

# Quantification of antibiotic resistance genes and mobile genetic in dairy manure

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**Background.** Antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) are considered to be emerging environmental contaminants of concern potentially posing risks to human and animal health, and this research studied the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance in dairy manure.

**Methods.** This study is focused on investigating prevalence of ARGs in California dairy farm manure under current common different manure management. A total of 33 manure samples were collected from multiple manure treatment conditions: 1) flushed manure (FM), 2) fresh pile (FP), 3) compost pile (CP), 4) primary lagoon (PL), and 5) secondary lagoon (SL). After DNA extraction, all fecal samples were screened by PCR for the presence of 8 ARGs: four sulfonamide ARGs (*sull*, *sulll*, *sullll*, *sulA*), two tetracycline ARGs (*tetW*, *tetO*), two macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin B (MLS<sub>B</sub>) ARGs (*ermB*, *ermF*). Samples were also screened for two mobile genetic elements (MGEs) (*intl1*, *tnpA*), which are responsible for dissemination of ARGs. Quantitative PCR was then used to screen all samples for five ARGs (*sulll*, *tetW*, *ermF*, *tnpA* and *intl1*).

**Results.** Prevalence of genes varied among sample types, but all genes were detectable in different manure types. Results showed that liquid-solid separation, piling, and lagoon conditions had limited effects on reducing ARGs and MGEs, and the effect was only found significant on *tetW* ( $p = 0.01$ ). Besides, network analysis indicated that *sulll* was associated with *tnpA* ( $p < 0.05$ ), and *Psychrobacter* and *Pseudomonas* as opportunistic human pathogens, were potential ARG/MGE hosts ( $p < 0.05$ ). This research indicated current different manure management practices in California dairy farms has limited effects on reducing ARGs and MGEs. Improvement of different manure management in dairy farms is thus important to mitigate dissemination of ARGs into the environment.

1 **Quantification of antibiotic resistance genes and mobile genetic in dairy manure**

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19  
20 **Abstract**

21  
22 **Background.** Antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) are considered to be emerging environmental  
23 contaminants of concern, which poses risks to human and animal health, and this research  
24 studied the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance in dairy manure under various manure  
25 management practices.

26 **Methods.** This study is focused on investigating the prevalence of ARGs in California dairy  
27 farm manure under different manure management practices. A total of 33 manure samples were

28 collected from various farms under multiple manure treatment conditions: 1) flushed manure  
29 (FM), 2) fresh pile (FP), 3) compost pile (CP), 4) primary lagoon (PL), and 5) secondary lagoon  
30 (SL). Manure samples of these treatments were collected for DNA extraction. After DNA  
31 extraction, DNAs of all fecal samples were screened by PCR for the presence of 8 ARGs: four  
32 sulfonamide ARGs (*sulI*, *sulII*, *sulIII*, *sulA*), two tetracycline ARGs (*tetW*, *tetO*), two macrolide-  
33 lincosamide-streptogramin B (MLS<sub>B</sub>) ARGs (*ermB*, *ermF*). DNAs samples were also screened  
34 for two mobile genetic elements (MGEs) (*intI1*, *tnpA*), which are considered to be responsible  
35 for the dissemination of ARGs in the environment. In addition to PCR, Quantitative PCR (qPCR)  
36 was used to screen DNA samples for five ARGs (*sulIII*, *tetW*, *ermF*, *tnpA* and *intI1*).

37 **Results.** Results of PCR and qPCR showed the prevalence of various genes in dairy manure  
38 samples. All tested genes were detectable in different types of manure samples. Liquid-solid  
39 separation, piling, and lagoon conditions had limited effects on reducing ARGs and MGEs, and  
40 the effect of these treatments was significant in *tetW* ( $p = 0.01$ ) reductions. This research  
41 indicated current different manure management practices in California dairy farms have limited  
42 effects on reducing ARGs and MGEs. Improvement in different manure management practices  
43 in dairy farms is thus important to investigate for mitigating the dissemination of ARGs into the  
44 environment.

## 45 **Introduction**

46 Antibiotic resistance is an emerging concern to public health (CDC 2013; Frieri et al. 2017;  
47 Pang et al. 2019; Zaman et al. 2017). In the United States of America, it is estimated that more  
48 than 2.8 million people are possibly infected by antibiotic-resistant bacteria each year (CDC  
49 2019). The total economic cost to the U.S. economy is estimated up to \$55 billion a year due to  
50 lost wages, extended hospital stays, and premature deaths (CDC 2013; Roberts et al. 2009). The  
51 use of antibiotics in animal husbandry is one of the leading factors causing widespread antibiotic

52 resistance (CDC 2019). Every year, approximately 80% of all antimicrobial drugs are applied in  
53 animal farming to treat/prevent infectious diseases (FDA 2012; FDA 2013). Out of this,  
54 approximately 70% is used for non-therapeutic purposes (UCS 2001). The elevated quantity of  
55 antibiotic residue in fecal matter is potentially due to low absorption in the cattle body (Jjemba  
56 2002).

57 Dairy manure is used as fertilizers in cropland, and potential impacts of manure borne  
58 antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) on the environment are yet to be fully understood (Baquero et  
59 al. 2008; Han et al. 2018; Kumar et al. 2005; Wind et al. 2018; Zhao et al. 2017). Dairy manure  
60 is considered potential mediator and reservoir for ARGs (Allen et al. 2010; Guardabassi et al.  
61 2004). When dairy manures are applied as fertilizer, manure born ARGs and antibiotic residues  
62 may transfer into crop land soil, and subsequently to ambient water bodies (Bennett 2008;  
63 Gogarten and Townsend 2005).

