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BIOTIC AND ABIOTIC FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE COLONIZATION OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS AND ITS SUBTYPES IN HEALTHY HUMAN SUBJECTS

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BIOTIC AND ABIOTIC FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE COLONIZATION OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS AND ITS SUBTYPES IN HEALTHY HUMAN SUBJECTS

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$

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An abstract of A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Rollins School of Public Health of Emory University in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Public Health in the Executive MPH program 2016

Abstract

BIOTIC AND ABIOTIC FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE COLONIZATION OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS AND ITS SUBTYPES IN HEALTHY HUMAN SUBJECTS

BY Sandeep Jose Joseph PhD

Background: Staphylococcus aureus, a human commensal and prevalent human pathogen, affects public health worldwide. It is a common asymptomatic colonizer predominantly in the nares, and also at the oral cavity and skin. Neither the role of carriage in the propagation of *S. aureus* infections nor the factors associated with the colonization of a particular subtype at a body site are well understood. The purpose of this study was to assess associations between demographic and life history characteristics and the profile of *S. aureus* subtypes identified at each body site using a metagenomebased subtyping scheme using data generated by the human microbiome project (HMP).

Materials and Methods: The metagenomic samples were collected from various body sites of healthy 18 - 40 years old adults. The exposure variables investigated in relation to the subtype profile of *S. aureus* in a body site were diet, breastfed, tobacco use, health insurance, history of surgery, age, BMI and ethnicity. Both binary (*S. aureus* +/-) and multinomial (4 outcomes: 3 subtypes of *S. aureus* (CC8, CC30, any other subtypes), vs. no detection of *S. aureus*) logistic regression were performed to identify predictors for *S. aureus* detection among HMP participants.

<u>Results:</u> In the binary outcome logistic regression model, main body site (p < 0.001), health insurance (OR for no health insurance=0.5 (0.2-1.0); p=0.0525) and BMI (OR for high BMI vs. normal BMI=1.7 (1.1-2.5); p=0.0276) were predictors of detection of *S. aureus*, whereas for the multinomial logistic regression model with 4 outcomes, only main site and BMI were significant (p<0.05) predictors of the presence of *S. aureus* at significance level of 0.1. Compared to subjects with normal BMI, the odds of detecting CC8 subtype tended to be higher in high BMI subjects (OR=1.4, 95% CI=0.6-3.0) while CC30 subtype detection was higher in those with low BMI (OR=1.6, 95% CI=0.6-3.8).

Conclusions: Results suggest that high BMI and health insurance are risk factors for *S*. *aureus* colonization. Larger studies with more heterogeneous subjects are needed to identify predictors of *S*. *aureus* subtype colonization in human body sites.

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Background and Literature Review

Staphylococcus aureus, a human commensal, also a prevalent human pathogen, affects public health worldwide. It accounts for most of bloodstream and soft tissue infections in developed countries [1][2][3][4] and is responsible for more deaths in the US than HIV [5]. This pathogen is also one of the most common hospital infections, often leading to chronic disease with poor outcome [6] [7] [8]. *S. aureus* also causes community-acquired and nosocomial bacterial infections in humans [5] [9]. It can cause infections that can range from mild skin infections to severe, highly invasive and necrotizing diseases [10]. Even though this organism is a part of the natural microbiome of humans, clones of epidemic drug-resistant *S. aureus* (healthcare-associated (HA) and community-acquired (CA) methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA)) have emerged. *S. aureus* carries a higher mortality rate of 65 - 75% in the prebiotic era and currently 20-40% mortality at 30 days despite appropriate treatment [11] [12] [13].

S. aureus nasal carriage is a global phenomenon, which seems to be affected by various factors including, but not limited to, age, health, economic status and the country of residence [14]. Around 25-50% of the world population is persistently colonized with *S. aureus* in the nares, with 60-100% of individuals having *S. aureus* colonized at some point in their lifespan [15][16]. Global trends in *S. aureus* nasal carriage showed a larger variation were cohort studies found *S. aureus* carriage within continental USA vary from 26% to 32% [17], 10% in adults in Turkey [18] and 25% in Malaysia [19]. Two trends are evident in literature regarding *S. aureus* nasal carriage, 1) developed countries have high incidence rate for *S. aureus* nasal carriage (US [35%] [17], Netherlands [35%] [20], Norway [27%] [21], Switzerland [36.4%] [22] and Japan

[35.7%] [23] as compared to underdeveloped and developing countries (Nigeria [14%] [24], Pakistan [14.8%] [25], India [16%] [26], Tunisia [13%] [27], Malaysia [25%] and Indonesia [<10%] [28]); 2) increased rates of *S. aureus* nasal carriage was observed amongst intravenous drug users [29] and immunocompromised individuals [30]. From population based studies a number of modifiable risk factors have been found associated with carriage, including oral contraceptives use, smoking, crowding and health care exposure [31].

Apart from the most abundant presence of *S. aureus* in the anterior nares in the general adult population, *S. aureus* can also commonly be found at other body sites such as the axillae (8%), chest/abdomen (15%), perineum (22%), intestine (17-31%) [32] and vagina (5%) [33]. A recent study in Sweden have indicated the importance of throat colonisation, where they found *S. aureus* throat carriage was significantly higher than nasal carriage rate both for patients (40% vs. 31%) and staff (54% vs. 36%) [34]. In a Swiss study of risk factors for *S. aureus* throat carriage, including 3464 subjects, the prevalence of exclusive throat carriage was 30.2% among colonised individuals from the community and 18.4% among hospitalised patients and healthcare workers [22]. Analyzes of the metagenomic data generated by the human microbiome project (HMP) detected the presence of *S. aureus* in 4 other body sites of healthy individuals including retroauricular crease, tongue dorsum, supragingival plaque and gastrointestinal tract (stool) [35].

