Field evaluation of non-invasive sampling for monitoring nine swine pathogens in the Republic of Korea

Hansong Chae[1], Serim Kim[1], Seung-Uk Shin[1], Hyunmin Shin[1], Gyooha Han[1], Mingi Han[2],

Won Gyeong Kim[1], Seulki Kim[1], Doyoung Song[1,2], and Hyuk Song[2*]

[1]R&D Center of Animal Technology, Animal Industry Data Korea, Gangnam-gu, Seoul,

Republic of Korea

[2] Department of Stem Cells and Regenerative Technology, Konkuk Institute of Science and

Technology, Konkuk University, Seoul 05029, Republic of Korea

* Corresponding author Hyuk Song – songh@konkuk.ac.kr

Abstract

Background: Non-invasive sampling methods, such as swine oral fluid (OF) and fecal boot

(FB) sampling, have gained attention due to their animal welfare considerations, ease of

collection, and cost effectiveness. However, comparative data regarding non-invasive and

standard sampling methods remain limited, particularly in the Republic of Korea, where

research on OF and FB sampling is sparse. Therefore, we investigated representative pig

pathogens, including six porcine respiratory pathogens and three gastrointestinal pathogens,

using OF and FB samples for pathogen surveillance across commercial farms in the Republic

of Korea.

Methods: The results from targeted polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays for major respiratory and gastrointestinal pathogens obtained using OF and FB samples were compared with those obtained from standard samples. Non-invasive samples included 30 OF ropes and 30 FBs collected from nine farms, and 360 standard samples (blood, fecal, oral, and nasal swabs) were also collected. PCR assays for the nine pathogens were conducted, and the results from OF, FB, and combined OF+FB were compared with those from standard samples at the pen level.

Results: OF sampling showed superior test concordance with respiratory pathogens than gastrointestinal pathogens, and FB sampling demonstrated superior detection of gastrointestinal pathogens compared with OF sampling. Additionally, the combination of OF+FB sampling improved the detection concordance for all nine target pathogens investigated.

Conclusions: We demonstrated the feasibility and potential applicability of OF and FB sampling under field conditions in Korean pig farms. Therefore, this study supports OF and FB sampling as useful tools for swine pathogen monitoring in both research and practical field applications.

Keywords:

Background

Various surveillance and diagnostic approaches have been developed to detect infectious

diseases in swine. Widely used conventional sampling techniques for diagnostic tests, such as

blood sampling and swabbing require individual animal restraint and can cause considerable

stress to the animals [1, 2]. In contrast, non-invasive sampling methods, which do not require

trained veterinarian intervention, are increasingly being adopted for improved animal welfare.

These methods, including the use of cotton ropes to collect oral fluid (OF) and boot socks to

collect feces (fecal boot, FB), not only simplify the process but also significantly reduce stress

in the animals. Moreover, they offer significant economic and time-saving benefits, making

them a prudent choice for swine farmers and veterinarians [3-6].

The OF sampling method, first described in 2008 [2, 7], leverages the natural curiosity of pigs

toward novel and flexible objects. The procedure involves suspending a cotton rope to chew

on in pig pens, followed by squeezing the rope to extract OF, consisting of saliva and mucosal

exudate [7, 8]. In addition to the simplicity and animal friendliness of this method, as OF

consists of a mixture of saliva, oral mucosal transudate, and gingival crevicular fluid, it is

similar in composition to serum. Therefore, OF has been increasingly used in veterinary

research to detect pathogens, such as viruses and bacteria [7]. Similarly, the FB method,

introduced in 1999 [9], offers similar ease of use and non-invasiveness but primarily targets

gastrointestinal pathogens, whereas the OF method is typically employed for respiratory

pathogen surveillance [10]. Despite demonstrating high sensitivity in detecting gastrointestinal

pathogens, particularly *Salmonella* species [5, 10], FB sampling is not as common as OF

sampling.

Various diagnostic methods have been employed to examine OF and FB samples from pigs.

This includes quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR), solid-

phase competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), virus or bacteria isolation,

Sanger sequencing, and double antibody sandwich ELISA [11]. Several porcine pathogens,

including porcine respiratory and reproductive syndrome virus (PRRSV) [12], influenza A

virus in swine (IAV-S) [13], foot-and-mouth disease virus, African swine fever virus [14],

porcine circovirus 2 (PCV2) [15], and *Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae* (MHP) [16] have been

detected by OF samples, which are effective for diagnosis via PCR-based methods. That is,

combining OF sampling with PCR-based techniques is useful for pathogen surveillance in

laboratories and some field settings [3, 4].

Furthermore, compared with blood sampling or oral swabbing, which require individual

restraint of animals, OF- and FB-based testing allows for simultaneous sampling from multiple

animals. This method enables relatively high sampling throughput and provides valuable health

data for entire swine herds. Monitoring herd-level biological data can aid in preventing the

spread of pathogens by asymptomatic carriers [2]. In clinical swine practice, pooling samples

has become increasingly common, with results often interpreted as representative of the age

group from which the samples were collected. In this way, monitoring for pathogens through

sample pooling effectively reduces veterinary diagnostic costs and facilitates testing large

numbers of animals for pathogens [1, 2].

Despite the proven benefits of OF and FB sampling, research on their applicability and

practicality in field conditions specific to the Republic of Korea remains limited, particularly

in the context of comprehensive pathogen surveillance [6, 17-20]. Therefore, this study

addresses this gap to enhance biosecurity measures in swine herds in the Republic of Korea.