64 Previous research showed that antibiotic resistance in environmental bacteria is selected  
65 by antibiotic residues (Baquero et al. 2008; Pruden et al. 2013), and ARGs can proliferate in the  
66 host bacteria and transfer to other microbes, including human pathogens, through horizontal gene  
67 transfers (HGTs) (Bennett 2008; Gogarten and Townsend 2005).

68 In terms of quantity, more than 369 million tons of manure are produced in the USA  
69 annually (USDA 2012), and the majority of this dairy manure is used as fertilizer in various  
70 cropland. Currently, California is the top milk producing state in the United States of America,  
71 and dairy farms also produces around 60 million tons of manure annually (USDA 2016).

72 While managing manure in dairy farms, the flushed system is one of the most commonly  
73 adopted methods for manure handling and management in dairy farms in California. Flush  
74 system has many benefits, including low labor, ease of handling, and reduced operating cost

75 (CARB 2017; Kaffka et al. 2016; Meyer et al. 2011), however, it also produces enormous  
76 amount of liquid manure. Identifying the suitable treatment methods, which can reduce the  
77 contamination levels in manure is important for food safety. Therefore, this study was focused on  
78 studying the prevalence of ARGs in the flush manure management system. In a flushed system  
79 (Fig. 1), a dairy barn is flushed with recycled water from a lagoon system which holds liquid  
80 manure and then flushed manure passes through a liquid-solid separator, where it is separated  
81 into solid and liquid waste streams. Solid manure is piled, and in some cases, it is composted in  
82 dairy farms before being applied into cropland as fertilizers.

83         Previous reports emphasize the importance of understanding the fate of ARGs in  
84 livestock manure treatments (Flores-Orozco et al. 2020; Gou et al. 2018; Howes 2017; Ma et al.  
85 2018). The abundance of ARGs in livestock waste varies among farm types and locations (He et  
86 al. 2020). McKinney et al. (2010) examined the behavior of ARGs in eight livestock lagoon  
87 systems. Hurst et al. (2019) studied the abundance of 13 ARGs in untreated manure blend pits.  
88 The authors found ARGs abundance varied among farms, and ARG concentrations generally did  
89 not correlate to average antimicrobial usage due to complex environmental factors (Flores-  
90 Orozco et al. 2020; Huang et al. 2019; Pei et al. 2007; Selvam et al. 2012; Sun et al. 2016; Wang  
91 et al. 2012).

92         Previous findings of an investigation in three pig farm wastewater treatment systems in  
93 China showed a relative abundance, and most ARGs were significantly higher in wastewater  
94 lagoon than in fresh manures even after treatment (Cheng et al. 2013). Though these studies do  
95 provide preliminary understanding, knowledge about the ARGs in California flushed system in  
96 dairy farm is yet to be understood.

97           While issues of antibiotics in environment are considered important, standard guidelines  
98 and practices capable of reducing antibiotic resistance are yet to be proposed (Allen et al. 2010  
99 D'Costa et al. 2006; Ghosh and LaPara 2007). Currently, knowledge of species and antibiotic  
100 resistance profile of unculturable bacteria is lacking. The use of culture-independent methods,  
101 such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) are  
102 preferred due to simplicity and fast results and have the potential to produce relatively more  
103 comprehensive and reproducible knowledge of ARG profiles.

104           Considering the importance of animal-agricultural system in food supply, and associated  
105 by products, understanding the role of various manure management practices in reducing manure  
106 borne contamination is crucial for both public health and environmental health. Human health is  
107 closely connected to animal health and their shared environment (One Health), therefore, it is  
108 important to explore antimicrobial resistance genes content of manure and the optimal  
109 management practices to reduce ARGs content for reducing unwanted potential impacts on  
110 reduced efficacy of antimicrobial drugs in clinical practice. The aim of this study was to  
111 investigate the fate of ARGs and MGEs in manure under the flushed manure management  
112 system. The specific objectives of this research were: 1) estimate the prevalence of antibiotic  
113 resistance genes in manure under different manure management practices; 2) quantify ARGs  
114 and MGEs in dairy manure; and 3) determine the relationships among ARGs, MGEs, and  
115 microbial communities.

## 116 **Materials & Methods**

### 117 *Solid and liquid manure sampling in dairy farms*

118 In dairy farms, liquid and solid dairy manure samples were collected in California Central Valley  
119 from multiple dairy farms (Pandey et al. 2018). Thirty-three solid/liquid manure samples were

120 collected from Tulare, Glenn, and Merced counties in California Central Valley. California  
121 Central Valley has approximately 91 percent of dairy cows and over 80 percent of dairy facilities  
122 in California (CARB 2017). In dairy farms, solid manure samples were collected from fresh/old  
123 piles (0 to 6 months old) (n = 14), and liquid manure samples were collected from flushed  
124 manure pits and primary/secondary lagoons (0 to 6 months old storage) (n = 19). The solid  
125 manure samples collected from fresh piles (less than 2 weeks old pile) were termed as Fresh Pile  
126 (FP). The solid samples collected from old piles were termed as Compost Pile (CP). The studied  
127 CP here does not necessarily mean that the piles were maintained under thermophilic  
128 temperature and mixing conditions of a standard composting process. Similarly, lagoon system  
129 in dairy farms were not necessarily under strict anaerobic environments. The liquid manure  
130 samples collected from flushed manure pit were termed as Flushed Manure (FM), while the  
131 liquid manure samples collected from primary lagoons and secondary lagoons were termed as  
132 Primary Lagoon (PL) and Secondary Lagoon (SL), respectively. In each dairy facility, 1 L of  
133 liquid manure sample from each pond, and approximately 500-600 g of solid manure from each  
134 pile were collected in sterile bottles. Samples were then transported on wet ice after collection  
135 and stored at -20 °C before DNA extraction.

