# Resistome profiling reveals transmission dynamics of antimicrobial resistance genes from poultry litter to soil and plant

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#### 20 Abstract

21 Poultry farming is a major livelihood in South and Southeast Asian economies where it is undergoing rapid intensification to meet the growing human demand for dietary protein. 22 Intensification of poultry production systems is commonly supported by increased 23 antimicrobial drug use, risking greater selection and dissemination of antimicrobial resistance 24 genes (ARGs). Transmission of ARGs within food chains is an emerging threat. Here, we 25 26 investigated transmission of ARGs from chicken (broiler and layer) litter to soil and Sorghum *bicolor* (L.) Moench plant based on field and pot experiments. The results demonstrate ARGs 27 transmission from poultry litter to plant systems under field as well as experimental pot 28 29 conditions.

The most common ARGs detected were cmx, ErmX, ErmF, InuB, TEM-98 and TEM-99, while 30 common microorganisms were represented by Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, 31 Enterococcus faecium, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Vibrio cholerae. Further, we using next 32 33 generation sequencing and digital PCR assay we also demonstrated transmission of ARGs from 34 poultry litter to root and stem. Poultry litter is used as manure because of its high nitrogen content, risking of transmission of ARGs into human food chains. Evidence indicating ARG 35 transmission illustrate the risk posed by antimicrobial treatment of poultry and could be useful 36 in formulating appropriate strategies to limit ARGs transmission from one value chain to 37 38 another, improving understanding of impacts on human and environmental health. The research outcome will help in further understanding on the transmission dynamics and threat evaluation 39 of ARGs in poultry linked agriculture system to perpetuate environment and human/animal 40 health. 41

42 Keywords: Antibiotic resistance gene, Plant microbiome, Poultry litter, Resistome, and Soil

#### 44 1. Introduction

Globally, antibiotics are frequently used to cure illnesses and ensure the health and safety of 45 humans as well as animals. They come in a variety of chemical classes that are targeted at 46 diverse animal species and different regions around the world (Barra Caracciolo et al., 2022; 47 de Mesquita Souza Saraiva et al., 2022). Such pervasive, unconstrained usage risks the 48 common occurrence of high-level sub-inhibitory exposure in animal tissues and contamination 49 of the environment, especially in areas associated with animal production (Khan et al., 2013; 50 Lim et al., 2020; Zalewska et al., 2021). Due to numerous human activities, antibiotics have 51 frequently been found in agroecosystems in recent years (Cheng et al., 2019; Kuppusamy et 52 53 al., 2018). Through the direct release of faecal matter by medicated animals together with the 54 application of contaminated manure, livestock farming has become one of the most frequent sources of antibiotic contamination in soil and water, and the anticipated expansion of global 55 animal husbandry in the forthcoming years could make this scenario worse (Gurmessa et al., 56 2020). Excessive antimicrobial usage and environmental contamination can intensify selective 57 pressure for development of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in bacteria, increasing carriage of 58 ARGs. (Gu et al., 2020; Qian et al., 2018; Zalewska et al., 2021). 59

Residual antibiotics discharged to the environment through animal manure, pharmaceutical 60 and industrial wastewater or sewage, municipal solid waste reaching to the agriculture fields 61 62 (Bombaywala et al., 2021; Khare, 2023; Le-Minh et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2020). Food safety concern due to residual antibiotics in agro-ecosystem possess a greater concern and challenge 63 (Du and Liu, 2012; Geng et al., 2022; Pan and Chu, 2017) Researchers have reviewed fifty-64 one antibiotics in thirty-seven species of daily-consumed food crops such as potato, carrot, 65 corn, tomato, lettuce, and wheat. Bioaccumulation of tetracyclines exhibited higher residue 66 levels in plants than quinolones, sulfonamides, and macrolides, with median values ranging 67 from 5.10 to 15.4 µg/kg dry weight while antibiotics likely to accumulate in plant root and their 68

concentrations in fruits observed to be low. Furthermore, authors speculated that compared
with the plants grown in open field condition, accumulation of antibiotics was higher in plant
grown under greenhouse condition, probably due to the higher residue levels of antibiotics in
the greenhouse soil with intensive application of manure (Geng et al., 2022).

73 The World Health Organization (WHO) has suggested that we might be on the brink of a post-antibiotic age, where the advent of multidrug-resistant (MDR) microorganisms will 74 reduce the efficacy of antibiotics for treating diseases (Alanis, 2005; Laxminarayan et al., 75 76 2013). The pathogens leading to fatality with antibiotic resistance are E. coli, S. aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Streptococcus pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, and P. 77 78 aeruginosa. (Murray et al., 2022) reported ~1 million deaths accountable to AMR and  $\sim 3.6$ 79 million fatal causalities related with AMR in 2019. It is now timely to address antimicrobial usage and issues related to AMR on a local to global scale. 80

81 Poultry farming has become an indispensable part of the animal husbandry sector especially 82 in the low and middle-income growing economies (Gao et al., 2020; van Boeckel et al., 2017; 83 Walia et al., 2019). Approximately 60 to 80 % of antibiotics used in human medicines today are also used in animal production (Boeckel et al., 2014; Mulchandani et al., 2023; van Boeckel 84 et al., 2015), where misuse selects for antibiotic resistant bacteria in the gastrointestinal tracts 85 of breeding and production animals. Release of waste (manure) will contribute greatly to non-86 87 point source contamination of antibiotic resistant bacteria and ARGs (Chee-Sanford et al., 2001). High proportions of residual antibiotics have also been found in animal manures (Khare, 88 2023; Martínez-Carballo et al., 2007; Mei et al., 2021; Qiao et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2020; Zhang 89 90 et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2010a, 2010b). Since farm manures are frequently used as fertilizers to enhance soil fertility, the presence of antibiotics, antibiotic resistant microorganisms and 91 ARGs are priority global concerns regarding their possible impact on humans and other biota. 92 93 The portfolio of ARGs contained within bacterial populations are collectively referred as the "resistome" (Binh et al., 2008; Durso et al., 2011; Heuer and Smalla, 2007; Zhu et al., 2013).
ARGs might infiltrate the environment through discharge of animal excreta, contaminating
soil, water, and crops, influencing resistomes in each environment (Xu et al., 2020).