Even though majority of *S. aureus* nasal colonization happens asymptomatically in healthy individuals, such infections are thought to be a major source of bacterial transmission in the human population [36]. At the same time neither the factors of human colonization nor the

role of carriage in the propagation of *S. aureus* infections are well understood. Many studies have shown that persistent nasal carriage of *S. aureus* is a risk factor for pathogenic infection, but the overall association of these carriage strains to the presence of endogenous strains that establish pathogenic infections is currently unknown [15] [37] [13]. However, a recent study demonstrated lack of evidence of patient-to-patient intrahospital transmission of invasive *S. aureus* strains [38].

S. aureus is considered as a heterogeneous bacterial species, but the majority of human diseases are caused by a relatively small subset of clones. It is important to understand the genetic diversity (population structure) of S. aureus strains that colonize the different body sites of healthy individuals in order to study how the commensal S. aureus strains present in healthy human population might act as a predisposing factor for future invasive infections. Bacterial species are commonly comprised of multiple phylogenetic clades that have distinctive phenotypic properties. The process of identifying which clade a bacterial strain belongs in goes by several names but here we will refer to it as *subtyping*. Commonly used subtyping methods include multilocus sequence typing (MLST), pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE), oligotyping and variable-number of tandem-repeat typing (VNTR) [39]. Each of these these methods was developed for bacteria first isolated in pure culture in the laboratory before DNA extraction. Current subtyping methods in S. aureus, including multilocus sequence typing (MLST), spa typing and SCCmec typing (used to identify methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA), rely on sequencing short segments of a few genes and lack the resolution to differentiate related but distinct clones or isolates. For early disease diagnosis of pathogenic S.

aureus and to understand bacteria in the context of their natural community, it would be advantageous to subtype directly from clinical specimens such as blood and sputum. However, current direct identification options such as 16S rRNA gene sequence, FISH and REP-PCR, are not able to subtype *S. aureus* to below the species level taxonomic resolution, nor to deal with mixtures of subtypes of the same species being present. At the same time, several studies using next-generation DNA sequencing technology to generate whole genome sequences of *S. aureus* isolates have proven to be able to distinguish between isolates, which would have been grouped as identical strains using traditional typing methods.

Metagenomic approaches can be used to sequence libraries of DNA isolated from different body sites of human subjects for pathogen detection. Over the past few years, the expansion of "metagenomic" culture-free shotgun sequencing of biological samples have helped us to assay the presence and/or collective genome of the microbes living in and on human bodies (microbiome/microbiota). The first wave of bacterial metagenomics studies have predominantly sequenced 16S ribosomal genes to identify bacterial organisms. But again, less resolution of 16S ribosomal genes will be a drawback for this approach because low levels of genetic variation within *S. aureus* species (below that can be detected using 16S primers) are associated with different patterns of infection at multiple body sites. However, as the cost of genome sequencing has decreased over the years, the direct, unamplified shotgun sequencing of DNA samples extracted from different body sites (exemplified by the human microbiome project (HMP) [35]) would provide an unbiased snapshot of the biodiversity and population structure of the strains

within a species by tracking strain-specific single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) obtained through reference mapping to already known high quality whole genome sequences.

Epidemiologists can characterize the complex microbiota among large human populations and help understand the direct and indirect impacts on disease outcome. Some of the questions that can be addressed by epidemiologists are: Are there measures of microbiome structure or function that corresponds to health or disease outcomes?; Are these measures risk markers, risk factors, or modifiers of either?, How amenable are they to intervention?; What is the variability of various measures of microbiota by person, place, and time and how do these change by host, agent/pathogen, and environment?

Introduction

S. aureus is one of the most common hospital infections, often causing chronic diseases with poor outcome [1][2][3][4] [6] [7] [8]. It is also a problem outside the hospital as a community-acquired bacterial infections in humans [5] [9], livestock [40] [41] and other animals[42]. S. aureus is a common asymptomatic colonizer of humans, with the nares (nose) believed to be the most important site. Estimates for human nasal carriage rates suggest ~20-50% of humans are persistently colonized with S. aureus, with 60-100% of individuals harboring S. aureus at some point in their lifespan [15][16][43]. The population of S. aureus asymptomatically colonizing the nose in healthy individuals is thought to be a major source for transmission [36]. Many studies have shown that persistent nasal carriage of S. aureus is a risk factor for pathogenic infection, but the overall association of these carriage strains to the presence of endogenous strains that establish pathogenic infections is currently unknown [15] [37] [13].

S. aureus strains can be classified into a limited number of clonal lineages of related MLST sequence types (clonal complexes[44]), which differ in their geographical distribution and propensity to cause human diseases. The acquisition of the SCCmec cassette, producing the MRSA strains is more common in some clonal lineages than others[45], as is the acquisition of *vanA* genes to produce VRSA (vancomycin resistant *S. aureus*)[46]. It is important to understand the genetic diversity (population structure) of *S. aureus* strains that colonize the different body sites in order to understand how commensal strains present in healthy human population might act as a predisposing factor for future invasive infections.