#### 136 *DNA extraction from manure samples*

137 In manure samples, genomic DNA was extracted either using the MO BIO PowerSoil® DNA  
138 Isolation Kit or MO BIO PowerWater® DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laboratories Inc.). All  
139 solid samples and liquid samples with turbid and sludge-like consistency were processed by the  
140 MO BIO PowerSoil® kit. For sludge-like liquid samples (sample with high solid), 10 mL of  
141 each sample were centrifuged in 50 mL polypropylene tubes at 13,000 rpm for 10 minutes and  
142 0.25g of the resulting pellet was used for bead beating. Liquid samples with clear-to-low

143 turbidity were processed by the MO BIO PowerWater® kit, and 10 - 200 mL of each was filtered  
144 through a Millipore filter (0.45- $\mu$ m pore size). The quality and concentration of the DNA were  
145 assessed by NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). All extracted DNA from  
146 manure samples were stored at -20°C before PCR amplification.

#### 147 *PCR assays for detection of resistance genes in manure*

148 PCR assays for detection of *sul*, *tet* and *erm* were designed. It was reported *sul*, *tet* and *erm* are  
149 three of the most frequently detected ARGs classes in livestock waste, which match the major  
150 classes of antibiotics used in animal growth promotion and disease control (He et al., 2020).  
151 Primers designed in previous work targeting *sul*, *tet* and *erm* genes were used in this study to  
152 amplify ARGs (Garder et al. 2014; Hu et al. 2015; Pei et al. 2007), which are shown in Table 1.  
153 Subsequently, PCR assays were performed to determine gene detectability in the manure  
154 samples. These assays were carried out using the KAPA2G Robust HotStart Ready Mix PCR Kit  
155 (KAPA) in a 25  $\mu$ L volume reaction. The PCR reaction consisted 12.5  $\mu$ L 2 x KAPA2G Robust  
156 Hotstart Ready Mix, 1.25  $\mu$ L 10 mM each primer, and 2  $\mu$ L of the template. The temperature  
157 program consisted of initial denaturation at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of 15 s at 95°C; 30 s at  
158 the 60°C (55°C for *tetO*, *tetW*, *ermB* and *ermF*); 30 s at 72°C, and a final extension step for 1  
159 min at 72°C. Primer and temperature conditions for *intI* and *tnpA* genes are presented in Table 1.  
160 PCR products were verified by gel electrophoresis. Purification, and cloning was done using the  
161 TOPO TA Cloning Kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Subsequently,  
162 clones were sequenced to verify the insert of the targeted gene (sequencing and verification  
163 results are shown in Fig. S1-S6). Plasmids carrying the target genes were extracted and used as  
164 positive controls for qPCR to generate standard curves.

#### 165 *Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analysis in manure*

166 Targeted genes and 16S rRNA gene qPCR reactions were performed using a StepOnePlus™  
167 System (Life Technology) in a 20 µL of reaction mixture (10 µL PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green  
168 Master Mix [2x]) (Life Technology), 2 µL of 10 mM each primer, and 2 µL of template) with a  
169 temperature program of 2 min at 50 °C for UDG activation and 2 min at 95 °C for Dual-Lock™  
170 DNA polymerase activation. This was followed by 40 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C; 15 s at 50 °C-60  
171 °C (60 °C for  $T_m > 60$  °C and at  $T_m$  for  $T_m < 60$  °C); 1 min at 72 °C. Each reaction was  
172 conducted in triplicates.

173 The average copy and standard deviation were calculated using triplicate for each  
174 reaction. Melting curve analysis was used to detect nonspecific amplification. Standard curves  
175 were included in each qPCR plate by performing serial 10-fold dilutions of the standards. The  
176 efficiency of the PCR was calculated by  $\text{Efficiency} = 10^{-(1/\text{slope})} - 1$ . All standard curves had a  $r^2$   
177  $> 0.99$  and an amplification efficiency of 90%–110%. The detection limit for each gene was  
178 determined by the highest dilution that produced a consistent  $C_T$  value (within 5% deviation). If  
179 the standard deviation was more than 5% then two samples with the smallest difference were  
180 used for calculation.

181 The absolute copy number of genes was quantified by referring to the corresponding  
182 standard curve obtained by plotting threshold cycles versus log-copy number of genes. Levels of  
183 targeted genes were normalized as the percentage of copy number of a gene/copy number of 16S  
184 rRNA gene for each sample to emphasize the relative abundance in environmental samples  
185 (Alexander et al. 2011; Marti et al. 2013; Selvam et al. 2012).

#### 186 *16S rRNA gene sequencing in manure samples*

187 The high-throughput sequencing for 16S rRNA gene is described elsewhere (Pandey et al. 2018).  
188 Sequencing was performed by DNA Technologies Core Facility of the Genome Center at the

189 University of California-Davis using the Illumina MiSeq platform. The V3 and V4 hypervariable  
190 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the forward primer: (5'-  
191 TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') and  
192 the reverse primer: (5'-  
193 GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-  
194 3') (Klindworth et al. 2013). For quality control, barcodes and primers were allowed to have 1  
195 and 4 mismatches, respectively. Primer sequence reads were then trimmed, and sequences were  
196 merged into a single amplicon sequence using FLASH2. Assignment of sequence to phylotypes  
197 was performed in the RDP database using the RDP Bayesian classifier (bootstrap confidence  
198 score > 50%). Further, covariates were generated using relative abundance of bacterial taxa in  
199 each sample. Stepwise discriminant analysis models built in JMP Pro 13.0 were performed until  
200 only variables with a  $p$ -value < 0.05 were retained (Pandey et al., 2018).

