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1	Ovine pedomics- the first study of the ovine foot 16S rRNA based microbiome
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26 Abstract

27 We report the first study of the bacterial microbiome of ovine interdigital skin based on 16S 28 rRNA by pyrosequencing and conventional cloning with Sanger-sequencing. Three flocks 29 were selected, one a flock with no signs of footrot or interdigital dermatitis, a second flock 30 with interdigital dermatitis alone and a third flock with both interdigital dermatitis and footrot. 31 The sheep were classified as having either healthy interdigital skin (H), interdigital dermatitis 32 (ID) or virulent footrot (VFR). The ovine interdigital skin bacterial community varied significantly by flock and clinical condition. The diversity and richness of operational 33 34 taxonomic units was greater in tissue from sheep with ID than H or VFR affected sheep. 35 Actinobacteria, Bacteriodetes, Firmicutes and Proteobacteria were the most abundant phyla 36 comprising 25 genera. Peptostreptococcus, Corynebacterium and Staphylococcus were 37 associated with H, ID and VFR respectively. Sequences of *Dichelobacter nodosus*, the causal 38 agent of ovine footrot, were not amplified due to mismatches in the 16S rRNA universal 39 forward primer (27F). A specific real time PCR assay was used to demonstrate the presence of 40 D. nodosus which was detected in all samples including the flock with no signs of ID or VFR. Sheep with ID had significantly higher numbers of D. nodosus (10^4-10^9) cells/g tissue) than 41 42 those with H or VFR feet.

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51 Introduction

52 Dichelobacter nodosus, a Gram negative bacterium, causes footrot in small ruminants. The first clinical sign of footrot is interdigital dermatitis (ID), in certain 53 54 environments, and with some strains of D. nodosus, separation of the hoof horn from the 55 sensitive tissue can arise causing virulent footrot (VFR) (Beveridge, 1941). Footrot, both ID 56 and VFR, is responsible for over 90% of lameness in sheep in the UK (Kaler and Green, 57 2008), and it is one of the most important causes of poor welfare and economic loss to the 58 sheep industry in the world. Several taxa other than *D. nodosus* have been linked to footrot; 59 this disease can be considered as a polymicrobial disease with opportunistic colonizers 60 contributing to increased severity and / or persistence of the disease (Beveridge, 1941; 61 Stewart, 1989; Billington et al., 1996). The bacterial species associated with footrot are 62 Fusobacterium necrophorum (Beveridge, 1941; Robert and Egerton, 1969;), Arcanobacterium 63 pyogenes (Lavín et al., 2004) and Treponema (Beveridge, 1941; Egerton et al., 1969; Naylor 64 et al., 1998; Colligham et al., 2000; Dhawi et al., 2005). The structure of the total bacterial 65 community and how this differs between healthy and diseased sheep is unknown.

66 In microscopic examination of samples from foot lesions cocci, corynebacteria and 67 other rod-shape microorganisms were abundant near the surface of the skin and in lesions 68 (Beveridge, 1941; Egerton et al., 1969). However, D. nodosus and Treponema spp. were 69 present in small numbers and less frequently present compared with F. necrophorum, but all 70 were present in the deeper parts of the tissue (Beveridge, 1941). Aerobic and anaerobic 71 cultivation of bacteria from diseased feet have also revealed the presence of other microorganisms including Bacteroides spp., Porphyromonas spp., Prevotella spp., 72 73 Peptostreptococcus spp., Clostridium spp among others (Berveridge 1941; Moore et al., 74 2005). Cultivation of bacteria from affected goats showed that the major taxa were D. 75 nodosus, Peptostreptococcus, Megasphaera and Fusobacterium (Piriz-Duran et al., 1990).

The aim of the current study was to investigate the microbial community of the interdigital skin of sheep comparing individuals with healthy feet (H), interdigital dermatitis (ID) or virulent footrot (VFR). Sheep were selected from three flocks with and without footrot to test the hypothesis that the structure of the bacterial community varies by clinical condition of the sheep and flock.

81

82 Materials and Methods

83 Source of tissue samples

84 Three geographically separated farms located in the South West of England were 85 selected for the study. Flock A (20 Badger Faced Welsh Mountain sheep) had had no clinical 86 cases of footrot or interdigital dermatitis for the past 10 years, VFR had been eradicated by a 87 combination of culling and use of parenteral oxytetracycline (Kaler et al., 2010a). Sheep were 88 not foot-trimmed. Flock B (100 Wiltshire Horn sheep) had sheep with ID but no VFR. 89 Affected sheep were sprayed with oxytetracycline or copper sulphate spray and there was no 90 policy for culling lame sheep. Sheep were foot-trimmed once a year. Flock C (200 Suffolk 91 cross mule sheep) had sheep with ID and VFR. Affected sheep were sprayed with 92 oxytetracycline and necrotic material was trimmed away. Ewes were also routinely foot-93 trimmed once a year. There was no culling policy.