Pig pathogens representative of the most commonly tested pathogens in the Republic of Korea

were investigated, including six porcine respiratory pathogens and three gastrointestinal

pathogens [PRRSV, IAV-S, PCV2, MHP, *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae* (APP),

Glaesserella parasuis (GSP), porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV), *Lawsonia*

88 *intracellularis* (LI), and *Brachyspira hyodysenteriae* (BH)], using OF and FB samples across

89 commercial Korean farms. The results were compared with those obtained through standard

90 sampling methods (blood and nasal, oral, and fecal swabs), and a practical monitoring program

91 was proposed for future pathogen detection on farms.

Methods

94 The study was conducted in compliance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

95 (IACUC) of Konkuk University, Republic of Korea, ensuring the ethical use of animals in

96 research, and all swine owners entered into a written agreement with Konkuk University's

97 IACUC to permit ethical review of the study (under project number KU24100), and all samples

98 were collected by trained veterinarians.

99 Routine blood sampling and other sample collections approved by the IACUC were performed

100 on the animals under normal farm conditions. The animals were not euthanized as part of the

101 study. After the completion of the study, the animals were processed according to the farm's

102 standard slaughter procedures, which align with local agricultural and ethical standards. No

103 additional anesthetic or euthanasia methods were applied, as the animals followed the normal

104 lifecycle for commercial livestock.

Targeted pathogen selection

106 Targeted pathogens for this study were selected based on data from the Korea Animal Health

107 Integrated System and the Swine Health Information Center's Swine Disease Matrix

108 (https://www.swinehealth.org/swine-disease-matrix/), as well as the opinions of professional

109 veterinarians. Six porcine respiratory pathogens and three gastrointestinal pathogens were

110 identified as significant concerns for swine health. The selected respiratory pathogens were

111 PPRSV (PRRSV-1, PRRSV-2), IAV-S, PCV2, and MHP, which cause porcine enzootic

112 pneumonia; APP, which causes porcine pleuropneumonia; and GSP, which causes Glässer's

113 disease. The selected gastrointestinal pathogens were PEDV, which causes PED; LI, which

114 causes porcine proliferative enteropathy; and BH, which causes swine dysentery.

Sample collection

From July 2024 to November 2024, non-invasive samples (OF and FB) and standard samples

(blood, fecal swab, nasal and oral swab) were collected from nine commercial pig farms in the

Republic of Korea. To minimize selection bias, three pigs were randomly selected from each

pen for standard sampling regardless of clinical signs. The pigs within each pen were of similar

age (growing-finishing stage, 6 to 18 weeks old) to reflect the typical herd composition in

commercial swine farms (Supplementary Table 1). A total of 420 samples were obtained from

nine farms in the Republic of Korea, and they were divided into 60 non-invasive samples (30

OF and 30 FB samples) and 360 standard samples (90 blood, 90 fecal swabs, 90 nasal swabs,

and 90 oral swabs). The detailed collection information for each sample type are described

below and in Supplementary Table 1.

To prevent cross-contamination, disposable gloves were changed between the handling of each

rope and between each pen during FB sampling. Additionally, all equipment and collection

materials were disposable or sterilized prior to use. All samples were transported to the

laboratory on ice packs, and the average transfer time was approximately 4 h (maximum: 6 h).

Upon arrival at the laboratory, samples were immediately preprocessed according to their

specific characteristics and temporarily stored at 4 °C until DNA and RNA extraction. All

extractions were completed within 24 hours of sample collection.

Oral fluid: A cotton rope with a thickness of 12 mm and a length of 150 cm was tied to a metal

bar on the side of the pen at pig shoulder height, ensuring that the rope did not touch the floor,

and left in the pen for the pigs to chew for approximately 30–40 min. OF samples were

collected by placing the chewed ropes into an individual plastic zipper bag. In the laboratory,

the ropes were manually squeezed into 50 mL conical tubes (SPL Life Science, the Republic

of Korea). The samples were then left at 4 °C for 30 min, and 5 ml of the supernatant was

carefully transferred and stored again at 4 °C until further analysis.

Fecal boot: FB samples were collected from pen floors using the boot-sock method (10). Two

layers of disposable polypropylene shoe covers were worn over the veterinarian's boots. During

standard sampling, veterinarians walked within the pen, and the outer layer collected fecal

matter and other environmental debris from the surface. The inner layer was used to avoid

contamination from boots, whereas the outer layer was used for collection and testing. After

sampling, the socks were placed in an individual plastic zipper bag. In the laboratory, 10 mL

of PBS (Welgene Inc., the Republic of Korea) was added to the plastic zipper bag, and the

contents were manually squeezed into 15 mL conical tubes (SPL Life Science, the Republic of

Korea). The samples were then left at 4 °C for 30 min, and 5 ml of the supernatant was carefully

transferred and stored again at 4 °C until further analysis.

Blood: Blood samples were randomly collected from three pigs per pen via jugular

venipuncture. Pigs were appropriately restrained, and blood was drawn using a sterile needle

and syringe, then transferred into tripotassium EDTA (Becton Dickinson, NJ, USA) as an

anticoagulant.

Fecal, nasal, and oral swabs: Swab samples were collected from the same pigs used for blood

sampling using DNA/RNA-free sterile swabs (Fisher Scientific, NH, USA). Each swab was

gently inserted into the rectum, nasal cavity, or oral cavity and rotated for sample collection.

In the laboratory, they were diluted in 3 mL PBS (Welgene Inc., the Republic of Korea).