#### 201 *Data analysis*

202 Statistical analysis on gene abundance data was performed using the published approaches  
203 (Burch et al. 2016; Sandberg and LaPara 2016; Sun et al. 2016). Data were log-transformed  
204 before statistical analysis. Ordinary one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate the influence of  
205 dairy manure conditions on gene reductions by GraphPad Prism 8. Residuals were checked by  
206 Brown-Forsythe test of heteroscedasticity and Anderson-Darling test of normality ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).  
207 Tukey's multiple comparison test was used for comparing gene levels under different conditions  
208 ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Multiplicity adjusted  $p$ -value was reported for each comparison. Principal Component  
209 Analysis (PCA) Plot and Hierarchical Clustering Plot were conducted by MetaboAnalyst 3.0 to  
210 find similarity among samples. Correlation networks were created by MetScape 3.1.3 and  
211 Cytoscape 3.4.0. CorrelationCalculator 1.0.1 was used based on Debiased Sparse Partial

212 Correlation (DSPC) method to calculate partial correlation values and  $p$ -values for each pair in  
213 the network. Range for edges was set to partial correlation values (corr. pcor) of  $< -0.20$  or  $>$   
214  $+0.20$ .

## 215 **Results**

### 216 *PCR for gene presence*

217 Firstly, PCR assays were applied to explore whether the gene was detectable or not in each  
218 sample. PCR screening results in all 33 samples are shown in Table 2. Four different manure  
219 management groups, FP, FM, PL, and SL, had similar positive percentages of gene types. CP  
220 group had a significantly lower percentage ( $p = 0.02$ ), with an average of 47% types of targeted  
221 genes. One sample (PL2) was found with no detection. Four samples (FP1, FP5, FP7, and SL4)  
222 were found with all ten genes. The most abundant gene was *sulIII*, and it was present in a total of  
223 93.9% among all samples, with a percentage of 92.9% in solid samples and 94.7% in liquid  
224 samples. The lowest one, *sulA*, was positive in a total of 12.1% among all samples, and was  
225 detected in 21.4% solid samples and 5.3% liquid samples. Liquid samples normally had a higher  
226 percentage of detectable genes, except for *sulIII* and *sulA*. *sulIII*, *tetW*, *ermF*, *tnpA* and *intII* were  
227 selected for further study to quantify the gene concentrations because of their representation of  
228 different antibiotic resistance mechanisms and high prevalence among the samples. Fisher's  
229 exact test for contingency table analysis showed the overall gene detection rate in CP group was  
230 significantly lower than FP, FM, PL, and SL ( $p < 0.01$ ).

### 231 *Quantification of resistance related genes*

232 Five genes (*sulIII*, *tetW*, *ermF*, *tnpA* and *intII*) were quantified by qPCR in 33 dairy manure  
233 samples taken from different manure management conditions. DNA templates for qPCR were  
234 the same batch of extractions as PCR (Table 1). The numbers of copies of the five resistance

235 related genes quantified at each sample were then normalized to the number of copies of  
236 bacterial 16S rRNA gene. Data is shown in Table S1.

237 As shown in Fig. 2 (Table S1), the average gene concentrations for *sullI*, *tetW*, and *intI1*  
238 were similar ( $\sim 1 \times 10^{-4}$  gene copies/16S rDNA copies). The *tetW* was the highest ( $1.43 \times 10^{-4}$   
239 gene copies/16S rDNA copies). The concentrations of *ermF* and *tnpA* were  $5.98 \times 10^{-6}$  and  $4.67$   
240  $\times 10^{-5}$  (gene copies/16S rDNA copies), respectively (lower by one and two order of  
241 magnitudes). In ordinary one-way ANOVA, diagnostic of residuals showed data passed Brown-  
242 Forsythe test and Anderson-Darling test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). One-way ANOVA showed different manure  
243 management had no significant effect on four of the five genes. Effect of different manure  
244 management practices was only found significant on *tetW* ( $p = 0.01$ ). Tukey test for multiple  
245 comparisons showed *tetW* in Compost Pile were significantly lower than Flushed Manure  
246 (adjusted  $p = 0.02$ ) and Primary Lagoon (adjusted  $p = 0.02$ ).

247 PCA and cluster plots for relative abundance of five genes were drawn by MetaboAnalyst  
248 3.0 (Xia et al. 2015) as shown in Fig. 3. Relative abundance of five genes were log transformed  
249 and then normalized by median, followed by mean centering as the data scaling method. Figure 3  
250 (a) shows PC 1 captured 40.1% of the variation between samples, and PC 2 captured 23.4%.  
251 These two PCs captured 63.5% of the variation between the samples. The CP, FP, PL, SL, and  
252 FM groups were overlapped, which means they were not significantly different from each other.  
253 In agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis shown in Fig. 3 (b), each sample began as a  
254 separate cluster and the algorithm proceeded to combine them until all samples belonged to one  
255 cluster. Results showed that PL and FM, CP and FP were similar, as they tended to cluster  
256 together. However, different manure conditions did not fall into separate clusters, indicating their  
257 ARG profiles were not significantly different from each other. As the CP, FP, PL, SL, and FM

258 groups were overlapped in Fig. 3 (a) and did not fall into separate clusters in Fig. 3 (b), it can be  
259 inferred that liquid-solid separation, lagoon system and piling process may have limited to no  
260 impacts on ARGs reductions.

#### 261 *Cooccurrence of ARGs, MGEs, and microbial communities*

262 Figure 4 shows the correlation network of five genes with top 50 bacterial taxa in the manure  
263 samples. Bacterial community data was used for network analysis. Range for edges was set to  
264 partial correlation values (corr. pcor) of  $< -0.20$  or  $> +0.20$ . Red lines indicate positive  
265 correlation, while blue lines represent negative correlation. A bold line shows a  $p$ -value less than  
266 0.05. These were three significant correlations: *tnpA* – *sulIII* (corr. pcor = 0.415); *intI1* –  
267 *Psychrobacter* (corr. pcor = 0.519); *ermF* – *Pseudomonas* (corr. pcor = 0.466).