94 The sheep were selected from the three flocks as follows; flock A three sheep with 95 healthy feet (H), flock B three sheep with H feet and two with ID feet and flock C two sheep 96 with healthy feet, three with ID and two with VFR (Table 1). Healthy feet were without 97 clinical abnormality, feet with ID had irritation present in the red interdigital space, with or 98 without a white/grey pasty scum and loss of hair in the interdigital space and virulent footrot 99 (VFR) presented as separation of horn from the underlying tissue with or without interdigital 100 dermatitis. All four feet of all sheep were examined *post mortem* and feaces / grass were removed aseptically to expose the interdigital skin for sampling. Tissue samples were taken from the interdigital skin using a sterile 0.5 cm core borer (0.8 cm depth). All material was stored at -80°C. All tissue samples from flocks A and B were collected in summer 2008; tissue samples for flock C were collected in summer 2008 (H1C, H2C, H3C, VFR1C), spring (ID1C, ID2C, ID3C) and summer 2009 (VFR2C). The DNA from all feet was pooled per sheep for all analyses with exception of the qPCR assays where *D. nodosus* cell number was quantified in each foot separately.

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109 Bacterial DNA extraction from tissue

110 Tissue samples (130-160 mg) were treated with 10 mg/ml collagenase (Collagenase 111 NB 4G, SERVA,) in 0.05 M TES/ 0.36 mM CaCl₂ pH 7.5 at 37°C for 5-7 h to release the 112 microbial cell. The supernatant was centrifuged at $15,871 \times g$ for 15 min and the pellet 113 formed was used to extract DNA using MagMAXTM Express Magnetic Particle Processors 114 (AMBION, Applied Biosystems, Inc.) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. 115 DNA was eluted into 60 µl of elution buffer (10 mM Tris-HCL pH 8).

116

117 16S rRNA PCR amplification for library construction

All PCR amplifications were carried out using PCR-Promega master mix (Promega). All PCR reactions had a final volume of 50 μ l containing 25 μ l Master mix (50 units/ml of *Taq* DNA polymerase supplied in a reaction buffer (pH 8.5), 400 μ M each dNTP, 3 mM MgCl2), 10 μ M of each primer, 2.5 μ l of DMSO (Dimethyl Sulfoxide, Fisher Scientific), 2 μ l BSA (bovine serum albumin 10 mg/ml, SIGMA) and 1-3 μ l of template DNA (50-100 ng) were performed using the following conditions: 1 cycle of 95°C for 2 min, 35 cycles of 95°C for 1 min, 55°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 min with a final extension of 72°C for 10 min.

126 Detection of *D. nodosus* by 16S rRNA specific PCR

127 To test the reliability of *D. nodosus* extraction, PCR reactions were performed using a 128 direct or a nested PCR approach. All DNA samples were screened for the presence of D. 129 nodosus using the specific primers for the 16S rRNA gene (Cc5'-130 TCGGTACCGAGTATTTCTACCCAACACCT-'3 and Ac 5'-CGGGGTTATGTAGCTTGC-131 '3) (La Fontaine *et al.*, 1993) at 60° C annealing temperature for direct detection of D. 132 *nodosus*. In some cases to increase sensitivity, a nested PCR was used comprising a round of 133 PCR using universal 16S rRNA primers (27F and 1525R) (Lane, 1991; Baker et al., 2003) at 134 55° C instead of 60° C annealing temperature followed by a second round of PCR using D. 135 nodosus 16S rRNA specific primers. Strain VCS1703A (Prof. Julian I. Rood, Monash 136 University, Australia) was used as positive control and sterile water as negative control.

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138 PCR libraries based construction, Sanger sequencing and data analysis

For PCR clone libraries, 16S rRNA genes were amplified from the total community DNA from feet tissue (see above) using primers 27F and 1525R at 55°C. All amplicons were gel purified (QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit, Qiagen UK) and cloned into the pGEM-T Easy vector system (Promega, London, UK) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. A minimum of 100 colonies per ligation were recovered and grown and the plasmid DNA purified (QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit, Qiagen UK) and sequenced using the 27F primer on an ABI PRISM 3130xl Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems).

For phylogenetic analyses, all sequences from each library were edited, aligned and trimmed with SeqMan II (Lasergene 6). Sequences were aligned using the NAST alignment tool on the greengenes website (http://greengenes.lbl.gov) (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006a, b). For taxonomic classification, nearest-neighbour, diversity indices (Shannon and Simpson 1-D) and richness estimates (Chao1 richness), sequences were grouped into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) by the furthest-neighbour algorithm using DOTUR (Schloss and Handelsman,
2005) at a 97% similarity cut off.

153

154 Pyrosequencing and data analysis

Pyrosequencing was performed using bacterial tag-encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing (bTEFAP) similar to that described previously (Dowd *et al.*, 2008). bTEFAP was based upon the Titanium sequencing platform rather than FLX (Roche Indianapolis, IN USA). The average sequence length was 405 bp with range of 300-500 bp. A single step reaction was utilized with 30 cycles of PCR to reduce chimera formation.

