



## Commercial biocides induce transfer of prophage 13 from human strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* to livestock CC398

Tang, Yuanyue; Nielsen, Lene N.; Hvitved, Annemette; Haaber, Jakob K.; Wirtz, Christiane; Andersen, Paal S.; Larsen, Jesper; Wolz, Christiane; Ingmer, Hanne

*Published in:*  
Frontiers in Microbiology

*DOI:*  
[10.3389/fmicb.2017.02418](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.02418)

*Publication date:*  
2017

*Document version*  
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

*Document license:*  
[CC BY](#)

*Citation for published version (APA):*  
Tang, Y., Nielsen, L. N., Hvitved, A., Haaber, J. K., Wirtz, C., Andersen, P. S., Larsen, J., Wolz, C., & Ingmer, H. (2017). Commercial biocides induce transfer of prophage 13 from human strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* to livestock CC398. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 8, [2418]. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.02418>



# Commercial Biocides Induce Transfer of Prophage $\Phi$ 13 from Human Strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* to Livestock CC398

Yuanyue Tang<sup>1</sup>, Lene N. Nielsen<sup>2</sup>, Annemette Hvitved<sup>2</sup>, Jakob K. Haaber<sup>3</sup>, Christiane Wirtz<sup>4</sup>, Paal S. Andersen<sup>1,5</sup>, Jesper Larsen<sup>5</sup>, Christiane Wolz<sup>4</sup> and Hanne Ingmer<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Veterinary and Animal Science, Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, University of Copenhagen, Frederiksberg, Denmark, <sup>2</sup> National Food Institute, Technical University of Denmark, Søborg, Denmark, <sup>3</sup> DTU Biosustain, Technical University of Denmark, Kongens Lyngby, Denmark, <sup>4</sup> Institut für Medizinische Mikrobiologie und Hygiene, Universitätsklinikum Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany, <sup>5</sup> Department of Microbiology and Infection Control, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, Denmark

## OPEN ACCESS

### Edited by:

Peter Mullany,  
University College London,  
United Kingdom

### Reviewed by:

Chad W. Euler,  
Hunter College (CUNY), United States  
Grzegorz Wegryzn,  
University of Gdańsk, Poland

### \*Correspondence:

Hanne Ingmer  
hi@sund.ku.dk

### Specialty section:

This article was submitted to  
Antimicrobials, Resistance and  
Chemotherapy,  
a section of the journal  
Frontiers in Microbiology

**Received:** 28 September 2017

**Accepted:** 22 November 2017

**Published:** 07 December 2017

### Citation:

Tang Y, Nielsen LN, Hvitved A, Haaber JK, Wirtz C, Andersen PS, Larsen J, Wolz C and Ingmer H (2017) Commercial Biocides Induce Transfer of Prophage  $\Phi$ 13 from Human Strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* to Livestock CC398. *Front. Microbiol.* 8:2418. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2017.02418

Human strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* commonly carry the bacteriophage  $\Phi$ Sa3 that encodes immune evasion factors. Recently, this prophage has been found in livestock-associated, methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) CC398 strains where it may promote human colonization. Here, we have addressed if exposure to biocidal products induces phage transfer, and find that during co-culture,  $\Phi$ 13 from strain 8325, belonging to  $\Phi$ Sa3 group, is induced and transferred from a human strain to LA-MRSA CC398 when exposed to sub-lethal concentrations of commercial biocides containing hydrogen peroxide. Integration of  $\Phi$ Sa3 in LA-MRSA CC398 occurs at multiple positions and the integration site influences the stability of the prophage. We did not observe integration in *hlyB* encoding  $\beta$ -hemolysin that contains the preferred  $\Phi$ Sa3 attachment site in human strains, and we demonstrate that this is due to allelic variation in CC398 strains that disrupts the phage attachment site, but not the expression of  $\beta$ -hemolysin. Our results show that hydrogen peroxide present in biocidal products stimulate transfer of  $\Phi$ Sa3 from human to LA-MRSA CC398 strains and that in these strains prophage stability depends on the integration site. Knowledge of  $\Phi$ Sa3 transfer and stability between human and livestock strains may lead to new intervention measures directed at reducing human infection by LA-MRSA strains.

**Keywords:** LA-MRSA CC398, biocide, prophage,  $\Phi$ Sa3, phage transfer

## INTRODUCTION

*Staphylococcus aureus* is an opportunistic pathogen in human and animals, and is one of the leading causes of acute and chronic infections. When treating staphylococcal infections, resistance to  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics is an increasing problem with methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) clones epidemically spreading in the hospitals as well as in the community (DeLeo et al., 2010; Dulon et al., 2011). In recent years, strains belonging to clonal complex 398 (CC398) have been widely detected in pigs and have also been found in other livestock animals such as turkey, chicken and cattle (Smith and Pearson, 2011). In general, livestock-associated MRSA (LA-MRSA) CC398 is regarded

less virulent than human-associated MRSA clones due to the absence of several common virulence factors, such as enterotoxins and phage encoded Panton-Valentine leukocidin (PVL) (Schijffelen et al., 2010; Price et al., 2012; Becker et al., 2015). However, LA-MRSA CC398 causes infections in humans with livestock contact (Köck et al., 2011; Pérez-Moreno et al., 2016) and since first detected in the early 2000s (van Loo et al., 2007) the number of clinical cases in humans has increased steadily (van Cleef et al., 2011; Cuny et al., 2015). The infection of humans by LA-MRSA CC398 is primarily regarded as an occupational risk for farmers, veterinarians and meat handlers (Smith and Pearson, 2011) but a secondary risk is the spread of CC398 to the community (Smith and Pearson, 2011; Smith, 2015). In fact, infections of LA-MRSA CC398 in patients without animal contact have been reported both in Europe and the United States (Welinder-Olsson et al., 2008; Wulf et al., 2008; Bhat et al., 2009; Larsen et al., 2015, 2016; Diene et al., 2017).

The ability of *S. aureus* to colonize host organisms is in part determined by prophages. The majority of human-associated *S. aureus* isolates contain  $\beta$ -hemolysin negative-converting bacteriophages, which are classified as  $\Phi$ Sa3 (Goerke et al. 2006b). They share an integrase (Goerke et al., 2009) and an attachment core sequence (5'-TGTATCCAAACTGG-3') in the *hIb* gene (Coleman et al., 1991).  $\Phi$ Sa3 phages contain the immune evasion cluster (IEC) encoding the chemotaxis inhibitory protein (CHIPS), staphylococcal complement inhibitor (SCIN), staphylokinase (SAK), as well as some enterotoxins (Coleman et al., 1989; van Wamel et al., 2006; Goerke et al., 2009; McCarthy and Lindsay, 2010), which contribute to adaptation to the human host (de Haas et al., 2004; Rooijackers et al., 2005; Jung et al., 2016). Recent data suggest that  $\Phi$ Sa3 phages are occasionally found in livestock-associated *S. aureus* strains, and the acquisition of  $\Phi$ Sa3 is important for the host-jump of *S. aureus* from animals to humans (Price et al., 2012; van der Mee-Marquet et al., 2014; Larsen et al., 2015, 2016).

Induction of prophages generally occurs in response to DNA damage elicited by for example reactive oxygen species and some antibiotics, and is mediated by RecA activation and cleavage of the phage repressor (Frye et al., 2005; Goerke et al., 2006a; Nanda et al., 2015). Thus, extrinsic factors contribute to the mobility of  $\Phi$ Sa3 phages among *S. aureus* strains. Disinfection and cleaning are critical steps when maintaining a desired hygiene status in household products, in hospitals and in food animal production. In livestock production, biocides are widely applied for cleaning and disinfection of animal-associated production areas, equipment, during transport and even directly on animals to prevent skin diseases (Quinn and Markey, 2001). Major biocides applied in livestock production include hydrogen peroxide, peracetic acid, glutaric aldehyde, quaternary ammonium compounds, and isopropanol (Kjølholt et al., 2001; SCHENIHR (Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks), 2009). Hydrogen peroxide is a common disinfectant applied in animal production. It is a powerful oxidizing agent that oxidizes thiol groups in enzymes and proteins and leads to free radical production (Kjølholt et al., 2001; Russell, 2003). Here we have applied a prophage  $\Phi$ 13 from

strain 8325 belonging to  $\Phi$ Sa3 group to examine if sub-lethal concentrations of commercial biocides and biocidal compounds induce phage  $\Phi$ Sa3 and stimulate its transmission to LA-MRSA CC398 strains.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Strain Collection and Chemical Reagents

Chemicals and biocides used in this study are listed in **Table 1** and strains in **Table 2**. Media used in this study included Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB), tryptic soy broth (TSB) and agar (TSA) from Oxoid. Sheep blood is from Department of Veterinary Disease Biology, University of Copenhagen.

