

1 **Nasal Bacterial Microbiome: Probing a Healthy**
2 **Porcine Family**

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45 **Abstract:**

46 Upper respiratory tract (URT) infection caused the leading and devastating
47 diseases in pigs. It was believed that normal microbiome of URT play a vital
48 role in health and disease development. As the entry of URT, little knowledge
49 of bacterial microbiome in porcine nasal was known. A cultivation-independent
50 approach directly to 16s ribosomal RNA genes enabled us to reveal nasal
51 bacterial community, structure and diversity. Here, we found that an
52 unprecedented 207 phylotypes were characterized from 933 qualified clones,
53 indicating the variable, species richness but particular dominant bacterial
54 microbiome. The dominant species were from genus *Comamonas* and
55 *Acinetobacter*, which constitute core normal bacterial microbiome in porcine
56 nasal. Moreover, a set of swine specific pathogens and zoonotic agents were
57 detected in the swine nasal microbiome. Collectively, we provided a snapshot
58 of our current knowledge of the community structure of porcine nasal bacterial
59 ecosystem in a health family that in further enhance our view to understand
60 URT infection and public health.

61

62 **Keywords:**

63 Porcine Nasal, Bacterial Microbiome, URT infection, Public Health, 16S rDNA

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67 **Introduction**

68 The composition of the complex microbial flora inhabiting the human body has
69 a tremendous influence on human health and disease(Stecher and Hardt,
70 2008). A microbiome is the totality of microbes, their genetic elements, and
71 environmental interaction in a particular niches. Benefiting from the Human
72 Microbiome Project, previous work about vagina, gastrointestinal tract, oral
73 cavity, hands and skin of human bacterial flora largely enhanced our
74 knowledge to understand distinct microbial communities and host-microbe
75 interaction(Bik et al., 2006; Diaz et al., 2006; Grice et al., 2008; Nasidze et al.,
76 2009; Oakley et al., 2008; Pei et al., 2004). However, very little is known about
77 respiratory tract microbiome, particularly host other than human, such as
78 swine.

79
80 Respiratory disease has consistently been reported as one of the most
81 important causes of both morbidity and mortality in post-weaning pigs, as one
82 of the limiting factors of production, causing decreased weight gain, and
83 decreased feed efficiency, an overuse of antibiotics and ultimately respiratory
84 distress and death(Moorkamp et al., 2008; Palzer et al., 2008). There are
85 numerous organisms, both bacterial and viral, that can contribute to respiratory
86 distress in pigs, many can act as opportunistic agents on an already
87 compromised immune system, or can themselves become exacerbated by
88 infection with other opportunistic pathogens. This can result in a more

89 complicated aetiology, which may be associated with higher mortality. Hence,
90 knowledge of aetiology of respiratory disease, as well as host-pathogen
91 interaction, is crucial to understand Upper Respiratory Tract (URT) infection.
92 Defining the normal microbiota of URT is the first step to understand health
93 and disease development.

94

95 As the entrance of upper respiratory tract, host nasal cavity inhabits many
96 different microbes, with minority of symbiotic microorganisms, foreign flora and
97 microbes from the environment; including some important associated with
98 URT infection and other related diseases(Pettigrew et al., 2008). All of them
99 coexist on nasal cavity during a certain development stage. In the URT,
100 site-specific microbial flora may play an important role in respiratory disease
101 development as the nasal cavity ecosystem changes from a healthy to a
102 diseased state. Respiratory disease in pig is complex, but vital in population
103 health state, and economic importance. In veterinary clinic, often two or more
104 related etiologies are associated with disease development, indicating the
105 microbe composition and interaction may help to understand respiratory
106 disease development(Moorkamp et al., 2008; Palzer et al., 2008). While in
107 modern industry farming, early piglet colonizer plays an important role in state
108 of health in its life career. As the closest relative, sow may influence early
109 colonized of their offspring. Thus, exploring the bacterial flora of nasal cavities
110 in early-colonized piglet, sow and understanding their relationship is an

111 important to reveal respiratory disease development in herds.

112

113 Until recently, knowledge of the nasal bacteria was limited to
114 culture-dependent assays, and it is estimated that less than 1% of bacterial
115 species can be cultivated(Guclu et al., 2007; Smith-Vaughan et al., 2006). The
116 use of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene sequences to study bacterial
117 community is the common and suitable housekeeping genetic marker. The
118 16S small subunit ribosomal genes are universal among prokaryotes and
119 contain species-specific variable regions that are useful for inferring
120 phylogenetic relationships(Janda and Abbott, 2007; Petrosino et al., 2009).
121 Broad-range PCR primers that anneal to highly conserved regions flanking the
122 variable regions of the gene allow amplification from the majority of known
123 bacteria, which has led to the identification of microbial diversity and has
124 provided compelling evidence for the existence of hitherto unknown bacteria.
125 As a result of increasing challenge in modern farm associated with respiratory
126 disease, we tend to understand bacterial microbiota nasal cavity of modern
127 farming sow and its piglets, evaluate their relationship with potential disease
128 development. Summary the previous data of porcine upper respiratory tract as
129 well as our data, we provide a preliminary picture of the community structure of
130 the nasal bacteria ecosystem and discuss the potential pathogens, and their
131 impact on public health and food safety.

