

Epidemiology of respiratory pathogen carriage in the homeless population within two shelters in Marseille, France, 2015–2017: cross sectional 1-day surveys

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1	Epidemiology of respirate	ory pathogen carriage in the homeless population within 2				
2	shelters in Marseille, Fran	ce, 2015-2017: Cross sectional one-day surveys				
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24 Abstract

Objectives. To assess risk factors for respiratory tract infection symptoms and signs in sheltered
homeless people in Marseille during the winter season, including pathogen carriage.

Methods. Data on 479 male participants within 2 shelters who completed questionnaires and
a total of 950 nasal and pharyngeal samples were collected during the winters of 2015-2017.
Respiratory pathogen carriage including 7 viruses and 4 bacteria was assessed by quantitative
polymerase chain reaction.

Results. The homeless population was characterized by a majority of individuals of North 31 African origin (300/479, 62.6%) with a relatively high prevalence of chronic homelessness 32 (175/465, 37.6%). We evidenced a high prevalence of respiratory symptoms and signs 33 (168/476, 35.3%), a very high prevalence of bacterial carriage (313/477, 65.6%), especially 34 35 Haemophilus influenzae (280/477, 58.7%) and a lower prevalence of virus carriage (51/473, 10.8%) with human rhinovirus being the most frequent (25/473, 5.3%). Differences were 36 37 observed between the microbial communities of the nose and throat. Duration of homelessness 38 (OR=1.77, p=0.017), chronic respiratory diseases (OR=5.27, p<0.0001) and visiting countries of origin for migrants (OR=1.68, p=0.035) were identified as independent risk factors for 39 respiratory symptoms and signs. A strong association between virus (OR=2.40, p=0.012) or 40 Streptococcus pneumoniae (OR=2.32, p=0.014) carriage and respiratory symptoms and signs 41 was also found. 42

43 Conclusions. These findings allowed identifying the individuals at higher risk for contracting
44 respiratory tract infections to better target preventive measures aiming at limiting the
45 transmission of these diseases in this setting.

47 Introduction

Given their lack of customary and regular access to a conventional dwelling or residence, 48 49 homeless people reside in the street and/or in shelters. The challenge of poor environmental conditions, poor physical state, smoking habit, alcohol abuse or illicit drug consumption 50 51 significantly impairs their health status. Behind the frequent association with mental disease and unintentional injuries, homeless people are also predisposed to infectious diseases, 52 especially respiratory infections such as tuberculosis and pneumonia [1]. A high prevalence of 53 chronic respiratory diseases was recorded in the homeless, including bronchitis, asthma and 54 chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [2]. Respiratory diseases are frequently associated with 55 death among homeless individuals [3]. Pulmonary tuberculosis is frequent in the homeless 56 57 population and has been extensively studied [4, 5].

58 In Marseille, there are an estimated 1500 homeless individuals including more than 800 sleeping in the street and approximately 600 living temporarily at the 2 main shelters of the 59 city [6]. Infectious diseases are frequent among Marseille's sheltered homeless people, 60 including lice and Bartonella quintana infection, hepatitis E and C, Tropheryma whipplei 61 infection, skin infections and respiratory tract infections [7]. A 50% rate of respiratory 62 symptoms and signs was observed in this population, in winter 2005 [8]. About 8.7% carried 63 at least one respiratory virus, with rhinovirus being the most frequent when sampled during 64 the winters of 2010-2011 [9]. These preliminary finding demonstrated that respiratory 65 infections might be frequent among sheltered homeless people in Marseille, warranting 66 further investigation. 67

We described socio-demographic characteristics, underlying chronic medical conditions and
addictions, clinical respiratory symptoms and signs, and prevalence of respiratory viruses and
bacteria (other than *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*) in the homeless population in 2 shelters of
Marseille over the 2015-2017 period of time and investigated potential risk factors.