97 ARGs are widely distributed in soil and can be spread through horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and vertical gene transfer (VGT) through mating, transformation, and transduction 98 within and across bacterial species (Aminov, 2011; Fan et al., 2019; Qiu et al., 2012). A small 99 100 number of studies have explored the potential risk to human health from soil-hosted ARGs, with examples vegetables harvested after growth in soil that had been treated with manure (Han 101 and Andrade, 2005; Jiang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2016). Manure-borne 102 103 ARGs might utilize soil microbiota as vehicles to migrate to the endospheric region of plants 104 (Afzal et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2021), but integrated perspectives on dissemination of ARGs harbouring microbial communities in soil-plant systems have been limited (Ashbolt et al., 105 2013; Zhang et al., 2019). 106

107 The likelihood of antibiotic resistant bacteria (ARB) and multi-antibiotic resistant bacteria 108 (MARB) transfer through manure to edible plant parts during soil fertilization is not clear. Therefore, an investigation into prevalence of ARGs containing microbial communities from 109 its possible source to the plant system is logical to conceptualize a better understanding about 110 pathways of ARG transmission in soil-plant environments. With the emergence of high 111 throughput sequencing technologies with improved bioinformatics tools, it is now possible to 112 detect and define entire microbial resistome profile in diverse habitats (Crofts et al., 2017; Lee 113 et al., 2021). Here, we employ high throughput sequencing strategies to assess whether using 114 poultry manure as an organic fertilizer can increase plant reservoirs of ARGs. The present 115 investigation therefore aimed to 1) detect the transmission of ARGs from poultry manure to, 116 soil and from soil to plant tissues, and, 2) to establish relationships, if any, among microbial 117

118 communities detected in different microhabitats (poultry litter, soil and plant) in pot and field-119 based studies.

#### 120 **2.** Materials and methods

#### 121 **2.1.Experimental site and study design**

The experiments were conducted during July-November, 2021. The sampling site was 122 located at the farmer field at Babatpur (Varanasi, Uttar Pradesh) in India (25°24' N, 82°50' E, 123 83m height above mean sea level). The region has a seasonal tropical monsoonal climate with 124 an average rainfall of 1110 mm annually and minimum to maximum temperature ranging 125 between 8 - 22 °C ( in January) and 28 - 42 °C (in June). The soil is well drained, inceptisol, 126 silty loam (sand 31%; silt 63%, clay 2%) with 0.63% organic carbon (C), 0.14% total nitrogen 127 (N) and pH 7.7. Three distinct sub-sites were selected with known history of receiving poultry 128 129 (broiler and layer) litter as organic manure from the past several years; together with a fourth, site plants were grown conventionally without poultry litter as a control. 130

The experimental plots were designed in randomized complete block design (RBD) including 3 blocks  $(5m \times 3m)$  per treatment with 1m gaps. Each plot was thoroughly watered and *Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench seeds were surface sterilized before sowing as per described elsewhere with minor modifications (Mareque et al., 2015). Briefly, seeds were washed with tap water 2-3 times, incubated in 70% ethanol for 5 minutes, then surface disinfected by incubation in 4% perchloric acid (HClO<sub>4</sub>) for 15 minutes, incubated again in 70% ethanol for 3 minutes, and eventually rinsed three times with sterile deionized water.

A separate pot experiment was set up in parallel to establish and validate the transmission dynamics of ARGs in different plant compartments (root and stem) for comparison the field experiment under more controlled conditions The pot experiment followed the same design the field study and was completed in triplicate.. Collected bulk soils from the same agricultural plots were passed through a 2 mm mesh sieve to remove plant debris and used in the pot
experiment. Each clay pot (diameter: 30 cm; height: 25 cm) contained ~ 4.0 kg soil and were
watered and incubated overnight, followed by sowing of surface sterilized seeds of *Sorghum bicolor* (L.). The pots and plots were watered on every third day depending upon its waterholding capacity. Pesticides and fungicides were not applied during the experiment and weeds,
if any, were removed manually.

#### 148 2.2. Soil and poultry manure sampling

149 Rhizospheric soil samples (0-20 cm depth) in triplicate were taken randomly just after flowering stage of the plant (~55-60 days after sowing of crop) from each treatment. Normally 150 farmers harvest crops at this stage as a green fodder to animals. Plants were uprooted with 151 soils adhered to root systems. Extra soils were nipped out by squeezing the plant roots. By 152 tapping the plant root, rhizospheric soils were collected (Vishwakarma and Dubey, 2007). Soil 153 samples were mixed and homogenized, sieved (2mm mesh) to remove plant debris, transported 154 to the laboratory and stored at -20°C until further processing. Soil sampling from pots was 155 156 conducted in the same manner. Poultry litter samples were collected from the broiler (a flock of ~2,000 chickens) and layer (~10,000 chickens) chicken farms whose manures were used in 157 this study. Litters are generally dumped for a longer period as a stock. Due to storage, the upper 158 surface was dried, enabling the removal of upper crust and slightly moisture containing litters 159 160 were retained and used as manure as well as for DNA extraction. Litter samples were collected from 10-25cm depth using sterilized spatula, stored in plastic bags aseptically, transported to 161 the laboratory and were stored at -20°C prior to DNA isolation or application as manure in 162 163 experimental field plots and pots within 24h of collection.