132

133 **Material and Methods**

134 **Sample Preparation**

135 A healthy family, sow (about 3 years old) and its piglets (twice week after birth),
136 with no history of clinical medication (mild cold or other common features
137 acceptable) or other chronic medical disorders and with no current infections,
138 were selected and all experiments involving pigs were performed under an
139 NIH/NHGRI ACUC approved protocol. Biological samples were collected from
140 both the left and right nasal cavities with no prior cleaning or preparation of the
141 surface. Swabs were obtained using a sterile cotton pledget soaked in sterile
142 0.15 M NaCl with 0.1% Tween 20 and wrung of excess solution. All samples
143 were stored at -80°C until further processing.

144 **DNA extraction and purification**

145 All biological specimens were first incubated in a preparation of enzymatic lysis
146 buffer (20 mM Tris at pH 8.0, 2 mM EDTA, 1.2% Triton X-100) and lysozyme
147 (20 mg/mL) for 30 min at 37°C, and samples were incubated overnight at 56°C
148 in Buffer AL and Proteinase K from the DNeasy DNA Extraction Kit (Qiagen).
149 The standard protocol for the genomic DNA isolation was followed for steps
150 provide by QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen). The purified genomic DNA
151 was resuspended in 30 µL of Buffer AE and stored at -20°C.

152 **Broad-spectrum amplification**

153 A portion of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was amplified using forward primer
154 8F: AGTTTGATC(A/C)TGGCTCAG (Location: 8–27bp) and reverse primer

155 806R: GGACTAC(C/T/A)AGGGTATCTAAT (Location: 806–787bp) to yield a
156 PCR product about 800bp (which encompasses the hypervariable V1-V5
157 region)(Goldenberger et al., 1997; Petrosino et al., 2009). For each 50 μ L
158 reaction, conditions were as follows: 5.0 μ L of 10 x buffer with $MgCl_2$ (TaKaRa),
159 5 μ L of dNTP mix (10 mM each; TaKaRa), 1 μ L of each primer (20 μ M;
160 Tsingke), 3 μ L of DMSO, 5 μ L of bacterial genomic DNA, and 0.5 μ L of Ex Taq
161 Polymerase (TaKaRa). For each DNA sample, three replicates were
162 performed. Thermocycling was as follows: Initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min,
163 followed by first round 15 cycles of a 30-sec 95°C denaturation, 30-sec
164 annealing at 50°C, and 1-min elongation at 72°C, second round 35 cycles of a
165 30-sec 95°C denaturation, 30-sec annealing at 54°C, and 1-min elongation at
166 72°C, all followed by a final extension of 10 min at 72°C. PCR products were
167 then separated on an agarose gel, and bands corresponding to about 0.8-kb
168 product were extracted with a razor blade. Negative control PCR reactions
169 were performed with each set of amplifications and in all cases did not produce
170 an amplification product. PCR products were extracted using the Gel
171 Extraction kit (Qiagen) and resuspended in 30 μ L of Buffer EB and stored at
172 -20°C.

173 **Plasmid library construction, sequencing amplicons and quality** 174 **assessment**

175 PCR products were cloned into the pEASY-T1 vector (Transgene Inc.)
176 according to the manufacturer's protocol. A total of 1191 of the resulting

177 bacterial colonies were picked up for plasmid DNA purification, and plasmid
178 inserts were sequenced bidirectionally using the M13 primers on an ABI
179 3730xl sequencer (Applied Biosystems Inc.), including 576 from sow and 615
180 from two piglets, respectively. Chromatogram data quality and quantity were
181 evaluated using phred Q20 counts and non-vector sequence data remaining
182 after cross_match screening. Sequences were extracted from chromatograms
183 using phred, and bidirectional pairs were assembled using phrap. Vector
184 sequence detected by cross_match was trimmed off. Only assembled
185 sequences about 800 base pairs were studied in further. Assemblies were
186 screened for quality, and all sequences containing >20 consecutive bases of
187 sequence <Q20 were discarded(Grice et al., 2008).

