MLS_{B}\right)$
321	compounds (<i>erm</i> (C) 10/23, 43%), β-lactams (<i>bla</i> Z, 10/23, 43%), tetracycline (<i>tet</i> (K), 11/23,
322	48%), trimethoprim (<i>dfrS1</i> , 3/23, 13%) and streptomycin (<i>aadE</i> , 3/23, 13%) antimicrobials

323	(Table 3). One isolate from a piglet (205 D2) whose dam was negative for <i>S. aureus</i> , did not
324	harbour any detectable resistance genes and was susceptible to all antimicrobial agents tested.
325	In the majority of instances, a good correlation between the resistance phenotype and the
326	presence of a particular resistance gene was detected (Table 3). However, no corresponding
327	resistance gene could be detected in five isolates that exhibited phenotypic susceptibility to
328	erythromycin and clindamycin resistance (Table 3).
329	Six different combinations of resistance genes were identified among the isolates with the
330	presence of tet(K) only predominating (8/23, 35%) (Table 3). Isolates obtained post weaning
331	had the most resistance genes.
332	
333	Pig 230 was the only pig that was positive for <i>S. aureus</i> on all seven sampling occasions.
334	Isolates from this pig harboured different resistance genes and exhibited different resistance
335	phenotypes at different production stages and isolates obtained post weaning had a greater
336	number of resistance genes (Table 3). However, one piglet and one weaner isolate exhibited
337	the same resistance pattern and carried the same resistance genes (tet(K), Table 3).
338	Pig 155, whose dam was both nasal and vaginal positive, was positive for S. aureus on four
339	of the seven sampling occasions. Similar to pig 230, isolates from pig 155 had a greater
340	number of resistance genes post weaning.
341	Whole genome mapping (WGM) was employed to further corroborate the clonal relatedness
342	of S. aureus isolates recovered from piglet no. 230 and its dam, sow 4069, immediately after
343	birth (230 D2 and 4069N, respectively). Matrix similarity cluster using unweighted-pair
344	group method using arithmetic averages (UPGMA) showed 100% map similarity between the
345	two strains (Figure 3a). Moreover, comparison of the two maps with those of in silico

346	generated optical maps of <i>S. aureus</i> reference strains identified their close homology to <i>S.</i>
347	aureus ECT-R2 (97.5% of map similarity) (Figure 3b), which recently caused a clonal
348	outbreak in Sweden (Lindqvist et al., 2012). S. aureus ECT-R2 was originally isolated from
349	a human wound and is a multiresistant methicillin-susceptible S. aureus (Lindqvist et al.,
350	2012).
351	
352	Discussion
353	This study investigated the transmission and persistence of <i>S. aureus</i> in individual pigs
354	throughout the production cycle. Significant findings include the identification and detailed
355	characterization for the first time of S. aureus isolates from Irish pigs and demonstration of
356	the influence of the S. aureus colonization status of the sow on the status of her piglets. In
357	addition, this study provided further information on the possible influence of management
358	practices at weaning on S. aureus colonization patterns. It documented changes in the
359	antimicrobial resistance profile of S. aureus over time and provided data that suggest that
360	antimicrobial use may be an important factor promoting these changes. Antimicrobial use is
361	also thought to be a factor in the emergence and transmission of LA-MRSA in pigs (Crombe
362	et al., 2013) and deserves further investigation.
363	
364	With regard to the impact of the colonization status of the sow on the colonization status of
365	her piglets, piglets born to sows that carried S. aureus prior to farrowing were more likely to
366	carry S. aureus at two days after birth than piglets born to negative sows. This finding
367	confirms the results of a small number of other studies that examined MRSA nasal

colonization of sows and piglets (Verhegghe et al., 2011; Weese et al., 2010). However this

