

Dead but not forgotten: how eDNA, moisture, and space modulate the horizontal transfer of extracellular antibiotic resistance genes in soil

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Abstract

Antibiotic resistant bacteria and the spread of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) pose a serious risk to human and veterinary health. While many studies focus on the movement of *live* antibiotic resistant bacteria to the environment, it is unclear whether extracellular ARGs (eARGs) from *dead* cells can transfer to live bacteria to facilitate the evolution of antibiotic resistance in nature. Here, we use extracellular ARGs (eARGs) from dead, antibiotic-resistant *Pseudomonas stutzeri* cells to track the movement of eARGs to live *P. stutzeri* cells via natural transformation – a mechanism of horizontal gene transfer involving the genomic integration of eARGs. In sterile antibiotic-free agricultural soil, we manipulated the concentration of eARGs, soil moisture, and proximity to eARGs. We found that transformation occurred in soils inoculated with just 0.25 μg of eDNA g^{-1} soil, indicating that even low concentrations of soil eDNA can facilitate transformation (previous estimates suggest ~2-40 μg eDNA g^{-1} soil). When eDNA increased to 5 μg g^{-1} soil, there was a 5-fold increase in the number of antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells. We found that eARGs were transformed under soil moistures typical in terrestrial systems (5%-30% gravimetric water content), but inhibited at very high soil moistures (>30%). Overall, this work demonstrates that dead bacteria and their eARGs are an overlooked path to antibiotic resistance. More generally, the spread of eARGs in antibiotic-free soil suggests that transformation allows genetic variants to establish in the absence of antibiotic selection, and that the soil environment plays a critical role in regulating transformation.

Importance

Bacterial death can release extracellular antibiotic resistance genes (eARGs) into the environment. Agricultural soils can contain upwards of 10^9 ARGs g⁻¹ soil, which may facilitate the movement of eARGs from dead to live bacteria through a mechanism of horizontal gene transfer called natural transformation. Here, we track the spread of eARGs from dead, antibiotic-resistant *Pseudomonas stutzeri* to live antibiotic-susceptible *P. stutzeri* in sterile agricultural soil. Transformation increased with the abundance of eARGs and occurred in soils ranging from 5-40% gravimetric soil moisture but was lowest in wet soils (>30%). Transformants appeared in soil after 24hr and persisted for up to 15 days even when eDNA concentrations were only a fraction of that found in field soils. Overall, our results show that natural transformation allows eARGs to spread and persist in antibiotic-free soils, and that the biological activity of eDNA past bacteria death makes environmental eARGs a public health concern.

Introduction

Antibacterial resistance is a global threat to public health (1). To reduce the impacts of antibiotic resistance on human health, we need to understand how antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) move through the environment (2, 3). However, the evolution of antibiotic resistance has traditionally been viewed as a clinical problem, and consequently little is known about when and how novel antibiotic resistant pathogens emerge from natural systems (4, 5). ARGs in the environment are particularly concerning because they pose a significant threat to food and water resources (3) and can spread to new hosts through horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (5–8). The spread of ARGs via HGT is a major mechanism in the rise of antibiotic resistance (9). However, the environmental variables that promote the transfer of ARGs remain poorly

understood, despite well-documented instances of ARGs moving from the environment to the clinic (2, 10–12).

An important, but often overlooked source of environmental ARGs is extracellular DNA (eDNA) (13, 14). Extracellular ARGs (eARGs) enter the environment via active secretion and through bacterial death (15, 16), where they can integrate into new bacterial genomes through a mechanism of HGT called natural transformation. Soil harbors one of the largest environmental reservoirs of ARGs (17, 18) and is home to many antibiotic producing bacteria that could select for the maintenance of newly integrated ARGs (5). Since eARGs can persist in soil for up to 90 days, the odds of transfer to live cells and subsequent spread may be high in soil (19–21). In addition, 11 of the 12 top priority antibiotic resistant pathogens (identified by the World Health Organization in 2017) are known to acquire eARGs through natural transformation (22). Understanding what controls the frequency of these transfer events in soils will be important for combating antibiotic resistance.

Outside of soil, transformation frequencies generally increase with the availability of eDNA, until a saturation point when greater concentrations of eDNA no longer increase the number of transformants. However, transformation may proceed differently in complex and spatially heterogeneous environments like soil. Spatial barriers present in the soil habitat have been shown to limit but not prevent the transfer of plasmids during conjugation (23, 24). However, biological processes like biofilm formation and cell motility may reduce these barriers, increasing access to eARGs and the efficiency of gene transfer (25, 26). The soil environment could also influence the amount of eDNA present because soil properties like water content control eDNA decay rates (27).

Moisture could also impact the length of bacterial interactions and the induction of competence – the physiological state of transforming cells (28, 29). Wetter soils tend to favor active cell growth, which would stimulate transformation, but may or may not overcome limitations from eDNA degradation in wet conditions (see Fig. 1 for the factors likely to affect transformation in soil).