188 **Data analysis**

189 Total valid sequences with chimeric are identified using the Mallard
190 program(Ashelford et al., 2006), leaving 454 from S (sow) group, 479 from PA
191 (piglet A) group and PB (piglet B) group. These 933 sequences were then
192 submitted to RDPII web service(Hamady and Knight, 2009), using the online
193 program Classifier and SeqMatch with a threshold setting for similarity score of
194 95%, to assign 16S rRNA gene sequences to the new phylogenetically
195 consistent higher-order bacterial taxonomy and assign a genus to each
196 sequence, respectively. To classify sequences based on self-similarities rather
197 than matches to an external database, sequences were grouped into
198 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with cutoffs of 97%sequence similarity

199 using the DOTUR software package implemented with the furthest-neighbor
200 option, in which all of the sequences within an OTU are at least 97% similar to
201 all of the other sequences within the OTU(Yu et al., 2006). The term
202 'phylotype' is used for clusters of clone sequences which differ from known
203 species by more than 3% and are at least 97% similar to members of their
204 cluster. The representative sequences were incorporated into Green-Genes
205 online tool NAST alignment tool for species assignment. Shannon-Wiener
206 index as diversity indices, Chao1 and rarefaction as richness estimates
207 calculated by DOTUR and FastGroupII were to estimate microbial diversity
208 and richness as described(Yu et al., 2006). The estimation of diversity
209 coverage was calculated by Good's method, according to which the
210 percentage of coverage was calculated with the formula (%) = $[1-(n/N)] \times 100$,
211 where n is the number of phylotypes represented by one clone only and N is
212 the total number of sequences(Bik et al., 2006). Biohazard level of each
213 species was estimated according to the potential risk of each species
214 according the levels of biohazard definition basing on Risk Group
215 Classification for Infectious Agents available on American Biological Safety
216 Association (<http://www.absa.org/riskgroups/index.html>). The zoonosis
217 information was determined according the list of zoonoses available on
218 World Health Organization (WHO) website
219 (<http://www.who.int/zoonoses/en/index.html>).

220

221 **Results**

222 **Summary the Sequencing Project**

223 Nasal samples were obtained from 3 individuals, consisting of a sow and its
224 two piglets living together. For further extensive analysis bacterial community
225 in a continuous timescale, we focused on a representative family with small
226 individuals. A highly variable portion of the 16S rRNA gene of ~800 base pairs
227 was amplified, cloned and approximately 300 clones were sequenced from
228 each individual; this number of clones is sufficient to capture most of the
229 variation at the level of bacterial genera inferred from the partial 16S rRNA
230 sequences as describe previously(Grice et al., 2008). A total of 1,149
231 sequences were obtained, which were then analyzed for possible chimeras or
232 other artifacts. We identified 76 potentially chimeric sequences, which
233 represents 6.6% of the sequences. This data was according to the average of
234 9% potentially chimeric sequences reported previously for full-length 16S
235 rRNA clone libraries. The remaining qualified 933 sequences were analyzed in
236 the followings. The overview information of project was showed in Table 1.

237 **Phylotypes, Species Richness and Diversity**

238 The qualified 933 sequences were grouped into operational taxonomic units
239 (OTUs; "Phylotypes") based on their genetic distance in a neighbor-joining tree
240 with the DOTUR program(Hamady and Knight, 2009). A species-level OTU
241 has historically been defined as containing 16S rDNA sequences that are 97%
242 identical. Using the furthest-neighbor method of calculation and a similarity

243 threshold of 97%, DOTUR assigned the 933 sequences to 207 OTUs,
244 including 121 singletons. There were 79 swine unique OTUs (120 clones),
245 while 47 (63 clones) and 32 (42 clones) piglet unique OTUs for piglet A and
246 piglet B, respectively. Though only 11 OTUs were commonly shared by such
247 family (As showed in Fig 2a), there were 480 clones belonging to previous 11
248 OTUs, which constitute of a total 51.4% (As showed in Fig 2b) indicating the
249 general core bacterial flora in the family. The remaining 196 OTUs were from
250 the other half of total clones (453/933, 48.6% in total), which indicated the
251 diversity of bacterial flora in nasal within different individuals. The genus was
252 assigned to each sequence by comparison to the RDP11 database revealed
253 922 classifiable bacterial clones, while the remaining 11 clones cannot be
254 assigned the known genus at a threshold of 95%.

255 Estimations of species coverage, richness, evenness, and diversity were
256 calculated for the combined data set, as well as for three subsets of nasal
257 samples (As showed in Table 1). The Chao1 estimator of total species
258 richness was 439, which based on the distribution of singletons.
259 Shannon-Wiener index of total species diversity is 3.75, which is one of several
260 diversity indices used to measure diversity in categorical data. It is simply the
261 Information entropy of the distribution, treating species as symbols and their
262 relative population sizes as the probability. Good's coverage was 77.8% for the
263 overall sequence set, indicating that twelve additional phylotypes would be
264 expected for every 100 additional sequenced clones. This level of coverage

265 indicated that the 16S rDNA sequences identified in these samples represent
266 the majority of bacterial sequences present in the porcine nasal samples under
267 study.