Several studies have looked into the epidemiology, biotic and abiotic factors contributing to S. aureus nasal carriage. It was found that asymptomatic S. aureus nasal carriage was high in developed countries when compared with underdeveloped and developing countries [17] [47] [18] [19]. Other contributing factors towards S. aureus infestation in nostrils identified were ethnicity [24] [26] [28], availability of medical care [14], intravenous drug usage [29] and HIV infections [30]. Even though previous studies have inferred that host genetics could be of modest influence for the presence of S. aureus [48], a very recent study identified that S. aureus in the nostrils was an environmentally derived trait and it has nothing to do with the host genetics [43]. The same study also determined that the presence of S. aureus in the nostrils is influenced by the absolute abundance of nasal microbiota. Apart from the most abundant presence of S. aureus in the anterior nares, the metagenomic data generated by the human microbiome project (HMP) detected the presence of S. aureus in 4 other body sites of healthy individuals including retroauricular crease, tongue dorsum, supragingival plaque and gastrointestinal tract (stool) [35]. All these studies only looked into epidemiology and factors influencing the presence of S. aureus at the species level, but none looked into the strain level diversity at the various human body sites other than the nostrils.

To better understand whether subtypes/strains of *S. aureus* adapt to different niches in the healthy human body, Joseph et al. 2015 [49] developed a bioinformatics analysis strategy for mapping the shotgun metagenomic HMP data, and also implemented a statistical genotyping scheme that utilizes already known strain-specific SNPs to predict the most likely genetic background(s) of *S. aureus* at the strain/subtype-level resolution in each of the body samples. As

a follow up of Joseph et al, 2015 [49] findings of the different strains of *S. aureus* in various human body sites, we performed epidemiological modelling to understand whether there is any association between the demographic and life history characteristics collected using the responses that subjects gave to an extensive survey, and the different strains of *S. aureus* identified at each body site.

Material and Methods

Classifying S. aureus subtypes based on a binomial mixture model

Joseph et al, 2015 [49] used *binstrain* software [50], implemented in the R language [51] to perform *S. aureus* subtype classification. *binstrain* used a binomial mixture model to estimate the proportion of subtypes based on a DNA alignment against an ancestor *S. aureus* reference genome and a matrix of SNPs that distinguish different genetic subtypes (construction of the matrix described below). *binstrain* assumes a binomial probability distribution, p_i of observing a SNP, x_i in the entire genome and n_i denotes the total nucleotide coverage at position *i.* $Z_{i,j}$ is an indicator function specifying whether j^{th} strain has a SNP at i^{th} position. In the final version of the classifier, we used 102,057 SNP positions across the genome to classify *S. aureus* into 40 subtypes.

 $x_i \sim Binom(n_i, p_i), i = 1, \dots, 102, 057$ $p_i = \beta_1 Z_{i,1} + \beta_2 Z_{i,2} + \dots + \beta_{40} Z_{i,40}, i = 1, \dots, 102, 057$

The estimation of β_i indicates the proportion of *S. aureus* reference strain-specific SNPs present in a clinical or purified sample. At the strain–specific SNP positions, there will be only a few $\beta_i s$ that affects p_i . Other $\beta_i s$ have no impact on p_i because their corresponding Z_{ij} are 0's, which makes it a sparse design matrix. We utilized this sparsity of the design matrix in order to perform a well-established step-by-step procedure to estimate all the $\beta_i s$ using quadratic programming [50].

Sequence data analysis and statistical modeling for SNP based genotyping of *S. aureus* strains in the HMP

Joseph et al 2015 [49] obtained raw mwgs sequence data in fastq files for a total of 1265 samples (human DNA removed using NCBI's BMTagger tool) from the HMP ftp site (ftp://public-ftp.hmpdacc.org/Illumina). The HMP carried out 2 phases of metagenomic whole genome shotgun sequencing (mwgs), performed using the Illumina GAIIx platform with 101 bp paired-end reads. For Phase 1, 764 samples were chosen from 103 adults and for Phase II, 400 samples were chosen from 67 adults. Samples were chosen covering 16 body sites. The Phase 1 data sets have been described previously [35] [52]. In short, the reads in each of the sample FASTQ files were mapped against the ancestor *S. aureus* reference genome to generate the base call and coverage (average read depth) in each position in the mpileup output format using the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) (Version: 0.6.1-r104) short-read aligner[53] by specifying the maximum number of gap extensions (e) to be 10. The resultant short-read alignment files for each samples were converted to mpileup format using the mpileup option in SamTools software along with the –B option that disables probabilistic realignment for the computation of base alignment quality (BAQ). The resultant mpileup file for each sample were used as an input for

the binStrain algorithm and the β values that indicates the proportion of a particular *S. aureus* strain present were estimated.

Selection criteria used in recruiting health subjects for the HMP

The HMP used rigorous and good clinical practice standards to complete comprehensive body site sampling in healthy 18 - 40 years old adults. Many subjects were students, staff and faculty at two major universities, Baylor College of Medicine at Houston and Washington University in St. Louis. To make sure that the specimens collected represented minimally perturbed microbiomes, HMP first screened potential participants using exclusion criteria based on health history and excluded those with hypertension, cancer or immunodeficiency or autoimmune disorders, recent use of immunomodulators and antibiotics or probiotics. Subsequent screening using physical examination excluded individuals based on body mass index (BMI), cutaneous lesions and oral health. Out of 554 subjects screened 300 were enrolled. There were 149 men and 151 women, mean age of 26 years, mean BMI of 24 kg/m², 20.0% racial minority and 10.7% Hispanic. The specimens were obtained from the oral cavity, nares, skin, gastrointestinal tract and vagina (15 specimens from men and 18 from women). The HMP study evaluated longitudinal changes in an individual's microbiome by sampling 279 participants twice (mean 212 days after the first sampling; range 30-359 d) and 100 individuals 3 times (mean 72 d after the second sampling; range 30-224 d). This sampling strategy yielded 11,174 primary specimens, from which 12,479 DNA samples were submitted to 4 centers for metagenomic sequencing. After quality control, 6212 specimens were used for 16S rRNA sequencing via 454 pyrosequencing and 1263 samples were sequenced using 101bp paired-end Illumina shotgun metagenomic reads [54].