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#### 166 **2.3. Plant sampling and pre-treatment**

Sorghum bicolor (L.) seeds were sown in July 2021 in experimental field plots and pots treated 167 168 with different poultry manure as well as control plots/pots (devoid of poultry manure application). Crops were managed as per standard farmer practice (Roy and Barik, 2016). Root 169 170 and stem samples were collected from plant at the time of maturation (November 2021), stored in plastic bags aseptically, and transported to the laboratory for downstream analyses. Plant 171 samples were surface sterilized prior to extraction of total endophytic genomic DNA as 172 described elsewhere with minor modification (Mendes et al., 2007). Briefly, roots and stems 173 collected from Sorghum plants in each plot were washed in running tap water, then washed 174 thrice with sterile deionised water to eliminate adhering soil particles. Subsequently, plant 175 samples were washed sequentially with 70 % ethanol solution (10 minutes), 4 % (v/v) sodium 176 perchlorate solution (5 minutes), 70% ethanol solution (2 minutes), then rinsed 5-7 times with 177 sterile deionised water. An aliquot of 100µL from each final wash was plated on Nutrient Agar 178 179 (NA) plates to confirm the absence of any residual surface bacteria. Plates were incubated at 28°C for 2-4 days. Sterilization of the samples (pieces of roots and stems) was found to be 180 successful, as no growth was observed on the nutrient agar plates. Sterilized plant roots and 181 stems were kept at 4 °C for further study. 182

#### 183 **2.4. Total genomic DNA isolation**

Total genomic DNA was extracted from all the samples using DNeasy PowerSoil genomic
DNA isolation kit (Qiagen, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol (Supp. Table 1).
Genomic DNA quality and quantity was assessed using a Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher
Scientific, MA, USA) and confirmed by gel electrophoresis 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel
(Brand/Source/Made) prepared in Tris-Acetate-EDTA (TAE) buffer and visualised in a Gel-

Doc system (BioRad, Germany). Extracted genomic DNA was preserved at -20 °C until further
processing.

#### 191 **2.5. Library preparation for ARGs sequencing**

The Ion AmpliSeq AMR Research Panel (ThermoFisher Scientific, USA) (size: 748.82 kb) comprised of two primer pools targeting 408 and 407 amplicons, respectively, in to evaluate the presence of 478 ARGs (Soni et al., 2022). The AMR panel used in this study included additional primers specific for 17 ARGs known to confer resistance against colistin (mobile colistin resistance genes, *mcr*) and quinoline antibiotics. Panel characteristics included a maximum 241bp, minimum size of 73bp, average size of 193bp, and median size of 205bp.

After quantification of the total genomic DNA, the template was diluted and for each 198 sample, 20 ng was used as an input for the library preparation. AmpliSeq libraries were 199 constructed using the AmpliSeq<sup>™</sup> Library PLUS for Illumina kit (Ilumina, USA) following 200 the manufacturer's instructions. All libraries were quality checked using an Agilent 201 Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, USA) and quantified using a Qubit<sup>™</sup> dsDNA HS 202 Assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA) kit. An Illumina MiSeq platform was 203 employed for sequencing, using a 500 cycle chemistry availing MiSeq Reagent Kit v2 (2x250 204 205 bp read length).

# 206 **2.6.Data pre-processing and bioinformatics analysis**

In total of 59 samples (field stem control, FS2 was in duplicate) were sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq sequencing platform, representing each experimental group in triplicate, generating 4.09 GB data in total. The raw data was quality checked using FastQC (Andrews and others, 2010) (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and filtered withan average quality score  $\geq 25$  using PrinSeq-Lite v0.20.4 (Schmieder and Edwards,

2011). Cleaned sequencing reads were analysed for the detection and identification of ARGs 212 using the Resistance Gene Identifier (RGI) v5.2.1 on our local server and using the 213 214 Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database (CARD) v3.2.4 (Alcock et al., 2020). Open Reading Frame (ORF) prediction was performed using Prodigal (Hyatt et al., 2010) and 215 homology search was performed using DIAMOND version 0.8.36 (Buchfink et al., 2015). We 216 used DIAMOND version 0.8.36 (Buchfink et al., 2015) aligner with 95% identity with loose 217 218 hit criteria using E-value < 5.234390e-02. Low sequence quality option was selected in Prodigal version 2.6.3 (Hyatt et al., 2010) anonymous mode for open reading frame prediction, 219 220 supporting calls of partial AMR genes from short or low quality contigs (ignoring those less than 30 bp). The ARGs were obtained from the annotation files of RGI output in text file. 221 Furthermore, for individual samples compiled to generate the cumulative ARGs abundance 222 profile for all the samples. Then, the relative abundance profile and statistical analysis was 223 carried out using STAMP software version 2.1.3 (Parks et al., 2014). 224

The obtained ARGs were analysed for the dominant antibiotic drug classes and involved resistance mechanisms along with the resistome and pathogen of origin analysis. The Venn diagram analysis using online server (<u>https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/</u>) was performed for the identification of the unique ARGs present in the selected experimental groups and to know the genes detected in the poultry litter, plant root, and stem parts. The resistome profile of the observed pathogen of origin analysis was generated based on the hits obtained from the CARD database v3.2.4 (Alcock et al., 2020).

232 2.7. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed in the statistical analysis of taxonomic and functional
 profiles (STAMP) software version 2.1.3 (Parks et al., 2014) to identify significant ARGs (p value ≤0.05, with Benjamini-Hochberg FDR) associationa in ARG occurrence in poultry litter

(broiler and layer), soil, and plant (root and stem) samples. Heatmap plots for the detected
bacterial pathogens of origin were generated using ClustVis (Metsalu and Vilo, 2015). Venn
diagrams were generated using the online server at
https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/.

#### 240 **2.8 Validation of selected ARGs using digital PCR (dPCR)**

The ARGs which were selected for the validations that were based on their presence in the 241 poultry litter, treated soil and plant (root and stem) however must absent in the control samples 242 243 [soil and plant (root and stem)]. Total five genes viz. cmx, ErmF, ErmX, InuB, and ErmF.1 were selected for the validation purpose. The primers that we used for the validation are same 244 which are there in the AMR panel, which we used for the resistome analysis (Supp. Table S6). 245 For digital PCR assay, we pooled the genomic DNA of each triplicate sample in one pool for 246 each set (to reduce the cost) resulting in 20 pooled experimental samples representing one each 247 from broiler and layer litter samples and nine each from field and pot experiment group (Supp. 248 249 Table S2).