Understanding the controls of eARG movement and transfer in soils is critical because dead bacteria could be an overlooked source of antibiotic resistance. This may be particularly important in agricultural systems, which can harbor 10^9 ARGs per gram of dry soil (30). However, the prevalence of eARG transfer and the persistence of transformants in soil has not been investigated in detail. Here, we address this knowledge gap by inoculating sterile soil with eARGs under a series of environmentally relevant soil conditions. We track the spread of eARGs and the evolution of antibiotic resistance in single-species populations of *Pseudomonas stutzeri* – a model organism for studying transformation in soil (31). We use sterile agricultural soil from perennial switchgrass monocultures (*Panicum virgatum* L.) established ~6 years ago, but previously in a corn–soybean rotation for more than 10 years. We manipulate the concentration of soil eARGs by varying the concentration of eDNA between 0.25 and 5 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ soil. We hypothesized that increasing the availability of eARGs would increase the number of transformants recovered from soil microcosms. We also hypothesized that transformation would be inhibited at low (<10%) and high soil moistures (30–40% gravimetric) because of biological inactivity in dry soils, and eDNA degradation in wet soils (27, 32). We also manipulated the proximity of *P. stutzeri* cells to eDNA

introduction sites, as we expected spatial separation of transforming cells and eARGs to pose a significant barrier to transformation.

Results

eARG concentration affects the number of transformants in soil microcosms

We predicted that the number of transformants in soil microcosms would increase with the concentration of eARGs. We inoculated soil microcosms with 0.25, 1.25, 2.5, or 5 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil and counted the total number of transformants and cells every 5 days for 15 days. *P. stutzeri* cells were counted by resuspending soil in a liquid slurry, followed by serial dilution and selective plating. Every 5 days we added more eDNA to soil microcosms. The antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells were genetically identical to the antibiotic susceptible *P. stutzeri* cells, except for the presence of the antibiotic resistance gene.

Antibiotic resistant transformants evolved in the presence of just 0.25 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil (Fig. 2A), which, conservatively-estimated is only a fraction ($\sim 1/8$) of eDNA in field soil (previous work suggests that eDNA ranges from 2 to 40 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil; see Agnelli et al. 2004). Increasing the amount of eDNA from 0.25 to 5 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ soil, increased the number of antibiotic resistant bacteria 5-fold (Fig. 2B). Soil microcosms inoculated with 5 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil had the most antibiotic resistant bacteria, followed by microcosms inoculated with 2.5 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil. However, there was no difference between transformants in soils inoculated with 1.25 versus 0.25 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 2A,B). In soils inoculated with either 2.5 or 5 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil, subsequent eDNA additions resulted in a linear increase in the number of antibiotic resistant bacteria (Fig. 2B). However, inputs of small concentrations of eDNA (< 1.25

137 μg), did not always increase the number of antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* (Fig. 2B).

138 Changes in the total number of *P. stutzeri* cells are shown in Fig. S1 to demonstrate that
139 soils with more transformants do not have larger population sizes.

140 To understand how transformation transpired over the 5 days between eDNA
141 additions, we also counted transformants and total cells every 24hr for 5 days after a
142 single addition of 5 μg eDNA g^{-1} soil (Fig. 2C,D). We found that most transformants
143 appeared in soil between 24 and 48hr after inoculation but did not increase significantly
144 after 48hr in soil ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 2C). In contrast, the total number of cells followed a
145 different trajectory only increasing significantly between day 4 and 5 of the experiment
146 ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 2D). In liquid LB media, antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells grow slower
147 than antibiotic susceptible cells ($p = 0.037$, Fig. S2), however, we did not quantify the
148 cost of antibiotic resistance in different soil conditions.

149 **The relationship between soil moisture and number of transformants**

150 When the eDNA concentration was held constant at 2.5 μg eDNA g^{-1} soil and
151 microcosms were incubated at either 5, 10, 20, 30 or 40% soil moisture, we found that
152 transformation was highest between 5 and 20% soil moisture, and lowest at 40% soil
153 moisture (Fig. 3A). The largest number of antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells were in
154 microcosms held at 10% soil moisture though not significantly higher than at 5% and
155 20% soil moisture ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 3A). However, the number of transformants at 5% soil
156 moisture did not increase until after the second eARG addition, which briefly ($\sim 1\text{hr}$)
157 raised soil moisture above 5% (data not shown).

158 To elucidate if biofilm formation plays a role in facilitating transformation in soil,
159 as has been observed in laboratory populations of *P. stutzeri* (Fig. S3), we performed a

48hr assay where we disturbed the soil matrix via homogenization (using a sterile spatula) every 2hr, 8hr, or left the soil undisturbed (Fig. 3B). Because the establishment of a mature biofilm takes several hours and requires cells to surface attach and assemble into microcolonies, homogenization may prevent the progression of these steps and the formation of a mature biofilm (34). We found that homogenizing the soil every 2hr completely prevented transformation, while homogenizing soil every 8hr did not reduce transformation frequency compared to a non-homogenized control (Fig 3B, $p=0.001$). However, soils homogenized every 2hr had fewer total cells than unhomogenized controls and soils homogenized every 8hrs ($p=0.01$, 2.28×10^5 versus 2.75×10^9 cells g^{-1} soil). Additional experiments outside of soil show that changes in the total number of *P. stutzeri* cells minimally impacts transformation (Fig. S4), but low cell establishment may have reduced opportunities for transformation in soils homogenized every 2hr.