268

## 269 **Discussion**

### 270 *Prevalence and quantification of resistance related genes*

271 The PCR results showed manure under different conditions possessed variety of ARGs and  
272 MGEs. Both traditional PCR and RT-qPCR were able to amplify DNA. RT-qPCR provided both  
273 qualitative and quantitative data by measuring the kinetics of the reaction in the exponential  
274 phase. Traditional method by agarose gels provided only qualitative results by measuring  
275 amplification products at endpoint of the PCR reaction (Parashar et al. 2006). In our study,  
276 targeted genes were screened firstly by PCR and selected gene were then quantified by RT-  
277 qPCR. It was noticed that some of genes were not detectable in PCR, and the same genes were  
278 detectable in qPCR. For example, *sulIII*, *tnpA* and *intI1* in PL2 were detectable in qPCR but were  
279 not detectable in PCR. This may be due to the limitation of UV visualization because some  
280 bands in agarose gels were not visible clearly under UV light. Relative abundance of *intI1* in PL2

281 and SL5 samples was both above average in qPCR but *intII* gene in these samples was not  
282 detected in PCR.

283         The results showed that *sulIII*, *ermF*, *tnpA*, and *intII* concentrations were not significantly  
284 different among five manure conditions (FP, CP, FM, PL, SL), and only one gene—*tetW*, was  
285 found at a significantly lower concentration in CP compared with the FM and PL. Previous  
286 studies showed various responses of ARGs to biological treatment methods such as anaerobic  
287 lagoons and composting (Zhang et al., 2021). This may be due to different experimental  
288 conditions and complex microbial ecologies involved (Pruden et al. 2013). McKinney et al.  
289 (2010) observed reductions of *tet* ARGs but increases of *sul* ARGs in anaerobic lagoons. Zhang  
290 et al. (2017) found that absolute abundances of 13 out of 14 ARGs and two integrase genes  
291 increased after 52 days of anaerobic digestion of swine manure. Sun et al. (2016) stated that 4  
292 out of 10 detected ARGs declined during dairy manure anaerobic digestion under 20 °C.  
293 Storteboom et al. (2007) reported reduction of *tetO* but increase of *tetW* during horse manure  
294 composting process. Previous studies reported a higher decrease of cultivated antibiotic resistant  
295 bacteria in composting process compared to lagoon system (Wang et al. 2012). While IS6,  
296 family members of bacterial and archaeal insertion sequences are known to play crucial role in  
297 spreading antibiotic-resistance genes, overproduction inhibition phenomenon presents challenges  
298 (Munoz-Lopez and Garcia-Perez, 2010; Harmer and Hall, 2019). The overproduction and  
299 inhibition phenomenon is the property of some transposases where they display lower activity at  
300 higher concentrations; this could affect the detection of transposases as the concentration must be  
301 taken into account when evaluating impacts of these genes (Harmer and Hall, 2019; Harmer and  
302 Hall, 2020). A pitfall in the current study is that the primer used to screen transposons *tnpA* was  
303 specific to those previously observed in the IS6, and may have limited complete identification of

304 all potential *tnpA* in the samples; a general concern with transposons is the potential role they  
305 may play on dissemination of various ARGs, and further studies would need to be conducted to  
306 specifically quantify their corroboration towards this effect ,

307         It was noticed that average *sulIII*, *tetW*, and *intII* concentrations identified in this study  
308 were lower than previous findings. As an example, McKinney et al. (2010) reported *sulIII* and  
309 *tetW* of  $\sim 10^{-1}$  and  $10^{-2}$  copies/16S rRNA respectively in a dairy lagoon samples in Colorado.  
310 Dungan et al. (2018) reported *intII* gene copies of  $10^{-2}$  /16S rRNA gene in the dairy wastewater  
311 in Idaho. Differences in ARG levels may be due to site-specific physical/chemical conditions,  
312 manure handing methods, and historical intensity of antibiotic use (He et al. 2020). However, *tet*  
313 and *sul* were reported to be the most abundant ARGs in livestock waste (He et al. 2020), which is  
314 aligned to the findings of this study.

#### 315 *Cooccurrence of ARGs, MGEs, and microbial communities*

316         Integrans and transposons have been reported as responsible for the acquisition and  
317 dissemination of ARGs by HGT, which indicates that HGT could be a potential mechanism for  
318 the spread and dissemination of specific ARGs (Han et al. 2016; Sandberg and LaPara 2016). In  
319 addition, the *sulIII* gene was reported on a broad-host-range (BHR) plasmid RSF1010 (Rådström  
320 and Swedberg 1988; Yau et al. 2010), and BHR plasmids are of considerable interest because  
321 they are reported not only in single bacterial species but also members of different taxonomic  
322 group, and play an important role in HGT. Existing knowledge in terms of how anaerobic  
323 processes influences ARGs is weak, particularly the effects of anaerobic digesters treating dairy  
324 manure on ARGs of manure is not well understood. Preliminary research such as a study by  
325 Huang et al. (2019) investigated the abundance of ARGs and transposase genes during anaerobic  
326 process, and authors found a reduction in ARG and transposons genes during AD of pig manure.

327 These findings suggest that transposons genes could be correlated with ARGs. Correlations  
328 between other genes were not significant, and this may be due to resistance genes not located in  
329 integrons/transposons and non-specific selection agents in the manure (Andersson and Hughes  
330 2010; Di Cesare et al. 2016; McKinney et al. 2010).