DNA and RNA extraction

Genomic DNA and total RNA were manually extracted using the AccuPrep® Genomic DNA

Extraction Kit (Bioneer, the Republic of Korea) and the GeneAll® Hybrid-R™ kit (GeneAll,

the Republic of Korea), respectively, according to the manufacturers' instructions. Both DNA

and RNA were extracted from 250 µL of input and eluted in 50 µL of elution buffer.

Targeted PCR

RT-qPCR was performed for PRRSV [21], IAV-S [22], and PEDV [23]; qPCR was performed

for PCV2 [24], MHP [25], LI [26], and BH [27]; and conventional PCR was performed for

APP [28] and GSP [29] (Supplementary Table 2).

The RT-qPCR reaction mixture totaled 20 µL and included 10 µL of GoTaq® Probe qPCR

Master Mix with dUTP (2×) (Promega, Madison, USA), 0.4 µL of RT Enzyme (50x) (Promega,

Madison, USA), 1 µL of 10 µM forward primer, 1 µL of 10 µM reverse primer, 1 µL of 10 µM

probe, 5 µL of RNA template, and the remaining volume of nuclease-free water. RT-qPCR was

performed using the CFX Opus Real-Time PCR Systems (Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA, USA)

under the following conditions: 45 ℃ for 15 min, 95 ℃ for 2 min, and 45 cycles of 95 ℃ for

15 s and 60 ℃ for 1 min. Each run included positive and negative controls.

Similarly, the qPCR reaction mixture totaled 20 µL and included 10 µL of GoTaq® Probe

qPCR Master Mix with dUTP (2×), 1 µL of 10 µM forward primer, 1 µL of 10 µM reverse

primer, 1 µL of 10 µM probe, 5 µL of DNA template, and the remaining volume of nuclease-

free water. These reactions were also performed using the CFX Opus Real-Time PCR Systems

under the same cycling conditions as the RT-qPCR, except for the omission of the 45 ℃ step.

Bio-Rad CFX Maestro 1.1 software (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) was used to

analyze the RT-qPCR and qPCR results. Cycle threshold values were generated with a

threshold of 0.1 for the target gene and 10.00% of the maximum amplitude of the sigmoidal

amplification curves for positive controls.

For the PCR, the reaction mixture totaled 20 μL and included 10 μL of GoTaq® Probe qPCR

Master Mix with dUTP (2×), 1 μL of 10 μM forward primer, 1 μL of 10 μM reverse primer, 5

μL of DNA template, and 3 μL of nuclease-free water. All primers were used at a concentration

of 10 μM. PCRs were performed using the T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA,

USA) under the following conditions: 95 ℃ for 2 min, and 45 cycles of 95 ℃ for 15 s and 60 ℃

for 1 min. After the PCR was completed, the PCR product was electrophoresed on a 2.00%

agarose gel in 1× TAE buffer (Biosesang, Republic of Korea) and visualized by Midori-Green

staining (Nippon Genetics, Japan) at 100 V for 20 min. The DNA separated on the gel was

recorded using a GelDoc Go System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA).

Analytical sensitivity

To determine the analytical sensitivity, limit of detection (LoD) tests were performed for all

target pathogens. The sensitivity results of RT-qPCR for PRRSV, IAV-S, and PEDV; qPCR

for PCV2, MHP, LI, and BH; and PCR for APP and GSP (Supplementary Table 2) were

evaluated using 10-fold serially diluted synthetic plasmids (Bionics, Republic of Korea) for

each target pathogen, ranging from $5×10^{-1}$ to $5×10^{7}$ copies/L as templates. For detection, the

Ct value was considered, and the lowest concentration of synthetic plasmids that could be

reproducibly detected was regarded as the presumed LoD.

The LoD was established at 50 copies/μL for PRRSV-1, PRRSV-2, IAV-S, PCV2, APP, GSP,

LI, and BH and 5 copies/μL for MHP and PEDV. At the LoD concentrations, the Ct values

were approximately 34–39. Consequently, we set the Ct value at 40 as the cut-off indicating

positivity at Ct ≤ 40 and negativity at Ct > 40. This means Ct and Tm values were not detected

in negative controls.

Statistical analysis

The primary aim of this study was to evaluate the detection concordance between non-invasive

(OF and FB) and standard sampling methods (blood, nasal swab, oral swab, and fecal swab)

for pathogen detection in pigs at the pen level. Pen-level positivity was determined based on

PCR results from standard samples collected from three randomly selected pigs per pen. A pen

was classified as positive when at least one of the 12 standard samples (blood, nasal swab, oral

swab, and fecal swab from three pigs) tested positive for a pathogen. Samples were regarded

positive if the qPCR and RT-qPCR results showed a Ct value of less than 40 or if the target

size (bp) was observed by electrophoresis.

The detection concordance between standard and non-invasive sampling methods was assessed

using Cohen's kappa coefficient (κ), which adjusts for agreement expected by chance [30].

Additionally, a positive rate was defined as the proportion of samples that tested positive for a

specific pathogen out of the total number of samples of each type, regardless of pen-level

matching. Test agreement was defined as the proportion of pens for which both the standard

and non-invasive sampling methods yielded identical PCR results (either both positive or both

negative). Sensitivity and specificity were defined respectively as the proportions of true

positives and true negatives obtained by non-invasive sampling, using standard sampling as

the reference.

All statistical analyses were conducted using R (version 4.2.2), with the epiR package (version

2.0.54) used to calculate the test agreement, sensitivity, specificity, and Cohen's kappa with

95% confidence intervals (CIs).