The main objective of the study was the assessment of risk factors for respiratory tract 72 infection symptoms and signs in sheltered homeless people during the French winter season, 73 including pathogen carriage. We hypothesize that carriage of viral pathogens may be 74 75 associated with clinical signs and symptoms since it is admitted that the vast majority of respiratory infections in adults are caused by rhinoviruses, coronaviruses and influenza 76 viruses [10]; whereas carriage of bacterial pathogens may not necessarily be associated with 77 clinical signs and symptoms since bacterial microorganisms that are potential aetiological 78 79 agents of respiratory tract infections are also part of the resident microbiome [11]. The secondary objective was to investigate the possible association between viral-bacterial co-80 carriage or dual bacterial infections and respiratory symptoms and signs, since the pathogenic 81 role of respiratory viruses in virus-bacteria co-infected patients remains unclear [12] and 82 because interspecies interactions in patients infected with several respiratory bacteria is 83 84 suspected [13].

85 Methods

Study population and data collection. Ethical approvals were obtained from the Institutional 86 Review Board and Ethics Committee of Marseille (2010-A01406-33). Cross sectional one-day 87 surveys were organized on February 17, 2015, March 7-10, 2016 and February 6-8, 2017 in 2 88 89 shelters (A and B) in Marseille, France, housing 600 homeless persons, for the night only, with a high turnover. Shelter A has a special (day-night) unit with a 35-bed capacity, dedicated to 90 high-risk sedentary homeless people who are characterized by a high level of poverty, poor 91 92 hygiene, alcoholism and mental illness. Adult homeless people were recruited on a voluntary basis. A medical doctor administrated a standardized questionnaire addressing demographics, 93 chronic medical conditions, chronic respiratory disease (CRDs) status (defined as suffering 94 from one of the following conditions: asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 95 occupational lung diseases and pulmonary hypertension), substance abuse, vaccination status, 96

97 symptoms and signs (cough, expectoration, rhinorrhea, dyspnea, sore throat, sibilants, rhonchi, 98 crackles, headache, myalgia, conjunctivitis, fever) at enrollment and physically examined the 99 participants. All patients signed an informed consent. The homeless people screened were 100 offered treatment or further evaluation based on the symptom assessment, since qPCR data 101 were obtained long after the surveys were done.

Respiratory specimens. Nasal and pharyngeal swabs were collected from each participant, 102 transferred to Sigma-Virocult® medium and stored at -80°C. The DNA and RNA extractions 103 were concurrently performed using the EZ1 Advanced XL (Qiagen, German) with the Virus 104 105 Mini Kit v2.0 (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's recommendation. All quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) reactions were performed using a C1000 Touch[™] Thermal Cycle 106 (Bio-Rad, USA). Negative control (PCR mix + sterilized water) and positive control (DNA 107 108 from bacterial strain or RNA from viral strain) were included in each run. Positive results of bacteria or virus amplification were defined as those with a cycle threshold (CT) value ≤ 35 . 109 110 Patients having at least one nasal or pharyngeal positive sample were considered positive 111 cases.

Identification of respiratory bacteria. Real-time PCR amplifications were carried out by using LightCycler® 480 Probes Master kit (Roche diagnostics, France) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The *SHD* gene of *Haemophilus influenzae*, *phoE* gene of *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *NucA* gene of *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *lytA* gene of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* were detected with internal controls T4 phage as previously described [14, 15]

Identification of respiratory viruses: One-step duplex qRT-PCR amplifications by HCoV/HPIV-R Gene Kit (REF: 71-045, Biomerieux®, France) were used for the detection of human coronavirus (HCoV) and human para-influenzavirus (HPIV), according to the manufacturer's recommendations. One-step simplex real-time qRT-PCR amplifications were performed by using Multiplex RNA Virus Master Kit (Roche diagnostics, France) for influenza A (FLUA), influenza B (FLUB), human rhinovirus (HRV), human
metapneumovirus (HMPV), human respiratory syncytial virus (HRSV) and internal controls
MS2 phage [14]. HCoV positive samples were further screened for HCoV-HKU1, HCoVNL63, HCoV-229E, and HCoV-OC43 [16].