268 **Distribution of Clones at Different Levels**

269 Fig.1 showed bacteria distribution in different categories with the phylum
270 identified among the 933 clones in combined nasal sequence data set. The
271 nasal bacterial community was constituted by three phyla: *Proteobacteria* (895
272 clones), *Firmicutes* (21 clones), *Bacteroidetes* (7 clones), the remaining nasal
273 bacterial sequences were assigned as an uncharacterized composition (12
274 clones). Among these sequences, *Proteobacteria* was the dominant phylum
275 (95.9% in total) in porcine nasal cavities, which included a wide variety of
276 pathogens, such as *Escherichia*, *Salmonella*, *Vibrio*, *Helicobacter*, and many
277 other notable genera. As showed in Table 2, current genuses identified in
278 porcine nasal sample were *Empedobacter*, *Myroides*, *Dysgonomonas* in
279 phylum *Bacteroidetes*; *Streptococcus*, *Kurthia*, *Peptostreptococcaceae*
280 *Incertae Sedis*, *Clostridium* in phylum; *Arcobacter*, *Actinobacillus*, *Pasteurella*,
281 *Proteus*, *Schineria*, *Psychrobacter*, *Acinetobacter*, *Pseudomonas*, *Massilia*,
282 *Naxibacter*, *Comamonas*, *Vitreoscilla* in phylum *Proteobacteria*. Among these
283 genus, *Comamonas* and *Acinetobacter* were the most abundant clones within
284 the porcine nasal libraries. *Comamonas* sequences were found all the three
285 porcine nasal samples (varying from 28.3% to 56.4% of clones per sample
286 library) and constitute of all sequences analyzed (441/933, 47.3% in total).

287 *Acinetobacter* sequences were also found all the three porcine nasal samples
288 (varying from 15.8% to 38.2% of clones per sample library) and constitute of all
289 sequences analyzed (216/933, 23.2% in total). The above abundant genus in
290 porcine nasal samples occupied about 70% clones in species, indicating the
291 specific core species constituted the indigenous bacterial population in porcine
292 nasal cavity. Detail analysis the composition of the genus *Comamonas*
293 revealed the constitution of *Comamonas aquatica*, *Comamonas sp.* and
294 *Comamonas testosteroni*. And *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Acinetobacter*
295 *calcoaceticus*, *Acinetobacter lwoffii* and *Acinetobacter sp.* are the
296 representative species of *Acinetobacter* genus. The other remarkable clones in
297 nasal libraries, which were specific found in sow, were family *Pasteurellaceae*
298 and *Streptococcaceae*. Though the total clone number is from 1 to 3, we
299 cannot draw a conclusion of no significant difference between sow and its
300 piglet because of lack of available data in analysis. The similar results were
301 found in family *Clostridiaceae*, *Campylobacteraceae* which were found specific
302 to sow, while family *Carnobacteriaceae*, *Pseudomonadaceae*,
303 *Xanthomonadaceae* were specific to piglet.

304 **Potential Pathogens and public health**

305 Table 4 summary the most important pathogens frequent found in porcine UTR,
306 which were well recognized in previous knowledge. Many of them were as
307 normal microbiota, but with specific aetiology importance in veterinary clinics.
308 In table 3, we concluded the annotated sequences with aetiology importance

309 from porcine nasal samples. *Streptococcus suis*, *Pasteurella multocida*,
310 *Actinobacillus suis*, *Haemophilus parasuis* were found according to previous
311 knowledge of aetiology in porcine UTR. We also discovered lots of the
312 previous unknown pathogens in porcine UTR(Brockmeier et al., 2008; Lin et al.,
313 2006; Maes et al., 2008). Some belong to zoonosis such as *Proteus vulgaris*,
314 inhabits the intestinal tracts of humans and animals, known to cause urinary
315 tract infections and wound infections. Large numbers of potential pathogens
316 specific to human were also found. Among the summary in the table 3, most of
317 them were found specific in sow, while relative small number was in piglet.
318 Interesting, we found specie *Bacillus anthracis* from sow sample, which can be
319 classified as biohazard level-3 pathogen. And host specific specie *Shigella*
320 *flexneri* was also found in nasal sample from sow.

321

322 **Discussion**

323 Environment samples including seawater, sediments, and soil, about 1% of
324 bacteria can be cultivated; in contrast, cultivability of the human microbiota,
325 such as in the gut, is estimated to be substantially higher (10–50%)(Hamady
326 and Knight, 2009). The molecular approach by 16S rDNA sequencing has
327 significantly enhanced our knowledge in understanding bacteria diversity,
328 though this method has PCR amplification efficacy bias, cloning bias and was
329 dependent largely on updated database. In this study, our data from

330 sequence-based environmental microbial approach describes a previously
331 unrecognized extent of bacterial diversity in the porcine nasal ecosystem.
332 Analysis of the 933 16S rDNA clones from the nasal samples of a healthy
333 porcine family revealed an unrecognized bacterial species rich microbiota: the
334 3 phyla and 207 phylotypes represented in the microbiota, with about 75%
335 species coverage estimated.