Spatial separation of *P. stutzeri* and eARG introduction sites in soil

Next, we tested how spatial separation of *P. stutzeri* cells from eARG introduction sites affected transformation (see Fig. 4A for soil microcosm design). When eDNA was introduced at different distances from live *P. stutzeri* cells (1.25, 3.8, 5 or 7cm away), we found that spatial barriers limited transformation, but interacted with moisture (Fig. 4). At 10% soil moisture there were significantly more transformants than at any other moisture level (similar to Fig. 3A), but transformants only appeared in the closest eARG introduction site, which was 1.25cm from the live *P. stutzeri* cells (transformants x soil moisture, $p<0.001$, Figure 4B,E). At 20% soil moisture, transformants were identified in 2 eARG introduction sites, and at 30% soil moisture in 3 introduction sites (Fig. 4B).

Despite transformants appearing in more eDNA introduction sites, there were still fewer total transformants compared to 10% soil moisture (Fig. 4E). At 40% soil moisture, there were no antibiotic resistant bacteria recovered from soil, yet live *P. stutzeri* cells were more abundant than in low moisture conditions and were able to disperse to every eDNA introduction site (dispersal at 10% vs 40% soil moisture, $p=0.0289$, Fig. 4B,F).

Transformation under antibiotic selective pressure

To understand how antibiotic selective pressures affect the spread of ARGs, we compared the success of an equal concentration of 'eARGs' vs. 'antibiotic resistant cells' (i.e., dead vs alive cells, respectively) in *P. stutzeri* populations grown in liquid media with 10% or 25% the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. 5). We found that transformed eARGs only reached high abundances in populations exposed to 25% of the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. 5, $p<0.001$). While live antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells reached high frequencies at both 10% and 25% the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. 5, $p<0.001$). Overall, transformed eARGs took 24hr longer than live cells to establish at high frequencies likely due to the time needed for transformation to transpire (Fig. 5).

Discussion

In order to reduce the impacts of antibiotic resistance on human health, we need a better understanding of the ecological dimensions that promote the transfer of eARGs through natural systems (35). In this study, we show that a 20-fold increase in the concentration of soil eARGs increases the number of antibiotic resistant bacteria 5-fold. We find that transformants appear under most conditions typical for terrestrial soils (5-20% moisture), and that transformation efficiency decreases at high soil moistures, when bacteria need to disperse to eARGs, and with soil mixing. In addition, we find that

eARGs can establish with the same success as live antibiotic resistant invaders in liquid media supplemented with a low dose of antibiotic (25% the lethal dose). Although the number of antibiotic resistant bacteria could be attributed to clonal expansion of a few transformants, our results suggest that transformation and population growth occurred on different timescales (Fig. 2C,D) and were optimized under different soil conditions (Fig. 4E,F). Overall, our results highlight that in a single-species system, the soil environment plays a critical role in modulating the spread and persistence of eARGs, and that eARG removal should be incorporated into plans to combat antibiotic resistance.

Several studies have now posited that a major cause of ARG transfer is widespread HGT (8, 36). Here, we show that eARGs supplied by *dead* bacteria are also readily transformed into soil bacteria, with the potential for HGT scaling with the abundance of eARGs (Fig. 2A,B). This information could inform approaches to combating antibiotic resistance, which disproportionately focus on killing live bacteria, but may be more effective if they also reduce eARGs, which we find can be equally effective at disseminating ARGs (Fig. 5). This may explain why practices that target only live bacteria like composting manure prior to application on agricultural fields have been found to both increase and decrease the occurrence of ARGs depending on the native bacterial community and other soil conditions (37, 38). Interestingly, manures composted at high temperatures, which promotes the degradation of eDNA, effectively reduces ARGs (39), supporting our findings that DNA degradation is a critical factor in reducing environmental concentrations of eARGs.

Despite the possibility of low-levels of eARGs persisting in soil for an extended time, the ultimate fate of most extracellular DNA is likely degradation, not transformation (40). While some eDNA can persist in soil for up to 90 days (20), previous work indicates that 99% of eDNA is degraded in the first ~7 days in soil (27, 41). Consequently, the most important role of soil conditions in regulating transformation may be the effect of moisture on the rate of eDNA decay, and likely explains our finding that transformation declined at higher soil moistures (Fig. 3A, Fig. 4B), even though greater moisture also gives recipient cells access to more eARGs (Fig. 4B). Similar trends have been observed for the soil bacterium *Acinetobacter calcoaceticum* whose transformation frequency was highest at 18% soil moisture, but lowest at 35% soil moisture (29). However, direct comparisons between *A. calcoaceticum* and *P. stutzeri* are difficult because *A. calcoaceticum* transformation efficiency was not measured below 18% soil moisture. Overall, our work suggests that transformation is favored at low soil moistures, unlike other biological processes like extracellular enzyme activity, which are positively correlated with soil moisture (42).