160 Raw sequence data were edited using a series of custom Perl and Bioperl scripts which 161 performed the following initial steps: trimming of pyrosequencing tag sequences, screening 162 for presence of PCR primers, length screening, and removal of sequences with one or more 163 ambiguous base calls. BLASTN was run locally with default parameters using type strains 164 from Release 102 of the Silva SSU rRNA database to determine the identity of sequences 165 (Preusse et al., 2007). Sequences were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) 166 using CD-HIT (Li and Godzik 2006). Summary analyses of OTU frequency distributions, 167 including rarefaction curves and CCA, were performed in R (R Development Core Team, 168 2009) automated with a series of scripts in the R language. Output from CD-HIT was 169 converted to mothur format (Schloss et al., 2009) with Perl, and community similarity trees 170 and Venn diagrams were constructed in mothur. Sequences were aligned against a template 171 alignment from the Silva rRNA database project for phylogenetic analysis (Preusse et al., 172 2007) using the mothur alignment package. Trees were built with maximum-likelihood and 173 neighbour-joining algorithms in ARB (Ludwing et al., 2004) using a 75% homology filter. 174 Phylogenetic clustering was assessed with UniFrac (Lozupone and Knight 2005) which uses 175 both branch-length and position to compare actual phylogenies to a null model of randomly permuted sites. To estimate the level of richness and diversity (the efficiency of new OTUs
sampling recovery at 97% similarity cut off), rarefraction curves were created for condition
and flock.

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180 Quantitative PCR (qPCR) of D. nodosus

181 Quantification of *D. nodosus* in samples, standards and no template controls (sterile 182 water) was done in triplicate using Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast real-time PCR system. The 183 RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor gene (*rpoD*; single copy number in *D. nodosus* genome) 184 was used as a target with a thermal cycle profile of 1 cycle at 50°C for 2 min, 1 cycle at 95°C 185 for 10 min, 40 cycles at 95°C for 15 sec and the final stage at 55°C for 1 min. Each reaction 186 contained 12.5 µl of Taqman universal PCR master mix (Promega) (50 units/ml of Taq DNA 187 polymerase supplied in a proprietary reaction buffer pH 8.5, 400 µM of each: dATP, dGTP, 188 dCTP, dTTP, 3 mM MgCl2), 0.9 µM of each primer (rpoDF and rpoDR) (Table 2), 0.25 µM 189 of Taqman (5' 6-carboxyfluorescein-tetramethyl-6-carboxyrhodamine 3') (Table 2), 2.5 µl of a 190 10 mg/ml bovine serum albumin (BSA) solution, 1 µl of template DNA and nuclease free 191 water in a total 25 µl reaction. Analytical specificity of rpoD against D. nodosus was 192 performed experimentally using DNA from other bacterial species found in the hoof, soil and 193 farm animal faeces including Fusobacterium necrophorum, Arcanobacterium pyogenes, 194 Streptomyces spp. Streptococcus spp. Mycobacterium bovis, Pseudonomas putida, E. coli 195 laboratory strains. A database search also indicted that these primers were specific for the 196 rpoD target gene form D. nodosus as predicted from the assay. These DNA extracts were also 197 spiked with D. nodosus DNA which produced amplification. DNA dilutions of 1:10 and 1:100 198 were used to investigate potential inhibitors of the reaction. The rpoD copy number in the 199 unknown sample was estimated based on the standard curve using D. nodosus VSC1703A as 200 template.

201 Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis

202 To profile the total bacterial community by DGGE, the V3 region of the 16S rRNA 203 gene between positions 341 and 534 (Escherichia coli numbering) was amplified by PCR 204 with primers P2 and P3 (Muyzer et al., 1993). DGGE was done using the DCode mutation 205 detection system (Bio-Rad, Hertfordshire, United Kingdom) with 20-60% denaturing gradient 206 gels (Muyzer et al., 1993). PCR products (400-500 ng) were loaded into 12% acrylamide gels 207 and run at 60 V for 16.5 h at a constant temperature of 60° C in 0.5 × TAE buffer (40mM Tris-208 acetate and 1mM EDTA, pH8.0). The gels were stained for 20 min in $1 \times TAE$ containing 209 ethidium bromide (0.5 mg/l) then de-stained for 20 min in Milli-Q water. The gels were then 210 visualised and photographed using the Gene flash UV imager (Syngene Bio imaging). 211 Selected DGGE bands were cut from the gel and were re-amplified by PCR, and cleaned up 212 (QIAquick, Qiagen) prior to sequencing. All sequences were edited using the DNAstar 213 SeqMan II sequence analysis package (Lasergene, Inc., Madison, Wis.) and the best matches 214 determined with BLASTN (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank/index.html). The DGGE 215 band positions and intensities were determined with the GelCompar II software (Applied 216 Maths, Austin, TX, USA). The similarity matrix was calculated based on Jaccard's coefficient 217 and a dendrogram was created using a UPGM algorithm in GelCompar software.