### Strain Construction

Phage-cured MW2c was obtained by treating MW2- $\Phi$ Sa3mw (Wirtz et al., 2009) with 1  $\mu$ g/ml mitomycin C for 2 h at 37°C, 200 rpm in TSB and subsequently with 0.5 mM hydrogen peroxide for 3 h at 37°C, 200 rpm. Serial dilutions were plated on TSA with 0.5 mM hydrogen peroxide and incubated at 37°C for overnight. Colonies grew on the plates were selected as phage cured bacteria (MW2c) and checked by PFGE (Goerke et al., 2004) for lacking of the phage.

Strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana was obtained by replacing part of the 3'-end of  $\Phi$ 13 (*chps* and *scin*) in strain  $\Phi$ 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 (Goerke et al., 2006a) with kanamycin resistance cassette *aphA3*. In brief, two fragments flanking the 3'-region of  $\Phi$ 13 and the kanamycin-resistant cassette from pDG782 (Guérout-Fleury et al., 1995) were amplified and annealed by overlapping PCR. The amplicon was cloned into *KpnI* restriction site into pBT2 (Brückner, 2006) to gain pCG6, which was electroporated into strain RN4220

**TABLE 1** | Biocides and chemical reagents included in this study.

Reagents	Composition	Manufacturer
Biocide 1*	Hydrogen peroxide (15–30%) Acetic acid (5–15%) Peracetic acid (1–5%)	Novadan
Biocide 2*	Hydrogen peroxide (15–30%) Acetic acid (1–5%) Peracetic acid (1–5%) Phosphonic acid (1–5%) Amine oxide (1–5%)	Novadan
Biocide 3*	Active chlorine (60–100%) Sodium hydroxide (1–5%) Amine oxide (<1%)	Novadan
Mitomycin C	Mitomycin C from <i>Streptomyces caespitosus</i>	Sigma-Aldrich
Hydrogen peroxide	Hydrogen peroxide (30%)	Sigma-Aldrich
Benzalkonium chloride	Benzalkonium chloride (10%)	Sigma-Aldrich
Acetic acid	Acetic acid (100%)	Merck
Amine oxide	N,N-Dimethyldodecylamine N-oxide (30%)	Sigma-Aldrich
Peracetic acid	Peracetic acid (38–40%)	Merck

\*Represents commercial biocide.

**TABLE 2** | Bacteria strains included in this study.

Strain	Description	References
8325-4	NCTC8325 phage-cured	Novick, 1967
8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 (CG1)	8325-4 lysogenized with $\Phi$ 13	Goerke et al., 2006a
RN4220	Restriction defective derivative of 8325-4	Kreiswirth et al., 1983
8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana	8325-4 lysogenized with $\Phi$ 13 <i>chips</i> , <i>scin::aphA3</i> , kanamycin resistant	This study
MW2- $\Phi$ Sa3mw	MW2- $\Phi$ Sa3mw	Wirtz et al., 2009
MW2c	MW2 phage-cured	This study
61599	<i>spa</i> type t034, tetracycline resistant, <i>hlyB</i> <sup>+</sup>	Larsen et al., 2015
93616	<i>spa</i> type t899, tetracycline resistant, <i>hlyB</i> <sup>+</sup>	Larsen et al., 2016
DC10B	$\Delta dcm$ in DH10B background; Dam methylation only	Monk et al., 2012
8325-4 $\Phi$ 13attBmut	8325-4 mutated at $\Phi$ 13 <i>attB</i> site in <i>hlyB</i> , <i>hlyB</i> <sup>+</sup>	This study
RN4220 $\Phi$ 13attBmut	RN4220 mutated at $\Phi$ 13 <i>attB</i> site in <i>hlyB</i> , <i>hlyB</i> <sup>+</sup>	This study

(Kreiswirth et al., 1983) and further transduced into 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13. pCG6 was then used to mutagenize strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 as described by Brückner (2006) to obtain strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13kana, and confirmed by sequencing.

To identify the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site in strain 8325-4 (Novick, 1967) and RN4220 (Peng et al., 1988), the original  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site in 8325-4 was predicted by subtracting the  $\Phi$ 13 sequence (accession No.: NC\_004617) from the NCTC 8325 genome harboring  $\Phi$ 13 (accession No.: NC\_007795), and aligning the resulting sequence to the known *hlyB* sequence containing the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site (Coleman et al., 1991) (accession No.: X61716) for confirmation. To construct a plasmid containing a mutated  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* (*attBmut*), 800 bp upstream sequence of  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site in *hlyB* gene of 8325-4 (Novick, 1967) was amplified by overlapping PCR primer pairs pIMAYhlyBattfor and hlyBattmutrev (Supplementary Table 1), and 800 bp sequence downstream of  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site was amplified by overlapping PCR primer pairs hlyBattmutfor and pIMAYhlyBattrev, where the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* mutation from strain 61599 was included in primer hlyBattmutfor (Supplementary Table 1). The PCR fragments and pIMAY vector were digested by *EcoRI*, and ligated together by Gibson Assembly<sup>®</sup> Master Mixt (BioLabs<sup>®</sup>) to form the plasmid named as pIMAY\_ $\Phi$ 13attmut. This plasmid was electroporated into RN4220 (Kreiswirth et al., 1983) resulting in the strain RN4220pIMAY\_ $\Phi$ 13attmut, and the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* mutation was introduced into the RN4220 chromosome by homologous recombination (Monk et al., 2012). The mutation at *attB* in RN4220 was confirmed by sequencing and the strain was named RN4220 $\Phi$ 13attBmut.

For construction of  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* mutation in strain 8325-4, plasmid pIMAY\_ $\Phi$ 13attmut was electroporated from RN4220pIMAY\_ $\Phi$ 13attmut into 8325-4 (Novick, 1967), and the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* mutation from strain 61599 was introduced to 8325-4 chromosome by homologous recombination with pIMAY allelic

replacement system (Monk et al., 2012). The mutation at *attB* in 8325-4 was confirmed by sequencing and the strain was named as 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13attBmut.

## Determination of Minimal Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs)

MICs of biocides and chemical compounds in strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 were determined according to the guideline of Clinical and laboratory standards institute (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI), 2008). Strains from overnight TSA plate was resuspended in 0.9% NaCl to achieve the turbidity of 0.5 McFarland standard and further diluted 100-fold in MHB. The working solution of biocides and chemical compound were benzalkonium chloride (2.67  $\mu$ g/ml), hydrogen peroxide (3% w/w), Biocide 1 (5% v/v), Biocide 2 (5% v/v), Biocide 3 (5% v/v), and mitomycin C (1  $\mu$ g/ml). In brief, the working solution of biocides and mitomycin C were prepared with two-fold dilution series in MHB in 96-well microtiter plates with 100  $\mu$ l volume. Further, 100  $\mu$ l of cell suspension was added to each well. Positive growth control of wells without biocide, and negative controls of wells with only MHB were included. The microtiter plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. MIC values were determined as the lowest concentration of the compounds that eliminated the visible growth of bacteria.

## $\Phi$ 13 Induction Assay by Different Biocides and Mitomycin C

To perform the phage induction assay, strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 was grown to the exponential phase ( $OD_{600} = 0.8$ ) (Wirtz et al., 2009) by shaking at 37°C, 200 rpm in TSB. Then, different concentration of Biocide 1, Biocide 2, Biocide 3, benzalkonium chloride, hydrogen peroxide and mitomycin C were added into the broth culture respectively, and further incubated for 2 h at 37°C, 200 rpm. The concentration series of each biocide was determined according to MIC values of strain 8325-4  $\Phi$ 13 (Table 3), which included MIC, 5X MIC, 10X MIC, 20X MIC, and 30X MIC. Supernatants were sterilized by 0.45  $\mu$ m pore diameter membrane filter. The phage induction levels were evaluated by PFU determination as previously described (Goerke et al., 2006b). Briefly, 100  $\mu$ l of each phage supernatant dilution was mixed 100  $\mu$ l indicator strain MW2c ( $OD_{600} = 0.1$ ) and incubated for 10 min at room temperature before mixing with top agar and pouring onto a TSA plated with 10  $\mu$ M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and further incubated overnight at 37°C.