The primers were initially checked and optimised for the PCR conditions for gene 250 amplification from the pooled genomic DNA samples. Later on, using the same PCR conditions 251 252 dPCR assay was performed to validate the ARGs identified using the NGS. We used QIAcuity Digital PCR System (Qiagen, Germany) 96-well 8.5K nanoplate. The reaction mixture for the 253 254 dPCR assay comprise of 4 µL EvaGreen master mix (Qiagen, Germany), 3 µL nuclease free 255 water, 0.5 µL each forward and reverse primers (5pmol), 3 µL DNA template (total 9 ng) and 1µL EcoR1 (0.25 U/µL) high fidelity restriction enzyme (New England Biolabs, UK) making 256 the total system of 12 µL. The dPCR cycling conditions were set as initial annealing at 95 °C 257 258 for 5 minutes, 95 °C for 30 seconds, 58 °C for 20 seconds, 72 °C for 30 seconds for 30 cycles, and final denaturation 40 °C for 5 minutes. After completion of PCR run, the plates were 259

scanned using the green channel by the QIAcuity Software Suite (v.2.1.8) provided along with
the instrument. The data were analysed and copy number per ng DNA was calculated as per
the QIAcuity® User Manual Extension, 2021
(https://www.qiagen.com/us/resources/download.aspx?id=5d19083d-fa10-4ed2-88a0-

264 <u>2953d9947e0c&lang=en</u>) as described in our previous study (Travadi et al., 2022). In dPCR,
265 all the samples were run in duplicate and standard deviation error in the copy number of
266 detected ARGs per ng DNA sample calculated in the MS Office 2016 Excel and plots were
267 generated using GraphPad Prism version 5.0 (Motulsky, 2007).

#### 268 **3. Results and discussion**

Present communication deciphers a relevant contemporary issue about spreading 269 dynamics of ARGs in agro-ecosystem using updated molecular approaches viz. next generation 270 271 sequencing and dPCR. Objectives were achieved through dual strategies i.e., pot and fieldbased studies, each having their own significance. Prior allows the microbial assessment in 272 controlled regime without being interrupted to diverse environmental factors, whereas the later 273 274 strategy facilitates conducting experiments under natural conditions where probability of ecological validity is more pronounced. Manure-borne ARGs might use soil bacteria as a 275 276 vehicle enabling them to migrate into the plant endosphere and ARGs propagated into these soil bacteria could readily invade the plants (Mišić et al., 2022). It was surprising to understand 277 278 their origin and transmission dynamics and mechanism of gene transfer such as plasmid, 279 transposons, mobile genetic elements and horizontal gene transfer might be involved and play crucial role in the transmission of the detected ARGs (Huang et al., 2022). However, the 280 majority of earlier research concentrated on specific plant microbiome regions and lacked an 281 282 integrated perspective on how antibiotic resistance spreads in the soil-plant system (Yu-Jing Zhang, Hang-Wei Hu, a Qing-Lin Chen, Hui Yan, Jun-Tao Wang, Deli Chen, 2020). 283

The results obtained in the present study, further establish the hypothesis of extensive 284 ARGs ingress in the agro-bio-ecosystem and therefore, immediate attention need to be focus 285 through various measures in order to reduce the selective pressure on microbes against residual 286 antibiotics in the environment. In this study, we performed AMR genes amplicon sequencing 287 using illumina MiSeq system. We generated total 4.4 million reads corresponds to average 0.75 288 million reads per sample. Supp. Table 3 comprise the output of sequencing run. ARGs were 289 290 identified using by searching homology of the reads against the CARD database v3.2.4 (Alcock et al., 2020). 291

### **3.1. Resistome profile of the broiler and layer litter samples**

In this research study, sequencing analysis of the ARGs in poultry broiler litter revealed 293 294 dominance of QnrS15 (12.66±0.13%), APH(3')-IIIa (7.07±3.26%), TEM-99 (6.32±0.47%), tet(Z) (4.64±3.53%), APH(6)-Id (4.53±1.15%), tetW (4.41±4.20%), TEM-98 (4.28±1.11%), 295  $ErmX(4.24\pm1.11\%), tet(A)(4.15\pm3.28\%)$ . Among the total ARGs, top fifteen genes accounting 296 297 for an overall 67.12% relative abundance while, the rest were less than 2.00% abundance. 298 (Supp. Table S4). The pathogen of origin associated with these ARGs are E. coli (31.76±1.04%), *Campylobacter coli* (8.43±2.30%), *P. aeruginosa* 299  $(6.49 \pm 2.51\%)$ . Corynebacterium glutamicum (5.84±4.50%), Butyrivibrio fibrisolvens (4.41±4.20%), Plasmid 300 pNG2 (4.24±1.11%), Shigella sonnei (4.15±3.28%), Bacteroides fragilis (3.08±1.41%), C. 301 *jejuni* (2.74±1.47%), and *Serratia marcescens* (2.61±1.89%) were in relative proportion 302 303 >2.0%. Similarly, in the poultry layer litter *tetM* (33.71 $\pm$ 0.88%), *ErmF* (9.84 $\pm$ 1.39%), *APH*(6)-Id (6.12 $\pm$ 0.73%), aadS (5.39 $\pm$ 0.80%), tetQ (5.12 $\pm$ 1.58%), and vgaE (4.17 $\pm$ 1.00%), were found 304 305 in higher proportion. The resistome profile for the layer litter was represented by *Erysipelothrix* rhusiopathiae (33.71±0.88%), B. fragilis (18.67±2.65%), P. aeruginosa (8.29±0.85%), S. 306 aureus (8±1.65%), Transposon Tn4551 (5.39±0.80%), C. glutamicum (2.77±0.39%), C. jejuni 307

308 (2.66±0.34%), Salmonella enterica (2.3±0.24%), Bacteroides coprosuis (1.93±0.51%), E.
309 faecium (1.79±0.34%), S. sonnei (1.66±0.13%), and C. coli (1.56±0.13%).