Results

In this study, detection concordance of non-invasive sampling methods (OF, FB, and combined

OF+FB) was evaluated at the pen-level by comparison with standard sampling methods (Tables

1- 4). As an initial step, we summarized the raw positivity rates of the nine pathogens across

different sample types (Table 1), which served as a reference for the subsequent concordance

analyses.

Overall, the combined OF+FB sampling demonstrated improved detection concordance

compared to individual OF or FB sampling and exhibited higher test agreement, sensitivity,

and κ values for most pathogens. Specifically, the combined OF+FB sampling showed the

highest diagnostic accuracy for detecting respiratory pathogens such as IAV-S (test agreement:

86.7%; sensitivity: 92.9%; κ = 0.73) and MHP (test agreement: 86.7%; sensitivity: 90.5%; κ =

0.68). Moreover, combined OF+FB sampling showed higher accuracy for PRRSV (test

agreement: 78.3%; sensitivity: 84.0%; κ = 0.57) compared with OF sampling alone (test

agreement: 76.7%; sensitivity: 63.3%; κ = 0.53).

Among gastrointestinal pathogens, PEDV and BH showed higher diagnostic sensitivity and

agreement with either the FB or combined OF+FB sampling methods. Specifically, combined

OF+FB sampling yielded a sensitivity of 87.5%, test agreement of 86.7%, and a κ value of 0.68

for PEDV, while for BH, sensitivity was 92.9%, agreement was 80.0%, and κ value was 0.61.

FB sampling alone also demonstrated reasonable performance for gastrointestinal pathogens,

notably for PEDV and BH, confirming its potential effectiveness in field applications. LI

showed comparatively lower detection values, although FB or combined OF+FB sampling

slightly improved detection performance compared to OF sampling alone.

High sensitivity was consistently observed for PCV2 across all sampling methods, reflecting

the widespread vaccination across farms included in this study. However, specificity was

markedly low (33.3%) and the κ values remained limited (κ = 0.35), indicating a reduced ability

to differentiate vaccination-induced positivity from natural infections when employing these

PCR-based sampling strategies. For GSP, 100% sensitivity was observed across all sampling

methods, but specificity and κ values were not calculated due to the absence of negative

samples, reflecting the organism's common occurrence in swine herds as a commensal rather

than as a true pathogen.

Collectively, these findings suggest that OF sampling alone provides reliable diagnostic

performance for detecting respiratory pathogens while FB sampling or a combination of

OF+FB is more effective for gastrointestinal pathogens under practical farm conditions. The

combined OF+FB sampling strategy notably enhanced pathogen detection concordance across

all categories tested, thus demonstrating its suitability for practical implementation in swine

health management.

Discussion

Blood sampling and swabbing have been the standard methods for monitoring disease levels

in pig farms. However, these invasive procedures can negatively impact animal welfare and

productivity by causing stress, pain, and increased risk of infection during sample collection

[31]. As a result, non-invasive sampling methods such as OF and FB sampling have gained

attention as practical alternatives to conventional techniques [1, 5, 6].

In this study, we evaluated the feasibility of OF and FB sampling for pathogen surveillance

under commercial farm conditions in Korea by comparing pathogen detection results from

standard and non-invasive samples using PCR. According to a previous study, pen-based OF

sampling devices in barns housing approximately 50 pigs were able to detect PRRSV in over

80% of pens when 10% of the herd was infected [6]. Based on this evidence, we minimized

our sampling to one OF sample per pen, with an average of 50 pigs per pen, aligning with

previous recommendations for effective OF sampling. Sampling protocols were implemented

based on established guidelines for both OF and FB methods.

Overall, combined OF+FB sampling demonstrated higher test agreement and sensitivity across

most respiratory and gastrointestinal pathogens compared to either method alone, suggesting

its suitability for pen-level disease surveillance. For respiratory pathogens such as PRRSV,

IAV-S, PCV2, and MHP, moderate to substantial agreement was observed between OF

sampling and standard sampling results. MHP showed the highest κ value (0.680) and

sensitivity (86.7%) among the respiratory pathogens. PRRSV and PCV2 also exhibited

acceptable diagnostic performance, with κ values of 0.570 and 0.35, and sensitivities of 70.0%

and 96.0%, respectively. These findings support earlier reports suggesting that OF sampling

may serve as an alternative to blood sampling for detecting PRRSV and PCV2 [6, 32, 33].

The combined use of OF and FB sampling was confirmed to be effective for the detection of

various pathogens. For example, a previous study evaluating multiple individual swab types

for PRRSV surveillance in weaning pigs reported sensitivities of 83.0% for ear-vein blood,

83.0% for nasal swabs, and 75.0% for oral swabs [29]. In comparison, our study demonstrated

similar or higher sensitivity (approximately 84.0%) and specificity for PRRSV detection using

OF samples.

While OF sampling has been well studied, FB sampling has received comparatively less

attention. However, studies utilizing pen-environment swabbing and FB sampling for detecting

Salmonella have shown that FB sampling can yield results comparable to OF sampling [9, 34,

35]. In our study, FB sampling showed higher test agreement and sensitivity than OF sampling

alone for gastrointestinal pathogens. Specifically, PEDV and BH achieved test agreement rates

of 83.3% and 76.7%, respectively, with FB samples. The combined OF+FB sampling method

further improved sensitivity for these pathogens, highlighting its value for gastrointestinal

pathogen monitoring.

PCV2 demonstrated high sensitivity across all sampling methods, likely due to the widespread

vaccination of pigs on the participating farms. However, low specificity suggests limitations in

distinguishing vaccinated animals from naturally infected ones using PCR. In addition, GSP

was detected in all samples, resulting in perfect sensitivity but precluding calculation of

specificity and κ values. This reflects the commensal nature of GSP rather than pathogenic

presence and suggests that its consistent detection is more indicative of the appropriateness of

OF sampling than of infection status.