331 While assessing the presence of ARGs, it is crucial to understand the correlation between  
332 ARGs and various microbial species. Previous studies indicate that gram-negative bacteria such  
333 as *Psychrobacter* and *Pseudomonas*, which are abundant in the environment and able to tolerate  
334 both cold and hot environment, showed correlation with ARGs and MGE. As an example, one  
335 of the species in *Pseudomonas* genus, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, is an opportunistic pathogen  
336 that causes infections in humans with a high mortality rate. Presence of *ermF* in *Pseudomonas*  
337 could compromise clinical treatment by MLS<sub>B</sub> antibiotics. *Pseudomonas* is resistant to a variety  
338 of antimicrobials due to multidrug efflux pumps, chromosomal mutations and the acquisition of  
339 resistance genes via HGT (Poole, 2011). These findings are important because the presence of  
340 ARGs in environmental bacteria have the potential to be received by human and animal  
341 pathogens through HGT, which increases the risk to public and animal healths via antimicrobial  
342 resistance (AMR) exposure.

343 While these results indicate the possibility of putative microorganisms hosting ARGs,  
344 additional studies are needed for strengthening the findings considering a preliminary nature of  
345 this study. A previous study by Flores-Orozco et al. (2020) identified more than 180 unique  
346 antibiotic-resistance genes in dairy manure, and changes in ARGs levels were found to be related  
347 with the shifts in the microbial community. Detailed bioinformatic analysis was conducted to  
348 evaluate the co-occurrence of microbial groups and ARGs results revealed the presence of  
349 potential microbial ARG hosts.

350 Many ARGs such as *tetX*, *sul1*, *sul2*, and *tetG* were dominant in various farm's soils (Duan et  
351 al., 2019). Studies (Duan et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021) focused on evaluating the impacts of  
352 manure on soil's ARGs, and anaerobic digestion process effects on the reduction of ARGs in  
353 manure suggested that cropland's soil receiving manure showed more than 2 times higher ARGs  
354 compared to the soil without manure. Manure treatment process such as anaerobic digestion was  
355 found to be effective in reducing ARGs levels in manure, and changes in microbial community  
356 during anaerobic digestion resulted in reduced ARGs level (Flores-Orozco et al., 2020; Zhang et  
357 al., 2021).

358 One of the major limitations of this study is fewer sample numbers and samples from  
359 limited dairy farms. Further, manure management practices change from one farm to another  
360 substantially, which pose challenges in comparing the microbial and ARGs data among farms.  
361 Understanding the deviation in characteristics of ARGs and microbial community within and  
362 between farms with similar management practices can provide greater understanding of  
363 temporal changes in ARGs present in liquid manure versus solid manure.

364

## 365 **Conclusions**

366 In this research, we studied the prevalence of ARGs and MGEs in flushed manure,  
367 primary lagoon manure, secondary lagoon manure, fresh pile manure, and compost pile manure.  
368 Manure samples were obtained from multiple dairy farms located in Central Valley, California.  
369 Prevalence of genes varied among sample types, but all of the studied genes were detectable in  
370 different manure types. Among five genes quantified, only *tetW* was found at significantly lower  
371 concentration in compost pile comparing with flushed manure (adj.  $p = 0.02$ ) and primary lagoon  
372 samples (adj.  $p = 0.02$ ). Results of this study showed that ARGs are widely present in liquid  
373 (lagoon samples) and solid dairy farm manure (fresh and compost piles). Different manure

374 management such as liquid-solid separation, piling, and lagoon storage may not have significant  
375 impacts on ARG and MGE reductions.

376

377

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**Table 1** (on next page)

Synthetic oligonucleotides

Table 1 Synthetic oligonucleotides used in this study

Primer	Target gene	Sequences (direction 5'–3')	Traditional PCR annealing temp (°C)	qPCR annealing temp (°C)	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
sulI-FW	<i>sulI</i>	CGCACCGGAAACATCGCTGCAC	60	60	163	
sulI-RV		TGAAGTTCGCCGCAAGGCTCG				
sulII-FW	<i>sulII</i>	TCCGGTGGAGGCCGGTATCTGG	60	60	191	(Pei et al. 2006)
sulII-RV		CGGGAATGCCATCTGCCTTGAG				
sulIII-FW	<i>sulIII</i>	TCCGTTCAGCGAATTGGTGCAG	60	60	128	
sulIII-RV		TTCGTTCACGCCTTACACCAGC				
sulA-FW	<i>sulA</i>	TCTTGAGCAAGCACTCCAGCAG	60	60	299	
sulA-RV		TCCAGCCTTAGCAACCACATGG				
tetW-FW	<i>tetW</i>	GAGAGCCTGCTATATGCCAGC	55	53.9	168	(Aminov et al. 2001)
tetW-RV		GGGCGTATCCACAATGTTAAC				
tetO-FW	<i>tetO</i>	ACGGARAGTTTATTGTATACC	55	48.5	171	
tetO-RV		TGGCGTATCTATAATGTTGAC				
ermB-FW	<i>ermB</i>	GGTTGCTCTTGACACTCAAG	55	51.2	191	(Koike et al. 2010)
ermB-RV		CAGTTGACGATATTCTCGATTG				
ermF-189f	<i>ermF</i>	CGACACAGCTTTGGTTGAAC	55	51.4	309	(Chen et al. 2007)
ermF-497r		GGACCTACCTCATAGACAAG				
HS463a	<i>intI1</i>	CTGGATTTTCGATCACGGCACG	60	55.7	473	(Barlow et al., 2004)
HS464		ACATGCGTGTAATCATCGTCG				
tnpA-04F	<i>tnpA-04</i>	CCGATCACGGAAAGCTCAAG	60	56	101	(Zhu et al. 2013)
tnpA-04R		GGCTCGCATGACTTCGAATC				
357F	16S rRNA gene	CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG	60	56	193	(Muyzer et al. 1993)
518R		ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG				