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study also examined the effect of a sow being both nasal and vaginal positive on her piglet's
status, which has not been reported previously. For piglets from nasal- and vaginal-positive
sows, the odds of being S. aureus positive were predicted to be three times higher than for
piglets born to nasal positive sows, which is consistent with the suggestion by Moodley et al.
(2011) that the likely source of MRSA transmission from sows to piglets was through direct
contact with the snout, skin and vagina of the sows. In addition, the antimicrobial resistance
patterns (Table 2), microarray and whole genome mapping (Table 3, Figure 3) data from this
study strongly support the view that both the sows and the piglets on day 2 carry the same
strain of S. aureus. On day 2, all isolates from sows were resistant only to tetracycline and
88% of isolates from piglets showed the same resistance pattern (Supplemental Table S4). In
contrast, none of the isolates from pigs immediately after weaning was resistant to
tetracycline (Supplemental Table S4). These results, in addition to the statistical analysis
indicate that the effect of dam status decreased over time. The predicted odds ratio of a piglet
from a nasal-positive sow being positive compared to a piglet from a nasal-negative sow fell
below zero after approximately day 40 (Figure 2). This suggests that being born to a positive
sow may be in some way protect against S. aureus carriage at later production stages. This
finding is worthy of further study as a recent publication reported that prior colonization with
MSSA appeared to be protective against acquisition of MRSA in pig farmers (van Cleef et
al., 2014). However, it is acknowledged that many factors, in addition to sow colonization
status, are likely to be important influences on carrier status, particularly in older pigs. Such
factors might include selective pressure exerted by antimicrobial medication post weaning
and differences in the environmental flora of weaner houses.

The prevalence of *S. aureus* varied in each production stage. This study found the average carriage rate of *S. aureus* was at its highest on day 2 after farrowing, followed by a decrease

prior to weaning. Similar findings were reported by Weese et al. (2010) and Verhegghe et al.
(2011) for MRSA. These results, together with the finding that the great majority of pigs
changed carriage status at least twice during the 100-day study suggests that piglets are
normally transiently rather than permanently colonized from birth. The prevalence of carriage
in all pigs increased post weaning on day 21 and showed a further increase when pigs were
sampled on day 45. Weese et al, (2010) and Dewaele et al, (2011) suggested that the increase
in MRSA-positive pigs recorded at weaning was due to the commingling of positive and
negative pigs, stress during weaning, age related susceptibility and contamination of other
sites on the farms. Weaning may represent a point at which controls could be implemented in
order to reduce transmission of <i>S. aureus</i> of public health significance such as LA-MRSA.
Possible control measures could include minimizing the mixing of litters at weaning and
reducing antimicrobial use.

The findings of this study are similar to those of previous studies with the major difference that the highest prevalence of *S. aureus* in pigs was observed on days 2 and 96 rather than at weaning. One possible explanation is that this study sampled sows which were positive and negative for *S. aureus* prior to and two days after farrowing whereas the study by Weese et al. (2010) sampled sows which were negative at the time of farrowing.

A previous longitudinal study by Broens et al. (2011b) suggested that pigs which received antimicrobial agents such as β -lactam antibiotics and tetracyclines were at a higher risk of MRSA ST398 colonization (Broens et al., 2011). Pigs in this study received macrolide infeed antibiotics (tilmicosin) upon entering first stage weaner pens and this coincided with the detection of a multidrug resistant (MDR) strain of *S. aureus* resistant to the macrolides (erythromycin) and carrying erm(C). The feed used was changed shortly before pigs entered

2nd stage weaner accommodation to a different feed medicated with potentiated
sulphonamides. The reduction in prevalence of <i>S. aureus</i> observed at this time suggests that
the use of antibiotics containing sulphonamides and trimethoprim to which the S. aureus was
susceptible, may have contributed to the reduction in prevalence. However, once the use of
in-feed antimicrobials ceased after day 51, increased carriage of S. aureus was detected on
day 96. Coinciding with cessation of in-feed antimicrobials, the percentage of isolates
showing multiresistance to antimicrobials decreased on days 96 and 100 and a much greater
variety of antimicrobial resistance patterns was detected at this time (Table 2 and
supplemental Table S4).
There was excellent correlation between the resistance phenotype and the resistance genes
detected for all antimicrobial agents investigated apart from clindamycin. Five isolates were
found to be clindamycin resistant and were erythromycin susceptible, but no associated
resistance gene was detected (Table 3). Possible explanations include the presence of an
allelic variant of a gene that was not detected by the microarray or by additional PCR
analysis, or, possibly, the presence of a novel gene(s) that remains to be described.
All isolates investigated in this study were identified as belonging to CC9-MSSA, a lineage
not previously reported in Ireland. Previous studies have reported S. aureus ST9 colonization
in pigs in China and Malaysia (Neela et al., 2009; Wagenaar et al., 2009), including
methicillin-resistant strains. This lineage appears to predominate among pigs in Asia whereas
CC398 is dominant in North America and Europe (De Neeling et al., 2007; Khanna et al.,
2008). However, S. aureus CC9 has been reported in France and Italy in both pigs and
humans working with pigs (Armand-Lefevre et al., 2005; Battisti et al., 2009). Other studies