The dominant gene *QnrS15* is reported to be a plasmid-mediated and known to provide 310 resistance against the quinolone antibiotics, while APH(3')-IIIa is also a plasmid-encoded 311 aminoglycoside phosphotransferase providing resistance against aminoglycoside antibiotics 312 (Trieu-Cuot and Courvalin, 1983). Similarly, TetZ is a tetracycline efflux protein found in 313 Gram-positive bacteria and associated with plasmid DNA (Roberts, 2005). It would be 314 interesting to understand residual load of antibiotics used in the poultry sector and we further 315 speculate that the dominant ARGs classes detected in the poultry litter such as quinolones, 316 317 tetracycline, beta-lactams and aminoglycoside. Recent studies reported the antimicrobial use 318 (AMU) lead by tetracyclines were the most commonly used antimicrobial (overall 33,305 tonnes) and were predicted to increase by 9% by 2030. However, AMU intensity per 319 antimicrobial class varied by country. Thailand had the highest proportion for penicillins, while 320 Chile had maximum proportion for amphenicols (Mulchandani et al., 2023). 321

322 Previous studies carried out to understand the risk assessment and enrichment of the 323 poultry manure induced ARGs in soil, food crops and agriculture environment reported that antimicrobial resistance against tetracycline, aminoglycosides, and sulphonamides as the most 324 common antibiotics drug classes (Buta-Hubeny et al., 2022; Jadeja and Worrich, 2022). 325 Research studies have revealed that agricultural soils fertilized with organic matter obtained 326 from animals treated with antibiotics have enhanced naturally existing ARGs as well as 327 introduced novel ARGs into the accompanying soil microbial population (Chen et al., 2016; 328 Looft et al., 2012; Rieke et al., 2018; Udikovic-Kolic et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2017). *Tet(M)* is a 329 ribosomal protection protein that provide resistance against tetracycline antibiotics. It is found 330 on transposable DNA elements and which is known for horizontal transfer between bacterial 331 332 species (Akhtar et al., 2009). Another ARG, ErmF known to confer the macrolides,

lincosamides and streptogramin B (MLSB) phenotype. Microorganisms with a constitutive
MLSB phenotype express high-level of cross-resistance to MLSB (Kangaba et al., 2015). The
comparative analysis between the broiler and layer litter resistome profiles revealed overall
58.80% ARGs shared between broiler and layer litter, while, 14.90% and 26.40% were
exclusively present in the broiler and layer litter, respectively (Supp. Fig. S1).

Interestingly, the relative proportion of *tetM* ( $33.71\pm0.88\%$ ) and *ErmF* ( $9.84\pm1.39\%$ ) 338 genes were found to be more in layer litter as compare to broiler litter, 2.32±0.86%) and 339 1.23±0.84%, respectively. In contrast to this, OnrS15 (12.66±0.13%) and APH(3')-IIIa 340  $(7.07\pm3.26\%)$  were found to be abundant in broiler litter as compared to the layer litter with 341 342 relative proportion 0.03±0.01% and 1.07±0.08%, respectively. The difference in ARGs 343 detected in the broiler and layer litter samples might be due to the differences in the dietary regimes. tetW (4.41±4.20%) in broiler litter, tetQ (5.12±1.58% in layer litter) were found to be 344 either negligible or absent in control samples and not detected in the soil treated with the litter. 345 Similarly, there were several ARGs showing such a phenomenon and it was puzzling to point, 346 which genes are coming from which source, therefore we further selected the genes which were 347 present in the poultry litter, absent in control and showing their further presence in the treatment 348 groups. The probable reason for such observation is might be due to the dilution of the genes 349 350 harbouring microbes in the soil treated with the litter.

# 351 **3.2.** Transmission of ARGs from broiler litter to plant under field experiment

The relative abundance of ARGs in soil treated with broiler litter is represented by  $TEM-229 (34.07\pm15.70\%), TEM-98 (30.12\pm12.52\%), tetM (5.03\pm6.99\%), tetX (3.55\pm4.01\%),$   $APH(6)-Id (3.34\pm3.66\%), aadS (2.96\pm4.14\%), APH(3')-IIa (2.26\pm0.85\%),$  and ErmF(2.01±2.77\%). Similarly, ARGs in the root samples collected from the plants treated with broiler litter were dominated by *TEM-98* (33.27±24.20%), *TEM-229* (18.24±13%), *MIR-7*  357 (11.14±14.76%), *MIR-22* (8.00±11.31%), *TEM-99* (4.28±2.75%), and *NDM-31* (3.29±3.34%). 358 Overall, ARGs with relative abundance  $\geq 2.0$  % accounted for the cumulative abundance of 359 80.30% in the field root samples treated with broiler litter. (Zhang et al., 2020) have analysed 360 the microbial diversity and reported transmission of *aadE*, *tet*(*34*), and *vanSB* as the shared 361 ARGs along with the bacterial communities among leaves of the four vegetable crops.

Pathogens of origin associated with the resistome profile of the plant root treated with 362 broiler litter under field condition were E. coli (40.74±23.26%), Enterobacter cloacae 363  $(21.36 \pm 27.35\%),$ Bacteria (18.46±13.06%), Citrobacter werkmanii  $(3.29 \pm 3.34\%)$ , 364 Halobacterium salinarum (2.56±2.92%), P. aeruginosa (2.40±2.94%), Plasmid pGT633 365 366 (1.19±1.08%), S. aureus (1.19±1.06%), A. baumannii (1.01±0.69%), and Enterobacter 367 asburiae (1.00±1.42%) (Supp. Fig. S2). TEM variants are resistant and reported for clinical resistance against beta-lactam-lactamase antibiotics while MIR beta-lactamases are plasmid-368 mediated beta-lactamases that confer resistance to oxyimino- and alpha-methoxy beta-lactams 369 antibiotics in clinical isolates of K. pneumoniae (Papanicolaou et al., 1990). The relative 370 abundance of the ARGs that were observed higher in proportion in the stem samples of the 371 plants treated with broiler litter are TEM-98 (59.20±5.08%), TEM-229 (13.66±13.63%), TEM-372 99 (5.67±3.62%), NDM-31 (4.54±3.2%), and OqxB (2.24±1.93%). While, the microorganism 373 374 associated were *E. coli* (69.06±6.78%), Bacteria (13.74±13.62%), *C. werkmanii* (4.54±3.2%), *P. aeruginosa* (2.66±0.96%), *Klebsiella variicola* (1.75±1.07%), *A. baumannii* (0.92±0.41%), 375 *S. aureus* (0.92±0.78%), and Plasmid pNG2 (0.92±0.63%) (**Supp. Fig. S3**). The *oqxAB* encode 376 377 for a multidrug efflux pump reported from human clinical isolates of Enterobacteriaceae (Kim et al., 2009). 378