## Lysogenization Assay of $\Phi$ 13 to LA-MRSA

Strain 8325-4  $\Phi$ 13-kana was used as the phage donor strain. Phage lysate were obtained by growing the strain to exponential phase ( $OD_{600} = 0.8$ ) at 37°C, 200 rpm, mixing with 1  $\mu$ g/ml mitomycin C and further incubating for 4 h under the same condition. The culture was centrifuged at 4°C, 8,500 rpm for 6 min, and sterile filtered by 0.45  $\mu$ m pore diameter membrane filter before determining the titer.  $\Phi$ 13 lysogens were obtained by mixing phage  $\Phi$ 13-kana and LA-MRSA CC398 strains (61599 and 93616) at MOIs of 0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10, 100, and 1,000 and incubating the mixture at 30°C for 30 min. Hundred microliter of the mixture was then spread on TSA plate containing 100

**TABLE 3** | MIC of strain 8325-4 for different chemical agents.

Chemical agent	MIC
Mitomycin C (mg/L)	0.125
Biocide 1 (v/v)	0.02%
Biocide 2 (v/v)	0.02%
Biocide 3 (v/v)	5.00%
Hydrogen peroxide (w/w)	0.03%
Benzalkonium chloride (mg/L)	2.67
Acetic acid (v/v)	0.16%
Amine oxide (v/v)	0.04%
Peracetic acid (v/v)	0.01%

$\mu$ l/ml kanamycin, 10  $\mu$ g/ml tetracycline and 5% of sheep blood (Kan-Tet plate), and incubated at 37°C overnight. Lysogens were selected as colonies able to grow on Kan-Tet plate. The plates were stored at 4°C overnight to detect  $\beta$ -hemolysin activity. Lysogens were verified by colony morphology and hemolysin activity (Supplementary Figure 6) as well as by PCR to detect *ahpA3* and *sak* genes. The lysogenization frequency was evaluated as the ratio of the  $\Phi$ 13 CC398 lysogen colony count (CFU/ml) on Kan-Tet plate ( $\Phi$ 13 CC398 lysogen) to the total recipient colony count (CFU/ml) on TSA plate with 10  $\mu$ g/ml tetracycline (Tet plate).

### PCR Analysis

Bacterial DNA was released by suspending 2-3 colonies in 100  $\mu$ l Milli Q water and incubated at 95°C for 10 min. For confirming the transfer of  $\Phi$ 13 to LA-MRSA CC398 strain, primer pair sak-for/sak-rev for the *sak* gene and primer pair kanR-for/kanR-rev for the *aph* gene were used. For checking if the *hlyB* gene was intact, primer pair hlyBPhi13attB-for/hlyBPhi13attB-rev of *hlyB* gene was used. For primer sequences see Supplementary Table 1. PCR amplification was performed by mixing 12.5  $\mu$ l DreamTaq Green PCR Master Mix (2X) (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10.5  $\mu$ l Milli Q water, 1  $\mu$ l DNA template and 1  $\mu$ l (0.1  $\mu$ M) each primer. For determining the *attB* core sequence mutation in strain 8325-4 and RN4220, the PCR products of *hlyB* gene were purified by GeneJet PCR purification kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and sequenced by Macrogen Inc.

### In Vitro Liquid Co-Cultivation Assay

The liquid co-cultivation assay was carried out in TSB with donor strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana resistant to kanamycin and recipient strain LA-MRSA 61599 resistant to tetracycline. In brief, both donor and recipient strains were grown to exponential phase (approximately 10<sup>8</sup> cfu/ml), and mixed with a ratio of 1:1. Different concentrations of hydrogen peroxide, Biocide 1 and mitomycin C were added to the culture, and then incubated at 37°C, 200 rpm for 4 h. Phage transfer was detected by plating serial dilutions on Kan-Tet plate and Tet plate followed by incubating at 37°C for 18 h. The  $\Phi$ 13 CC398 lysogens were counted based on the colony morphology of  $\Phi$ 13 lysogens (Supplementary Figure 6) and also further confirmed the PCR program of *sak* and *kanR* genes. To confirm the lysogens

were belonging to CC398 strain and avoid miscounting of donor strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana, a *spa-mecA* multiplex PCR (Tang et al., 2017) was conducted to CC398 lysogens, which could differentiate CC398 lysogens to donor strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana (Supplementary Figure 5). The transfer ratio of  $\Phi$ 13-kana was considered as the ratio of the  $\Phi$ 13 CC398 lysogen colony count on Kan- Tet plates (CFU/ml) to the recipient colony count on Tet plates (CFU/ml).

## INFLUENCE OF CHEMICAL AGENTS TO STRAINS AND PHAGE

The influence of applied chemical reagents to donor and recipient strains was separately evaluated by growth curve, which culture of both strains at exponential phase (approximately 10<sup>8</sup> cfu/ml) was treated with a series of concentrations of mitomycin C, hydrogen peroxide and Biocide1, and measured OD<sub>600</sub> value every hour till 4 h at 37°C, 200 rpm. The influence of applied chemical to  $\Phi$ 13-kana was evaluated by treating the phage stock with a series of concentration of chemical agents and the plaque assay was conducted after 4 h at 37°C, 200 rpm, with the plaque assay mentioned above. The influence of applied chemical reagents to the induction of  $\Phi$ 13 with the kanamycin resistant cassette was evaluated after 4 h of treatment by  $\Phi$ 13 induction assay mentioned above. In addition, the influence of chemical compounds present in Biocide 1 to the donor and recipient strains was evaluated individually by growth curve and  $\Phi$ 13 induction assays as described above in the presence of a series concentrations of peracetic acid, amine oxide and acetic acid.

### Characterization of LA-MRSA CC398 $\Phi$ 13 Lysogens

Stability of the prophages in CC398  $\Phi$ 13 lysogens was examined in 10  $\Phi$ 13 lysogens of strain 61599 and passaging them for 20 days. In brief, 5  $\mu$ l overnight culture of each lysogen was diluted 1000-fold in 5 ml TSB and incubated for 24 h at 37°C, 200 rpm. After each passage, 100  $\mu$ l culture was spread on TSA plate containing 10  $\mu$ g/ml tetracycline and incubated overnight at 37°C. From this plate, 50 colonies were picked up and streaked on TSA plate containing both 100  $\mu$ g/ml kanamycin and 10  $\mu$ g/ml tetracycline and TSA plate containing only 10  $\mu$ g/ml tetracycline, and then incubated overnight at 37°C. The stability of each lysogen was determined by the ratio of colonies survived on TSA plate contain both kanamycin and tetracycline to the colonies survived on TSA plate containing only tetracycline. Further, lysogens with different  $\Phi$ 13 stability characteristics were sequenced by paired-end sequencing (2  $\times$  251 bp) using Nextera XT DNA Library Preparation Kit (Illumina Inc.) on a MiSeq sequencer (Illumina Inc.). Contigs were de novo assembled using CLC-bio assembler (Qiagen).

### Lysogenization Assay of $\Phi$ 13 *attB* Mutant

Strains 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13attBmut and RN4220 $\Phi$ 13attBmut, and their wild type strains were individually mixed with the  $\Phi$ 13-kana phage stock at a MOI of 0.1 and were incubated at 37°C for 4

hrs. After making serial dilutions, 100  $\mu$ l of each dilution series was spread on TSA plates with 5% sheep blood containing 100  $\mu$ l/ml kanamycin (Kan-plate) and TSA plate with 5% sheep blood (TSA plate), which were incubated at 37°C overnight. Lysogens were selected as colonies able to grow on Kan plate. The plates were stored at 4°C overnight to detect  $\beta$ -hemolysin activity. The lysogen frequency was determined as the ratio of colony count (CFU/ml) on Kan-plate to the total colony count (CFU/ml) on TSA plate. Further, PCR amplification of *hly* gene to check if *hly* gene was interrupted, PCR amplification of *hly* gene including the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site was conducted for 16 colonies of lysogenized mutants.

