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

2

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6

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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  
33 significantly by flock and clinical condition. The diversity and richness of operational  
34 taxonomic units was greater in tissue from sheep with ID than H or VFR affected sheep.  
35 Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, 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.  
41 Sheep with ID had significantly higher numbers of *D. nodosus* ( $10^4$ - $10^9$  cells/g tissue) than  
42 those with H or VFR feet.

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## 51 **Introduction**

52 *Dichelobacter nodosus*, a Gram negative bacterium, causes footrot in small  
53 ruminants. The first clinical sign of footrot is interdigital dermatitis (ID), in certain  
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  
72 microorganisms including *Bacteroides* spp., *Porphyromonas* spp., *Prevotella* spp.,  
73 *Peptostreptococcus* spp., *Clostridium* spp among others (Beveridge 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).

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

101 removed aseptically to expose the interdigital skin for sampling. Tissue samples were taken  
102 from the interdigital skin using a sterile 0.5 cm core borer (0.8 cm depth). All material was  
103 stored at -80°C. All tissue samples from flocks A and B were collected in summer 2008; tissue  
104 samples for flock C were collected in summer 2008 (H1C, H2C, H3C, VFR1C), spring  
105 (ID1C, ID2C, ID3C) and summer 2009 (VFR2C). The DNA from all feet was pooled per  
106 sheep for all analyses with exception of the qPCR assays where *D. nodosus* cell number was  
107 quantified in each foot separately.

108

### 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 CaCl<sub>2</sub> pH 7.5 at 37°C for 5-7 h to release the  
112 microbial cell. The supernatant was centrifuged at 15,871 × g for 15 min and the pellet  
113 formed was used to extract DNA using MagMAX™ 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**

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

125

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 (*Cc* 5'-  
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.

137

138 **PCR libraries based construction, Sanger sequencing and data analysis**

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

146 For phylogenetic analyses, all sequences from each library were edited, aligned and  
147 trimmed with SeqMan II (Lasergene 6). Sequences were aligned using the NAST alignment  
148 tool on the greengenes website (<http://greengenes.lbl.gov>) (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006a, b). For  
149 taxonomic classification, nearest-neighbour, diversity indices (Shannon and Simpson 1-D)  
150 and richness estimates (Chao1 richness), sequences were grouped into Operational Taxonomic

151 Units (OTUs) by the furthest-neighbour algorithm using DOTUR (Schloss and Handelsman,  
152 2005) at a 97% similarity cut off.

153

#### 154 **Pyrosequencing and data analysis**

155 Pyrosequencing was performed using bacterial tag-encoded FLX amplicon  
156 pyrosequencing (bTEFAP) similar to that described previously (Dowd *et al.*, 2008). bTEFAP  
157 was based upon the Titanium sequencing platform rather than FLX (Roche Indianapolis, IN  
158 USA). The average sequence length was 405 bp with range of 300-500 bp. A single step  
159 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



176 permuted sites. To estimate the level of richness and diversity (the efficiency of new OTUs  
177 sampling recovery at 97% similarity cut off), rarefaction curves were created for condition  
178 and flock.

179

#### 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 MgCl<sub>2</sub>), 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*, *Pseudomonas 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 × 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 library*  
221 *Sanger sequencing*

222 A total of 61,708 sequences with a length of 350 to 535 nucleotides were generated  
223 from pyrosequencing and 1130 sequences from clone-libraries for all flocks and conditions. A  
224 total of 25,672, 25,083 and 10,953 sequences that passed all quality control screens were  
225 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*

248 The phylogenetic distribution of 717 representative sequences for each OTU was  
249 significantly different among conditions based on the calculation of the UniFrac distance  
250 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 major phyla (Figure 4a). Firmicutes followed by Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria and  
263 Bacteroidetes were the most abundant phyla (Figure 4b). Firmicutes was the most diverse  
264 phylum and *Macrococcus*, *Corynebacterium*, *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.

273         The presence and high abundance of *Micrococcus* and *Macrococcus* in all conditions  
274 and independent of the sequencing approach used in all the flocks was not surprising. These  
275 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 Treponema*  
300 *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 *gonidiformans* 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;

326 Lavín *et al.*, 2004). This bacterium has been isolated from necrotic disease caused by *F.*  
327 *necrophorum* (Chrino-Trejo *et al.*, 2003; Jones *et al.*, 2004; Nagaraja *et al.*, 2005), however,  
328 there is no clear evidence of its association with footrot in sheep. *A. pluranimalium* is a new  
329 species of *Arcanobacterium* recently described (Lawson *et al.*, 2001). It has been isolated  
330 from the spleen of a dead harbour porpoise, from a lung abscess from a dead fallow deer and  
331 from a pyoderma in a dog (Ulbegi-Mohyla *et al.*, 2010). It has never been found or described  
332 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.