336

337 Though there are 3 phyla and a few unclassified clones in the nasal samples,
338 *Proteobacteria* is, undoubtedly, the dominant phylum. And *Comamonadaceae*,
339 *Moraxellaceae* and *Oxalobacteraceae* are the three dominant families in the
340 porcine nasal samples. All those clones from above three dominant families
341 constitute the major normal bacterial. Among these, Genus *Comamonas*
342 belong to family *Comamonadaceae* covers half of the clones in the total
343 libraries. *Comamonas* species are environmental Gram-negative rods that
344 grow forming pink-pigmented colonies. It is known that *Comamonas* strains
345 are involved in novel degradation capability in environments. Though this
346 genus have potential application in bioremediation and are common in nature,
347 some member, such as *Comamonas testosteroni* is associated implicated as a
348 human pathogen along with rarely case report(Reddy et al., 2009). The only
349 notable infection species is *C. testosterone*, which was found in sow library.
350 Genus *Acinetobacter* from family *Moraxellaceae* is also one of major
351 composition in normal bacterial flora. *Acinetobacter spp.* is widely distributed in

352 nature. Occasionally, strains are isolated from foodstuffs and some are able to
353 survive on various medical equipments and even on healthy human skin.
354 *Acinetobacter* species are generally considered nonpathogenic to healthy
355 individuals. However, several species persist in hospital environments and
356 cause severe, life-threatening infections in compromised patients, and the
357 strain *A. baumannii* is the second most commonly isolated nonfermenting
358 bacteria in human specimens(Bergogne-Berezin and Towner, 1996;
359 Joly-Guillou, 2005). The bacterial community in major constitution of
360 *Comamonas* and *Acinetobacter* species may play a vital part in balance
361 bacterial flora in porcine nasal. Though sow and piglets have numbers of
362 different phylotypes, the constitution of core genus in bacterial microbiota is
363 the same, indicating the sow play a key role in early colonizers to establish in
364 its piglets.

365
366 There were various swine specific pathogens found in swine nasal microbiome.
367 Organisms from *Pasteurellaceae* family were common agents found in porcine
368 UTRs(Moller and Kilian, 1990). *Haemophilus parasuis* was the most common
369 nasal carriage in pigs, which was found throughout the world and organisms
370 were present even in high health herds(Olvera et al., 2007). *Actinobacillus suis*
371 can persist as a commensal in the upper respiratory tract (URT) with a wide
372 rang of host, under conditions which are poorly understood(MacInnes and
373 Desrosiers, 1999). *Pasteurella multocida* was the causative agent of fowl

374 cholera (FC), hemorrhagic septicemia (HS), and a variety of respiratory
375 syndromes such as atrophic rhinitis of swine (AR) and purulent rhinitis of
376 rabbits (“snuffles”), which were also part of the normal oropharyngeal flora in
377 many species(Frost and Adler, 2000; Hunt et al., 2000). The other important
378 agent belongs to family *Streptococcus*. *Streptococcus suis*, which principally
379 colonized in pig tonsil, is associated with a wide range of clinical syndromes in
380 swine and other domestic animals(Wertheim et al., 2009). The latter three
381 were also notable zoonotic important agents, while zoonotic *S. suis* type 2
382 cause serious public incidence in China in 2005(Segura, 2009). As the healthy
383 carrier, they all were also found in the sow libraries. Though there maybe
384 virulent strains as a result of specific disease outbreaks, the normal bacterial
385 microbiota may balance such virulent strains; result from competitive limiting
386 their growth or other unknown mechanisms. Ecological view may help to
387 understanding the porcine upper respiratory infection and disease
388 development. In such cases, those dominant species in *Comamonas* and
389 *Acinetobacter* may be of vital importance in porcine UTR microbiota
390 interaction.

391

392 In addition to above well-recognized agents, we also characterized a group of
393 agents that can be involved in specific human infection. Organisms such as
394 *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus*, *Acinetobacter Iwoffii*
395 from genus *Acinetobacter*. *Acinetobacter* species are generally considered

396 nonpathogenic to healthy human individuals(Joly-Guillou, 2005). However,
397 several species persist in hospital environments and cause severe,
398 life-threatening infections in compromised patients, and the species *A.*
399 *baumannii* is the second most commonly isolated nonfermenting bacteria in
400 human specimens(Joly-Guillou, 2005). *Arcobacter cryaerophilus*, *Proteus*
401 *vulgaris*, *Pantoea agglomerans* and *Pantoea ananatis* were as opportunistic
402 pathogen, as result of common bacteremic infection and other specific
403 syndrome(Aly et al., 2008; De Baere et al., 2004; Stein and Gechman, 1955;
404 Wesley et al., 1996). Including *Massilia timonae* and *Myroides odoratimimus*,
405 those were all firstly detected in porcine nasal samples. Approximately 80% of
406 the infectious agents that cause disease in humans are shared with various
407 animal hosts. Currently, many newly emerging diseases are caused by
408 zoonotic agents, which focused on wildlife reservoirs that increase human
409 exposure to insect vectors as well as to animal and environmental sources of
410 disease. Importantly, porcine could play an important part in emerging
411 zoonoses, and may be the unrecognized carrier, potential risk to public health
412 and food safety(Tomley and Shirley, 2009). More effects need to discover our
413 close contact animals-pig, by new potential agents explore and routine
414 surveillance. The human microbiome project largely enhances our knowledge
415 to understanding the health and disease. Porcine microbiome will not only aid
416 the above knowledge, but also help to understand swine zoonosis.