## RESULTS

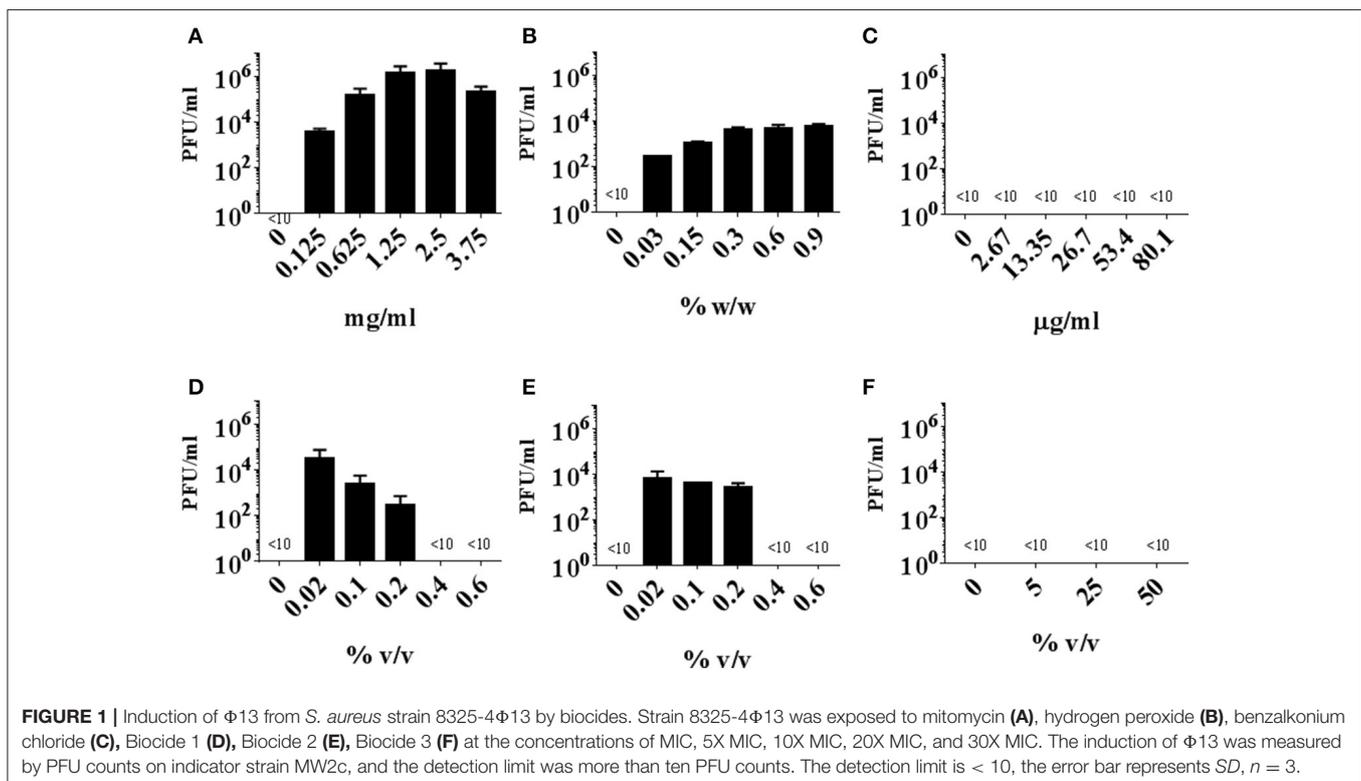
### Induction of $\Phi$ Sa3 by Biocides

*Staphylococcus aureus* strain 8325 harbors a  $\Phi$ Sa3 class of phage termed  $\Phi$ 13 (Iandolo et al., 2002). In this study, we applied strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 (Goerke et al., 2006a), which is a derivative of the phage cured strain 8325-4 (Novick, 1967) lysogenized with  $\Phi$ 13 to evaluate if commercially available biocides can induce  $\Phi$ Sa3. We evaluated the susceptibility of strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 to three commercially available biocides in addition to hydrogen peroxide, benzalkonium chloride as well as mitomycin C (Table 1) by MIC (Table 3). Further, we exposed the strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 to these biocides and chemical reagents (Table 1) and monitored plaque formation on indicator strain MW2c. Strain MW2c is a derivative of strain MW2- $\Phi$ Sa3mw in which all phages have been cured (Wirtz et al., 2009). We found that

excision of  $\Phi$ 13 was induced by mitomycin C ( $\leq$ 3.75 mg/ml), by biocides containing hydrogen peroxide [Biocide 1 ( $\leq$ 0.2% v/v) and 2 ( $\leq$  0.2% v/v)] as well as by hydrogen peroxide ( $\leq$ 0.9% w/w) in a dose-dependent manner (Figures 1A–E). No induction of  $\Phi$ 13 was observed by benzalkonium chloride or Biocide 3 containing sodium hypochlorite as the active ingredient (Figures 1C,F) or in the absence of stimuli indicating that less than 10 pfu/ml is released.

### Transfer of $\Phi$ 13 to LA-MRSA CC398

To monitor integration of  $\Phi$ 13 into LA-MRSA CC398, a  $\Phi$ 13 phage stock was obtained by mitomycin C induction from strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana, a derivative of 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13 where the 3'-end of *chps* and *scn* in  $\Phi$ 13 has been replaced by the kanamycin resistance gene, *aphA3*. This phage stock was used to infect two tetracycline-resistant LA-MRSA CC398 strains 61599 and 93616 isolated from humans in Denmark (Table 2). Strain 61599 with *spa* type t034 (Larsen et al., 2015) was obtained from a pig farm worker and strain 93616 with *spa* type t899 (Larsen et al., 2016) was recovered from a mink farmer. Neither of the strains contained  $\Phi$ Sa3 phage by sequence analysis (Larsen et al., 2015, 2016). After repeated attempts, only strain 61599 could be lysogenized with  $\Phi$ 13. At multiplicity of infection (MOI) of less than one, we observed colonies resistant to both kanamycin and tetracycline, indicating lysogenization of LA-MRSA CC398 by  $\Phi$ 13-kana (Supplementary Figure 1). To confirm that the resulting colonies were lysogens and not spontaneous antibiotic resistant mutants, we used PCR amplification of the *aphA3* and *sak* genes of  $\Phi$ 13-kana (data not shown).

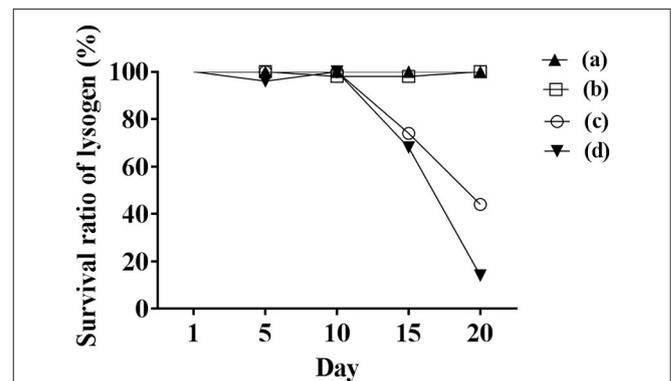


To examine if  $\Phi 13$ -kana could transfer directly from *S. aureus* 8325-4 $\Phi 13$ -kana (donor strain) to recipient LA-MRSA CC398 strain 61599 in the presence of biocides or mitomycin, we first assessed a series of concentrations of mitomycin C, hydrogen peroxide and Biocide 1 ranging from sub-lethal to lethal with respect to their influence on growth (Supplementary Figure 2) and the induction levels of  $\Phi 13$ -kana (Supplementary Figure 3). We also confirmed that these concentrations have minimum effect on  $\Phi 13$ -kana in plaque assays (Supplementary Figure 4). Further, we evaluated MIC of strain 8325-4 $\Phi 13$  to acetic acid, amine oxide and peracetic acid (Table 1), which are present in Biocide 1 (Table 3), and exposed the strain to these chemicals to evaluate their effect on growth and  $\Phi 13$  induction (Supplementary Figure 5). We found that, in addition to hydrogen peroxide (Supplementary Figure 3B),  $\Phi 13$ -kana can also be induced by peracetic acid, which is able to spontaneously decompose to hydrogen peroxide and acetic acid (Yuan et al., 1997; Supplementary Figure 6).