Collectively, these findings indicate that OF sampling is particularly suitable for monitoring

respiratory pathogens, while FB sampling may be more effective for gastrointestinal pathogens.

Combined OF+FB sampling improved diagnostic coverage and represents an efficient and

welfare-conscious approach for pen-level pathogen surveillance in swine populations.

Despite these advantages, several limitations should be acknowledged. Because pathogen

concentrations may be lower in group samples such as OF and FB, the diagnostic sensitivity

of these methods may be reduced for certain pathogens compared to conventional blood or

swab sampling. This limitation can affect the detection of low-prevalence pathogens. Therefore,

additional strategies—such as increasing the sample volume or collection frequency or

combining non-invasive with conventional sampling—may be necessary to ensure

comprehensive and accurate disease surveillance.

Conclusions

Conclusions

This study confirmed that OF and FB sampling are practical, non-invasive alternatives to

conventional sampling for swine pathogen monitoring. Among the strategies evaluated, the

combined OF and FB sampling method consistently demonstrated improved diagnostic

agreement and sensitivity for both respiratory and gastrointestinal pathogens. Expanding the

application of these methods and optimizing sampling protocols—such as increasing sample

volume or collection frequency—may contribute to the development of more sustainable and

effective disease monitoring systems in the swine industry.

Declarations

Author' Contributions

Conceptualization Hansong Chae; Methodology Hansong Chae; Resources Hyunmin Shin,

Gyooha Han, Doyoung Song, Mingi Han and Huk Song; Validation Hansong Chae, Serim Kim,

Mingi Han and Seung-Uk Shin; Data curation Hansong Chae, Serim Kim, and Won Gyeong

Kim; Formal analysis Hansong Chae, Serim Kim; Investigation Seulki Kim, Seung-Uk Shin,

Hyunmin Shin and Gyooha Han; Writing- original draft Hansong Chae; Writing- review &

editing Hansong Chae, Serim Kim, and Huk Song. All authors read and approved of the final

manuscript.

Acknowledgements

339 We would like to thank Editage (www.editage.co.kr) for English language editing.

Competing interests

341 The authors declare that they have no competing interests."

Availability of data and materials

343 The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/supplementary

344 material, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author/s.

Consent for publication

346 Not applicable

Ethics approval

348 The study was conducted in compliance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

349 (IACUC) of Konkuk University, the Republic of Korea, under project number KU24100, ensuring the

350 ethical use of animals in research.

Prior publication

352 A portion of this work has been presented as a conference abstract at Meeting of the

353 Microbiology Society for Korea, but the full manuscript has not been published.

Funding

This work was supported by Korea Institute of Planning and Evaluation for Technology in

Food, Agriculture and Forestry (IPET) and Korea Smart Farm R&D Foundation (KosFarm)

through Smart Farm Innovation Technology Development Program, funded by Ministry of

Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (MAFRA) and Ministry of Science and ICT (MSIT), Rural

Development Administration (RDA) (RS-2021-IP421043).

References

1.   Rotolo ML, Sun Y, Wang C, Giménez-Lirola L, Baum DH, Gauger PC, et al. Sampling

guidelines for oral fluid-based surveys of group-housed animals. Vet Microbiol. 2017; 209:20-

9.

2.   Schott F, Hoffmann K, Sarno E, Bangerter PD, Stephan R, Overesch G, et al.

Evaluation of oral fluids for surveillance of foodborne and zoonotic pathogens in pig farms. J

Vet Diagn Invest. 2021;33(4):655-63.

3.   Nielsen 0GB, Nielsen JP, Haugegaard J, Leth SC, Larsen LE, Kristensen CS, et al.

Comparison of serum pools and oral fluid samples for detection of porcine circovirus type 2

by quantitative real-time PCR in finisher pigs. Porcine Health Manag. 2018;4:2.

4.   Prickett JR, Zimmerman JJ. The development of oral fluid-based diagnostics and

applications in veterinary medicine. Anim Health Res Rev. 2010;11(2):207-16.

5.   Pedersen KS, Okholm E, Johansen M, Angen Ø, Jorsal SE, Nielsen JP, et al. Clinical

utility and performance of sock sampling in weaner pig diarrhoea. Preventive Veterinary

Medicine. 2015;120(3):313-20.

6.   Henao-Diaz A, Giménez-Lirola L, Baum DH, Zimmerman J. Guidelines for oral fluid-
based surveillance of viral pathogens in swine. Porcine Health Manag. 2020; 6:28.

7.   Prickett J, Simer R, Christopher-Hennings J, Yoon KJ, Evans RB, Zimmerman JJ.
Detection of Porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus infection in porcine oral fluid
samples: a longitudinal study under experimental conditions. J Vet Diagn Invest.
2008;20(2):156-63.

8.   Pirtle EC, Beran GW. Stability of porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus
in the presence of fomites commonly found on farms. J Am Vet Med Assoc. 1996; 208(3):390-
2.

9.   Skov MN, Carstensen B, Tornøe N, Madsen M. Evaluation of sampling methods for
the detection of Salmonella in broiler flocks. J Appl Microbiol. 1999; 86(4):695-700.

10.   Lillie-Jaschniski K, Wähner C, Viehmann M, Hauf S, Gale C, Rohde J, et al. Sock and
Environmental Swabs as an Efficient, Non-Invasive Tool to Assess the Salmonella Status of
Sow Farms. Animals. 2023;13(6):1031.