218

219 Results and discussion

220 Comparison of the bacterial diversity of the ovine foot by pyrosequencing and clone library221 Sanger sequencing

A total of 61,708 sequences with a length of 350 to 535 nucleotides were generated from pyrosequencing and 1130 sequences from clone-libraries for all flocks and conditions. A total of 25,672, 25,083 and 10,953 sequences that passed all quality control screens were detected in H, ID, and VFR samples respectively which corresponded to 6,009 from flock A, 226 15,301 from flock B and 40,398 from flock C respectively. The bacterial community structure 227 was different between flocks, which might have been attributable to location or breed, but was 228 mostly driven by the disease status of the sheep (Figure 1a). The sequences were clustered 229 into two groups (Figure 1b) overall and independent of the sequencing approach used; the 230 bacterial populations present in healthy sheep were more similar than those in diseased sheep. 231 The bacterial populations from healthy sheep from flocks A, B and C (Cluster 1) were unique 232 for each flock but the bacterial populations for diseased sheep in flocks B and C were more 233 similar, irrespective of flock of origin (Cluster 2). These results were in agreement with the 234 CCA analyses (Figure 1a). This suggests that flocks / farms / breeds have a unique population 235 structure that differs from each other based on the proportion of the bacterial consortium. 236 However, the population structure becomes more similar within diseased sheep and distinct 237 from healthy sheep. There was a high sequence richness in flock C where there were more 238 OTUs recovered, possibly because all clinical conditions H, ID and VFR were in this flock, or 239 possibly because more sheep were sampled (Figure 2a). ID had the highest richness of OTUs 240 sampled in flock C. The rarefaction curves were stable at 2000 sequence reads for H sheep 241 from flocks A and B compared with 5000 - 6000 for ID and VFR suggesting that to recover 242 additional OTUs for animal samples with ID would require more sampling than for H animals 243 and less sampling for VFR animals (Figure 2a). A core population was shared between disease 244 and healthy sheep (Figure 2b); however because each condition had its own distinctive and 245 unique population; we next investigated these differences in more detail.

246

247 Comparison of the microbial communities and taxonomic classification

The phylogenetic distribution of 717 representative sequences for each OTU was significantly different among conditions based on the calculation of the UniFrac distance metric between communities (p<0.002) and Parsimony tests (p<0.01) (Figure 3a), indicating 251 that the bacterial population was not randomly distributed but clustered by clinical condition. 252 Sequences most closely related to *Staphylococcus* were associated with disease (Figure 3b, 253 supplementary Figure 1), and phylotypes most closely related to Macrococcus and 254 Micrococcus were associated with disease but were ubiquitous across all conditions (Figure 255 3b, supplementary Figure 1). Sequences classified as Corynebacterium were significantly 256 associated with the ID condition (Figure 4a). However, when considered by OTU 257 classification, the most abundant OTUs associated with disease (ID or VFR) were most-258 closely related to *Macrococcus*, *Micrococcus*, and *Staphylococcus* (Figure 3a, supplementary 259 Figure 1). Phylotypes most closely related to Peptostreptococcus were associated with H 260 sheep (Figure 3c, supplementary Figure 1).

261 These 717 sequences were taxonomically assigned and distributed in 25 genera with 4 262 mayor phyla (Figure 4a). Firmicutes followed by Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria and 263 Bacteriodetes were the most abundant phyla (Figure 4b). Firmicutes was the most diverse 264 phylum Corynebacterium, and Macrococcus, *Peptostreptococcus*, Staphylococcus, 265 Escherichia and Streptococcus were the predominant genera. Actinobacteria were represented 266 by 12 genera with a significant difference between ID and H, and ID and VFR (Figure 4b). 267 Peptostreptococcus (20% in H), Corynebacterium (32% in ID) and Staphylococcus (12% in 268 VFR) had significantly different populations at the genus level by condition (Figure 4a) 269 suggesting that these populations might be associated with each condition. The majority of 270 sequences were Firmicutes with a percentage range from 40% for ID, 75% for VFR and 80% 271 for H (Figure 4b). The taxonomic identity of some members of Firmicutes showed 92-94% 272 sequence similarity to the database indicating that there might be novel, uncultured species.