Selection of metadata from the HMP for epidemiological analysis

A large amount of demographic and clinical data were collected for each of the individuals sampled for the HMP. We obtained access to the most recent version of these data through a formal request to the dbGap database (accession phs000228.v3.p1). We used the metadata from the 170 healthy individuals (phase I and II) from whom the HMP mwgs sequence data were generated. Because of the generally high level of health of the subjects, for most clinical variables there were too few cases to have realistic odds of association. For the epidemiological analysis, we included only those body sites where *S. aureus* was detected in at least 20% of the samples. We also grouped the body sites into three superclasses based on their proximity within the human body as well as to increase power: airways (anterior nares); oral cavity (attached keratinized gingiva, buccal mucosa, palatine tonsils, saliva, supragingival plaque and tongue dorsum) and skin (right and left retroauricular crease). There were a total of 840 samples collected from 133 participants in the HMP, used in the epidemiological analysis (described below).

Epidemiological Modeling

The binary categorical variables (exposure variables) from the metadata, which we investigated in relation to presence of *S. aureus* and/or a particular *S. aureus* subtype in a body site were gender, breastfed or not, tobacco use, insurance information and history of previous surgery (Table 1). Other categorical variables used were diet (Meat/fish/poultry at least three days per week, Meat/fish/poultry at least one day but not more than two days per week and

Eggs/cheese/other dairy products, but no meat/fish/poultry), race/ethnicity (Hispanic, Asian, non-Hispanic Black and non-Hispanic white), BMI (< 22, 22 - 25 & > 25). Age was treated as a continuous variable that ranged from 18 to 40 years of age (Table 1).

We performed both binary (model 1) and multinomial (with 4 outcomes, model 2) logistic regression to identify predictors for *S. aureus* detection among HMP participants. The binary outcome indicated whether the presence of *S. aureus* was detected or not detected (reference) (model 1), while the 4 outcomes for the multinomial logit model were the presence/detection of *S. aureus* CC8, CC30, any other *S. aureus* CC types and no detection of *S. aureus* (reference) (model 2). Initially crude odds ratios were estimated for each of the 10 exposure variables for both the binary and multinomial outcomes. Adjusted odds ratios were also estimated by fitting the full multivariate logistic regression model with all the exposure variables, and the binary and multinomial outcomes separately.

Odds ratios were estimated by fitting generalized linear mixed models using SAS PROC GLIMMIX (Version 9.4, Cary, NC) with main site and other exposure variables (described above) as fixed effects and random effects for subject in order to assess any possible association of the exposure variables and the presence/detection of *S. aureus*.

Results

Assignment of *S. aureus* subtypes in the HMP metagenomic dataset using whole genome subtyping

Joseph et al., 2015 [49] developed and tested the *S. aureus* binstrain classifier by calling the subtypes present in 1,263 whole metagenomic sequencing samples from the healthy human

cohort of the phase 1 and 2 of the HMP (170 subjects). They found at least one sequencing read mapping to the SA_ASR sequence in 348 of the samples (27.5%) isolated from 110 (36.3%) of the subjects. The presence of the species was variable across body sites, most commonly found in the left and right retroauricular creases and anterior nares (100%, 90% and 57%, respectively) and least common in the stool and subgingival plaque (6% and 5%, respectively) (Table 2). While the presence of the *S. aureus* reads in a sample will be dependent on factors such as the complexity of the microbiome and the amount of sequence data collected, this result was in line with estimates of *S. aureus* presence based on bacterial culture[15].

Of the 348 *S. aureus* positive samples, 321 had a *S. aureus* core coverage > 0.025X (Table 2). *S. aureus* was more prevalent at this level of coverage in the anterior nares, retroauricular creases and tongue dorsum. 165 (51%) of these samples were dominated by one subtype (largest β value > 0.8). In the other samples where there was a mixture of dominant subtypes, we used a conservation cutoff for a subtype being present as at least a minor component if the β value was > 0.2 (chosen to conservatively remove overcalls due to random errors in sequence reads). Based on these definitions, the most commonly detected subtypes were CC30, CC8, CC45, CC398 and CC5 (present in 112 (35%), 72 (22%), 32 (10%), 29 (9%) and 26 (8%) of samples, respectively) (Figure 1)