442	have also reported this lineage in pigs, cattle and poultry in Europe and occasionally in
443	healthy humans (Grundmann et al., 2002; Hasman et al., 2009, Richter et al., 2012; Monecke
444	et al., 2013).
445	
115	
446	The majority of the 60 isolates that were <i>spa</i> typed belonged to a new <i>spa</i> type, t10449. This
447	spa type has not been reported previously in animals or humans and belongs to CC9. A small
448	number of isolates in this study belonged to another spa type, t1334 (four repeat differences
449	from t10449). This <i>spa</i> type has been previously found in the USA and clusters with t337, a
450	dominant spa type associated with CC9 (Dressler et al., 2012). Only two PFGE patterns
451	were identified among the isolates typed using enzymatic digestion followed by pulsed-field
452	gel electrophoresis, with the vast majority of strains belonging to a single pattern. The
453	probable explanation of this finding is that the herd was closed with no animals having been
454	brought into the herd for several years. Thus, there was minimal opportunity for the
455	introduction of new strains of S. aureus that were adapted to pigs. Utilizing high resolution
456	WGM, we found the two strains isolated from piglet 230 and its dam to be identical and
457	closely related to the human outbreak strain ECT-R2, which harbors only remnants of an
458	SCCmec element and is a multiresistant MSSA (Lindqvist et al., 2012). All three S. aureus
459	isolates belonged to the same WGM cluster, which is defined as a set of isolates having a
460	map distance of less than 5%, a cut-off point established by Shukla et al. (2012) to cluster
461	clonally related S. aureus strains.
462	
702	
463	In conclusion, this study found that the colonization status of the sow has an important
464	influence on the colonization status of her piglets but that this effect decreases as the piglets
465	get older and move through the production stages. The findings suggest that consideration of

166	sow status and management practices such as mixing of pigs at weaning and antimicrobial
167	usage, would be useful in the formulation of strategies to control LA-MRSA or other strains
468	of MSSA of public health significance which may emerge in pigs in the future.
169	
1 07	
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175	
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Figure captions

Figure 1. Mean percentage prevalence of *S. aureus*-positive piglets from 2 negative sows (n = 25 piglets), 2 nasal-positive sows (n = 24 piglets) and 2 nasal- and vaginal-positive sows (n = 24 piglets) from day 2 to day 100

Figure 2. The odds ratio of a piglet from a nasal positive sow being *S. aureus* positive to that of a piglet from a negative sow plotted against age (x-axis), illustrating the estimated main effect of sows being nasal positive as well as the interactions of this variable with age.

Figure 3. A: Comparison of whole-genome maps of *S. aureus* from piglet no.230 (230 D2) and its dam (4069N); B: Comparison of WGMs of 230 D2 and 4069N to an *in silico* map of ECT-R 2; C: Map similarity cluster generated for 230 D2, 4069N and ECT-R 2 by unweighted-pair group method using arithmetic averages.

Table 1. Parameter estimates, odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals and p-values from likelihood ratio tests for the fitted model assessing the significance of nasal status of the sow on the *S. aureus* status of the piglets.

	Estimate		95% co	Likelihood	
			inte	ratio test	
Parameter		Odds	lower	upper	p-value
		ratio			
age	-0.202	0.847	0.75	0.891	<0.001
age ² /100*	0.675	1.965	1.543	2.501	< 0.001
age ³ /1000*	-0.046	0.955	0.94	0.971	< 0.001
2 nd stage weaner	-1.403	0.246	0.135	0.448	0.033
house					
N_pos	2.47	11.822	3.554	39.329	0.096
VN_positive	1.147	3.149	1.263	7.852	0.465
age:N_pos	-0.089	0.915	0.87	0.963	0.006
age:VN_pos	-0.019	0.981	0.967	0.996	0.009
*The quadratic and out	0.064	1.066	1.018	1.115	0.006

*The quadratic and cubic terms age² and age³ were divided by 100 and 1000 respectively to ensure numerical stability of the model-fitting algorithm N_pos = nasal positive, VN_pos = nasal and vaginal positive

- 1 Table 2. Days sampled, the most common antimicrobial resistance pattern identified
- 2 among S. aureus isolates at each production stage and the number of isolates showing
- 3 each pattern from a total of 170 isolates tested.