Furthermore, ARGs which might have been transmitted from poultry litter to plant were identified. In the field experiment, we found total four ARGs, which were exclusively present in the broiler litter, stem and/or root of the test samples and they may or may not be present in

the soil treated with the broiler litter. However, they were absent in all the controls i.e. the 382 control soil and stem and or root without application of broiler litter. We found that *cmx*, 383 OnrVC3, ErmX, and dfrD and cmx, SAT-4, lnuB and ErmF which might have been travelled 384 from litter to root and stem, respectively. Moreover, *cmx* was common in both root and stem 385 (Fig. 1a, 1b, and 1c). The presence of the ARGs in the litter sample but their absence in the 386 litter treated soil can be explained by the fact that the litter sample gets dilutes in the soil. 387 388 Further, their reappearance in the stem and/or root can be explained by the facts that these genes or genes carrying bacteria further accumulated and enriched in the plant system. 389

#### **390 3.3** Transmission of ARGs from broiler litter to plant in pot experiment

The above experiment was also performed under the controlled condition. The pot 391 experiment revealed the dominance of TEM-229 (11.80±9.18%), ErmX (7.31±2.90%), TEM-392 393 98 (7.08±4.05%), APH(6)-Id (5.85±2.63%), dfrA15b (4.95±3.66%), tetX (4.65±3.41%), tet(Z) (4.60±4.00%), and *aadS* (4.19±4.99%) ARGs in the soil treated with broiler litter. Similarly, 394 E. coli (18.73±5.12%), Bacteria (11.8±9.18%), P. aeruginosa (8.41±4.90%), Plasmid pNG2 395 (7.31±2.90%), C. glutamicum (5.71±4.27%), B. fragilis (5.21±3.84%), S. enterica 396 (5.08±3.66%), Transposon Tn4551 (4.19±4.99%), and *S. aureus* (3.00±1.69%) were observed 397 as the dominant pathogen of origin in the soil samples treated with broiler litter in the pot 398 experiment. Similarly, in the root samples treated with the broiler litter, TEM-98 399 (25.94±11.75%), TEM-229 (20.17±10.43%), TEM-99 (9.38±8.09%), LEN-28 (3.63±3.10%), 400 OXA-935 (3.58±2.26%), ACT-68 (2.99±1.67%), NDM-31 (2.97±2.37%), and MIR-7 401 (2.89±4.08%) were abundant. The observed pathogen of origin in the root samples treated with 402 broiler litter is represented by E. coli (38.54±11.72%), Bacteria (20.27±10.44%), P. aeruginosa 403 404 (7.15±2.03%), E. cloacae (7.07±8.36%), K. variicola (3.67±3.06%), E. asburiae (2.99±1.67%), and *C. werkmanii* (2.97±2.37%) (**Supp. Fig. S4**). ARGs transmission in plants 405

has been shown to be mediated from manure as source of bacteria harbouring mobile genetic
elements (MGEs), including plasmids, transposons, and integrons (Heuer and Smalla, 2007;
Zhu et al., 2013). Therefore, there may be potential threats to living biota and the surrounding
environment assuming ARGs grow exponentially or remain pervasive in livestock ecosystems
(Negreanu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015).

The broiler litter treated plant stem samples revealed the dominant ARGs enriched by 411 412 TEM-98 (58.52±2.18%), TEM-229 (36.19±3.40%), TEM-99 (1.70±0.55%), Halobacterium halobium 23S rRNA mutation conferring resistance to chloramphenicol (0.46±0.20%), E. coli 413 mdfA (0.19±0.03%), APH(6)-Id (0.18±0.20%), smeD (0.18±0.20%), TEM-70 (0.15±0.12%), 414 415 *TEM-182* (0.11 $\pm$ 0.06%), and *P. aeruginosa catB7* (0.10 $\pm$ 0.07%). Similarly, detected pathogen 416 of origin in the plant stem samples were E. coli (61.08±2.41%), Bacteria (36.19±3.40%), P. aeruginosa (0.66±0.32%), H. salinarum (0.46±0.20%), Stenotrophomonas maltophilia 417 (0.18±0.20%), A. baumannii (0.12±0.11%), K. variicola (0.12±0.05%), S. marcescens 418  $(0.11\pm0.08\%)$ , and Haemophilus parainfluenzae  $(0.11\pm0.06\%)$ . The ARGs aadS, APH(4)-Ia, 419 420 and Erm(36), ErmQ, SAT-4, Lactobacillus reuteri cat-TC, Thermus thermophilus 23s rRNA conferring resistance to pleuromutilin antibiotics, and APH(3')-Via were found to be 421 transmitted from broiler litter to plant parts (Fig 1d, 1e and 1f). If, we compare the field and 422 423 pot experiment, only SAT-4 was found to be common in both the experimental setup.