126

127 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using STATA software (version 11.1). Differences in the 128 proportions (percentages and odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence interval (CI) estimations) 129 were tested by Pearson's chi-square or Fisher's exact tests when appropriate. Two-tailed tests 130 131 were used for comparisons. Univariate analysis was used to examine unadjusted associations between multiple factors (demographic, chronic medical condition), respiratory symptoms or 132 physical finding and prevalence of respiratory pathogen carriages. A p value <0.05 was 133 134 considered statistically significant. Only the variables with a prevalence $\geq 5.0\%$ were considered for statistical analysis. Variables with p values of < 0.2 from the univariate analysis 135 136 were included in the multivariate analysis. Analysis of multicollinearity among the independent variables was performed using the phi coefficient to test for correlation among 137 binary variables; and for pairs of variables that were highly correlated (Absolute value of 138 correlation coefficient >0.7), only one variable was entered into the multivariate model. 139 Multivariable logistic regression (created by step-wise regression) was used to determine 140 factors associated with respiratory symptoms and signs. Log likelihood Ratio Tests were 141 performed to determine these multivariable modeling. 142

143

144 **Results**

Since only 2 women were identified, they were excluded. Of the 479 male individuals who answered the questionnaire and signed consent forms, 477 patients agreed to undergo nasal or pharyngeal sampling. About 11550 qPCR reactions were performed.

148 Characteristics and clinical status of the homeless participants

The socio-demographic characteristics, substance abuse, chronic disease and clinical features of 149 participants are shown in Table 1 and Figure 1. The population was characterized by middle-150 aged males $(43.6 \pm 16 \text{ years old})$ of North African origin, with a relatively high proportion of 151 chronic homelessness (more than one year) reported by 37.2% of individuals and with a 61.2% 152 prevalence of tobacco smoking. About 8% reported suffering from CRDs. The prevalence rate 153 of at least one respiratory symptom or sign was of 35.3% with cough, rhinorrhea and dyspnea as 154 155 the most frequent symptoms. Most symptomatic individuals (70.8%, 119 out of 168) were smoking tobacco or suffering from CRDs. 156

157 Prevalence of respiratory pathogens by real-time PCR

We evidenced a high prevalence of respiratory carriage of bacteria (65.6%, 313 of 477), 158 notably, the proportion of individuals colonized by *H. influenzae* in nasal and/or pharyngeal 159 160 swabs was of 58.7% (n=280) and that of S. pneumoniae was of 12.4% (n=59). Fifty-one patients (10.8%) were also tested positive for at least one virus by qRT-PCR. When comparing 161 162 nasal and pharyngeal sampling sites, we found that H. influenzae was significantly more frequently detected in pharyngeal samples compared to nasal samples, while the prevalence of 163 S. aureus and HRV in nasal samples was significantly higher than in pharyngeal samples 164 (shown in Table 2). Co-infections were frequently observed with the most frequent being H. 165 influenzae-virus and H. influenzae-S. pneumoniae co-infections (Table 1). 166

Association between demographics, chronic medical conditions, respiratory pathogen
 carriage and clinical findings according to respiratory symptoms and signs in univariate
 analysis and multivariate analysis

170 Respiratory symptom and signs prevalence significantly increased with the duration of 171 homelessness (Table 1). The prevalence of symptoms and signs was higher in individuals ≥ 50 172 years of age, suffering from chronic respiratory diseases and in individuals born in France but

was lower in individuals born in Sub-Saharan Africa. Among migrants, the symptom and sign 173 174 prevalence was significantly higher in those visiting their country of origin compared to others. Individuals carrying at least one virus, S. pneumoniae or H. influenzae-S. pneumoniae co-175 infection were more likely to present with at least one respiratory symptom or sign. In the 176 multivariate analysis, only individuals experiencing chronic homelessness (OR=1.77 [1.11-177 2.83], p=0.017), those visiting their country of origin (OR=1.68 [1.04-2.71], p=0.035), those 178 suffering from chronic respiratory diseases (OR=5.27 [2.24-12.41], p<0.0001), and those 179 carrying at least one virus (OR=2.40 [1.21-4.74], p=0.012) or S. pneumoniae (OR=2.32 [1.18-180 5.3], p=0.014) remained associated with an increased prevalence of respiratory symptoms and 181 182 signs (Table 3). Overall, individuals carrying at least one virus were more likely to present with cough, expectoration, rhinorrhea and sore throat. Carriage of S. pneumoniae was associated 183 with cough (Table 4). 184