346 The difference in the structure of the bacterial community by farm might be linked to  
347 factors such as different breeds which might have differing susceptibility to disease; footrot  
348 has low heritability (Emery *et al.*, 1984; Skerman and Moorhouse, 1987; Escayg *et al.*, 1997)  
349 or location with e.g. varying soil types or climate. In addition, management factors such as  
350 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 (AGAGTTTGATTCTGGCTCAG) of the 27F primer (AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG)  
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.

395 *D. nodosus* was also not detected in the 61,709 sequences produced by  
396 pyrosequencing; however analysis of the sequence reads removed during quality control  
397 checks revealed that *D. nodosus* sequences were amplified but removed due to sequence  
398 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)  
406 with a variable number depending on the clinical condition. This may be because cell  
407 numbers in these samples were below the detection limit ( $10^3$  cell/g). The quantity of *D.*  
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  
410  $10^3$  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  
411 quantifiable in H feet from flocks A or C. In feet with ID, *D. nodosus* was detected with  
412 values from  $10^4$  -  $10^9$  for samples from flock B and flock C. *D. nodosus* numbers were  
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.

434

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667 **Figure legends**

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

676

677 **Figure 2** Rarefaction curves (a) and the number of shared and unique OTUs among the three  
678 disease conditions (b) Venn diagram of the number of shared and unique OTUs among  
679 the three disease conditions for sequences from pyrosequences for OTUs defined at a  
680 97% similarity cutoff. The legend in (a) shows the number of OTUs observed and the  
681 Shannon diversity index, H'. A total of 717 OTUs were recovered.

682

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  
693 described in the methods.

694

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

699

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.

710

711 **Figure 5.** Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) gel of 16S rRNA genes and  
712 UPGM (Jaccard's coefficient) dendrogram from interdigital skin tissue sample DNA.  
713 All feet were clinically scored as healthy (H), with interdigital dermatitis (ID) and with  
714 virulent footrot (VFR) sheep for flock A (H1A, H2A, H3A), flock B (H1B, H2B, H3B,  
715 ID1B, ID2B) and flock C (H1C, H2C, H3C, ID1C, ID2C, ID3C, VFR1C, VFR2C). M;  
716 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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Table 1. Flock code by clinical condition of feet and flock

Flock	Healthy (H)	Interdigital dermatitis (ID)	Virulent footrot (VFR)
<b>Flock A</b>			
<b>sheep 1</b>	<b>H1A</b>	-	-
	<b>LF h</b>		
	<b>RF h</b>		
	<b>RH h</b>		
	<b>LH h</b>		
<b>sheep 2</b>	<b>H2A</b>	-	-
	<b>LF h</b>		
	<b>RF h</b>		
	<b>RH h</b>		
	<b>LH h</b>		
<b>sheep 3</b>	<b>H3A</b>	-	-
	<b>LF h</b>		
	<b>RF h</b>		



	<b>RH</b>	<b>h</b>			
	<b>LH</b>	<b>h</b>			
<b>Flock B</b>					
<b>sheep 1</b>	<b>H1B</b>		<b>ID1B</b>		-
	<b>LF</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>LF</b>	<b>id</b>	
	<b>RF</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>RF</b>	<b>h</b>	
	<b>RH</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>RH</b>	<b>h</b>	
	<b>LH</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>LH</b>	<b>h</b>	
<b>sheep 2</b>	<b>H2B</b>		<b>ID2B</b>		-
	<b>LF</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>LF</b>	<b>id</b>	
	<b>RF</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>RF</b>	<b>h</b>	
	<b>RH</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>RH</b>	<b>id</b>	
	<b>LH</b>	<b>h</b>	<b>LH</b>	<b>id</b>	
<b>sheep 3</b>	<b>H3B</b>		<b>NA</b>		-
	<b>LF</b>	<b>h</b>			
	<b>RF</b>	<b>h</b>			
	<b>RH</b>	<b>h</b>			
	<b>LH</b>	<b>h</b>			

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

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745 The sheep were classified as having either healthy interdigital skin (H), interdigital

746 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

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

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774 16FAM reporter, 2BBQ BlackBerry Quencher, K=A/T/C