# 424 **3.4** Transmission of ARGs from layer litter to plant in field experiment

The relative abundance of ARGs found to be enriched in the soil samples which were
treated with layer litter indicated that *TEM-98* (22.54±14.01%), *TEM-229* (16.04±8.43%), *tet(C)* (6.33±7.37%), *APH(6)-Id* (5.49±4.45%), *tetX* (5.25±7.43%), *ErmT* (3.91±5.10%), *oleB*(3.70±5.24%), *aadS* (3.43±4.86%), and *APH(3')-IIa* (3.10±4.39%). Furthermore, ARGs *TEM-*98 (39.81±6.18%), *TEM-229* (22.02±16.36%), *MIR-7* (7.81±10.47%), *TEM-99* (6.47±6.09%),

NDM-31 ( $2.22\pm1.37\%$ ), and ADC-151 ( $2.05\pm2.90\%$ ) were enriched in the plant root samples 430 treated with layer litter in the field experiment. Layer chicken litter treated field setup revealed 431 top five ARGs in the plant root samples, accounting for 79.94% cumulative abundance. While 432 in the pot experiment, plant root samples treated with layer litter indicated the enrichment of 433 accounting for more than eighty-five percent cumulative abundance. The dominant pathogens 434 were E. coli (49.45±9.30%), Bacteria (22.12±16.35%), E. cloacae (8.83±11.43%), P. 435 436 aeruginosa (5.72±4.67%), Acinetobacter pittii (2.47±3.50%), C. werkmanii (2.22±1.37%), A. baumannii (1.21±0.59%), and E. asburiae (1.06±1.50%) in the plant root samples. The 437 438 majority of antibiotics administered are not completely absorbed in the chicken intestine, and up to 90% of the amount injected can be expelled in the faeces (Kumar et al., 2005). This could 439 have further implications for bio-augmentation of the ARGs in the food chain through the 440 poultry sector. In recent study major bacterial pathogens for the broiler poultry were E. coli, 441 Salmonella spp., Clostridium spp., and Campylobacter spp. (Fathima et al., 2022; Kim et al., 442 2022) which is supports with this study. 443

Similarly, the ARGs ErmT (25.40±17.42%), TEM-99 (21.43±19.73%), TEM-98 444 (17.46±14.59%), TEM-229 (6.35±5.94%), ADC-207 (5.56±7.86%), tetM (4.76±6.73%), CTX-445 M-244 (4.76±6.73%), tetX (4.76±6.73%), and Erm(36) (4.76±6.73%) were observed in the 446 stem samples treated with layer litter. E. coli (43.65±29.12%), Plasmid pGT633 447 (25.40±17.42%), A. pittii (5.56±7.86%), B. fragilis (4.76±6.73%), E. rhusiopathiae 448 (4.76±6.73%), Lactobacillus reuteri (4.76±6.73%), and Micrococcus luteus (4.76±6.73%) 449 450 were observed dominant pathogen of origin in stem samples treated with layer litter in field condition (Supp. Fig. S5). Here, *cmx*, *oqxA*, *LEN-27*, and *ErmX* were found to be transmitted 451 from layer litter to the roots of the plant. However, none of the genes were found in the stem 452 (Fig. 2a, 2b, and 2c). 453

# 454 **3.5** Transmission of ARGs from layer litter to plant in pot experiment

In the pot experiment, tetM (16.70±2.80%), vgaE (11.23±2.22%), APH(6)-Id 455  $(7.41\pm2.82\%)$ , tet(L) (6.70±2.22%), dfrG (6.06±1.59%), aadS (5.95±2.99%), and APH(3')-IIIa 456 (4.53±0.85%) were found to be dominant in the pot soils treated with layer litter. The associated 457 microorganisms were characterized by S. aureus (18.72±3.66%), E. rhusiopathiae 458 (16.70±2.80%), P. aeruginosa (9.19±2.90%), C. coli (6.74±0.82%), Geobacillus 459 stearothermophilus (6.7±2.22%), Transposon Tn4551 (5.95±2.99%), C. glutamicum 460 461 (4.97±1.26%), *B. fragilis* (3.35±0.91%), and *Listeria monocytogenes* (3.32±0.86%) in the pot soil treated with layer litter. The root samples treated with layer litter were dominanted by 462 ErmT (21.94±17.20%), TEM-98 (21.42±18.67%), Halobacterium halobium 23S rRNA 463 mutation resistance chloramphenicol (14.70±13.70%), 464 conferring to *TEM-229* (12.88±14.18%), Chlamydomonas reinhardtii 16S rRNA (rrnS) mutation conferring resistance 465 to streptomycin (3.24±4.44%), TEM-99 (3.20±2.35%), and Mycoplasma hominis 23S rRNA 466 with mutation conferring resistance to macrolide antibiotics (3.17±4.49%). The manure-borne 467 ARB that infiltrated plant tissues may pass the carrying ARGs to the endophytic bacteria of the 468 plant via horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (Sørensen et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2021). Therefore, 469 prevalence and cryptic transmission of the ARGs in the different soil-plant compartments from 470 manure-mediated source is necessary to understand the probable molecular mechanism in agro-471 ecosystem. 472

Similarly, pathogen of origin in the plant root samples from the layer litter treated samples were represented by *E. coli* (28.92±21.01%), Plasmid pGT633 (21.94±17.20%), *H. salinarum* (14.70±13.70%), Bacteria (12.94±14.27%), *C. reinhardtii* (6.22±5.89%), *M. hominis* (3.17±4.49%), and *Thermus thermophiles* (2.25±1.95%).The ARGs which were detected in the layer litter treated plant stem samples were represented by *TEM-98* (64.16±7.40%), *TEM-229* (27.74±10.98%), *TEM-99* (1.98±0.67%), *smeD* (1.53±1.73%), *H. halobium* 23S rRNA mutation conferring resistance to chloramphenicol (0.52±0.32%), *E. coli* 

mdfA (0.47±0.14%), OXA-937 (0.31±0.32%), TEM-237 (0.21±0.20%), P. aeruginosa catB7 480  $(0.21\pm0.26\%)$ , and APH(6)-Id  $(0.14\pm0.07\%)$ . The detected pathogen of origin was represented 481 by E. coli (67.38±7.79%), Bacteria (27.78±10.95%), S. maltophilia (1.53±1.73%), P. 482 aeruginosa (1.00±0.78%), H. salinarum (0.52±0.32%), S. aureus (0.34±0.23%), C. reinhardtii 483 (0.16±0.10%), and A. baumannii (0.13±0.15%). The ARGs AAC(3)-IV, tet(G), dfrA15b, tetO, 484 AAC(6')-Ie-APH(2'')-Ia, and NDM-30 were found to be possibly transmitted from layer litter 485 486 to plant (Fig 2d, 2e, and 2f). They were present in the layer litter, soil treated with layer litter and plant root samples. 487