185 **Discussion**

186 The sheltered homeless population in our study was characterized by a high proportion of 187 migrants of North African origin with a high prevalence of smoking habits and CRDs. We observed a high prevalence of respiratory symptoms and signs (35%) in line with the results of 188 a survey conducted in Italy and The Netherlands [17, 18]. Dry or productive cough, rhinorrhea 189 190 and dyspnea were the symptoms most frequently observed, suggesting that both upper and lower tract respiratory infections affect a significant proportion of sheltered homeless people 191 192 during winter. We found relatively low rates of influenza virus infections. Cross sectional surveys took place when influenza was epidemic in the region of Marseille. Influenza 193 194 vaccination rate in the homeless population screened in our surveys was in the same range in Marseille's overall population [19, 20]. This result may indicate that the social isolation of 195 homeless people might have a protective impact against community influenza virus 196 transmission. One of the most important findings of this study is the very high prevalence of 197

bacterial colonization by respiratory bacteria with H. influenzae (59%), and S. pneumoniae 198 199 (13%), which were the most frequent. A high prevalence of *H. influenzae* carriage (70%) was also observed by direct PCR, in healthy infants from the Western region of Gambia [21] and a 200 201 rate of 40.9% was reported among children aged ≤ 6 years in day-care centers in eastern France [22]. In surveys conducted among healthy adults in the Australian Aboriginal population, the 202 prevalence of non-typeable *H. influenzae* reached approximately 22.9% when culturing 203 nasopharyngeal samples [23]. A 2.3% H. influenzae nasal prevalence was observed in 204 205 Marseille's individuals originating from North-Africa by qPCR in 2013 [17], however, the survey was conducted in October, which may account for a lower prevalence, as shown in 206 207 another healthy Italian children population [24]. K. pneumoniae naso-pharyngeal carriage rates have been reported to range from 3 to 15%, which is in agreement with our results [25]. This 208 209 bacterium is known to be frequently multidrug-resistant [25] and further studies on drug 210 resistance in bacteria isolated from homeless people would be of interest.

We identified chronic homelessness, chronic respiratory diseases and visiting countries of origin for migrants as independent risk factors for respiratory symptoms and signs. We found a strong association between virus or *S. pneumoniae* carriage and respiratory symptoms and signs, reinforcing the need to increase vaccination rates in this population.

Additionally, data obtained in this study emphasizes the difference between the microbial communities of the nose and throat, indicating the need for both nasal and pharyngeal swabs sampling in future studies to better assess upper respiratory microbiological carriage.

Our study has several limitations. The first is that we did not use a control group for evaluation of background carriage in the healthy adult population. The second limitation is that our survey took place in winter, so we could not have an overview about seasonal variations of carriage in the homeless, whereas it was demonstrated to have impacted the airway microbial community in adults and children [24, 26]. Future studies will be conducted at least twice a year (in winter and in summer). The questionnaire design did not allow a clear distinction between acute (short-term) and chronic (going on) respiratory symptoms which needs to be considered in further studies. Finally, the level of precariousness of the homeless was limited to the duration of homelessness and more detailed information should be recorded in future studies.

In summary, we confirm the high prevalence of respiratory symptoms and signs in sheltered homeless people associated with a high level of bacterial carriage in the respiratory tract. Several risk factors for respiratory symptoms and signs were identified, allowing a better identification of individuals at higher risk on whom to base targeted preventive interventions, including notably vaccination against influenza and *S. pneumoniae* infections. Such an approach has proven effective in identifying individuals at higher risk for body lice in the same population [27] and the results of our study will benefit to homeless people in the future.

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239 **Potential conflicts of interest**

240 No reported conflicts of interest.

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Univariate analysis Is ratio (95%Cl), p-value 0.93 [0.63-1.38], p=0.73 Ref
Ref
Ref
78 [1.20-2.64], p=0.00
Ref
NA
1 [0.25-0.70], p=0.001
6 [0.63-0.41], p<0.0001
53 [0.23-1.24], p=0.14
23 [0.04-1.21], p=0.08
14 [0.16-1.24], p=0.12
NA
1.52 [0.99-2.32], p=0.0
Ref
76 [1.13-2.74], p=0.01
Ref
1