11.   Senthilkumaran C, Yang M, Bittner H, Ambagala A, Lung O, Zimmerman J, et al.
Detection of genome, antigen, and antibodies in oral fluids from pigs infected with foot-and-
mouth disease virus. Can J Vet Res. 2017;81(2):82-90.

12.   Decorte I, Van Campe W, Mostin L, Cay AB, De Regge N. Diagnosis of the Lelystad
strain of Porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus infection in individually housed
pigs: comparison between serum and oral fluid samples for viral nucleic acid and antibody
detection. J Vet Diagn Invest. 2015;27(1):47-54.

13.   Goodell CK, Prickett J, Kittawornrat A, Zhou F, Rauh R, Nelson W, et al. Probability

of detecting influenza A virus subtypes H1N1 and H3N2 in individual pig nasal swabs and

pen-based oral fluid specimens over time. Vet Microbiol. 2013;166(3-4):450-60.

14.   Beemer O, Remmenga M, Gustafson L, Johnson K, His D, Antognoli MC. Assessing

the value of PCR assays in oral fluid samples for detecting African swine fever, classical swine

fever, and foot-and-mouth disease in U.S. swine. PLoS One. 2019;14(7):e0219532.

15.   Woźniak A, Miłek D, Matyba P, Stadejek T. Real-Time PCR Detection Patterns of

Porcine Circovirus Type 2 (PCV2) in Polish Farms with Different Statuses of Vaccination

against PCV2. Viruses. 2019;11(12).

16.   Clavijo MJ, Hu D, Krantz S, Cano JP, Pereira Maróstica T, Henao-Diaz A, et al.

Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae Surveillance in Pig Populations: Establishing Sampling

Guidelines for Detection in Growing Pigs. J Clin Microbiol. 2021;59(5).

17.   Kittawornrat A, Prickett J, Chittick W, Wang C, Engle M, Johnson J, et al. Porcine

reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus (PRRSV) in serum and oral fluid samples from

individual boars: will oral fluid replace serum for PRRSV surveillance? Virus Res. 2010;154(1-

2):170-6.

18.   Biernacka K, Karbowiak P, Wróbel P, Charęza T, Czopowicz M, Balka G, et al.

Detection of porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus (PRRSV) and influenza A

virus (IAV) in oral fluid of pigs. Res Vet Sci. 2016;109:74-80.

19.   Buiatte V, Fonseca A, Alonso Madureira P, Nakashima Vaz AC, Tizioto PC, Centola

Vidal, AM, et al. A comparative study of the bacterial diversity and composition of nursery

piglets' oral fluid, feces, and housing environment. Sci Rep. 2024;14(1):4119.

20.   Byeon HS, Kim M, Kwon S, Han M, Han ST, Jang RH, et al. The effect of temperature

and breeding density of piggery on the collection of oral fluid in Korea. Korean J Vet Serv.

2021;44(4):217-25.

21.   Chae H, Roh HS, Jo YM, Kim WG, Chae JB, Shin SU, et al. Development of a one-

step reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction assay for the detection of

porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus. PLoS One. 2023;18(10):e0293042.

22.   Hoffmann B, Harder T, Lange E, Kalthoff D, Reimann I, Grund C, et al. New real-

time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reactions facilitate detection and differentiation of

novel A/H1N1 influenza virus in porcine and human samples. Berl Munch Tierarztl

Wochenschr. 2010;123(7-8):286-92.

23.   Kim SH, Kim IJ, Pyo HM, Tark DS, Song JY, Hyun BH. Multiplex real-time RT-PCR

for the simultaneous detection and quantification of transmissible gastroenteritis virus and

porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. J Virol Methods. 2007;146(1-2):172-7.

24.   Park SC, Kim S, Jeong TW, Oh B, Lim CW, Kim B. Prevalence of porcine circovirus

type 2 and type 3 in slaughtered pigs and wild boars in Korea. Vet Med Sci. 2024;10(1):e1329.

25.   Marois C, Dory D, Fablet C, Madec F, Kobisch M. Development of a quantitative

Real-Time TaqMan PCR assay for determination of the minimal dose of Mycoplasma

hyopneumoniae strain 116 required to induce pneumonia in SPF pigs. J Appl Microbiol.

2010;108(5):1523-33.

26.   Lindecrona RH, Jensen TK, Andersen PH, Møller K. Application of a 5' nuclease assay

for detection of Lawsonia intracellularis in fecal samples from pigs. J Clin Microbiol. 2002;

40(3):984-7.

27. Weissenböck H, Maderner A, Herzog AM, Lussy H, Nowotny N. Amplification and
sequencing of Brachyspira spp. specific portions of nox using paraffin-embedded tissue
samples from clinical colitis in Austrian pigs shows frequent solitary presence of
Brachyspiramurdochii. Vet Microbiol. 2005;111(1-2):67-75.

28. Savoye C, Jobert JL, Berthelot-Hérault F, Keribin AM, Cariolet R, Morvan H, et al. A
PCR assay used to study aerosol transmission of Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae from
samples of live pigs under experimental conditions. Vet Microbiol. 2000;73(4):337-47.

29. Osemeke OH, Cezar GA, Paiva RC, Moraes DCA, Machado IF, Magalhaes ES, et al.
A cross-sectional assessment of PRRSV nucleic acid detection by RT-qPCR in serum, ear-vein
blood swabs, nasal swabs, and oral swabs from weaning-age pigs under field conditions. Front
Vet Sci. 2023;10:1200376.