	Group medication	Number of antimicrobial resistance patterns	The most common antimicrobial resistance pattern	Number of isolates exhibiting
Days		detected	detected	pattern
Sows	None			
Positive Sows		1	Te	6/6
<u>Piglets</u>	None			
Day 2		1	Te	21/24
Day 17		4	Te	8/13
1st Stage Weaners	Tilmicosin			
Day 21	(days 21 to 35)	3	ApDaEr	14/20
	Trimethoprim/			
	Sulphadiazine		J	
Day 45	(days 36-47)	2	ApDaEr	26/28
2nd Stage Weaners	Trimethoprim/ Sulphadiazine			
Day 49	(days 48 to 52)	2	ApDaEr	15/16
		/1		
Day 96	7/ 7	7	ApDaEr	17/33
)		
<u>Finishers</u>	None	9	ErDa	10/30
Day 100				
	1.0 0 0	• 4 •	1.4 0	4.9

- 4 Isolates were recovered from four S. aureus-positive and two S. aureus- negative sows
- 5 sampled on day 2 and from their piglets on all 7 sampling occasions.
- 6 **Abbreviations:** Ap, ampicillin; Er, erythromycin; Da, clindamycin; St, streptomycin; Te,
- 7 tetracycline: Tp, trimethoprim.

Table 3. Characteristics of *S. aureus* isolates from selected sows and their piglets, including clonal complex, *spa* types, PFGE patterns, antimicrobial resistance patterns and resistance genes.

		C 1 -		Typing		Antimicrobial	
Strain No:		Sample origin				resistance pattern [‡]	Resistance genes
Pig identifier including day of	S. aureus carriage status	Origin	Clonal		PFGE	puttern	resistance genes
sampling†	of sow		complex	spa type	pattern		
4069N†	Nasal positive	Sow	CC9	t10449	A	Те	tet(K)
230 D2††	Nasal positive	Piglet	CC9	t10449	A	Те	tet(K)
230 D17	Nasal positive	Piglet	CC9	t10449	A	Da	None detected
230 D21	Nasal positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	A	ApDaErSt	blaZ, erm(C), aadE
230 D45	Nasal positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	A	ApDaErSt	blaZ, erm(C), aadE
230 D49	Nasal positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	A	ApDaEr	blaZ, erm(C)
230 D96	Nasal positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	A	Te	tet(K)
230 D100	Nasal positive	Finisher	CC9	t10449	A	DaEr	erm(C)
237 D17	Nasal positive	Piglet	CC9	t10449	A	Те	tet(K)
4072N	Nasal positive	Sow	CC9	t10449	A	Te	tet(K)
155 D17	Nasal- and vagina- positive	Piglet	CC9	t10449	A	Те	tet(K)
155 D21	Nasal- and vagina- positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	A	ApDaErSt	blaZ, erm(C), aadE