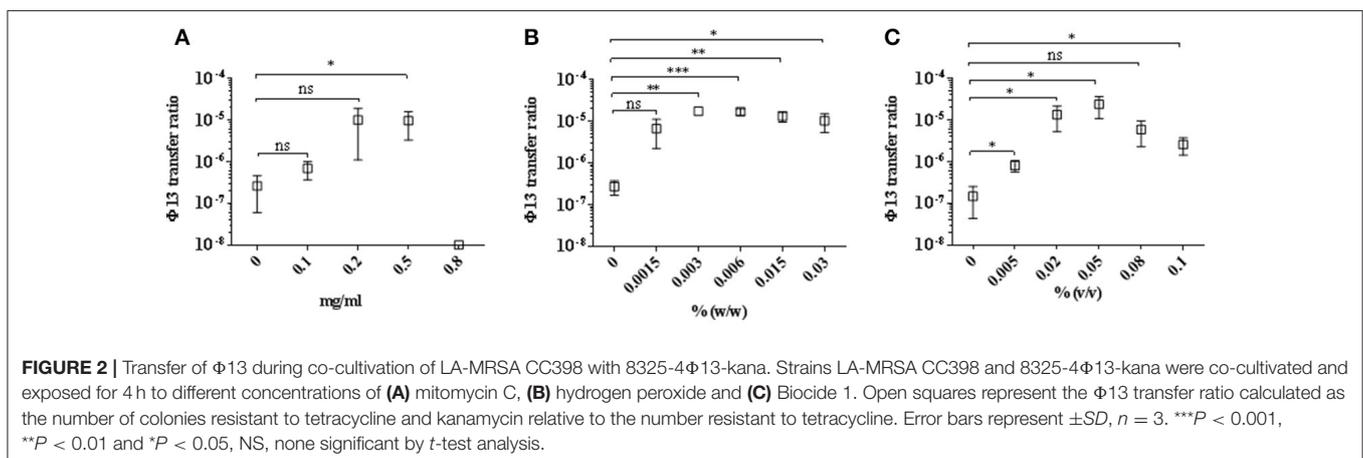
We co-cultured the donor strain 8325-4 $\Phi 13$ -kana with the recipient strain 61599, in the presence of sub-lethal to lethal concentrations of mitomycin C, hydrogen peroxide, and Biocide 1. Colonies of strain 61599 lysogenized with  $\Phi 13$ -kana were detected by plating on blood plates containing kanamycin and tetracycline. The transfer of  $\Phi 13$ -kana was confirmed by PCR for *sak* and *aphA3* and the identity of the resulting colonies was confirmed by PCR amplification of *spa* and *mecA* (Supplementary Figure 7). We observed that  $\Phi 13$ -kana transferred from strain 8325-4 $\Phi 13$ -kana to 61599 with a transfer frequency between  $10^{-5}$  and  $10^{-6}$  in the presence of 0.002–0.1% (v/v) Biocide 1, which contains hydrogen peroxide as the active compound (Figure 2C). Exposure to mitomycin C and hydrogen peroxide also induced the transfer of  $\Phi 13$ -kana (Figures 2A,B). Surprisingly, in the absence of DNA damaging agents, we also observed a transfer frequency of  $\Phi 13$ -kana was around  $2.3 \times 10^{-7}$  (Figure 2). These results show that sublethal to lethal concentrations of biocides containing hydrogen peroxide and mitomycin C promote transfer of  $\Phi 13$  between human and livestock-adapted strains *in vitro*.

## Characterization of $\Phi 13$ in CC398 Lysogens

Initially, we assessed hemolysin production of nine  $\Phi 13$  lysogens (LY01-09) in LA-MRSA CC398 strain 61599 on blood agar plates and observed that all were  $\beta$ -hemolysin positive (Supplementary Figure 8) suggesting that the phage had not integrated in the *hlyB* attachment site commonly preferred in human strains (Goerke et al., 2006b). Subsequently, we evaluated stability of the lysogens over a period of 20 days (corresponding to approximately 960 generations) by plating on tetracycline agar plates and recording the fraction of kanamycin-resistant colonies (Figure 3). Here we observed different stability patterns with  $\Phi 13$ -kana being completely stable in six lysogens (LY01-06), and being partially stable in the rest of the lysogens with 44% (LY08) and 29% (LY09) of cells retaining the phage, respectively. In LY07, the percentage



**FIGURE 3** |  $\Phi 13$  stability in LA-MRSA CC398 strain 61599. Nine lysogens were grown over a 20 period with 1000 fold dilution performed daily from the previous day overnight culture. The stability of the phage was monitored by plating on agar plates with tetracycline, and scoring the number that were also kanamycin resistant. (a) filled triangle represents LY01-LY06 of lysogens, which were fully stable with  $\Phi 13$  prophages during the 20-day test; (b) opened square represents LY07, which had sporadically lost  $\Phi 13$  during 20 days; (c) open circle represent LY08 and (d) filled inverted triangle represents LY09, both lost  $\Phi 13$  in the majority of the analyzed colonies after 20 days, respectively.



**FIGURE 2** | Transfer of  $\Phi 13$  during co-cultivation of LA-MRSA CC398 with 8325-4 $\Phi 13$ -kana. Strains LA-MRSA CC398 and 8325-4 $\Phi 13$ -kana were co-cultivated and exposed for 4 h to different concentrations of (A) mitomycin C, (B) hydrogen peroxide and (C) Biocide 1. Open squares represent the  $\Phi 13$  transfer ratio calculated as the number of colonies resistant to tetracycline and kanamycin relative to the number resistant to tetracycline. Error bars represent  $\pm SD$ ,  $n = 3$ . \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$  and \* $P < 0.05$ , NS, none significant by *t*-test analysis.

of cells carrying the phage varied between 96 and 100% during the experiment indicating sporadic loss. To examine the genetic basis for the different stability patterns we sequenced the genomes of lysogens and observed eight different  $\Phi$ 13 integration sites in strain 61599 (Table 4). In the six lysogens (LY01-LY06) where  $\Phi$ 13-kana was completely stable, the phage was integrated at

six different locations in the chromosome of 61599. In five of the six lysogens (LY01-05),  $\Phi$ 13-kana was inserted in annotated genes, whereas in LY06 the phage was integrated in an unrelated intergenic region (Table 4). In LY07, where  $\Phi$ 13-kana stability varied the phage was integrated in a gene encoding a hypothetical protein located on plasmid JQ861959 that had integrated in the

**TABLE 4** |  $\Phi$ 13 integration site in LA-MRSA CC398 strain 61599.

Lysogen No.	$\Phi$ 13 integration sites*	Function of gene integrated by $\Phi$ 13	<i>attB</i> core sequence (5' to 3')**
LY01		Alanine racemase	GTTATCCAATCTGG
LY02		Nitrate reductase	GGGGACCTAACTGG
LY03		Ornithine carbamoyltransferase	CCATCCATACTGG
LY04		FADH(2)-oxidizing methylenetetrahydrofolate-tRNA-(uracil(54)-C(5))-methyltransferase TrmFO	GTGTATCCATCTGG
LY05		Acyl esterase	TTTATCGTTTCTGG
LY06		SAPIG2164: aldehyde dehydrogenase family protein SAPIG2165: HxlR family transcriptional regulator	TTTATCCGTAATGC
LY07		Plamid JQ861959 integrated upstream of the <i>mutB</i> gene	TGTTCTTTATCTGG
LY08		Membrane protein	GTITCTCCACCTGG
LY09		Membrane protein	GTITCTCCACCTGG
<i>S. aureus</i> COL	<i>attB</i> in <i>hlyB</i> gene	$\Phi$ 13 attachment site in <i>hlyB</i> described by Coleman et al. (1991)	TGTATCCAACTGG

\* $\Phi$ 13 integration site is indicated by open, inverted triangles; open arrows represent ORFs with gene name and accession number. Letter L denotes the position of *attL*, and letter R denotes the position of *attR*. \*\*Letters with underline represent the nucleotides in *attB* that correspond to the core sequence of *attB* in *hlyB* described by Coleman et al. (1991).

chromosome, which may explain why recovery of the phage varied from plating to plating. In both LY08 and LY09 from which the phage was lost in the majority of cells after the 20 day period,  $\Phi$ 13-kana was integrated in *yoZB* encoding a putative membrane protein, the function of which is unclear. These results strongly indicate that  $\Phi$ 13 integrates at alternative sites in LA-MRSA CC398 and that the overall stability of the integrated phage is influenced by its integration site in the chromosome.