Our study quantified the relationship between soil moisture and transformation in one species of bacteria and in one soil type. This relationship may vary widely across bacterial species and soil type depending on how individual taxa regulate transformation and the stability of eDNA in different environments (43). For instance, the frequency of eARG transformation may be explained by soil physical factors, which can alter the stability of eDNA (44). Agricultural soils including those from our field site typically have a lower proportion of eDNA than other field soils, suggesting eDNA could have a shorter half-life in these soils compared to others. Moreover, in our study, transformation was

lowest at 40% soil moisture (Fig. 3A), and soils here rarely become this wet (Fig. S5). An interesting follow-up study would be to quantify transformation in wetland or sediment soils, where water content is generally higher. We also inoculated soils with eARGs obtained from heat shocked *P. stutzeri* cells, which could have damaged eDNA, and thus affected rates of eDNA decay. However, we would not expect heat shock to differentially affect eDNA stability under various soil conditions. Nonetheless, transformation is likely much lower between different bacterial species and in multi-species communities, where competitive interactions could limit access to eARGs and limit the success of transformants (45).

We also observed that soils held at 10% soil moisture only supported transformation if they were not disturbed by frequent homogenization, suggesting an interaction between soil moisture and the physical structure of soil (Fig. 3B). However, homogenizing soil every 2hr also decreased the total number of cells and may have affected opportunities for transformation – although population size does not have a large effect on transformation outside of soil (Fig. S4). Alternatively, homogenization could have prevented biofilm formation, as surface-attached *P. stutzeri* cells have higher transformation efficiencies than planktonic cells (Fig. S3). Biofilms are also more common in dry soils where they increase microbial survivorship (46), further supporting the possibility that biofilm formation is key for both soil colonization and the horizontal dissemination of eARGs, particularly in drought-exposed soils (<10% soil moisture). A similar relationship between HGT and soil moisture has been observed for conjugation, which increases in dry soils due to prolonged cell-to-cell interactions (28). Future studies could use fluorescent proteins or confocal laser scanning microscopy to better

quantify the relationship between biofilm establishment and transformation efficiency in soil (47).

A major concern in the fight against antibiotic resistance is the presence of antibiotics in the environment, as antibiotics could provide positive selection for transformed eARGs to proliferate. Although antibiotics are difficult to measure in the environment and may not be prevalent enough to select for antibiotic resistant bacteria (48, 49), our experiments in liquid media demonstrated that only 25% of the lethal dose of gentamicin could select for antibiotic resistant bacteria. This shows that transformed eARGs can come to dominate a population under the right conditions, although we note dynamics are likely to differ in complex communities with more than one bacterial species. An important future research direction will be determining the antibiotic concentrations at which eARGs can establish in single and multi-species communities in soil.

Taken together, our study reveals the most important variables for understanding the transmission of eARGs in soil and sets the stage for future experiments to scale up estimates of transformation to the whole community. Here, we used sterile soil inoculated with a single bacterium to prevent competitive interactions, and to ensure the soil was antibiotic-free. Certain soil types may further alter transformation efficiencies, and future studies could probe this relationship. Regardless, this work provides novel evidence that eARGs from dead bacteria are an overlooked, but important route in the emergence of antibiotic resistance. Specifically, we find that the availability of eARGs drives the evolution of antibiotic resistance, and that transformation is prevalent under a wide range of soil conditions – only decreasing at very high soil moistures, in response

to spatial barriers, and with soil mixing. Together, we find that the soil environment impacts the movement of eARGs from dead to live bacteria, and ultimately affects the prevalence of antibiotic resistant bacteria in antibiotic-free soil. Overall, this work provides novel *in situ* evidence that HGT is an evolutionary force that facilitates the spread of non-selected ARGs in soil, and thus we recommend special caution in releasing eARGs into the environment.

Materials and Methods

Site and soil collection

Soil cores (10cm depth by 5cm diameter) were collected in October 2018 and April 2019 from the Great Lakes Bioenergy Research Center (GLBRC) scale-up fields located at Lux Arbor Reserve Farm in southwest Michigan (42°24' N, 85°24' W). Plots were established as perennial switchgrass monocultures (*Panicum virgatum* L) in 2013, and before that were in a corn–soybean rotation for more than 10 years. The soils developed on glacial outwash and are classified as well-drained Typic Hapludalf, fine-loamy, mixed, mesic (Kalamazoo series) or coarse-loamy, mixed, mesic (Oshtemo series) or loamy sand, mixed, mesic (Boyer series) (50). Soils were sieved at 2mm and autoclaved in two cycles (60 minutes at 121°C; gravity cycle) separated by a 24-hr window to target dormant and spore-forming cells resuscitated during the first autoclave cycle.

Soil microcosms

Soil microcosms were established in small 60 x 15mm petri dishes using 10 grams of dry, sterile, switchgrass soil. Except for the experiment in Figure 4, which used large 150 x 15mm petri dishes filled with 100 grams of soil. On day 0 of each

experiment, the center of the microcosm was inoculated with 2mL of wildtype *P. stutzeri* cells suspended in liquid LB at a concentration of 10^6 CFU g⁻¹ soil. All LB media used throughout the manuscript followed a recipe of 10% tryptone, 5% yeast extract, and 5% NaCl (solid media contained 1.5% agarose). Immediately after adding the live *P. stutzeri* cells to soil, eDNA was slowly pipetted into the center of each soil microcosm. For the experiments shown in Fig. 4, eDNA was pipetted into each eDNA introduction site separately. eDNA and live cells were never combined before inoculation into soil. To control for contamination or evolution of gentamicin resistance via mutation, two additional treatments were included in every experiment; 1) 5µg of eDNA g⁻¹ soil made from gentamicin susceptible *P. stutzeri* cells, and 2) sterile water without eDNA. Transformants never appeared in the control treatments. All microcosms were maintained at ~23°C and the soil was never mixed unless directly specified (e.g. in Fig. 3B). All microcosms were initially inoculated to ~40% soil moisture on day 0, and then dried to 20% soil moisture (except in the experiments manipulating soil moisture where the soil was dried according to the treatment-level soil moisture). Generally, we counted the number of transformants, and the population size every 5 days, and then added more eDNA to simulate periodic inputs of eARGs (only one eDNA input in Fig. 4). After eDNA additions, soils were gradually dried back to 20% soil moisture.