Biotic and abiotic factors associated with S. aureus and its subtypes

We performed epidemiologic modeling using generalized linear mixed models to assess whether any metadata variables on the subjects of the study collected by the HMP were associated either with the presence of *S. aureus*, or with a specific subtype. In order to increase power we aggregated body sites into three categories: airways (anterior nares), oral cavity (attached keratinized gingiva, buccal mucosa, palatine tonsils, saliva, supragingival plaque and tongue dorsum) and skin (right and left retroauricular crease). In the binary outcome logistic regression model, at an alpha level of 0.1, main body site (p-value <0.001), having health insurance or not (p-value = 0.0525) and BMI (p-value = 0.0276) were predictors for the detection/presence of S. aureus, whereas for the multinomial logistic regression model with 4 outcomes, only main site (p-value = <0.001) and BMI (p-value = 0.0251) were predictors of the presence of S. aureus (Table 3). The estimated odds ratio for detecting the presence of any S. aureus subtypes in the airways compared to the oral cavity was 3.3 (95% CI: 2.2 - 5.0). This is consistent with our study and other previous studies showing that S. aureus is highly enriched in the anterior nares (nose) compared to any other body sites, and also body site could be a strong predictor for the presence of S. aureus. In the multinomial model where specific subtypes were examined, odds of detection of CC8, CC30 and other subtypes were all significantly elevated in the airways compared to the oral cavity (Table 3). Similarly, the odds of detecting any S. aureus subtypes in subjects with higher BMI (>25) was 70% higher when compared to subjects with normal BMI. In the multinomial model, odds of detection of CC8, CC30 and other subtypes were all elevated for higher (>25) vs. normal (22-25) BMI, but the higher odds of detection was more pronounced for the other subtype group (OR CC8=1.4, 95% CI=0.6-3.0; OR CC30=1.1, 95%CI= 0.5, 2.2; OR other subtype=2.4, 95% CI=1.3-4.5). Also the odds of detecting CC8 subtype tended to be higher in high BMI subjects while CC30 subtypes appeared to be associated with lower BMI. In the binary outcome model, subjects without health insurance had less detection of S. aureus compared to subjects with health insurance, with an estimated 50% lower odds of detection of any *S. aureus* subtypes among the uninsured. Even though race and ethnicity overall was not a statistically significant predictor (p-value=0.28) for the detection of *S. aureus*, there was some indication that the odds of identifying any *S. aureus* subtype was higher among Hispanics compared to Non-Hispanic whites, with the odds ratio most elevated for detection of CC8 in the multinomial model (Table 3). However, we note that these odds ratios were based on only 45 samples from Hispanics included in our analysis (13 with detection of any *S. aureus*). Based on our analysis gender was not a significant predictor for the detection of any *S. aureus* subtypes (p-value=0.77). The odds of detecting *S. aureus* in females were 10% less than in males (Table 3). Age, breast fed or not, tobacco use (also previously identified in [43] and history of surgery were not significant predictors of association of the presence of *S. aureus* subtypes in any human body sites (p-value>0.1). Even though CC398 was enriched at the tongue dorsum we could not find any statistically significant association with the presence of CC398 in the tongue dorsum and eating a diet that contains meat. The unadjusted (crude) odds ratios are shown in Table 4.

Discussion and Conclusions

S. aureus is a versatile pathogen capable of growth and infection under various conditions. It is the most common cause of human skin and soft tissue infections, especially in post-surgical patients under an immunosuppressive drug regime, pediatric and geriatric patients, diabetics and immunocompromised patients. The pathogen can be contracted either in a hospital setting (nosocomial) or from the community (community acquired). In the hospital units, *S. aureus* infection is a growing threat because of the rapid acquisition and evolution of antibiotic resistance. The 'community acquired' infections are transmitted between people in a normal

population. Some people carry this pathogen in various body sites (carriers with *S. aureus* colonization), especially in the anterior nares, thus serving reservoirs of infections and transmission of the pathogen at the community level. There is considerable evidence indicating that such colonization in healthy people is an important risk factor for future invasive infection, while the reasons behind this phenomenon are unclear. Understanding such biotic and abiotic risk factors that leads to *S. aureus* colonization in healthy individuals are important to prevent the spread of the pathogen in a community as well as hospital setting.

Advances in DNA sequencing technologies have created a new field of research, called metagenomics, where we now have the tools to identify the various species of bacteria, viruses, archaea, and fungi that live in and on our various body sites, which is known as microbiota. The ability to conduct a census of human microbiota is unprecedented; until the development of genomic technologies, we were able to identify only those microbes that could be grown in the lab. The immediate outcome of such advanced technologies is the NIH Common Fund Human Microbiome Project (HMP) that characterized the microbial communities found at several different sites on the healthy human body: nasal passages, oral cavity, skin, gastrointestinal tract, and urogenital tract. The metagenomic data generated from the HMP is of tremendous use for the *S. aureus* community to understand the various *S. aureus* strains/CC types that colonizes the various body sites in a healthy cohort. The large amount of demographic and clinical data collected for each of the healthy individuals sampled for the HMP can be associated with the colonization of *S. aureus* in various body sites; thereby would help in understanding the various risk factors responsible for the subclinical colonization and would also allow policymakers to

draft efficient awareness campaigns of lifestyle modifications to control and subdue the spread of this pathogen in the community.

In this study, we utilized the high resolution strain/CC-type S. aureus subtyping information generated by Joseph et al., 2015 [49] from 1,263 whole metagenomic sequencing samples from various body sites of the healthy human cohort of the phase 1 and 2 of the HMP (170 subjects) and performed logistic regression to understand whether there is any association with the demographic and life history characteristics and their status of S. aureus colonization at the various body sites. Of the epidemiologic variables only body mass index (BMI) > 25 and possession of health insurance were associated with the presence of S. aureus. This study also confirmed previous results [43] that gender was not a significant predictor for the detection of any S. aureus subtypes. However, the odds of detecting S. aureus in females were 10% less than in males, which shows similar trends to previous culture-based studies that showed men are more likely to be colonized by S. aureus than females [48] [55] [56]. Based on the results of the multinomial logit model to understand the association of each of the S. aureus carriage subtypes and the exposure variables, there were no strong links to the carriage of the two major subtypes, CC30 and CC8. Understanding the reasons behind the distributions of S. aureus subtypes will take larger data sets.