The presence and high abundance of *Micrococcus* and *Macrococcus* in all conditions and independent of the sequencing approach used in all the flocks was not surprising. These aerobic bacteria have frequently been isolated from human (Kocur *et al.*, 2006) and animal 276 (Kloos et al., 1998; Chin and Watts, 1992) skin and might be considered part of the normal 277 microflora of the skin in both human and animal hosts. Corynebacterium is a non-motile, 278 facultative anaerobic bacterium widely distributed in nature. They were significantly more 279 abundant in animals with ID in the pyrosequencing data in the current study, suggesting that 280 although a common inhabitant of moist sites in the human skin (Grice et al., 2008; Grice et 281 al., 2009) they may have an association with ID. Corynebacterium has been reported to be 282 abundant near the surface of the interdigital skin of sheep and in footrot lesions by others 283 (Beveridge, 1941; Egerton et al., 1969). The Peptostreptococcus population was significant 284 higher in H sheep and is widely distributed in humans and animals. It is found in the upper 285 respiratory tract, gingiva, gut, and urogenital tract; these bacteria are opportunistic pathogens 286 that can cause a wide spectrum of local and systemic disease (Conrads et al., 1997; Murdoch, 287 1998). The presence of *Staphylococcus* is unsurprising as this group commonly colonise 288 human skin and nasal cavities. S. epidermidis is one of the major inhabitants of the human 289 skin and mucosa representing 90% of the aerobic flora (Cogen et al., 2008).

290 In the clone libraries the sequences were assigned to three main phyla, Actinobacteria, 291 Firmicutes and Proteobacteria with 27 genera (data not shown). *Macrococcus* (Firmicutes) 292 was the most abundant genus for all conditions, however, H sheep had a greater proportion of 293 their population in this genus (35.6%) compared with ID (15.9%) and VFR (13.1%). 294 Streptococcus, Facklamia and Abiotrophia (Firmicutes) were also abundant in VFR at >5% of 295 the population. Although both sequencing approaches produced similar results, 296 pyrosequencing produced a clearly higher resolution of bacterial diversity yielding 3.5 orders 297 of magnitude more taxa.

298

299 Detection of Fusobacterium necrophorum, Arcanobacterium pyogenes and Treponema300 species

301 Sanger sequencing clone libraries did not show the presence of *Fusobacterium*. These 302 bacteria were detected in the pyrosequencing data (Figure 4a). We confirmed the findings by 303 using nested PCR. There were 8 phylotypes of Fusobacterium detected from sheep in flocks 304 B (ID sheep) and C (H and ID sheep). These sequences showed 98% and 95% sequence 305 similarity to Fusobacterium necrophorum subsp. funduliforme and Fusobacterium 306 gonidoformans respectively. Fusobacterium necrophorum is a Gram-negative, non-spore-307 forming anaerobe. It has been strongly associated with ID and VFR (Robert and Egerton, 308 1969; Bennett et al., 2009). In a recent analysis from a longitudinal study (Witcomb et al., 309 submitted), F. necrophorum was monitored in H, ID and VFR sheep and there was no 310 difference in F. necrophorum load between feet with H, ID or VFR (except in some of the 311 sheep with VFR). These authors suggested that F. necrophorum plays a role in persistence and 312 / or severity of disease once the VFR lesion has developed. F. necrophorum is a normal 313 inhabitant of the alimentary tract of animals (Langworth, 1977) and is detected in faecal 314 (Tadepalli et al., 2009) and oral (Zaura et al., 2009) material. It is also associated with 315 abscesses in sheep feet (Nagaraja et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2009).

316 There were 9 phylotypes of Arcanobacterium detected in all three flocks and with all 317 clinical presentations. The phylotype from flock B sheep with ID had 99% sequence 318 similarities to A. pyogenes isolated from cows with endometritis and resistant to antimicrobial 319 resistance gene TetW (Liu et al., 2009) whereas phylotypes from H sheep in flocks A and C 320 showed 98% to A. pluranimalium, isolated from dog skin and deep lung abscesses (Lawson et 321 al., 2001). Arcanobacterium pyogenes is a Gram positive, non-motile, non-spore forming 322 facultative anaerobe. It is a short, rod-shaped bacterium and a common inhabitant of the 323 mucous membranes of ruminants, pigs and other domestic animals (Carter and Chengappa, 324 1991). It is an opportunistic pathogen causing diseases in dairy and beef cattle and swine (Jost 325 and Billington, 2005), and foot diseases in domestic and wild animals (Davies et al., 1999; Lavín *et al.*, 2004). This bacterium has been isolated from necrotic disease caused by *F. necrophorum* (Chrino-Trejo *et al.*, 2003; Jones *et al.*, 2004; Nagaraja *et al.*, 2005), however, there is no clear evidence of its association with footrot in sheep. *A. pluranimalium* is a new species of *Arcanobacterium* recently described (Lawson *et al.*, 2001). It has been isolated from the spleen of a dead harbour porpoise, from a lung abscess from a dead fallow deer and from a pyoderma in a dog (Ulbegi-Mohyla *et al.*, 2010). It has never been found or described in other hosts.