Bacterial cultures and extracellular antibiotic resistance genes (eARG)

Soil microcosms were inoculated with *Pseudomonas stutzeri*, strain 28a24 (51). Prior to inoculation, the bacterial cultures were grown at 30°C on an orbital shaker at 120 rpm for 24hr in liquid LB media to a concentration of 10^6 CFU/mL. Stocks of antibiotic resistant extracellular DNA contained antibiotic resistance genes (eARGs) and

were made from a mutant *P. stutzeri* strain (see strain DAB390 Dougherty et al. 2014) encoding a gentamicin resistance gene and a LacZ gene (Tn7 transposition of pUC18-mini-Tn7T-Gm-lacZ into strain 28a24, see Choi and Schweizer 2006). eDNA was also made from the wildtype *P. stutzeri* to act as a negative control. The gentamicin resistant *P. stutzeri* cells were genetically identical to the wildtype *P. stutzeri* cells, except for the presence of the antibiotic resistance gene. The batch cultures for eDNA/eARG stocks were prepared under the same conditions specified above but were grown for 48hr and then resuspended in sterile nanopure water. The cells for eDNA stocks were then killed via heat shock (90°C for 1hr) and confirmed dead by plating. Before every assay, 100ul of stock eDNA was plated 3x to ensure the absence of live gentamicin resistant cells. We used eARGs released from dead *P. stutzeri* cells to better represent environmental eDNA, as purified genomic DNA is not found in soil. The final concentrations of eDNA ranged from 25-50 ng/μl and were appropriately diluted for each experiment (determined using Qubit fluorometric quantification and Invitrogen Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay Kit). *P. stutzeri*'s transformation efficiency plateaus at ~5ng/μl eDNA in assays conducted on agar petri dishes (Fig. S6).

Counting transformants and total cells

To determine the number of transformants in each soil microcosm, we weighed out 0.2g of soil from each microcosm or eDNA pool and placed it into a 1.5mL centrifuge tube. To each tube, we added 180μl of liquid LB and vortexed for 10 seconds (~10⁻¹ dilution). After allowing the soil to settle for 10 minutes, we transferred the supernatant to a 96-well plate and diluted out to 10⁻⁶ or 10⁻⁹ depending on the experiment and the expected number of cells. In the experiments that manipulated

eDNA concentration and soil moisture, we plated 50µl cell suspensions. For the remaining experiments we plated 10µl dots. All plating was done on petri dishes with solid LB (to count the total population size) or solid LB + gentamicin (50 µg/ml) + Xgal (20 µg/ml) (to count transformants in soil). Plates were incubated at 30°C and the number of colonies counted after 48-72hr. The number of cells is reported g⁻¹ soil, except in Fig. 4 where it is reported per eARG pool (0.2g soil) and calculated according to the following equation: Cells per unit = Cells µl⁻¹ x [Soil slurry volume (200µl) / Soil Mass in slurry (g)].

Manipulation of eARG concentration in soil microcosms

To understand the relationship between the availability of eDNA and transformation, we varied the concentration of eDNA in soil between 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.25 µg of eDNA gram⁻¹ soil (Fig. 2A,B). We used these concentrations as they conservatively represent ~10%, 5%, 2.5% and 0.5% of the total eDNA pool in soil (43). The concentration of eDNA never exceeded 10%, to account for the fact that only a small percentage of soil eDNA is likely to encode antibiotic resistance genes. We ran the experiment for 15 days and added eARGs to soil on day 0, 5, and 10, of the experiment, with each treatment consisting of 8 replicate soil microcosms.

Manipulation of soil moisture in soil microcosms

To determine how soil moisture affected transformation, we maintained soil microcosms at 5, 10, 20, 30 or 40% gravimetric soil moisture over a period of 10 days (Fig. 3A, i.e. soil moisture = [weight after water addition – dry weight] / dry weight]*100). In this experiment, all the microcosms were inoculated with an intermediate concentration of eDNA (2.5µg g⁻¹ soil) and eARGs were added on day 0 and 5. We

report the number of transformants present on day 10, using 8 replicate microcosms per treatment. To understand if the physical structure of the soil was important for transformation, we manipulated the physical structure of the soil by mixing the soil every 2hr, 8hr or never, throughout a 48hr period (Fig. 3B). Each treatment consisted of 4 replicates and the eDNA concentration was maintained at 5 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ soil, with the soil moisture remaining constant at 10%. Individual microcosms were gently mixed for approximately 30 seconds using a sterile spatula at the designated intervals.