30. McHugh ML. Interrater reliability: the kappa statistic. Biochem Med (Zagreb).
2012;22(3):276-82.

31. von Altrock A, von Holleben K. Sudden deaths in taking blood samples from fattening
swine herds-- experiences from practice. Berl Munch Tierarztl Wochenschr. 1999;112(3):86-
90.

32. Plut J, Jamnikar-Ciglenecki U, Stukelj M. Molecular detection of porcine reproductive
and respiratory syndrome virus, porcine circovirus 2 and hepatitis E virus in oral fluid
compared to their detection in faeces and serum. BMC Vet Res. 2020; 16(1):164.

33. Hernandez-Garcia J, Robben N, Magnée D, Eley T, Dennis I, Kayes SM, et al. The
use of oral fluids to monitor key pathogens in porcine respiratory disease complex. Porcine
Health Management. 2017;3(1):7.

34.   Eriksson E, Aspan A. Comparison of culture, ELISA and PCR techniques for

salmonella detection in faecal samples for cattle, pig and poultry. BMC Veterinary Research.

2007;3(1):21.

35.   Schmidt JW. Evaluation of Sampling Methods for Detecting, Salmonella and

Characterizing Antimicrobial Susceptibility of Salmonella and E. coli in Swine 2020;

https://www.nal.usda.gov.

Table

Table 1. Positive percentage (%) of the nine pathogens by sample type at the pen level*.

Sample	PRRSV	IAV-S	PCV2	MHP	APP	GSP	PEDV	LI	BH
Oral fluid	50.00	33.33	86.67	56.67	33.33	100.00	10.00	33.33	36.67
Fecal boot	40.00	23.33	36.67	43.33	16.67	63.33	23.33	26.67	36.67
Blood	56.66	39.66	63.34	10.00	0.00	0.00	23.33	0.00	16.66
Fecal swab	56.66	39.66	83.34	26.66	23.34	46.66	16.66	16.66	40.00
Nasal swab	46.67	40.00	73.33	56.67	50.00	93.33	13.33	30.00	40.00
Oral swab	30.00	43.33	76.67	50.00	23.33	100.00	13.33	40.00	50.00

474   **Table 2. Test agreement, sensitivity, specificity and kappa value of pen-level comparison between OF and standard sampling methods**

Pathogen	Test agreement	Sensitivity	Specificity	Kappa
PRRSV	76.67 (64.56-85.56)	63.33 (45.51-78.13)	90.00 (74.38-96.54)	0.53 (0.33-0.74)
IAV-S	76.67 (59.17-88.21)	62.50 (38.64-81.52)	92.86 (68.53-98.73)	0.54 (0.26-0.82)
PCV2	86.67 (70.32-94.69)	92.59 (76.63-97.94)	33.33 (6.15-79.23)	0.26 (-0.26-0.78)
MHP	83.33 (66.44-92.66)	80.95 (59.60-92.33)	88.89 (56.50-98.01)	0.64 (0.36-0.92)
APP	60.00 (42.32-75.41)	44.44 (24.56-66.28)	83.33 (55.20-95.30)	0.25 (-0.04-0.54)
GSP	100.0 (88.65-100.0)	100.0 (88.65-100.0)	-*	-*

PEDV	73.33	30.00	95.00	0.29
	(55.55-85.82)	(10.78-60.32)	(76.39-99.11)	(-0.04-0.36)
LI	73.33	58.33	83.33	0.43
	(55.55-85.82)	(31.95-80.67)	(60.78-94.16)	(0.10-0.76)
BH	66.67	50.00	91.67	0.38
	(48.78-80.77)	(29.03-70.97)	(64.61-98.51)	(0.10-0.65)

475   All values are presented with 95% confidence intervals.

476   * "-" indicates the absence of positive or negative result values, meaning no valid data were obtained.

478   **Table 3. Test agreement, sensitivity, specificity and kappa value of pen-level comparison between FB and standard sampling methods**

Pathogen	Test agreement	Sensitivity	Specificity	Kappa
PRRSV	66.67	36.67	96.67	0.33

	(54.06-77.27)	(21.87-54.49)	(83.33-99.41)	(0.14-0.52)
IAV-S	83.33	68.75	100.0	0.67
	(66.44-92.66)	(44.40-85.84)	(78.47-99.99)	(0.42-0.92)
PCV2	80.00	85.19	33.33	0.14
	(92.69-90.49)	(67.52-94.08)	(6.15-79.23)	(-0.28-0.57)
MHP	73.33	66.67	88.89	0.47
	(55.55-85.82)	(45.37-82.81)	(56.50-98.01)	(0.18-0.76)
APP	43.33	16.67	83.33	0.00
	(27.38-60.80)	(5.84-39.22)	(55.20-95.30)	(-0.23-0.23)
GSP	63.33	63.33	-*	-*

	(45.51-78.13)	(45.51-78.13)		
PEDV	83.33	60.00	95.00	0.59
	(66.44-92.66)	(61.27-83.18)	(76.39-99.11)	(0.28-0.91)
LI	73.33	50.00	88.89	0.41
	(55.55-85.82)	(25.38-74.62)	(67.20-96.90)	(0.08-0.74)
BH	76.67	61.11	100.0	0.56
	(59.07-88.21)	(38.62-79.69)	(75.75-99.99)	(0.30-0.81)

479 All values are presented with 95% confidence intervals

480 * '-' indicates the absence of positive or negative result values, meaning no data were obtained.