417

418 In conclusion, by means of a 16S rRNA gene clone library, we provided a
419 preliminary picture of our current knowledge of the community structure of
420 porcine nasal bacterial ecosystem. Our results indicate that the
421 culture-independent genetic profiling of the 16S rRNA gene is a powerful tool
422 for investigation of the nasal microbiota. Further study is required to determine
423 the occurrence of these organisms in the porcine nasal microbiota, their
424 interaction mechanism and their functional roles in development of health and
425 disease.

426

427 **Acknowledgement**

428 We thank Dr. Jian Yang for the aid in data analysis. This work was supported
429 by the 973 Program (grant no. 2006CB504404) and Innovation Teams of
430 Ministry of Education (grant no. IRT0726).

431

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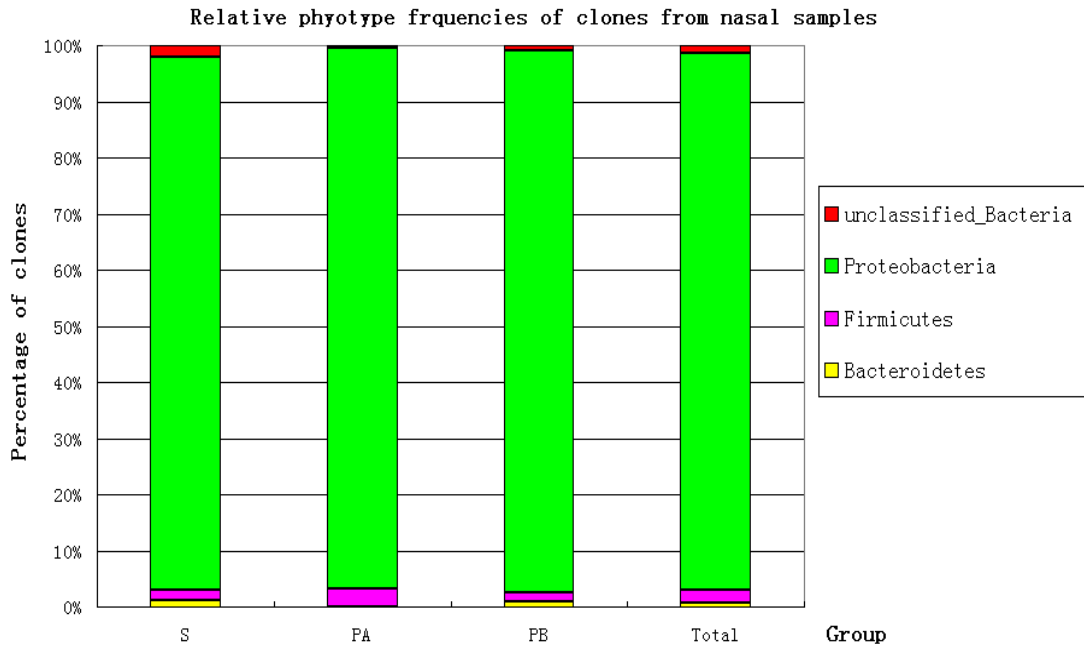
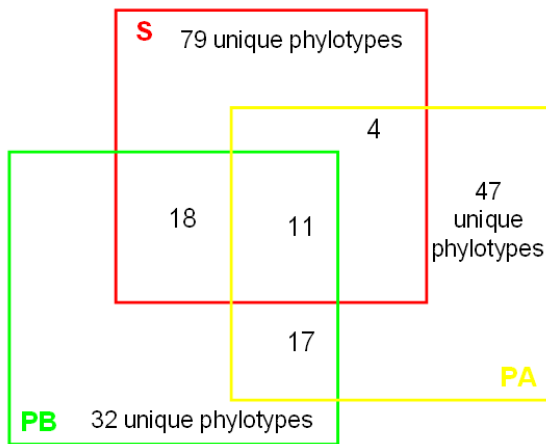


Fig 1. Relative genus frequencies of clones determined from porcine nasal cavity.

Sequences were assigned to a bacterial phylum according to their position in the phylogenetic level in TABLE 2. Total combines libraries from previous three subjects, including swine and piglets.

a



b

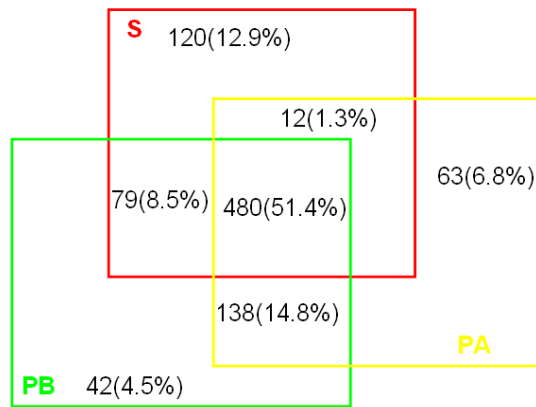


Fig 2. A Venn diagram illustrates observed overlap of OTUs among different individuals within the family. S represent Sow, PA and PB represent Piglet A and Piglet B, respectively. Fig 2a shows the distribution of OUTs in S, PA and PB. Fig 2b shows the distribution of clones in S, PA and PB.