The subjects chosen for the HMP study were fairly homogenous in terms of age, ethnicity [57], and absence of medical conditions, leaving little power to associate with conditions more prevalent in the general population. Majority of the subjects were educated professionals from two highly ranked universities in the US whose age ranged from only 18 - 40 years. Due to small sample size and less variation among the study subjects in the HMP, we did not assess the

interaction between the exposure variables selected in this analysis. Even though age, tobacco use and race/ethnicity were not significant predictors from our analysis, a previous study using 2,115 women and 1674 men and within a wide age range of 30 - 87 years found that sex (gender), age and smoking are risk factors for S. aureus carriage [56]. This study suggested interaction by age with the largest sex differences in carriage rates in younger adulthood and similar sex-specific carriage rates in children and the elderly. Olsen et al., 2012 [56] also reported S. aureus carriage rate was 28% lower in smokers than in nonsmokers (P < 0.01). Moreover, data from the large NHANES sample (9622 persons ≥ 1 year old) suggest interaction between sex and race/ethnicity; male gender was a significant risk factor for S. aureus carriage in the non-Hispanic White and Mexican American populations but not in the non-Hispanic black population. Being non-Hispanic white compared to non-Hispanic black seems to be a risk factor for S. aureus carriage among men (OR = 1.7, 95% CI 1.4–2.0), but not among women [9] [31]. One important think to note is that all these previous studies have been culture based and were unable to look at specific strains/subtypes, unlike a shotgun metagenomic dataset used in this study. All these indicates that this cohort is under sampled and definitely not a good representation to perform such epidemiological modeling. Most of the studies, including the HMP, identify a particular target population (examples, students, hospital workers, infants in neonatal ward or geriatric patients) and perform epidemiological analysis of the association of S. aureus colonization in that cohort with respect to certain standard variables collected from that population. Very few studies go beyond a particular population to select a heterogenous population were much more power and reliable results for epidemiological association can be achieved.

A major limitation of our epidemiologic analysis was the imprecision in our estimated odds ratios for detection of *S. aureus* driven mainly by the small number of study subjects and to some extent by the homogeneity of the HMP population for factors such as age, race, tobacco use, health insurance, diet, and history of surgery (Table 1). Despite this, we did observe evidence for more detection of *S. aureus* among subjects with higher BMI compared to those with normal BMI, and suggestion towards lower detection of *S. aureus* among subjects with higher subjects without health insurance. We did not adjust for multiple comparisons and it is always possible that observed associations are due to chance. If high BMI and health insurance are in truth risks for *S. aureus* presence, these relationships may be connected to health factors outside those collected directly. For example, BMI may be associated with diet, exercise or other behaviors that are more directly to *S. aureus* carriage; likewise the lower detection among uninsured people may reflect less contact with the medical system or socioeconomic factors.

Even though microbiomic research is promising for epidemiological investigations, the fact that microbiome are dynamic in nature, and the variation within an individual can be high, could make such analysis more complex than expected. Our understanding of the factors responsible for such individual variations in microbiota is limited, which also leads to limited understanding of what factors might confound or modify observed associations between the microbiome and disease outcome. Well-conducted, population-based longitudinal studies are essential to filling these knowledge gaps. For epidemiologists, beyond the ability to process huge amounts of data from microbiome/metagenomics studies, the real challenge lies in the best way to achieve the data reduction needed to use these data in epidemiologic analyses. Epidemiologists can make an important contribution to microbiomic research by performing

well-designed, well-conducted, and appropriately powered studies and by including measures of microbiota composition, identifying important confounders and effect modifiers, and generating and testing hypotheses addressing the role of microbiome in health and disease [58].

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Tables

Table 1. Exposure variables assessed in this study, including the demographics and characteristics of the participants

Exposure Variable	Number present in each category (Total N=840)		
Main Body Site			
Airways	132		
Oral	658		
Skin	50		
Missing	0		
Diet			
Meat/fish/poultry at least 3 days per week	767		
Meat/fish/poultry at least 1 day but not more than 2 days per week	14		
Eggs/cheese/other dairy products, but no meat/fish/poultry	37		
missing	22		
Gender			
Male	456		
Female	384		
missing	0		
Age			
18 - 23 years	181		
23 -28 years	398		
28 - 33 years	150		
33 - 38 years	69		
>= 38 years	42		
missing	0		
Breast Fed or Not			
Yes	536		
No	158		
Don't know/remember	124		
missing	22		
Tobacco Use			
Yes	61		
No	779		
missing	0		

Have Health Insurance or Not	
Yes	741
No	59
missing	40
BMI	
< 22	206
22 - 25	271
> 25	363
missing	0
Race	
Hispanic	45
Asian	65
Black	51
White	679
missing	0
Whether undergone any type of	
surgery	
Yes	32
No	808
Missing	0

Body site	Total number of samples	Number of <i>S. aureus</i> positive samples	Number samples with > 0.025X <i>S. aureus</i> coverage
Anterior nares	137	78(57%)	68(50%)
Attached keratinized Gingiva	14	4(29%)	4(29%)
Buccal mucosa	185	56(31%)	56(30%)
Hard Palate	1	1(100%)	1(100%)
Left retroauricular crease	23	23(100%)	23(100%)
Palatine tonsils	19	7(37%)	6(32%)
Posterior fornix	108	11(10.20%)	9()
Right Antecubital fossa	1	1(100%)	1(100%)
Right retroauricular crease	31	28(90%)	28(90%)
Saliva	7	2(28.57%)	1(14%)
Stool	251	14(6%)	7(0.3%)
Subgingival plaque	19	1(5%)	1(5%)
Supragingival plaque	210	65(31%)	37(18%)
Tongue dorsum	221	82(37%)	82(37%)

Table 2. *S. aureus* positive HMP body sites based on reads mapping to the ancestral *S. aureus* genome sequence. Percentages based on total number of samples for that body site.