Manipulation of eARG introduction site in soil microcosms

To determine if dispersal to eARGs and subsequent transformation events vary under different soil moistures, we introduced eDNA to different sites in large soil microcosms setup up in 150 x 15mm petri dishes with 100g of soil in each microcosm. There were 4 different soil moisture treatments: 10, 20, 30 or 40%. At each soil moisture we setup 4 microcosms (n=4, 16 soil microcosms). In each microcosm there were 8 different eDNA introduction sites which are depicted in Fig. 4A. The 8 introduction sites were located 1.25, 3.80, 5 or 7cm from the center of the petri dish and each introduction site was inoculated with 2 $\mu\text{g eDNA g}^{-1}$ soil. At each distance (e.g. at 1.25cm), one eDNA introduction site was inoculated with eARGs from dead gentamicin resistance *P. stutzeri* and the other with dead wildtype *P. stutzeri* – containing no eARGs and acted as a control for the movement of eARGs throughout the microcosm. eDNA was dripped onto each introduction site using a micropipette and allowed to dry (400 μl total volume). Approximately, 0.5hr after eDNA introduction, *P. stutzeri* cells were dripped into the center of each microcosm (2mL total volume). Each microcosm was immediately brought to the appropriate soil moisture via drying or the introduction of sterile water,

depending on the soil moisture treatment. After 5 days of incubation at ~23°C, 0.2g of soil was collected from each eDNA introduction site. We counted the number of transformants and total cells as described in the section ‘counting transformants and total cells’. Transformants only appeared in one control eDNA introduction site, which was 1.25cm from the center of the petri dish in microcosms incubated at 30% soil moisture. However, based on our methods we cannot determine whether this was caused by the movement of eDNA or the movement of transformed cells.

Antibiotic selective pressure in assays outside of soil

Outside of soil, we tested how an equal concentration of ‘eARGs’ and ‘live antibiotic resistant cells’ establish in populations of *P. stutzeri* challenged with a low dose of antibiotic (Fig. 5). Initially, we established two equal populations of *P. stutzeri* cells carrying kanamycin resistance (Kan_R) (see strain DAB386 Dougherty et al. 2014). To one of the two populations, we added 60,000 ‘live’ gentamicin resistant *P. stutzeri* cells (Gent_R). To the other population, we added 60,000 ‘dead Gent_R’ cells which provided a source of eARGs. Therefore, on day 0 of the experiment, the two treatments contained either 4% Gent_R and 96% Kan_R cells, or 0% Gent_R and 100% Kan_R cells, respectively. We used kanamycin resistant cells for the founding population instead of the antibiotic susceptible strain *P. stutzeri* 28a24 (used in previous experiments), so that we could track the evolution of multi-drug resistance, which we found was quite rare and only occurred at 25% the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. S7). Populations were founded in 1mL of LB media, and the experiment ran for 10 days, with each population receiving 1 mL of fresh LB media every 24hr. Each day we counted the number of Gent_R genotypes and the total number of cells using serial dilution and selective plating. Data

is missing for day 10 in populations grown at 10% the lethal dose of gentamicin due to an accidental loss of sample. We counted the total number of cells on solid LB media (no antibiotic) and the number of Gent_R cells on solid LB media with gentamicin (50 µg/ml) + Xgal (20 µg/ml). We report the frequency of Gent_R genotypes (Gent_R cells/total cells) in Fig. 5.

Statistical analyses

Prior to analyses all data were verified to meet assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance. Data shown in Fig. 3A and Fig. 4 did not conform to assumptions of homogeneity of variance and were log transformed. The results from the soil microcosm studies were analyzed by either one-way or two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc with test variable (i.e. soil manipulation and sampling day) as a fixed effect using the R *stats* package (R core team 2018). Experiments with multiple sampling days were analyzed by two-way ANOVA, except in certain instances, when the test variables were analyzed individually on the final sampling day (e.g. Fig. 3A). Results from the soil microcosm experiment in (Fig 4) were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with the 'distance to eARGs' and 'soil moisture' as fixed effects. When significant, interactions between test variables were included in the model. The frequency of antibiotic resistant bacteria present in each laboratory population at the end of the experiment were compared using two-way ANOVA with the treatment (Live vs Dead cells) and selection regime (10 or 25% lethal dose gentamicin) as fixed effects (Fig. 5). Differences between all test variable groups were considered significant at $\alpha \leq 0.05$. Raw data is on the open science framework data repository (<https://osf.io/7jp3b/>).

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Author Contributions HK, KD and SE conceptualized the experimental design for the soil microcosms. HK performed all soil microcosm incubations and laboratory work. HK and SE performed the analyses and wrote the manuscript. HK, KD, SE provided comments on the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

FIG 1 The soil characteristics likely to affect natural transformation. Transformation requires cellular competence and the presence of eARGs. But is also likely to depend on soil moisture, soil structure, proximity to eARGs, and antibiotic concentrations. Arrows show possible interactions between soil characteristics and point towards the effected variable.