333 Treponema spp. were detected in only one sheep with ID from flock C. There were 334 two sequences and they had 94 and 99% similarity to uncultured Treponema phylotypes from 335 samples from cattle with digital dermatitis and from animal faecal samples (Klitgaard et al., 336 2008; Ley et al., 2008). Treponema are often free living but are linked to contagious ovine 337 digital dermatitis (CODD) and bovine digital dermatitis (BDD) in sheep and cattle 338 respectively (Demirkan et al., 2006; Evans et al., 2008; Evans et al., 2009; Collinghan et al., 339 2000; Moore et al., 2005; Sayers et al., 2009). Several species have been associated to CODD 340 and DD including Treponema phagedenis-like and Treponema medium/Treponema vincentii-341 like, Treponema medium/Treponema vincentii-like, Treponema phagedenis-like, and 342 Treponema denticola/Treponema putidum-like (Sayers et al., 2009). Fusobacterium, 343 Treponema and Arcanobacteria were not detected in the clone libraries but only in the 344 pyrosequencing data in the flock with footrot history suggesting that due to the low 345 prevalence may not be associated with VFR.

The difference in the structure of the bacterial community by farm might be linked to factors such as different breeds which might have differing susceptibility to disease; footrot has low heritability (Emery *et al.*, 1984; Skerman and Moorhouse, 1987; Escayg *et al.*, 1997) or location with e.g. varying soil types or climate. In addition, management factors such as use of antibiotics, hoof horn trimming and culling diseased sheep (Howell-Jones *et al.*, 2005; 351 Green *et al.*, 2007) might have affected the bacterial community. The managements used in 352 these flocks is unknown, however, antibiotics or physical damage to the interdigital skin may 353 alter the microbial community structure on the skin, increasing or decreasing (Kaler *et al.*, 354 2010a; 2010b) the incidence of disease.

355

356 *Profiling bacterial community by DGGE*

357 A comparative analysis of the profile of the total bacterial community assessed by 358 DGGE (Figure 5) showed a visual, qualitative analysis of the predominant bacterial 359 populations across flocks and conditions that were confirmed by deep sequencing and 360 analyses of clone libraries. DGGE banding patterns from H sheep from flocks A and B were 361 clustered independently from samples from sheep with ID and VFR from flocks B and C, 362 suggesting that the latter samples shared a similar bacterial population. Unique and common 363 DGGE bands were selected and a total of 31 DGGE bands were extracted, purified and 364 sequenced covering all flocks and feet conditions. These bands were identified (95-99% 365 sequence similarities) to Corynebacterium sp. and Actinobacterium sp. (DGGE-1 and DGGE-366 7), Arcanobacterium sp. (DGGE-2), Macrococcus spp (DGGE-3), gamma Proteobacteria 367 (DGGE-4), uncultured Actinobacterium sp., (DGGE-5), two uncultured Bacillus spp. (DGGE-368 6 and DGGE-8) and swine faecal bacterium (DGGE-9). One of the advantages of using 369 DGGE for comparative analysis of parallel samples is the low cost and fast visual 370 interpretation. The DGGE band position of *Macrococcus* sp. was similar to that of a DDGE of 371 D. nodosus, which might be one of the reasons why D. nodosus was not isolated from the 372 bands extracted from the gel.

373

374 Detection and quantification of D. nodosus in feet

375 D. nodosus were difficult to amplify and detect using bacterial community 16S rRNA 376 libraries. This can be explained by either primer mismatches or low abundance or both. 377 Bacterial community analyses of environmental samples relied on PCR amplification of the 378 16S rRNA gene using universal primers, targeting the variable regions (Lane, 1991). The D. 379 nodosus 16S rRNA gene does not amplify at 60°C using the 27F and 1525R primers because 380 of two continuous mismatches at the 5' end of the 16S rRNA in D. nodosus 381 (AGAGTTTGAT<u>TC</u>TGGCTCAG) of the 27F primer (AGAGTTTGAT<u>CM</u>TGGCTCAG) 382 (Lane, 1991) that prevent amplification at 60°C. PCR amplification was observed at 50-55°C 383 and confirmed by sequencing. Amplification of D. nodosus occurred in all samples from all 384 sheep in all flocks by direct or nested PCR. Amplicons were confirmed by sequencing. 385 Variable or failed amplification occurred when direct amplification of 16S rRNA specific to 386 D. nodosus was performed because the cell number may was below the detection limit. This 387 variability in the amplification was solved by using nested PCR. The variable regions V1–V9, 388 of the 16S rRNA genes (rDNAs) have been used for species identification (Lane, 1991; 389 Weisburg et al., 1991) but also to assess bacterial diversity in several habitats for the past 17 390 years. However, the use of the universal primer single mismatch 27F has recently been 391 criticised for the its amplification efficiency (Frank et al., 2008; Galkiewicz et al., 2008) and a 392 new 27F priming-binding site has been suggested that can accommodate mismatching 393 allowing minimal loss of efficiently and without compromising specificity with the reduction 394 of annealing temperature.

D. nodosus was also not detected in the 61,709 sequences produced by pyrosequencing; however analysis of the sequence reads removed during quality control checks revealed that *D. nodosus* sequences were amplified but removed due to sequence errors or mis-priming when using bacterial universal primers (see material and methods).