Table 3. Estimated adjusted odds ratios with 95% confidence interval for models with binary outcome (presence/absence of any *S. aureus*) as well as multinomial outcomes (presence of strain-specific *S. aureus* vs. no detection).

Staphylococus		Presence of Staphylococus aureus CC type			
aureus Present/Not Present OR (95% CI)	p-value	CC8 OR (95% CI)	CC30 OR (95% CI)	Other CC types OR (95% CI)	p-value
	< 0.0001				< 0.0001
3.3 (2.2 - 5.0)		2.7 (1.3 - 5.4)	2.5 (1.3 - 5.8)	4.6 (2.7 -7.7)	
0.1 (0.0 - 0.3)		0.2 (0.0 - 0.8)	0.1 (0.0 - 0.6)	0.0 (0.0 - 0.2)	
0.0 (0.0 - 0.0)		0.0 (0.0 - 0.3)	0.0 (0.0 - 0.2)	0.0 (0.0 - 0.1)	
	0.4675				0.3228
1.4 (0.6 - 3.0)		0.4 (0.1 - 1.5)	2.0 (0.4 - 10.4)	4.0 (0.7 - 21.0)	
2.3 (0.6 - 8.9)		1.6 (0.1 - 15.9)	3.1 (0.3 - 31.9)	5.4 (0.5 - 62.5)	
1		1	1	1	
	0.6434				0.776
1		1	1	1	
0.9 (0.6-1.3)		1.0 (0.5 - 2.1)	0.7 (0.4 - 1.4)	0.9 (0.5 - 1.6)	
	0.7197				0.8055
1.0 (0.9 - 1.1)		1.1 (0.9 - 1.3)	1.1 (0.9 - 1.3)	1.0 (0.8 - 1.1)	
	aureus Present/Not Present OR (95% CI) 3.3 (2.2 - 5.0) 0.1 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.0) 1.4 (0.6 - 3.0) 2.3 (0.6 - 8.9) 1 0.9 (0.6-1.3)	aureus Present/Not Present p-value OR (95% CI)	aureus Present/Not Present p-value Tresent CC8 OR (95% CI) OR (95% CI) OR (95% CI) 3.3 (2.2 - 5.0) 4 2.7 (1.3 - 5.4) 0.1 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.2 (0.0 - 0.8) 0.2 (0.0 - 0.8) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.0) 0.2 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 1.4 (0.6 - 3.0) 0.4675 0.4 (0.1 - 1.5) 2.3 (0.6 - 8.9) 1.6 (0.1 - 15.9) 1.6 (0.1 - 15.9) 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0.6434 1 1 1.0 (0.5 - 2.1) 1.0 (0.5 - 2.1)	aureus Present/Not Present p-value CC8 CC30 OR (95% CI) OR (95% CI) OR (95% CI) OR (95% CI) 3.3 (2.2 - 5.0) Image: Comparison of the second of the secon	aureus Present/Not Present p-value CC8 CC30 Other CC types OR (95% CI) 3.3 (2.2 - 5.0) 2.7 (1.3 - 5.4) 2.5 (1.3 - 5.8) 4.6 (2.7 - 7.7) 0.1 (0.0 - 0.3) 2.2 (0.0 - 0.8) 0.1 (0.0 - 0.6) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.3) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.0 (0.0 - 0.2) 0.1 (0.6 - 3.0) 0.4675 Image: Colored text in the structure text in the st

Breast Fed or Not		0.6527				0.8913
Yes (reference)	1		1	1	1	
No	1.0 (0.7 - 1.6)		0.7 (0.3 - 1.8)	1.0 (0.5 - 2.1)	1.3 (0.7 - 2.5)	
Don't know/remember	0.8 (0.5 - 1.3)		0.6 (0.2 - 1.6)	0.9 (0.4 - 1.9)	0.9 (0.4 - 1.9)	
Tobacco Use		0.7522				0.7173
Yes	0.9 (0.4 - 1.8)		1.2 (0.3 - 5.4)	1.4 (0.5 - 3.8)	0.6 (0.2 - 2.0)	
No (Reference)	1		1	1	1	
Have Health Insurance or Not		0.0525				0.403
Yes (Reference)	1		1	1	1	
No	0.5 (0.2 - 1.0)		0.0 (0.0 - 13.0)	0.9 (0.3 - 2.6)	0.5 (0.2 - 1.5)	
BMI		0.0276				0.0251
< 22	1.1 (0.7 - 1.9)		0.4 (0.1 - 1.1)	1.6 (0.6 - 3.8)	1.7 (0.7 - 4.0)	
22 - 25	1		1	1	1	
> 25	1.7 (1.1 - 2.5)		1.4 (0.6 - 3.0)	1.1 (0.5 - 2.2)	2.4 (1.3 - 4.5)	
RACE		0.2815				0.2791
Hispanic	2.0 (0.9 - 4.1)		4.7 (1.2 - 18.9)	0.5 (0.1 - 2.8)	2.3 (0.7 - 6.9)	
Asian	1.3 (0.7 - 2.3)		2.6 (1.0 - 7.3)	1.1 (0.4 - 3.2)	1.1 (0.4 - 3.0)	
Black	1.2 (0.5 - 2.5)		1.0 (0.2 - 5.6)	1.9 (0.6 - 6.3)	0.9 (0.2 - 3.1)	
White (Reference)	1		1	1	1	
Whether undergone any type of surgery		0.9241				
Yes	1.0 (0.4 - 2.5)		2.6 (0.4 - 18.7)	0.0 (0.0 - 172.8)	1.6 (0.4 - 6.5)	0.5205
No (Reference)	1					