Table 1. Risk factors for respiratory disease: univariate analysis

≥ 1 year	175 (37.6)	80 (45.7)	95 (70.6)	2.02 [1.37-2.99], p<0.000
<1 year	290 (62.4)	85 (29.4)	204 (70.6)	Ref
Addiction				
Alcohol				
Frequent	52 (10.9)	24 (47.1)	27 (52.9)	1.75 [0.98-3.14], p=0.0
Rare or never	424 (89.1)	143 (33.7)	281 (66.3)	Ref
Tobacco				
Yes	293 (61.2)	113 (38.7)	179 (61.3)	1.48 [1.00-2.20], p=0.0
Never	185 (38.7)	55 (30.3)	129 (70.1)	Ref
Cannabis	75 (15.7)	28 (37.3)	47 (62.7)	1.11 [0.67-1.85], p=0.6
Injected substances	2 (0.4)	0 (0)	2 (100)	
Snorted substances	13 (2.7)	4 (30.8)	9 (66.2)	
Drug substitutes	1 (0.2)	1(100)	0 (0)	
Chronic diseases				
Chronic respiratory diseases	38 (8.1)	27 (71.0)	11 (28.9)	5.12 [2.47-10.62], p<0.000
Diabetes mellitus	36 (7.6)	14 (38.9)	22 (61.1)	1.18 [0.59-2.37], p=0.65
Cancer	5 (1.1)	1 (20)	4 (80)	
Hepatitis	10 (2.1)	8 (80)	2 (20)	
Body mass index				
Mean body mass index	24.4 ± 4.0 (kg/m2)	NA	NA	
Range of Body mass index				
Normal weight	251 (55.9)	86 (34.3)	165 (65.7)	Ref
Underweight	17 (3.8)	9 (52.9)	8 (47.1)	0.46 [0.17-0.24], p=0.12
Overweight	138 (30.7)	47 (34.1)	91 (65.9)	1.00 [0.65-1.56], p=0.97
Obesity	43 (9.6)	12 (27.9)	31 (72.1)	1.35 [0.65-2.75], p=0.41
Seasonal vaccination against influenza	71 (15.1)	31 (43.7)	40 (56.3)	1.50 [0.90-2.5], p=0.12
Respiratory carriage				
Haemophilus influenzae	280 (59.6)	90 (32.4)	189 (67.7)	0.73 [0.50-1.08], p=0.11
Streptococcus pneumoniae	59 (12.4)	32 (54.2)	27 (45.8)	2.45 [1.42-4.29], p= 0.001
Staphylococcus aureus	35 (7.3)	10 (26.8)	25 (71.4)	0.72 [0.33-1.53], p=0.4
Klebsiella pneumoniae	35 (7.3)	11 (31.4)	24 (68.6)	0.83 [0.40-1.75], p=0.63
At least one virus	51 (10.8)	26 (51)	25 (49)	2.09 [1.17-3.49], p=0.012
Human rhinovirus	25 (5.3)	11 (44)	14 (56)	1.48 [0.65-3.34], p=0.34
Human coronavirus	10 (2.1)	5 (50)	5 (50)	
	· · · ·			
Influenza A	7 (1.5)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	

3(0.6)	1(33.3)	2 (66.6)	
1(0.2)	1(100)	0	
0	0	0	
43 (9.0)	24 (55.8)	19 (44.2)	2.55 [1.35-4.82], p=0.003
33 (7.0)	14 (42.2)	19 (57.6)	1.4 [0.68-2.85], p=0.36
25 (5.2)	6 (24)	19 (76)	0.57 [0.22-1.45], p=0.23
24 (5.0)	8 (33.3)	16 (66.7)	0.92 [0.38-2.19], p=0.85
12(2.5)	9 (75)	3 (25)	
9 (1.9)	4(44.4)	5(55.6)	
5 (1.0)	3 (60)	2 (40)	
4 (0.8)	0	4(100)	
4 (0.8)	3 (75)	1 (25)	
	1(0.2) 0 43 (9.0) 33 (7.0) 25 (5.2) 24 (5.0) 12(2.5) 9 (1.9) 5 (1.0) 4 (0.8)	1(0.2) 1(100) 0 0 43 (9.0) 24 (55.8) 33 (7.0) 14 (42.2) 25 (5.2) 6 (24) 24 (5.0) 8 (33.3) 12(2.5) 9 (75) 9 (1.9) 4(44.4) 5 (1.0) 3 (60) 4 (0.8) 0	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $

321 Abbreviations: SD, standard deviation; NA, not applicable, Ref, Reference category

^{*}Year of study was not included in the analysis, given that no intervention could be done based on this criterion.