399 We developed a quantitative real time PCR (qPCR) platform based on the presence of 400 the RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor gene (rpoD) (single copy in the genome) in order to 401 enumerate D. nodosus in individual feet and assess differences between across flock and 402 condition. The absolute quantification of *D. nodosus rpoD* in clinical tissue DNA samples for 403 individual feet from 15 sheep (60 foot samples) is shown in Figure 6a. As we mention above, 404 D. nodosus was PCR detected in all feet sampled by direct or nested PCR for all three flocks, 405 however, D. nodosus was quantifiable by qPCR in only 8 (25 feet) out of 15 sheep (60 feet) with a variable number depending on the clinical condition. This may be because cell 406 numbers in these samples were below the detection limit (10^3 cell/g) . The quantity of D. 407 408 nodosus was significantly higher in sheep from flock B than from flock A based on the Mann-409 Whitney test (Figure 6b). The numbers of *rpoD* copies per gram of tissue sample ranged from 10^3 to 10^9 . In H feet, *D. nodosus* was detected at 10^3 to 10^5 cell/g tissue in flock B but was not 410 411 quantifiable in H feet from flocks A or C. In feet with ID, D. nodosus was detected with values from $10^4 - 10^9$ for samples from flock B and flock C. D. nodosus numbers were 412 413 significantly higher in feet with ID than in healthy feet across all flocks (Mann-Whitney P 414 <0.01). D. nodosus was not quantifiable in VFR feet, but detected by PCR. These results are 415 similar to those of Witcomb et al., (submitted) who also reported an increase in abundance 416 before the development of VFR and a reduction once a sheep had VFR. The absence or lower 417 numbers of D. nodosus in cases of VFR may be because the organism is deeper in the tissue 418 of the foot (Egerton et al., 1969), has sloughed off in necrotic tissue or because other bacteria 419 dominate once VFR has occurred. Although D. nodosus cell load is critically important 420 (Witcomb et al., unpublished) there are other factors that may contribute with the 421 development/clinical presentation of the diseases as described above.

422

423 Conclusions

424 We present the first study of the ovine foot 16S rRNA based microbiome. Our results 425 show that independent of the sequencing approached used, the bacterial community structure, 426 diversity and abundance differ by clinical condition with some variation between sheep and 427 flock. Pyrosequencing produced a higher resolution of the taxa present in the skin compared 428 with clone libraries. We identified bacterial populations that were associated with healthy 429 (Peptostreptococcus), ID (Corynebacterium) and VFR (Staphylococcus) affected sheep. 430 Although the three genera are common inhabitants of human and animal skin, we envisage 431 that extrinsic and intrinsic factors might affect their niche, producing an imbalance in the 432 bacterial community from healthy to diseased feet. D. nodosus was present in all samples 433 independent of the clinical condition but the number peaked in ID.

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Figure 1 OTU-based similarity among communities considered by disease condition and
flock using canonical correspondance analysis (a) and Jaccard similarity clustering (b)
based on observed richness of taxa defined at a 97% similarity cutoff as described in the
methods. Panel (a) superimposes two separate ordinations; pyrosequenced samples
(representing 61,708 sequences) are shown in black while Sanger-sequenced clone
libraries (representing 1,130 sequences) are shown in blue in (a) and the right-hand side
of (b). Scale bars in (b) represent 5% dissimilarity.

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Figure 2 Rarefaction curves (a) and the number of shared and unique OTUs among the three
disease conditions (b) Venn diagram of the number of shared and unique OTUs among
the three disease conditions for sequences from pyrosequences for OTUs defined at a
97% similarity cutoff. The legend in (a) shows the number of OTUs observed and the
Shannon diversity index, H'. A total of 717 OTUs were recovered.

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683 Figure 3 a) Phylogenetic positions of 717 representative sequences for each OTU defined at a 684 3% cutoff as described in the text. Disease conditions are shown on the outer ring 685 (white, healthy; grey, ID; black, VFR). Significant phylogenetic clustering of disease 686 conditions was indicated by the UniFrac test (p<0.002) and Parsimony tests (p<0.01) as 687 described in the text. b) Phylogenetic positions of signature taxa for diseased condition 688 (red) and taxa defined as ubiquitous (blue) in both healthy and diseased animals. c) 689 Phylogenetic position of signature taxa for the healthy condition (green). Signature taxa 690 are as shown in supplementary Figure 1. Trees in (b) and (c) include a non-redundant 691 list of the best matches to each sequence as defined by the Silva project (Release 102); 692

trees were constructed using the PhyML maximum-likelihood algorithm as fully described in the methods.

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Supplementary Figure 1 Distributions of each of the 717 clusters (OTUs) defined at a 3%
cut off according to the proportion of sequences representing each disease condition.
Signature taxa were defined based on the relative proportions of each condition (red,
diseased; blue, ubiquitous; green, healthy).