Measurement	Sow (S)	Piglet A (PA)	Piglet B (PB)	Total
No. of clones sequenced	540	323	286	1149
No. of chemic clones ^a	37	21	18	76
No. of clones for further study	454	251	228	933
Average length of sequence reads (bp)	782	770	762	774
No. of classifiable bacterial sequences ^b	446	250	226	922
Phylotypes ^c	117	77	87	207
Singletons	64	49	49	121
Sow unique phylotypes	79	/	/	/
Piglet A unique phylotypes	/	47	/	/
Piglet B unique phylotypes	/	/	32	/
Common phylotypes	/	/	/	11
Chao 1 (ribotypes) ^d	222±5	197±2	142±2	439±8
Shannon-Wiener index (nats) ^e	3.42±0.19	3.44±0.10	3.64±0.12	3.75±0.22
Coverage ^f (%)	74.2	69.3	61.8	77.8

TABLE 1. Summary description of projects and bacterial community

a Chimeric sequences were determined by using the Mallard program; b Total No. of classifiable bacterial sequences of each libraries were determined by screening the RDPII database at a threshold of 95%; c The term 'phylotype' is used for clusters of clone sequences which differ from known species by more than 3% and are at least 97% similar to members of their cluster; d 'Richness' calculates Chao1 richness index; Chao1 values, a nonparametric estimate of species richness; e 'Diversity' calculates Shannon-Wiener diversity index; The index is one of several diversity indices used to measure diversity in categorical data. It is simply the Information entropy of the distribution, treating species as symbols and their relative population sizes as the probability; f The estimation of diversity coverage was calculated by Good's method, according to which

the percentage of coverage was calculated with the formula (%) = $[1-(n/N)] \times 100$, where n is the number of phlotypes represented by one clone only and N is the total number of sequences.

	S	PA	PB
phylum <i>Bacteroidetes</i>			
class <i>Flavobacteria</i>			
order <i>Flavobacteriales</i>			
family <i>Flavobacteriaceae</i>			
genus <i>Empedobacter</i>	1		
genus <i>Myroides</i>	2		2
class <i>Bacteroidetes</i>			
order <i>Bacteroidales</i>			
family <i>Porphyromonadaceae</i>			
genus <i>Dysgonomonas</i>	1		
unclassified <i>Bacteroidetes</i>	2		
phylum <i>Firmicutes</i>			

class "*Bacilli*"

order "*Lactobacillales*"

family *Streptococcaceae*

genus *Streptococcus* 1

family "*Carnobacteriaceae*"

unclassified "*Carnobacteriaceae*" 3 1

order *Bacillales*

family *Planococcaceae*

genus *Kurthia* 6 3 1

unclassified_"*Bacilli*" 1

class "*Clostridia*"

order *Clostridiales*

family "*Peptostreptococcaceae*"

genus " <i>Peptostreptococcaceae Incertae Sedis</i> "	1	2
family <i>Clostridiaceae</i>		
subfamily " <i>Clostridiaceae 1</i> "		
genus <i>Clostridium</i>	2	
unclassified <i>Firmicutes</i>		1
phylum <i>Proteobacteria</i>		
class <i>Epsilonproteobacteria</i>		
order <i>Campylobacterales</i>		
family <i>Campylobacteraceae</i>		
genus <i>Arcobacter</i>	3	
class <i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>		
order <i>Pasteurellales</i>		
family <i>Pasteurellaceae</i>		

genus <i>Actinobacillus</i>	1		
genus <i>Pasteurella</i>	1		
unclassified <i>Pasteurellaceae</i>	3		
order <i>Enterobacteriales</i>			
family <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>			
genus <i>Proteus</i>			1
unclassified <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	2	3	1
order <i>Xanthomonadales</i>			
family <i>Xanthomonadaceae</i>			
genus <i>Schineria</i>		2	
order <i>Pseudomonadales</i>			
family <i>Moraxellaceae</i>			
genus <i>Psychrobacter</i>	1	1	1

genus <i>Acinetobacter</i>	84	96	36
unclassified <i>Moraxellaceae</i>	4	3	1
family <i>Pseudomonadaceae</i>			
genus <i>Pseudomonas</i>		1	1
unclassified <i>Pseudomonadaceae</i>		4	1
unclassified <i>Pseudomonadales</i>	4		2
unclassified <i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>	2	2	3
class <i>Betaproteobacteria</i>			
order <i>Burkholderiales</i>			
family <i>Oxalobacteraceae</i>			
genus <i>Massilia</i>	1	3	6
genus <i>Naxibacter</i>		2	3
unclassified <i>Oxalobacteraceae</i>	3	27	12

family <i>Comamonadaceae</i>			
genus <i>Comamonas</i>	256	71	114
unclassified <i>Comamonadaceae</i>	18	7	6
unclassified <i>Burkholderiales</i>		6	13
order <i>Neisseriales</i>			
family <i>Neisseriaceae</i>			
genus <i>Vitreoscilla</i>		2	
unclassified <i>Burkholderiales</i>	18		
unclassified <i>Betaproteobacteria</i>	1		2
unclassified <i>Proteobacteria</i>	29	14	17
unclassified <i>Bacteria</i>	8	1	2