Respiratory pathogen	Positive carriage				
	Nasal specimen, N (%)	Pharyngeal specimen, N (%)	p-value	Nasal or pharyngeal, N (%)	
Total	476 (100)*	474 (100)*		477 (100)*	
Bacteria	105 (22.1)	280 (59.1)	<0.0001	313 (65.6)	
Haemophilus influenzae	46 (9.8)	266 (56.4)	<0.0001	280 (58.7)	
Klebsiella pneumoniae	17 (3.5)	20 (4.2)	0.61	35 (7.3)	
Staphylococcus aureus	28 (5.9)	12 (2.5)	<0.001	35 (7.3)	
Streptococcus pneumoniae	33 (7.0)	36 (7.6)	0.69	59 (12.4)	
Virus	34 (7.1)	24 (5.1)	0.18	51 (10.8)	
Influenza A	4 (0.8)	4 (1.0)	-	7 (1.5)	
Influenza B	4 (0.8)	6 (1.3)	-	7 (1.5)	
Human rhinovirus	20 (4.3)	7 (1.5)	<0.001	25 (5.3)	
Human respiratory syncytial virus	1 (0.2)	2 (0.4)	-	3 (0.6)	
Human metapneumovirus	0 (0)	0 (0)	-	0 (0)	
Human coronavirus	5 (1.1)	5 (1.1)	0.99	10 (2.1)	
HCoV-HKU1	0 (0)	1 (0.2)	-	1 (0.2)	
HCoV-E229	3 (0.6)	1 (0.2)	-	4 (0.8)	
HCoV-NL63	1 (0.2)	0 (0)	-	1 (0.2)	
HCoV-OC43	1 (0.2)	3 (0.6)	-	4 (0.8)	
Human para-influenza virus	0 (0)	1 (0.2)	-	1 (0.2)	

Table 2. Prevalence (%) of bacteria and viruses detected by qPCR

³²⁵ ^{*473} patients had both nasal and pharyngeal sampling; 3 patients had only nasal swabs and 1 patient had only

pharyngeal swabs. Patients having at least one nasal or pharyngeal positive sample were considered positivecases.

Characteristics*	Multivariate analysis	
	Odds ratio (95%Cl), p-value	
Age ≥ 50 years vs others	-	
Birthplace	-	
Range of duration of residence in France \geq 1 year vs others	-	
Visit to country of origin since immigration	1.68 [1.04-2.71], p=0.035	
Range of duration of homelessness \geq 1 year vs others	1.77 [1.11-2.83], p=0.017	
Alcohol	-	
Tobacco	-	
Chronic respiratory diseases	5.27 [2.24-12.41], p<0.0001	
Seasonal vaccination against influenza	-	
Respiratory pathogen		
Haemophilus influenzae	-	
Streptococcus pneumoniae	2.32 [1.18-5.3], p=0.014	
At least one virus	2.40 [1.21-4.74], p=0.012	
H. influenzae + S. pneumoniae co-infection	-	

Table 3. Risk factors for respiratory disease: multivariate analysis

* Only variables with p values of <0.2 in the univariate analysis and with a paired correlation coefficient < 0.7 were included in

the multivariate analysis.

Table 4. Association between respiratory pathogen carriage and clinical findings in univariate analysis according to respiratory symptoms and signs

Respiratory	Odds ratio (95%CI), p-value					
pathogen	Cough	Expectoration ^a	Rhinorrheaª	Dyspnea	Sore throat	
Streptococcus	2.5 [1.41-4.41],	1.3 [0.59-2.95],	1.03 [0.3-3.59]	1.10 [0.41-2.95]	1.13 [0.38-3.37],	
pneumoniae	p=0.001	p=0.51	p=0.965	p=0.85	p=0.83	
At least one virus	2.5 [1.37-4.58],	2.15 [1.01-4.60]	2.5 [1.00-6.12],	1.68 [0.66-4.24],	7.3 [3.26-16.42],	
	p=0.002	p=0.044	p=0.047	p=0.27	p<0.0001	

- 335 Figure 1. Prevalence of clinical signs and symptoms over the 2015-2017 period (N=479
- 336 individuals).
- 337 Abbreviations: CRDs, chronic respiratory diseases.