We speculate that the selected genes may further get biomagnified in the different 488 experimental compartments and provide interesting insights in the dynamic nature of AMR 489 transmission from litter to the plant. Therefore, a thorough investigation of plant resistomes is 490 of essence to develop a clearer understanding of the pathways of ARG transmission and will 491 give significant scientific support for the incorporation of natural resistomes in management 492 493 methods and framework for evaluating the risks to human health (Achard et al., 2005; Xu et 494 al., 2021). According to (Chen et al., 2019) naturally occurring concentrated soil ARGs can migrate into plants via the rhizosphere microbiota. (Zhang et al., 2019) have reported that 495 496 treatment of cattle manure enhanced the proportion of ARGs in plant roots, whilst the application of poultry manure augmented ARGs into the different soil and plant microbiome 497 compartments. 498

#### 499 3.6. Digital polymerase chain reaction (dPCR) for validation of selected ARGs

The antimicrobial resistance genes (*ermF*, *cmx*, *InuB*, and *ermX*, and *ermF*.1) selected for the validation were found to be enriched in plant root and stem compartments of the plant where the litter was applied however their copies in the control samples were almost negligible (**Fig. 3 and Supp. Table 5**). The ARGs represented by *InuB* (n=3040.70±9.50), *ErmF* 

 $(n=1469.26\pm23.93)$ , and *ErmF.1*  $(n=1428.76\pm62.42)$  in the layer litter while *cmx* 504  $(n=152.82\pm17.27)$  and ErmX  $(n=13.15\pm1.17)$  were found to be in low copy number (Fig. 4 and 505 **Supp.** Table 5). Further, *cmx* (n=3546.43±75.90), *ErmX* (n=1179.05±12.65), *ErmF* 506 (n=474.85±31.16), *InuB* (n=472.98±23.25), and *ErmF.1* (n=423.91±17.85) were found to be 507 dominant in broiler litter samples. Here 'n' represents gene copy number per ng DNA sample 508 along with ±standard deviation. The load of *InuB* and *ErmX* is higher in layer litter while *cmx* 509 510 was found to be higher in broiler litter samples. The layer litter treated field samples indicate a similar load of these ARGs in the root and stem samples. While these ARGs in the field samples 511 512 for the broiler litter were detected in relatively lower copy numbers.

The dPCR assay is highly sensitive and provides accurate quantification of the copy 513 number of genes based on Poisson distribution of the statistical compositional analysis (Travadi 514 et al., 2022). The results were compared for each group and revealed the copy number of genes 515 identified for the selected group. The maximum copy genes in the broiler litter were represented 516 517 by cmx, ErmX, ErmF, InuB and ErmF.1. Furthermore, these ARGs were not detected in the different control groups while observed in the treatment samples in the field experiment 518 samples for broiler, and layer litter samples. Similarly, the copy number of these ARG detected 519 in the layer litter is represented by InuB, ErmF, ErmF.1, cmx, and ErmX. The experiment with 520 layer litter samples revealed the higher copies in the stem compartment as compared to the 521 broiler litter group in both the field as well as the pot experimental setup. Therefore, we 522 speculate that the ARGs transmission from the layer litter seems to be highly efficient 523 compared to the broiler litter as demonstrated in the experimental results followed by validation 524 525 through dPCR.

# 526 Conclusions

This study concludes that poultry litter can acts as source of ARGs that can spread into 527 field soils and plants. ARGs like cmx, ErmX, ErmF, lnuB, TEM-98 and TEM-99 with 528 microorganisms such as E. coli, S. aureus, E. faecium, P. aeruginosa, and V. cholerae were 529 found to be shared in poultry litter-treated soil and plants. Furthermore, ARG profile of the 530 different experimental samples in this research study, indicate the role plasmid mediated 531 horizontal gene transfer, transposon elements and other biological routes in the microbial 532 533 communities in response to the broiler and layer litter application. However, it requires further investigation and future deliberations to understand the ingress of ARGs in the agriculture 534 535 ecosystem. The research study provides considerable indication of the transmission of ARGs from poultry litter into an agro-ecosystem, emphasizing the importance of responsible 536 antimicrobial use in poultry production. Understanding the risk of ARG transmission should 537 support formulation of strategies to incorporate natural resistomes into agro-ecosystems and 538 develop frameworks to evaluate environmental risks due to the spread of AMR. 539

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541 Data availability: The raw sequencing reads produced in this study have been deposited with
542 the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) in the Sequence Read Archive
543 (SRA) with the bio-project accession number PRJNA839566.

544 **Conflicts of interest:** The authors declare no competing interests.

Author contribution statement: Animesh Tripathi: Experimentation, Sample Collection,
Analysis and Manuscript Writing; Dinesh Kumar: Data Analysis, Methodology, and
Manuscript Writing; Priyank Chavda: Experiments (NGS library preparation, and
sequencing); Dalip Singh Rathore: Digital PCR assay and Methodology; Ramesh Pandit:
Data Analysis and Manuscript correction; Damer Blake: Review and Editing; Fiona Tomley:

Review and Editing; Madhvi Joshi: Project Administration, Review & Editing; Chaitanya G
Joshi: Conceptualization, Funding Acquisition; and Suresh Kumar Dubey:
Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing, Review & Editing.

Acknowledgements: This research work was supported by Gujarat Biotechnology Research 553 Centre (GBRC), Department of Science and Technology (DST), Government of Gujarat, 554 Gandhinagar, India. Authors would like to gratefully acknowledge the UKRI-GCRF One 555 Health Poultry Hub (OHPH), UK for supporting research activity. Department of 556 Biotechnology (DBT), Government of India, New Delhi gratefully acknowledged for financial 557 Animesh Tripathi in the form of Junior Research Fellow 558 assistance to (DBTHRDPMU/JRF/BET-20/2020/AL/293). 559

- 560 Ethical approval and consent to participate: Not applicable
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