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700 Figure 4 Summary of taxonomic classifications at the genus and phylum levels for sequences 701 obtained from pyrosequencing for each of the three disease conditions H (healthy), ID 702 (interdigital dermatitis), and VFR (virulent footrot) at the genus (a) and phylum (b) 703 levels. Y axes represent proportion of sequences for each disease condition. 704 Taxonomic classifications are based on EMBL taxonomy and were obtained by blastn 705 with default parameters against a customized database of all type strains from the Silva 706 SSU Ref database (Release 102) as described in the methods. Significant differences 707 (p<0.05, Chi-square test) between disease conditions for any given taxon are indicated 708 by * symbols above bars; number of symbols corresponds to number of significant 709 pairwise differences.

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Figure 5. Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) gel of 16S rRNA genes and
UPGM (Jaccard's coefficient) dendrogram from interdigital skin tissue sample DNA.
All feet were clinically scored as healthy (H), with interdigital dermatitis (ID) and with
virulent footrot (VFR) sheep for flock A (H1A, H2A, H3A), flock B (H1B, H2B, H3B,
ID1B, ID2B) and flock C (H1C, H2C, H3C, ID1C, ID2C, ID3C, VFR1C, VFR2C). M;
molecular weight marker; DN = *Dichelobacter nodosus*. DGGE bands 1-9.

717	Figure 6. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) of the RNA polymerase sigma-70 factor gene (rpoD)
718	from interdigital skin biopsy tissue DNA of 15 animals from flocks A, B and C. (5a) D.
719	nodosus rpoD was quantified in all feet clinically scored as healthy (h), with interdigital
720	dermatitis (id) and with virulent footrot (vfr) for H, ID and VFR diagnosed sheep for
721	flock A (1A, 2A, 3A), flock B (1B, 2B, 3B) and flock C (1C, 2C). Samples were taking
722	from all feet as follows; LH left hind, RH right hind, RF right front, LF left front. † Not
723	quantitative, detected by 16S rRNA PCR D. nodosus specific but below detection limit.
724	(5b) Mann-Whitney test for comparison of D. nodosus numbers prevalence based on
725	clinical condition in feet across flocks for healthy (H) and feet with interdigital
726	dermatitis (ID). Calibration standards generated a curve line R^2 =0.99 with a -3.70 slope
727	and a Ct range of 17-27.
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742 Tables

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Table 1. Flock code by clinical condition of feet and flock

Flock	Healthy	Interdigital	Virulent footrot		
	(H)	dermatitis	(VFR)		
		(ID)			
Flock A					
sheep 1	H1A	-	-		
	LF h				
	RF h				
	RH h				
	LH h				
sheep 2	H2A	-	-		
	LF h				
	RF h				
	RH h				
	LH h				
sheep 3	НЗА	-	-		
	LF h				
	RF h				

	1				
	RH	h			
	LH	h			
Flock B					
sheep 1	H1B		ID1B		
	LF	h	LF	id	
	RF	h	RF	h	
	RH	h	RH	h	
	LH	h	LH	h	
sheep 2	H2B		ID2B		
	LF	h	LF	id	
	RF	h	RF	h	
	RH	h	RH	id	
	LH	h	LH	id	
sheep 3	НЗВ		NA		
	LF	h			
	RF	h			
	RH	h			
	LH	h			

Flock C						
sheep 1	H1C		ID1C		VFR1C	
	LF	h	LF	id	LF	vfr
	RF	h	RF	id	RF	vfr
	RH	h	RH	id	LH	vfr
	LH	h	LH	id	RH	vfr
sheep 2	H2C		ID2C		VFR2C	
	LF	h	LF	h	LF	vfr
	RF	h	RF	h	RF	h
	RH	h	LH	id	LH	h
	LH	h	RH	h	RH	h
sheep 3	NA		ID3C		NA	
			LF	id		
			RF	id		
			LH	id		
			RH	id		

745 The sheep were classified as having either healthy interdigital skin (H), interdigital746 dermatitis (ID) or virulent footrot (VFR). The feet were classified as foot without

747	abnormality (h), having interdigital dermatitis (id) inflamed interdigital space, white/grey
748	pasty scum hair loss or having hoof horn separation (separation of horn from underlying
749	tissue with or without interdigital dermatitis) (vfr). NA, Not available
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Table 2 Primers and Taqman probes used

Primer name	Sequence (5'- 3')
Сс	TCGGTACCGAGTATTTCTACCCAACACCT
Ac	CGGGGTTATGTAGCTTGC
16S rRNA-27F	AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG
16S rRNA-1525R	AAGGAGGTGWTCCARCC
P2	CGCCCGCCGCGCGCGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGG
	GGGCCTACGGGAGGCAGCA
<i>P3</i>	ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG
rpoDF	gCTCCCATTTCgCgCATAT
rpoDR	CTgATgCAgAAgTCggTAgAACA
Taqman rpoD	6FAM1 CATTCTTACCggKCg-BBQ2

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