Nasal- and vagina-	XX 7	CCO	410440		A D . E	11.7 (C)
1	weaner	CC9	110449	A	ApDaEr	blaZ, erm(C)
Nasal- and vagina-						
positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	A	DaEr	erm(C)
Nasal- and vagina-						blaZ, erm(C), tet(K),
positive	Finisher	CC9	t1334	Α	ApDaErTeTp	dfrS1
Nasal- and vagina-						
positive	Finisher	CC9	t10449	Α	ApDa	blaZ
Nasal- and vagina-						
positive	Weaner	CC9	t10449	Α	ApDaEr	blaZ, erm(C)
Negative †††	Sow	CC9	t10449	A	Te	tet(K)
Negative	Piglet	CC9	t10449	A	Susceptible	No resistance genes
Negative	Finisher	CC9	t1334	A	ApDaTeTp	blaZ, tet(K), dfrS1
Negative	Weaner	CC9	t1334	A	ApDaTeTp	blaZ, tet(K), dfrS1
Negative	Finisher	CC9	t10449	A	DaEr	erm(C)
Negative	Piglet	CC9	t10449	A	DaTe	tet(K)
	positive Nasal- and vagina- positive Negative Negative Negative Negative Negative Negative Negative	positive Weaner Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner Negative ††† Sow Negative Piglet Negative Finisher Negative Finisher Negative Finisher Negative Finisher Negative Finisher Negative Finisher	positive Weaner CC9 Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 Negative ††† Sow CC9 Negative Finisher CC9	positive Weaner CC9 t10449 Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 t10449 Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 t1334 Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 t10449 Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 t10449 Negative ††† Sow CC9 t10449 Negative Piglet CC9 t10449 Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 Negative Finisher CC9 t1349	positive Weaner CC9 t10449 A Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 t10449 A Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 t1334 A Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 t10449 A Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 t10449 A Negative ††† Sow CC9 t10449 A Negative Piglet CC9 t10449 A Negative Finisher CC9 t10449 A Negative Finisher CC9 t10449 A Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 A Negative Weaner CC9 t1334 A Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 A Negative Finisher CC9 t10449 A	positive Weaner CC9 t10449 A ApDaEr Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 t10449 A DaEr Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 t1334 A ApDaErTeTp Nasal- and vagina- positive Finisher CC9 t10449 A ApDa Nasal- and vagina- positive Weaner CC9 t10449 A ApDaEr Negative ††† Sow CC9 t10449 A Te Negative Piglet CC9 t10449 A Susceptible Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 A ApDaTeTp Negative Weaner CC9 t1334 A ApDaTeTp Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 A ApDaTeTp Negative Finisher CC9 t1334 A ApDaTeTp Negative Finisher CC9 t10449 A DaEr

^{† 4069}N signifies sow no. 4069 sampled from the nares on day 2

^{†† 230} D2 signifies pig no.230, sampled on day 2 etc

^{†††}Sow 3631 was negative before farrowing but was nasal positive on day 2. The results of analysis of the day 2 isolate are shown

[‡] Antimicrobial agent abbreviations: Ap, ampicillin; Er, erythromycin; Da, clindamycin; St, streptomycin; Te, tetracycline: Tp, trimethoprim.

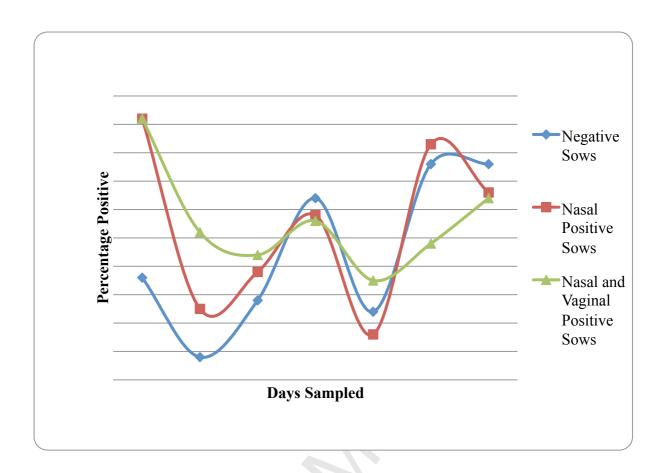


Figure 1. Mean percentage prevalence of *S. aureus*-positive piglets from 2 negative sows (n = 25 piglets), 2 nasal-positive sows (n = 24 piglets) and 2 nasal- and vaginal-positive sows (n = 24 piglets)from day 2 to day 100

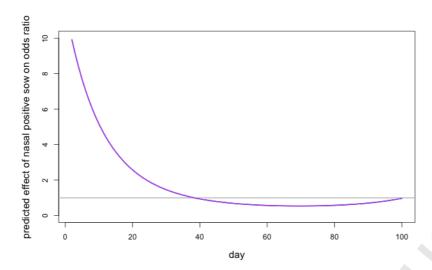


Figure 2. The odds ratio of a piglet from a nasal positive sow being *S. aureus* positive to that of a piglet from a negative sow plotted against age (x-axis), illustrating the estimated main effect of sows being nasal positive as well as the interactions of this variable with age.

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