482 **Table 4. Test agreement, sensitivity, specificity and kappa value of pen-level comparison between the combined OF+FB and standard**

483 **sampling methods**

Pathogen	Test agreement	Sensitivity	Specificity	Kappa
PRRSV	78.33 (66.38-86.87)	84.00 (65.34-93.60)	74.29 (57.93-85.84)	0.57 (0.36-0.77)
IAV-S	86.67 (70.32-94.47)	92.86 (68.53-98.73)	81.25 (57.00-93.41)	0.73 (0.49-0.97)
PCV2	90.00 (74.38-96.54)	92.85 (77.35-98.02)	50.00 (9.45-90.55)	0.35 (-0.22-0.92)
MHP	86.67 (70.32-94.69)	90.47 (71.08-97.35)	77.78 (45.26-93.68)	0.68 (0.40-0.97)
APP	63.33 (45.51-78.12)	81.82 (52.30-94.86)	52.63 (31.71-72.67)	0.30 (0.01-0.60)
GSP	100.0 (88.65-100.0)	100.0 (88.65-100.0)	-*	-*

PEDV	86.67	87.50	86.36	0.68
	(70.32-94.69)	(92.86-97.76)	(66.67-95.25)	(0.40-0.97)
LI	73.33	66.67	77.78	0.44
	(55.55-85.82)	(39.03-86.19)	(54.79-91.00)	(0.12-0.77)
BH	80.00	92.86	68.75	0.61
	(62.69-90.49)	(68.53-98.72)	(44.40-85.58)	(0.33-0.88)

484   All values are presented with 95% confidence intervals

485   * '-' indicates the absence of positive or negative result values, meaning no data were obtained.

Supplementary Tables

487   **S1 Table 1. Summary of the collected pig numbers, sample types, and vaccine statuses by farm.**

Farm	No. of pens	Age of pigs* (weeks)	No. of pigs per pen	No. of group samples**			No. of individual samples			Vaccine Status***
				OF	FB	Blood	Fecal swab	Nasal swab	Oral swab	
A	4	6 / 10 / 14 / 18	30 - 50	4	4	12	12	12	12	PCV2
B	4	6 / 10 / 14 / 18	30 - 50	4	4	12	12	12	12	PCV2
C	2	14 / 18	50	2	2	6	6	6	6	PCV2
D	2	14 / 18	50	2	2	6	6	6	6	PCV2
E	2	14 / 18	50	2	2	6	6	6	6	PCV2
F	4	6 / 10 / 14/ 18	60 - 80	4	4	12	12	12	12	PCV2, PRRSV-2
G	4	6 / 10 / 14/ 18	60 - 80	4	4	12	12	12	12	PCV2, PRRSV-2
H	4	6 / 10 / 14/ 18	50	4	4	12	12	12	12	PCV2
I	4	6 / 10 /14 / 18	50	4	4	12	12	12	12	PCV2
	Total			30	30	90	90	90	90	420

488   *Age of pigs in each pen is shown as 'weeks/weeks/...'; each number represents a distinct pen within the same farm.

489   **OF: oral fluid sample; FB: fecal boot sample

490   *** PCV2 vaccine was administered at 4 weeks of age on all farms, while PRRSV-2 vaccine was administered only on Farm F and G at 2
491   weeks of age

 S2 Table . Primer-probe sets used for targeted PCRs

Target organism	Primer-probe	Sequence (5'→3')	Type of PCR	Size (bp)	LoD* (Copies)
PRRSV-1	Forward	CCTGCCCAYCACGTAGAAAG	RT-qPCR	187	50
	Probe	TACGCTGTGAGAAAGCCCGG			
	Reverse	AGTGCCGTTYACTGANGTY			
PRRSV-2	Forward	TGCCCACCACGTYGARAG	RT-qPCR	109	50
	Probe	AACCACGCATTYGTCGTYCGGCG			
	Reverse	GCACCARTGTGCCGTTRAC			
IAV-S	Forward	AGATGAGTCTTCTAACCGAGGTCG	RT-qPCR	99	50
	Probe	TCAGGCCCCCTCAAAGCCGA			
	Reverse-1	TGCAAAAACATCTTCAAGTYTCTG			
	Reverse-2	TGCAAAGACACTTTCCAGTCTCTG			
PCV2	Forward	CCAGGAGGGCGTTSTGACT	qPCR	99	50
	Probe	AATGGCATCTTCAACACCCGCCTCT			
	Reverse	CGYTACCGYTGGAGAAGGAA			
MHP	Forward	GTCAAAGTCAAAGTCAGCAAAC	qPCR	137	5
	Probe	ACCAGTTTCCACTTCATCGCCTCA			
	Reverse	AGCTGTTCAAATGCTTGTCC			

APP	Forward	AAGGTTGATATGTCCGCACC	PCR	960	50
	Reverse	GCCGTAGCACCGATTACG			
GSP	Forward	GTGATGAGGAAGGGTGGTGT	PCR	821	50
	Reverse	GGCTTCGTCACCCTCTGT			
PEDV	Forward	CGCAAAGACTGAACCCACTAA	RT-qPCR	196	5
	Probe	TTGCCATTRCCACGACTCCTGCTACG			
	Reverse	GCCTCTGTTGTTACTYGGAGAT			
LI	Forward	GCGCGCGTAGGTGGTTATAT	qPCR	98	50
	Probe	CACCGCTTAACGGTGGAACAGCCTT			
	Reverse	GCCACCCTCTCCGATACTCA			
BH	Forward	TGGCCTGTAACTCCTCCTAT	qPCR	157	50
	Probe	AGCTTTATCAGCAAGGACAAGAAATT			
	Reverse	CAGCACCAACTACCATAACT			

493 * LoD: Limit of detection