FIG 2 The relationship between eARG concentration and number of antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells. (A) The number of antibiotic resistant bacteria in soil microcosms inoculated with 0.25, 1.25, 2.5 or 5 µg eDNA per gram soil (corresponds to day 15 in B). The different letters indicate significant differences based on Tukey's post hoc test. (B) Time series showing the effect of sequential eARG additions (indicated by arrows) in microcosms inoculated with different concentrations of eARGs. (C) Time series showing the number of antibiotic resistant bacteria every 24hr over 5 days in soil microcosms inoculated with a single addition of 5 µg eDNA per gram soil. (D) Data from the same time series as C showing the total number of cells. (A-D) Solid points represent the average number of cells per gram soil and error bars show the standard error of the mean (n=8 replicates). (A,C-D) The open points represent the values for individual replicates.

FIG 3 The relationship between soil moisture and the number of antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells. (A) The number of antibiotic resistant bacteria (transformants) in soil incubated at 5%, 10%, 20%, 30% or 40% soil moisture over a 10-day experiment. Bars represent the average number of \log_{10} (antibiotic resistant bacteria per gram soil) and error bars show the standard error of the mean (n=8 replicates). The different letters indicate significant differences based on Tukey's post hoc test. (B) The relationship between the frequency of soil homogenization and transformation frequency (transformants/total cells) at 10% soil moisture. Homogenization was conducted every 2hr, 8hr or never over a 48hr window. Closed points represent treatment averages and open points represent individual replicates. Error bars show the standard error of the mean (n=4 replicates).

FIG 4 The relationship between dispersal and transformation at different soil moistures. (A) Bird's eye view of the soil microcosm setup. The entire microcosm was filled with soil. The location of eDNA introduction sites are 1.25, 3.8, 5 or 7cm from the location of live *P. stutzeri* cells. Yellow points indicate an eDNA introduction site with eARGs and gray points depict eDNA introduction sites without eARGs (sourced from antibiotic-susceptible *P. stutzeri*). (B) Top panel: the average number of antibiotic resistant transformants per eDNA introduction site. Bottom panel: the average number of total cells. The size of the dot increases as the number of cells increase. For reference, 2 dots in the 10% soil moisture panel are labeled with the number of *P. stutzeri* cells per eDNA introduction site. (C) The total transformants and (D) the average cells at each distance, pooled across the four soil moistures. (E) The total transformants and (F) the average cells at each soil moisture, pooled across the four distances. Error bars show the standard error of the mean (n=4 replicates).

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FIG 5 The frequency of gentamicin resistant bacteria (Gent_R) over 10 days in *P. stutzeri* populations provided live or dead gentamicin resistant cells. 'Living Cells' treatments started at 4% Gent_R and 'Dead Cells' treatments started at 0% Gent_R but were provided eARGs encoding Gent_R. *P. stutzeri* populations were grown at either 10% (left) or 25% (right) the lethal dose of gentamicin. Points show daily averages and error bars show the standard error of the mean (n=4 replicates).