By sequence analysis, we found that all integration sites in the nine lysogens were partially similar to the *attB* sequence for  $\Phi$ 13 in *hblb* gene originally described by Coleman et al. (1991) (Table 4). However, we were not able to observe other similarities between the integration sites or regions. By further comparing these integration sites in lysogens to the corresponding sequences in strain 61599 and strain 8325-4, we found that only the integration site in LY03 contained one nucleotide variation between the strain 61599 and strain 8325-4, but this variation did not enhance resemblance to the *attB* in the *hblb* gene (Supplementary Table 2). In addition, sequence analysis of the *hblb* gene of strain 61599 revealed variation at two residues in the 14 nucleotide *attB* sequence when compared to *attB* in *hblb* gene of the human derived strain *S. aureus* COL (Projan et al., 1989). Both nucleotide substitutions are silent leaving the  $\beta$ -hemolysin expression intact (Figure 4). This finding suggests that point mutations in *hblb* of LA-MRSA may drive  $\Phi$ 13 to integrate elsewhere in the chromosome. To test this hypothesis, we compared the *attB* core sequence of  $\Phi$ Sa3 from strain 61599 to the 69 of genome sequenced CC398 isolates from a previous study by Price et al. (2012). We observed that 65 out of 69 CC398 isolates from Price et al.'s study showed the same substitutions of the *attB* core sequence for  $\Phi$ 13 in the *hblb* gene as we found in strain 61599, while four of CC398 isolates had three substitutions compared to the *attB* core sequence in *hblb* described by Coleman et al. (1991; Figure 5).

To support our hypothesis that the mutation at *attB* in *hblb* of CC398 isolates influences integration of  $\Phi$ Sa3, we mutated the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* site of *hblb* both in strain 8325-4 deviated from NCTC 8325 cured of  $\Phi$ 11,  $\Phi$ 12, and  $\Phi$ 13 (Novick, 1967), and in strain RN4220 derived from 8325-4 (Peng et al., 1988). After infecting both *attB* mutated strains with  $\Phi$ 13-kana at MOI of 0.1, we observed a significant decrease in lysogenization of  $\Phi$ 13-kana in both *attB* mutant strains, when compared to the respective wild type control strains (Figure 6) and confirmed by

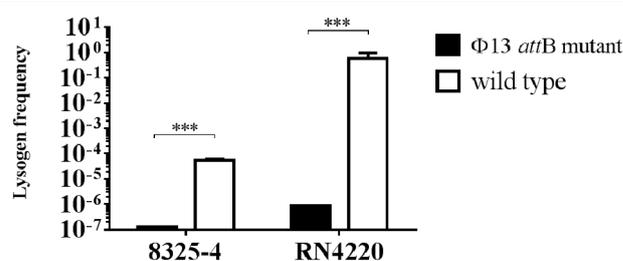
PCR amplification of *hblb* (Supplementary Figure 9) and *aph3* (Supplementary Figure 10). These results demonstrate that point mutations of *attB* core sequence in *hblb* of CC398 isolates strongly influence the integration of  $\Phi$ Sa3 into the *hblb* gene, and the mutation favors  $\Phi$ Sa3 to integrate elsewhere in the bacterial genome and keeps the *hblb* intact.

## DISCUSSION

Mitomycin C and hydrogen peroxide are known to induce prophages in bacteria by causing DNA damage, which activates

CC398 (65 isolates)	TGTATCCGAATTGG
CC398 (4 isolates)	TATATCCGAATTGG
61599	TGTATCCGAATTGG
93616	TGTATCCGAATTGG
X13404	TGTATCCAAACTGG

**FIGURE 5** | Variation of *attB* core sequence for  $\Phi$ 13 in *hblb* gene in  $\Phi$ Sa3-negative CC398 isolates compared to the *attB* in *hblb* gene of *S. aureus* COL (accession no. X13404) described by Coleman et al. (1991). CC398 isolate information was obtained from the study of Price et al. (2012). The gray shaded letters represent the variations in the *attB* of CC398 isolates.



**FIGURE 6** | Lysogenization of 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13attBmut and RN4220 $\Phi$ 13attBmut by  $\Phi$ 13.  $\Phi$ 13-kana were mixed with 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13attBmut, RN4220 $\Phi$ 13attBmut, and the corresponding wild type strains with MOI of 0.1 and lysogen frequency was monitored as ratio of CFU on TSA plates with 100  $\mu$ g/ml kanamycin and 5% of sheep blood ( $\Phi$ 13-kana LA-MRSA CC398 lysogen) relative to the total CFU count on TSA plates with 5% of sheep blood. Horizontal lines represent mean value, error bar represents  $\pm$ SD,  $n = 3$ . \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  by  $t$ -test analysis.

	150	<i>attB</i>														216
X13404	Y M L S T V	L Y P N W	G Q Y K R A D L I G Q													
	TAT ATG TTA TCG ACC GTT T	TG TAT CCA AAC TGG	GGG CAA TAT AAA CGC GCT GAT TTA ATC GGA CAA													
61595	Y M L S T V	L Y P N W	G Q Y K R A D L I G Q													
	TAT ATG TTA TCG ACC GTG T	TG TAT CCG AAT TGG	GGT CAA TAT AAG CGT GCT GAT TTA ATT GGA CAA													

**FIGURE 4** | Core sequence of attachment site (*attB*) [boxed] in *hblb* gene in *S. aureus* COL (Accession No. X13404) compared to *attB* in the *hblb* gene of strain 61599. Two point mutations occurred in *attB* of *hblb* gene in strain 61599. The selected nucleotide sequence was part of the X13404 CDS region (CAA31769). The gray shaded letters represent the variations in the *attB* of strain 61599.

the SOS response and in turn cleaves the phage repressor (Frye et al., 2005; Goerke et al., 2006a; Loś et al., 2010; Nanda et al., 2015). Here, we show that commercial biocides containing hydrogen peroxide can induce phage  $\Phi$ 13, a phage belonging to Sa3 phage group that is known to encode human immune evasion genes and likely to be important for human colonization (Iandolo et al., 2002). Additionally, when co-culturing the human originating strain, 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana with the livestock MRSA CC398 strain 61599 (*spa* type t034), the transfer frequency of  $\Phi$ 13 to strain 61599 was significantly increased in the presence of sublethal concentrations of hydrogen peroxide or commercial biocides containing hydrogen peroxide when compared to the transfer frequency without any treatment. Integration of  $\Phi$ 13 was also attempted in another LA-MRSA CC398 strain namely 93616 (*spa* type t899), but in this strain, we did not obtain lysogens. The inability of  $\Phi$ 13 to lysogenize strain 93616 could be caused by strain variations such as the restriction modification systems that restricts DNA transfer between staphylococcal lineages (Sadykov, 2016), or differences in wall teichoic acid glycopolymers that are the receptors of  $\Phi$ 13 and are highly strain-specific (Xia et al., 2010).

Hydrogen peroxide is a commonly applied bactericidal compound for disinfection in livestock production (Kjølholt et al., 2001). Our study indicates that this compound can act as an extrinsic factor contributing to the induction of  $\Phi$ Sa3 by triggering excision and propagation of the prophage, and subsequent transfer from human to livestock-associated *S. aureus* strains. In contrast, neither sodium hypochlorite that is known to affect the bacterial cell wall (Maillard, 2002), nor benzalkonium chloride that is a membrane-active agent (SCHENIHR (Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks), 2009), were able to induce  $\Phi$ 13. In the absence of external stimuli, no spontaneous induction of  $\Phi$ 13 was observed in concordance with a previous study (Goerke et al., 2006a). Interestingly, we did observe transfer of  $\Phi$ 13 from strain 8325-4 $\Phi$ 13-kana to strain 61599 when the two strains were co-cultured. The most likely reason for this is that  $\Phi$ 13 propagates on strain 61599 resulting in more phages that in turn increase the chance of phage integration in strain 61599.

$\Phi$ Sa3 group is known as *hly*-converting phages that integrate in the *hly*-gene at the *attB* attachment site (5'-TGTATCCAACTGG-3') recognized by the phage integrase (Coleman et al., 1991). A likely explanation for the atypical integration of  $\Phi$ Sa3 in strain 61599 is the two silent point mutations in the *attB* core sequence located within *hly*. We speculate that these mutations in *attB* may be the reason that we did not observe phage integration in *hly* but rather at numerous other locations in the LA-MRSA CC398 strain 61599. These integration sites share homology to the *attB* core sequence for  $\Phi$ 13 (Coleman et al., 1991). In particular seven of the eight integration site sequences contain a four nucleotides sequence (5'-CTGG-3') at the 3'-end, which is present in the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* core sequence in *hly* gene (5'-TGTATCCAACTGG-3') (Coleman et al., 1991), but is not in the *attB* core sequence in *hly* from CC398 strains (5'-TGTATCCGAATGG-3' and 5'-TATATCCGAATGG-3'). We speculate that this sequence

similarity is important for the integration of  $\Phi$ Sa3 into CC398. It was previously reported that  $\Phi$ 13 can be integrated at different locations in *S. aureus* (Goerke et al., 2006b; Kraushaar et al., 2017), but the reason for the atypical integration of  $\Phi$ Sa3 had not been studied before. Here, we exchanged the core sequence of  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* in *hly* from both strain 8325-4 and strain RN4220 to the *attB* core sequence from CC398 strain 61599. After infecting with  $\Phi$ 13, we observed a significant decrease in lysogenization frequency in the  $\Phi$ 13 *attB* mutants compared to cells carrying the intact *hly* gene. This result demonstrates that the mutations at the *attB* core sequence in *hly* gene of CC398 strain cause the low transfer frequency of  $\Phi$ 13 to CC398 strains and also drives the atypical integration of  $\Phi$ 13 in CC398 strains.