Table 4. Estimated unadjusted odds ratios with 95% confidence interval for models with binary outcome (presence/absence of any *S. aureus*) as well as multinomial outcomes (presence of strain-specific *S. aureus* vs. no detection).

	Staphylococus		Presence	of <i>Staphylococu</i>	is aureus CC t	уре
Exposure Variable	aureus Present/Not Present OR (95% CI)	p-value	CC8 OR (95% CI)	CC30 OR (95% CI)	Other CC types OR (95% CI)	p-value
Main Body Site		< 0.0001				<0.0001
Airways vs. Oral	3.5 (2.3 - 5.3)		2.8 (1.4 - 5.7)	2.5 (1.3 - 4.8)	4.8 (2.8 - 8.0)	
Airways vs. Skin	0.1 (0.0 - 0.3)		0.2 (0.0 - 1.0)	0.1 (0.0 - 0.6)	0.0 (0.0 - 0.2)	
Oral vs. Skin	0.0 (0.0 - 0.0)		0.1 (0.0 - 0.3)	0.1 (0.0 - 0.2)	0.0 (0.0 - 0.1)	
Diet		0.5938				0.3998
Meat/fish/poultry at least 3 days per week	1.4 (0.6 - 3.2)		0.4 (0.1 - 1.8)	1.8 (0.4 - 8.7)	4.2 (0.8 - 22.2)	
Meat/fish/poultry at least 1 day but not more than 2 days per week	2.1 (0.5 - 9.5)		1.4 (0.1 - 18.0)	2.9 (0.3 - 30.7)	4.8 (0.4 - 58.0)	
Eggs/cheese/other dairy products, but no meat/fish/poultry (Reference)	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	
Gender		0.4345				0.8758
Male (Reference)	1		1.0	1.0	1.0	
Female	0.9 (0.6-1.2)		0.8 (0.4 - 1.7)	0.8 (0.5 - 1.5)	0.9 (0.6 - 1.5)	
Age		0.7197				0.8061
3 years of age difference	1.1 (1.1 - 1.2)		1.1 (0.9 - 1.3)	1.1 (0.9 - 1.2)	1.0 (0.9 - 1.2)	

Breast Fed or Not		0.6527				0.8913
Yes (reference)	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	
No	1.0 (0.7 - 1.6)		0.6 (0.2 - 1.7)	0.9 (0.5 - 2.0)	1.2 (0.7 - 2.3)	
Don't know/remember	1.0 (0.6 - 1.6)		0.8 (0.3 - 2.3)	1.0 (0.5 - 2.2)	0.9 (0.4 - 1.9)	
Tobacco Use		0.5167				0.5927
Yes	0.8 (0.4 - 1.7)		0.9 (0.2 - 4.4)	1.4 (0.5 - 4.0)	0.5 (0.1 - 1.7)	
No (Reference)	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	
Have Health Insurance or Not		0.0373				0.7749
Yes (Reference)	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	
No	2.0 (1.0 - 3.7)		0.0 (0.0 - 13.0)	1.3 (0.4 - 3.9)	1.6 (0.6 - 4.5)	
BMI		0.0744				0.3618
< 22	1.2 (0.8 - 1.9)		0.8 (0.3 - 2.3)	1.2 (0.6 - 2.5)	1.4 (0.7 - 2.8)	
22 - 25	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	
> 25	1.6 (1.1 - 2.3)		1.5 (0.7 - 3.6)	1.1 (0.6 - 2.1)	1.9 (1.1 - 3.3)	
RACE		0.0560				0.3284
Hispanic	2.3 (1.2 - 4.2)		3.3 (0.7 - 15.2)	0.7 (0.1 – 3.6)	3.1 (1.1 - 8.8)	
Asian	1.3 (0.7 - 2.1)		2.4 (0.8 - 7.6)	1.1 (0.4 - 3.0)	1.0 (0.4 - 2.4)	
Black	1.2 (0.6 - 2.4)		0.8 (0.2 - 5.5)	1.8 (0.6 - 6.0)	1.0 (0.3 - 3.4)	
White (Reference)	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	
Whether undergone any type of surgery		0.5144				0.9695
Yes	0.7 (0.3 - 1.9)		0.7 (0.1 - 6.3)	inf	1.3 (0.3 - 4.9)	
No (Reference)	1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	

Figures

Figure 1. *S. aureus* subtypes in HMP samples. 321 samples from the HMP project with a *S. aureus* core coverage > 0.025X project were classified using binstrain with the v2 matrix. The figure shows counts of the number of samples with each subtype present with beta > 0.2.