TABLE 2. Hierarchy view of genus distribution in different samples by Naive Bayesian rRNA Classifier

Sequence Name	Annotated Species ^a	Identity ^b	Genebank	Library	Bioharzard Level ^c	Zoonoses ^d
S080;S304;PA077;PA004;PA;PB021	<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> AIIMS 11	0.96-0.98	EU883589	S;PA	2	No
S070;	<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> A2	0.95	AF159045	S	2	No
S386;S526;S534;S210;S091	<i>Acinetobacter lwoffii</i> CMG 851	0.95-0.98	EU697389	S	2	No
S456	<i>Actinobacillus suis</i> ATCC 33415	0.99	AY362899	S	2	Yes
S071;S129;S259	<i>Arcobacter cryaerophilus</i> ATCC 49615	0.98	U25805	S	2	Yes
S406;S549;PB262	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i> HDDMM10	0.97	EU723830	S;PB	3	Yes
S393;S307	<i>Comamonas testosteroni</i> WAB1945	0.95-0.98	AM184284	S	2	No
PA196	<i>Enterobacter hormaechei</i> TMPSB-T10	0.95	EU047556	PA	2	No
PB105	<i>Escherichia coli</i> O157:H7	0.95	CP001368	PB	3	Yes
S141;S150;S181	<i>Haemophilus parasuis</i> SW114	0.99	AB004039	S	2	No
S179;PB177	<i>Massilia cf. timonae</i> 96A14209	0.98	AY157762	S	2	No
PA157;PB125;PB234	<i>Massilia timonae</i> UR/MT95	0.95-0.99	NR_026014	PA;PB	2	No
PA245;PA158;PA283	<i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i> ATCC 25238	0.96	U10876	PA	2	No
S048	<i>Myroides odoratimimus</i> CM9	0.9	EU660317	S	2	Yes
S299;PB038;PB041	<i>Myroides odoratimimus</i> GJ1-8	0.9-0.91	EU331413	S;PB	2	Yes
PA219	<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> WAB1872	0.95	AM184214	PA	2	No
PA161	<i>Pantoea ananatis</i> BD 543	0.99	DQ133545	PA	2	No
S187	<i>Pasteurella multocida</i> Tabriz98	0.98	AE004439	S	2	Yes
PB188	<i>Proteus vulgaris</i> IFAM 1731	0.99	X07652	PB	2	Yes
PA132	<i>Pseudomonas mendocina</i> NCIB 10541	0.96	D84016	PA	2	No
S276	<i>Shigella flexneri</i> FBD002	0.95	EU009187	S	2	No
S293	<i>Streptococcus suis</i> NCTC1046	0.99	AF009490	S	2	Yes

TABLE 3 Summary the potential pathogens associated with porcine and public health. a, the annotated sequence information was according to the seqmatch method described previously; b, the querying sample sequence identity is according to the N-BLAST identity to the preference sequence; c, the bioharzard level of each species was estimated as described in the methods; d, Zoonoses information of each species was determinated in the methods.

Porcine UTR bacterial agents	Host	Normal habitat	Primary disease in pig	Preference
<i>Streptococcus suis</i>	swine	palatine tonsil	meningoencephalitis;septicemia;arthritis	Wertheim, et al. 2009
<i>Haemophilus parasuis</i>	swine	nose	polyserositis (Glässer's disease) respiratory disease;septicemia;arthritis	Olvera, et al. 2007
<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	birds, mammals	oropharyngeal;UTR	atrophic rhinitis(synergistically with <i>Bordetella bronchiseptica</i>)	Frost and Adler. 2000
<i>Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae</i>	swine	tonsils; nose	pleuropneumonia	Moller, et al. 1990
<i>Actinobacillus suis</i>	birds, mammals	tonsils;UTR	septicemia;pneumonia;arthritis;enteritis	MacInnes, et al. 1999
<i>Bordetella bronchiseptica</i>	warm-blooded animals	nose	atrophic rhinitis(synergistically with toxic <i>Pasteurella multocida</i>)	Brockmeier, et al. 2008
<i>Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae</i>	swine	lung	pneumonia	Maes, et al. 2008
<i>Mycoplasma hyorhinis</i>	swine	tonsils;UTR	polyserositis;arthritis	Lin, et al. 2006

TABLE 4. Summary the most important bacterial pathogens in porcine upper respiratory tract (UTR).