In conclusion, we show that in the presence of commercially available biocides containing hydrogen peroxide,  $\Phi$ Sa3 is transferred from a human-associated *S. aureus* donor strain to a strain, belonging to the CC398 complex. Previous studies have shown that the CC398 ancestor was adapted to humans but jumped to animals by loss of prophage Sa3 during the close human-livestock activities (Price et al., 2012). Recently, it was shown that  $\Phi$ Sa3 may be re-introduced into livestock-associated CC398 strains in a single horizontal gene transfer event from human-associated *S. aureus* and that it can be maintained stably as a prophage in the CC398 lysogens (Larsen et al., 2016). Our study highlights the importance of environmental factors in transfer of  $\Phi$ Sa3 between *S. aureus* strains and that just a four nucleotides sequence may be enough to guide integration of the phage LA-MRSA strains. Future studies will be needed to determine if and how integration frequencies vary from strain to strain and to identify factors and conditions that may prevent  $\Phi$ Sa3 transmission.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

YT, JH, LN, CWO, and HI designed the study, YT and AH conducted the microbiological analysis, CWi and YT constructed strains, YT, JL, JH and HI analyzed the results. YT wrote the manuscript and YT, LN, AH, JH, CWi, PA, JL, CWO, and HI reviewed the manuscript.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is supported by a Danish Research Council Sapere Aude grant to JH, the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (GRK1708) and the PhD Scholarship from the Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, University of Copenhagen. We would like to thank Elvira Chapka from Department of Microbiology and Infection Control, Statens Serum Institut for their technical assistance.

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmicb.2017.02418/full#supplementary-material>

## REFERENCES

- Becker, K., Ballhausen, B., Kahl, B. C., and Köck, R. (2015). The clinical impact of livestock-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* of the clonal complex 398 for humans. *Vet. Microbiol.* 200, 33–38. doi: 10.1016/j.vetmic.2015.11.013
- Bhat, M., Dumortier, C., Taylor, B. S., Miller, M., Vasquez, G., Yunen, J., et al. (2009). *Staphylococcus aureus* ST398, New York City and Dominican Republic. *Emerging Infect. Dis.* 15, 285–287. doi: 10.3201/eid1502.080609
- Brückner, R. (2006). Gene replacement in *Staphylococcus carnosus* and *Staphylococcus xylosus*. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 151, 1–8. doi: 10.1111/j.1574-6968.1997.tb10387.x
- Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). (2008). *Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Disk and Dilution Susceptibility Test for Bacteria Isolated from Animals; Approved Standard, 3rd Edn.* Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute.
- Coleman, D., Knights, J., Russell, R., Shanley, D., Birkbeck, T. H., Dougan, G., et al. (1991). Insertional inactivation of the *Staphylococcus aureus*  $\beta$ -toxin by bacteriophage  $\phi$ 13 occurs by site- and orientation-specific integration of the  $\phi$ 13 genome. *Mol. Microbiol.* 5, 933–939.
- Coleman, D. C., Sullivan, D. J., Russell, R. J., Arbutnot, J. P., Carey, B. F., and Pomeroy, H. M. (1989). *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteriophages mediating the simultaneous lysogenic conversion of beta-lysin, staphylokinase and enterotoxin A: molecular mechanism of triple conversion. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* 135, 1679–1697.
- Cuny, C., Wieler, L. H., and Witte, W. (2015). Livestock-associated MRSA: the impact on humans. *Antibiotics* 4, 521–543. doi: 10.3390/antibiotics4040521
- de Haas, C. J., Veldkamp, K. E., Peschel, A., Weerkamp, F., Van Wamel, W. J., Heezius, E. C., et al. (2004). Chemotaxis inhibitory protein of *Staphylococcus aureus*, a bacterial anti-inflammatory agent. *J. Exp. Med.* 199, 687–695. doi: 10.1084/jem.20031636
- DeLeo, F. R., Otto, M., Kreiswirth, B. N., and Chambers, H. F. (2010). Community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Lancet* 375, 1557–1568. doi: 10.1126/CMR.00081-09
- Diene, S. M., Corvaglia, A. R., Francois, P., van der Mee-Marquet, N., and Regional Infection Control Group of the Centre, R. (2017). Prophages and adaptation of *Staphylococcus aureus* ST398 to the human clinic. *BMC Genomics* 18:133. doi: 10.1186/s12864-017-3516-x
- Dulon, M., Haamann, F., Peters, C., Schablon, A., and Nienhaus, A. (2011). MRSA prevalence in European healthcare settings: a review. *BMC Infect. Dis.* 11:138. doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-11-138
- Frye, J. G., Porwollik, S., Blackmer, F., Cheng, P., and McClelland, M. (2005). Host gene expression changes and DNA amplification during temperate phage induction. *J. Bacteriol.* 187, 1485–1492. doi: 10.1128/JB.187.4.1485-1492.2005
- Goerke, C., Matias y Papenberg, S., Dasbach, S., Dietz, K., Ziebach, R., Kahl, B. C., et al. (2004). Increased frequency of genomic alterations in *Staphylococcus aureus* during chronic infection is in part due to phage mobilization. *J. Infect. Dis.* 189, 724–734. doi: 10.1086/381502
- Goerke, C., Pantucek, R., Holtfreter, S., Schulte, B., Zink, M., Grumann, D., et al. (2009). Diversity of prophages in dominant *Staphylococcus aureus* clonal lineages. *J. Bacteriol.* 191, 3462–3468. doi: 10.1128/JB.01804-08
- Goerke, C., Koller, J., and Wolz, C. (2006a). Ciprofloxacin and trimethoprim cause phage induction and virulence modulation in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 50, 171–177. doi: 10.1128/AAC.50.1.171-177.2006
- Goerke, C., Wirtz, C., Fluckiger, U., and Wolz, C. (2006b). Extensive phage dynamics in *Staphylococcus aureus* contributes to adaptation to the human host during infection. *Mol. Microbiol.* 61, 1673–1685. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2006.05354.x
- Guérout-Fleury, A. M., Shazand, K., Frandsen, N., and Stragier, P. (1995). Antibiotic-resistance cassettes for *Bacillus subtilis*. *Gene* 167, 335–336. doi: 10.1016/0378-1119(95)00652-4
- Iandolo, J. J., Worrell, V., Groicher, K. H., Qian, Y., Tian, R., Kenton, S., et al. (2002). Comparative analysis of the genomes of the temperate bacteriophages phi 11, phi 12 and phi 13 of *Staphylococcus aureus* 8325. *Gene* 289, 109–118. doi: 10.1016/S0378-1119(02)00481-X
- Jung, P., Abdelbary, M. M. H., Kraushaar, B., Fetsch, A., Geisel, J., Herrmann, M., et al. (2016). Impact of bacteriophage Saint3 carriage on the immune evasion capacity and hemolytic potential of *Staphylococcus aureus* CC398. *Vet. Microbiol.* 200, 46–51. doi: 10.1016/j.vetmic.2016.02.015
- Kjølholt, J., Nielsen, P. J., and Samsøe-Petersen, L. (2001). *Inventory of Biocides Used in Denmark*. Environmental Project No. 585. Copenhagen: Miljøstyrelsen.
- Köck, R., Siam, K., Al-Malat, S., Christmann, J., Schaumburg, F., Becker, K., et al. (2011). Characteristics of hospital patients colonized with livestock-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) CC398 versus other MRSA clones. *J. Hosp. Infect.* 79, 292–296. doi: 10.1016/j.jhin.2011.08.011
- Kraushaar, B., Hammerl, J. A., Kienöl, M., Heinig, M. L., Sperling, N., Dinh Thanh, M., et al. (2017). Acquisition of virulence factors in livestock-associated MRSA: lysogenic conversion of CC398 strains by virulence gene-containing phages. *Sci. Rep.* 7:2004. doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-02175-4
- Kreiswirth, B. N., Löfdahl, S., Betley, M. J., O'Reilly, M., Schlievert, P. M., Bergdoll, M. S., et al. (1983). The toxic shock syndrome exotoxin structural gene is not detectably transmitted by a prophage. *Nature* 305, 709–712.
- Larsen, J., Petersen, A., Sørum, M., Stegger, M., van Alphen, L., Valentiner-Branth, P., et al. (2015). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* CC398 is an increasing cause of disease in people with no livestock contact in Denmark, 1999 to 2011. *Euro. Surveill.* 20, 5–13. doi: 10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2015.20.37.30021
- Larsen, J., Stegger, M., Andersen, P. S., Petersen, A., Larsen, A. R., Westh, H., et al. (2016). Evidence for human adaptation and foodborne transmission of livestock-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* 63, 1349–1352. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciw532
- Loś, J. M., Loś, M., Wegrzyn, A., and Wegrzyn, G. (2010). Hydrogen peroxide-mediated induction of the Shiga toxin-converting lambdoid prophage ST2-8624 in *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. *FEMS Immunol. Med. Microbiol.* 58, 322–329. doi: 10.1111/j.1574-695X.2009.00644.x
- Maillard, J. Y. (2002). Bacterial target sites for biocide action. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* 16S–27S. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2672.92.5s1.3.x
- McCarthy, A. J., and Lindsay, J. A. (2010). Genetic variation in *Staphylococcus aureus* surface and immune evasion genes is lineage associated: implications for vaccine design and host-pathogen interactions. *BMC Microbiol.* 10:173. doi: 10.1186/1471-2180-10-173
- Monk, I. R., Shah, I. M., Xu, M., Tan, M. W., and Foster, T. J. (2012). Transforming the untransformable: application of direct transformation to manipulate genetically *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *MBio* 3:e00277-11. doi: 10.1128/mBio.00277-11
- Nanda, A. M., Thormann, K., and Frunzke, J. (2015). Impact of spontaneous prophage induction on the fitness of bacterial populations and host-microbe interactions. *J. Bacteriol.* 197, 410–419. doi: 10.1128/JB.02230-14
- Novick, R. (1967). Properties of a cryptic high-frequency transducing phage in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Virology* 33, 155–166. doi: 10.1016/0042-6822(67)90105-5
- Peng, H. L., Novick, R. P., Kreiswirth, B., Kornblum, J., and Schlievert, P. (1988). Cloning, characterization, and sequencing of an accessory gene regulator (*agr*) in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J. Bacteriol.* 170, 4365–4372. doi: 10.1128/jb.170.9.4365-4372.1988
- Pérez-Moreno, M. O., Centelles-Serrano, M. J., Nogales-López, J., Domenech-Spanedda, M. F., Lozano, C., and Torres, C. (2016). Unusual presence of the immune evasion gene cluster in livestock-associated MRSA of lineage CC398 causing peridural and psoas abscesses in a poultry farmer. *Enferm. Infect. Microbiol. Clin.* doi: 10.1016/j.eimc.2016.07.008. [Epub ahead of print].
- Price, L. B., Stegger, M., Hasman, H., Aziz, M., Larsen, J., Andersen, P. S., et al. (2012). *Staphylococcus aureus* CC398: host adaptation and emergence of methicillin resistance in livestock. *MBio* 3:e00305-11. doi: 10.1128/mBio.00305-11
- Projan, S. J., Kornblum, J., Kreiswirth, B., Moghazeh, S. L., Eisner, W., and Novick, R. P. (1989). Nucleotide sequence: the beta-hemolysin gene of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 17:3305. doi: 10.1093/nar/17.8.3305
- Quinn, P. J., and Markey, B. K. (2001). “Disinfection and disease prevention in veterinary medicine,” in *Disinfection, Sterilization and Preservation, 5th Edn.* ed S. Block (Philadelphia, PA: Lea & Febiger), 1069–1103.
- Rooijackers, S. H., Ruyken, M., Roos, A., Daha, M. R., Presanis, J. S., Sim, R. B., et al. (2005). Immune evasion by a staphylococcal complement inhibitor that acts on C3 convertases. *Nat. Immunol.* 6, 920–927. doi: 10.1038/ni2235