Figure 1

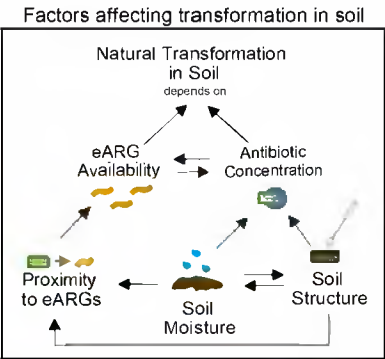


Figure 2

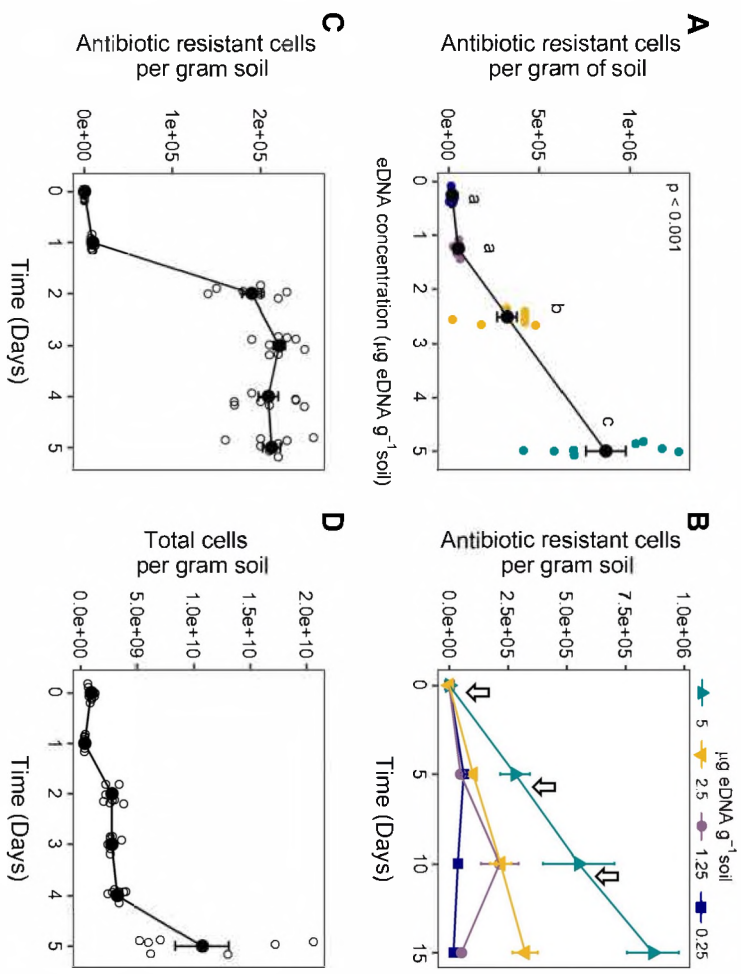


Figure 3

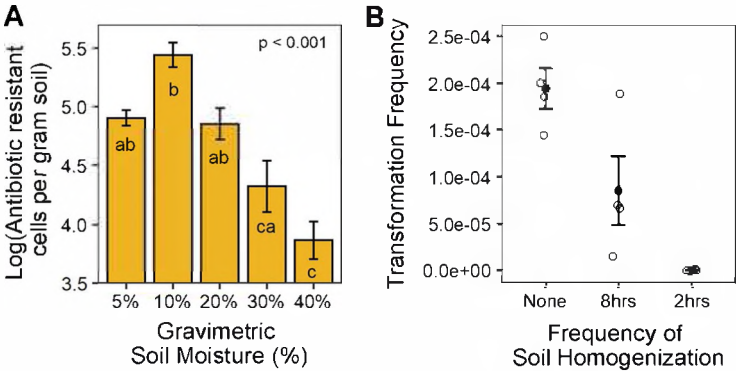


Figure 4

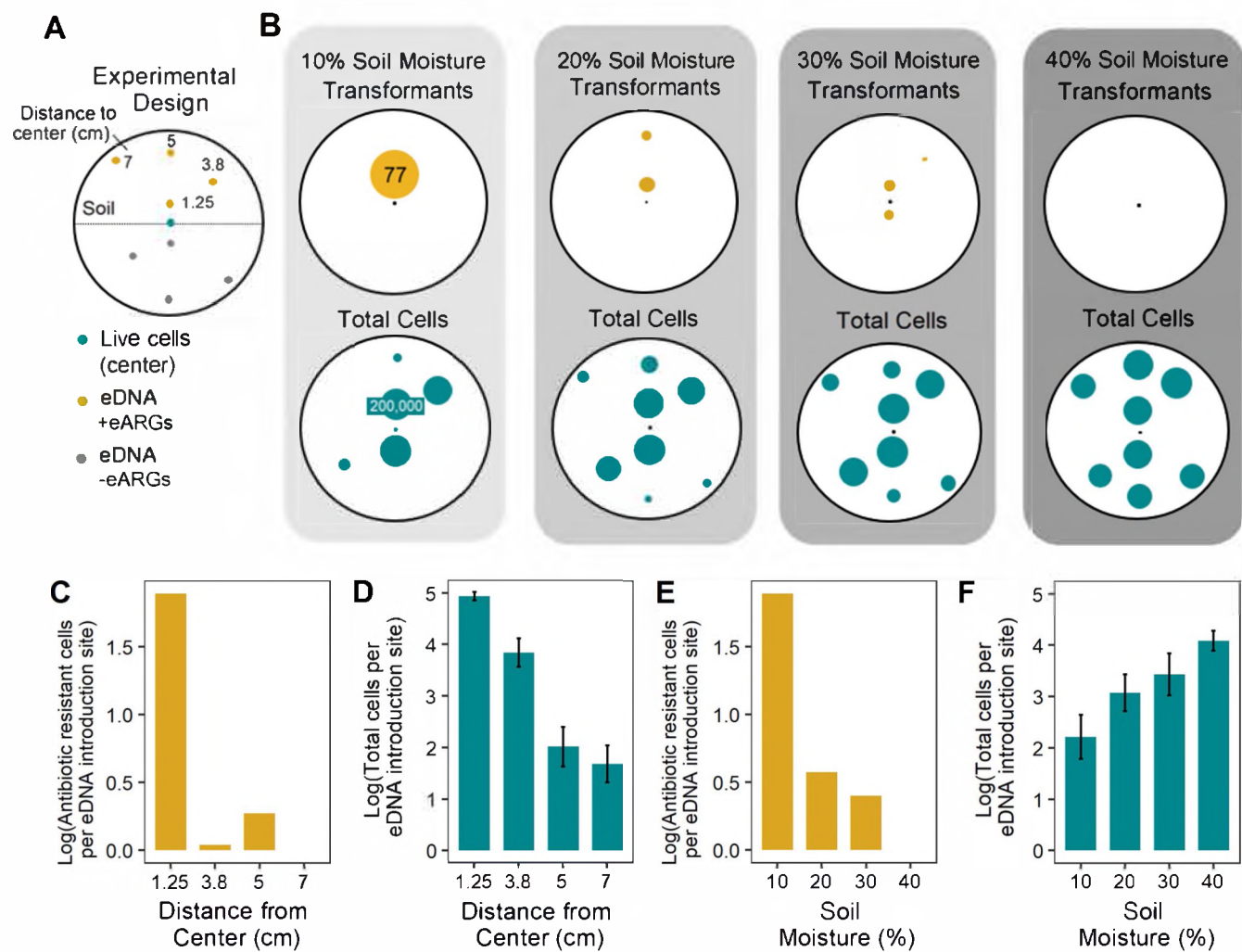


Figure 5