**Table 2** (on next page)

Detection of resistance gene families

**Table 2 Detection of resistance gene families in dairy manure**

	Sample ID	<i>sulI</i>	<i>sulII</i>	<i>sulIII</i>	<i>sulA</i>	<i>tetO</i>	<i>tetW</i>	<i>ermB</i>	<i>ermF</i>	<i>tnpA</i>	<i>intI1</i>	Percentage
1	FP1	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	100%
2	FP2	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	50%
3	FP3	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	60%
4	FP4	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	70%
5	FP5	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	100%
6	FP6	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
7	FP7	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	100%
8	CP1	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	60%
9	CP2	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	70%
10	CP3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	10%
11	CP4	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
12	CP5	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	20%
13	CP6	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	40%
14	CP7	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	40%
15	FM1	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	70%
16	FM2	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	70%
17	FM3	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
18	FM4	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	80%
19	FM5	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	80%
20	FM6	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	80%
21	PL1	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	80%
22	PL2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
23	PL3	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
24	PL4	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
25	PL5	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
26	PL6	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	80%
27	PL7	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	80%
28	PL8	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
39	SL1	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	70%
30	SL2	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	90%
31	SL3	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	80%
32	SL4	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	100%
33	SL5	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	60%

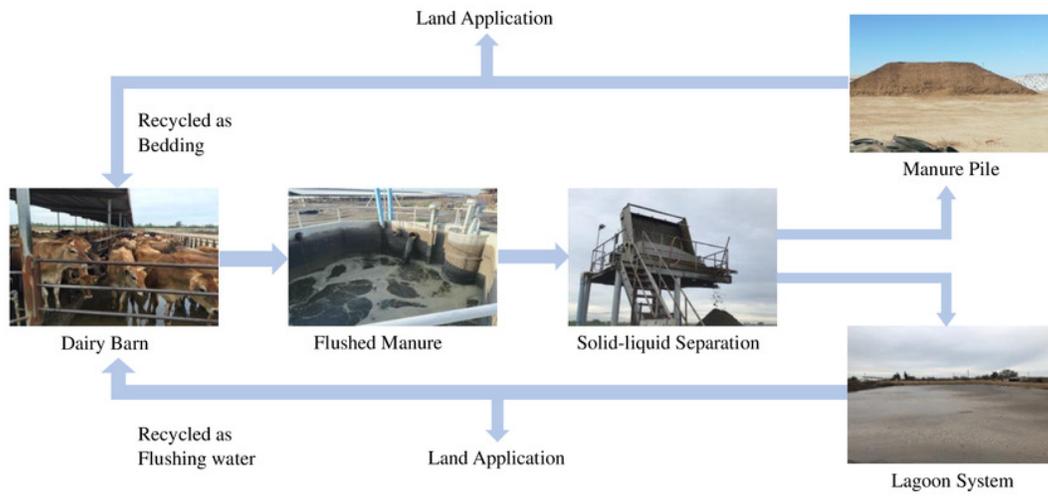
Positive percentage 87.9% 93.9% 42.4% 12.1% 63.6% 90.9% 69.7% 84.8% 90.9% 81.8%

+: present; -: absent.

FP: Fresh Pile; CP: Compost Pile; FM: Flushed manure; PL: Primary Lagoon; SL: Secondary Lagoon