- Russell, A. D. (2003). Similarities and differences in the responses of microorganisms to biocides. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* 52, 750–763. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkg422
- Sadykov, M. R. (2016). “Restriction–modification systems as a barrier for genetic manipulation of *Staphylococcus aureus*,” in *The Genetic Manipulation of Staphylococci: Methods and Protocols*, ed J. L. Bose (New York, NY: Springer New York), 9–23.
- SCHENIHR (Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks) (2009). *Assessment of the Antibiotic Resistance Effects of Biocides*. Brussels: SCHENIHR.
- Schijffelen, M. J., Boel, C. H., van Strijp, J. A., and Fluit, A. C. (2010). Whole genome analysis of a livestock-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* ST398 isolate from a case of human endocarditis. *BMC Genomics* 11:376. doi: 10.1186/1471-2164-11-376
- Smith, T. C. (2015). Livestock-associated *Staphylococcus aureus*: the United States experience. *PLoS Pathog.* 11:e1004564. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1004564
- Smith, T. C., and Pearson, N. (2011). The emergence of *Staphylococcus aureus* ST398. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis.* 11, 327–339. doi: 10.1089/vbz.2010.0072
- Tang, Y., Larsen, J., Kjeldgaard, J., Andersen, P. S., Skov, R., and Ingmer, H. (2017). Methicillin-resistant and -susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* from retail meat in Denmark. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 249, 72–76. doi: 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2017.03.001
- van Cleef, B. A., Monnet, D. L., Voss, A., Krziwanek, K., Allerberger, F., Struelens, M., et al. (2011). Livestock-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in humans, Europe. *Emerging Infect. Dis.* 17, 502–505. doi: 10.3201/eid1703.101036
- van der Mee-Marquet, N. L., Corvaglia, A., Haenni, M., Bertrand, X., Franck, J. B., Kluytmans, J., et al. (2014). Emergence of a novel subpopulation of CC398 *Staphylococcus aureus* infecting animals is a serious hazard for humans. *Front. Microbiol.* 5:652. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2014.00652
- van Loo, I., Huijsdens, X., Tiemersma, E., de Neeling, A., van de Sande-Bruinsma, N., Beaujean, D., et al. (2007). Emergence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* of animal origin in humans. *Emerging Infect. Dis.* 13, 1834–1839. doi: 10.3201/eid1312.070384
- van Wamel, W. J., Rooijackers, S. H., Ruyken, M., van Kessel, K. P., and van Strijp, J. A. (2006). The innate immune modulators staphylococcal complement inhibitor and chemotaxis inhibitory protein of *Staphylococcus aureus* are located on beta-hemolysin-converting bacteriophages. *J. Bacteriol.* 188, 1310–1315. doi: 10.1128/JB.188.4.1310-1315.2006
- Welinder-Olsson, C., Floren-Johansson, K., Larsson, L., Oberg, S., Karlsson, L., and Ahren, C. (2008). Infection with Panton-Valentine leukocidin-positive methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* t034. *Emerging Infect. Dis.* 14, 1271–1272. doi: 10.3201/eid1408.071427
- Wirtz, C., Witte, W., Wolz, C., and Goerke, C. (2009). Transcription of the phage-encoded Panton-Valentine leukocidin of *Staphylococcus aureus* is dependent on the phage life-cycle and on the host background. *Microbiology* 155(Pt 11), 3491–3499. doi: 10.1099/mic.0.032466-0
- Wulf, M. W., Markestein, A., van der Linden, F. T., Voss, A., Klaassen, C., and Verduin, C. M. (2008). First outbreak of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* ST398 in a Dutch hospital, June 2007. *Euro Surveill.* 13:8051. doi: 10.2807/ese.13.09.08051
- Xia, G., Maier, L., Sanchez-Carballo, P., Li, M., Otto, M., Holst, O., et al. (2010). Glycosylation of wall teichoic acid in *Staphylococcus aureus* by TarM. *J. Biol. Chem.* 285, 13405–13415. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M109.096172
- Yuan, Z., Ni, Y., and Van Heiningen, A. R. P. (1997). Kinetics of peracetic acid decomposition: part I: spontaneous decomposition at typical pulp bleaching conditions. *Can. J. Chem. Eng.* 75, 37–41. doi: 10.1002/cjce.5450750108

**Conflict of Interest Statement:** The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Copyright © 2017 Tang, Nielsen, Hvitved, Haaber, Wirtz, Andersen, Larsen, Wolz and Ingmer. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) or licensor are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.