# Figure 1

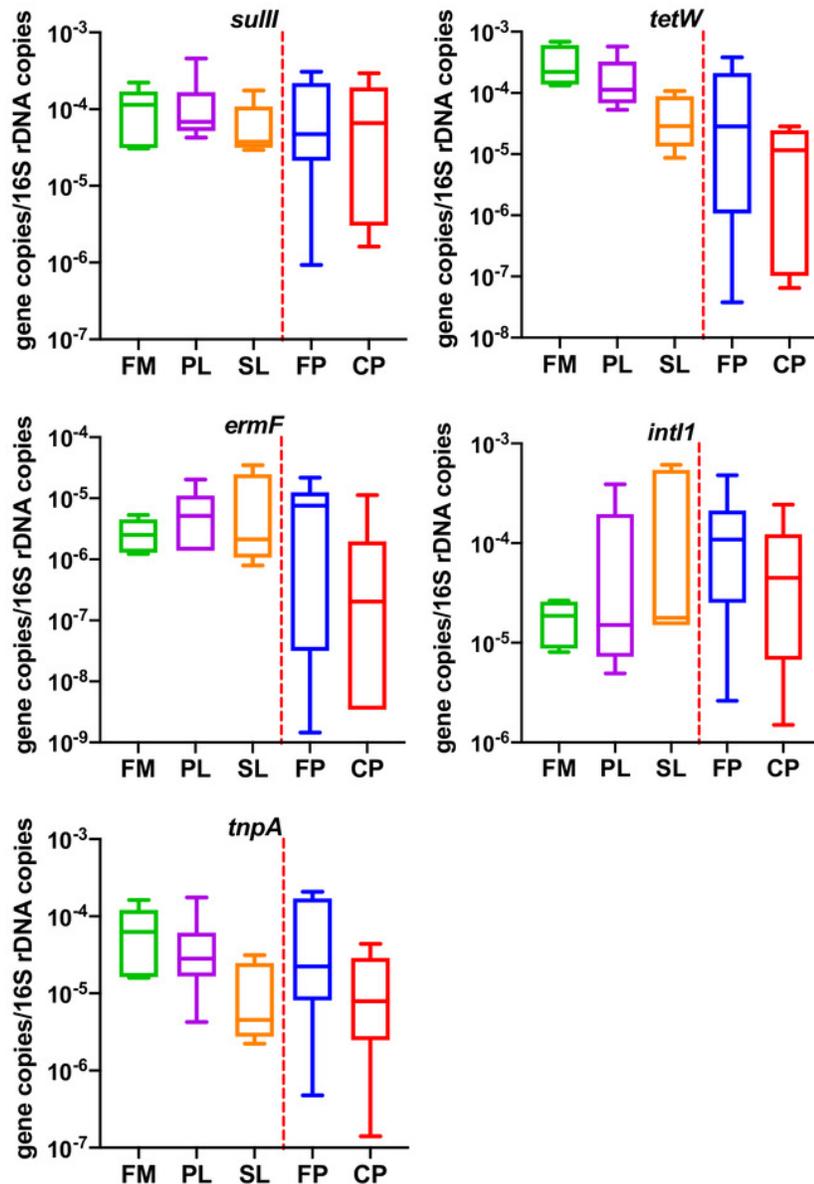
Manure flow



**Figure 1 Typical processing of flushed manure in dairy farms in Central Valley California (source: Pandey et al. 2019).**

## Figure 2

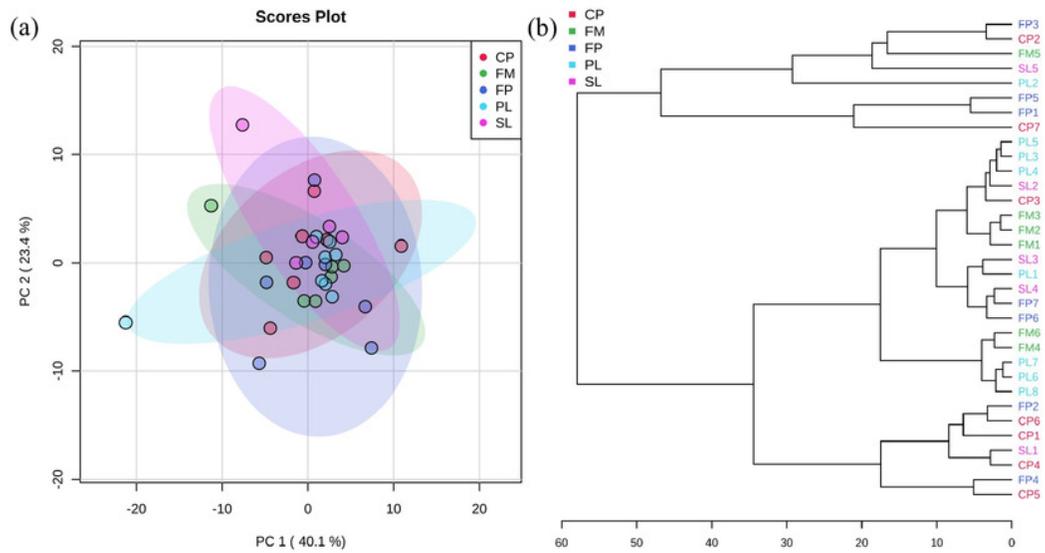
Copies of Resistance genes



**Figure 2** Copies of resistance related genes normalized to the number of bacterial 16S rRNA gene genes in different dairy manure. X-axis labels indicate the type of dairy treatments, rectangular boxes indicate the interquartile range of the data; median value is indicated by the horizontal line inside the box. Whiskers show min to max of data. Extreme outliers ( $< Q1 - 3 IQ$  or  $> Q3 + 3 IQ$ ) were removed and shown as "--" in Table 3. FM: Flushed Manure; PL: Primary Lagoon; SL: Secondary Lagoon; FP: Fresh Pile; CP: Compost Pile. Liquid samples and solid samples are separated by a red vertical line.

# Figure 3

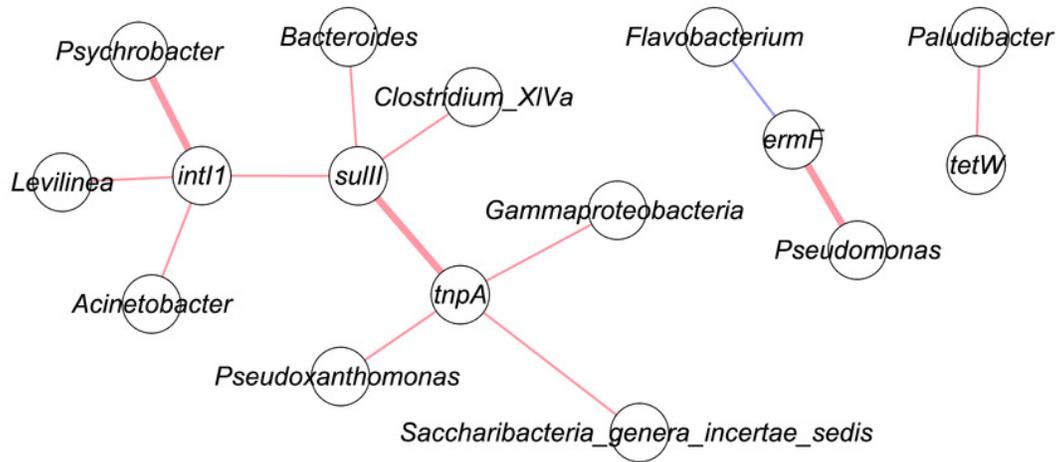
PCA analysis



**Figure 3 (a) Principal Component Analysis (PCA) Plot** (Colors representing 95% confidence regions).  
**(b) Hierarchical Clustering Plot** (distance measure using Euclidean, and clustering algorithm using Ward).

# Figure 4

Network analysis



**Figure 4** Network Analysis of targeted genes with bacterial communities. Red line: positive correlation; blue line: negative correlation; bold line:  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ .

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