

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

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24 **Abstract**

25       Antibiotic resistant bacteria and the spread of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs)  
26   pose a serious risk to human and veterinary health. While many studies focus on the  
27   movement of *live* antibiotic resistant bacteria to the environment, it is unclear whether  
28   extracellular ARGs (eARGs) from *dead* cells can transfer to live bacteria to facilitate the  
29   evolution of antibiotic resistance in nature. Here, we use extracellular ARGs (eARGs)  
30   from dead, antibiotic-resistant *Pseudomonas stutzeri* cells to track the movement of  
31   eARGs to live *P. stutzeri* cells via natural transformation – a mechanism of horizontal  
32   gene transfer involving the genomic integration of eARGs. In sterile antibiotic-free  
33   agricultural soil, we manipulated the concentration of eARGs, soil moisture, and  
34   proximity to eARGs. We found that transformation occurred in soils inoculated with just  
35   0.25 µg of eDNA g<sup>-1</sup> soil, indicating that even low concentrations of soil eDNA can  
36   facilitate transformation (previous estimates suggest ~2-40 µg eDNA g<sup>-1</sup> soil). When  
37   eDNA increased to 5 µg g<sup>-1</sup> soil, there was a 5-fold increase in the number of antibiotic  
38   resistant *P. stutzeri* cells. We found that eARGs were transformed under soil moistures  
39   typical in terrestrial systems (5%-30% gravimetric water content), but inhibited at very  
40   high soil moistures (>30%). Overall, this work demonstrates that dead bacteria and their  
41   eARGs are an overlooked path to antibiotic resistance. More generally, the spread of  
42   eARGs in antibiotic-free soil suggests that transformation allows genetic variants to  
43   establish in the absence of antibiotic selection, and that the soil environment plays a  
44   critical role in regulating transformation.

45 **Importance**

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

58 **Introduction**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

116 **Results**

117 **eARG concentration affects the number of transformants in soil microcosms**

118 We predicted that the number of transformants in soil microcosms would  
119 increase with the concentration of eARGs. We inoculated soil microcosms with 0.25,  
120 1.25, 2.5, or 5  $\mu$ g eDNA  $g^{-1}$  soil and counted the total number of transformants and cells  
121 every 5 days for 15 days. *P. stutzeri* cells were counted by resuspending soil in a liquid  
122 slurry, followed by serial dilution and selective plating. Every 5 days we added more  
123 eDNA to soil microcosms. The antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri* cells were genetically  
124 identical to the antibiotic susceptible *P. stutzeri* cells, except for the presence of the  
125 antibiotic resistance gene.

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

137  $\mu\text{g}$ ), 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  $\mu\text{g}$  eDNA  $\text{g}^{-1}$  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  $\mu\text{g}$  eDNA  $\text{g}^{-1}$  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 (~1hr)  
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

160 48hr assay where we disturbed the soil matrix via homogenization (using a sterile  
161 spatula) every 2hr, 8hr, or left the soil undisturbed (Fig. 3B). Because the establishment  
162 of a mature biofilm takes several hours and requires cells to surface attach and  
163 assemble into microcolonies, homogenization may prevent the progression of these  
164 steps and the formation of a mature biofilm (34). We found that homogenizing the soil  
165 every 2hr completely prevented transformation, while homogenizing soil every 8hr did  
166 not reduce transformation frequency compared to a non-homogenized control (Fig 3B,  
167  $p=0.001$ ). However, soils homogenized every 2hr had fewer total cells than  
168 unhomogenized controls and soils homogenized every 8hrs ( $p=0.01$ ,  $2.28 \times 10^5$  versus  
169  $2.75 \times 10^9$  cells  $g^{-1}$  soil). Additional experiments outside of soil show that changes in the  
170 total number of *P. stutzeri* cells minimally impacts transformation (Fig. S4), but low cell  
171 establishment may have reduced opportunities for transformation in soils homogenized  
172 every 2hr.

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

174 Next, we tested how spatial separation of *P. stutzeri* cells from eARG introduction  
175 sites affected transformation (see Fig. 4A for soil microcosm design). When eDNA was  
176 introduced at different distances from live *P. stutzeri* cells (1.25, 3.8, 5 or 7cm away), we  
177 found that spatial barriers limited transformation, but interacted with moisture (Fig. 4). At  
178 10% soil moisture there were significantly more transformants than at any other  
179 moisture level (similar to Fig. 3A), but transformants only appeared in the closest eARG  
180 introduction site, which was 1.25cm from the live *P. stutzeri* cells (transformants x soil  
181 moisture,  $p<0.001$ , Figure 4B,E). At 20% soil moisture, transformants were identified in  
182 2 eARG introduction sites, and at 30% soil moisture in 3 introduction sites (Fig. 4B).

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

### 188 **Transformation under antibiotic selective pressure**

189 To understand how antibiotic selective pressures affect the spread of ARGs, we  
190 compared the success of an equal concentration of 'eARGs' vs. 'antibiotic resistant  
191 cells' (i.e., dead vs alive cells, respectively) in *P. stutzeri* populations grown in liquid  
192 media with 10% or 25% the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. 5). We found that  
193 transformed eARGs only reached high abundances in populations exposed to 25% of  
194 the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. 5,  $p<0.001$ ). While live antibiotic resistant *P. stutzeri*  
195 cells reached high frequencies at both 10% and 25% the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig.  
196 5,  $p<0.001$ ). Overall, transformed eARGs took 24hr longer than live cells to establish at  
197 high frequencies likely due to the time needed for transformation to transpire (Fig. 5).

### 198 **Discussion**

199 In order to reduce the impacts of antibiotic resistance on human health, we need  
200 a better understanding of the ecological dimensions that promote the transfer of eARGs  
201 through natural systems (35). In this study, we show that a 20-fold increase in the  
202 concentration of soil eARGs increases the number of antibiotic resistant bacteria 5-fold.  
203 We find that transformants appear under most conditions typical for terrestrial soils (5-  
204 20% moisture), and that transformation efficiency decreases at high soil moistures,  
205 when bacteria need to disperse to eARGs, and with soil mixing. In addition, we find that

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

276 A major concern in the fight against antibiotic resistance is the presence of  
277 antibiotics in the environment, as antibiotics could provide positive selection for  
278 transformed eARGs to proliferate. Although antibiotics are difficult to measure in the  
279 environment and may not be prevalent enough to select for antibiotic resistant bacteria  
280 (48, 49), our experiments in liquid media demonstrated that only 25% of the lethal dose  
281 of gentamicin could select for antibiotic resistant bacteria. This shows that transformed  
282 eARGs can come to dominate a population under the right conditions, although we note  
283 dynamics are likely to differ in complex communities with more than one bacterial  
284 species. An important future research direction will be determining the antibiotic  
285 concentrations at which eARGs can establish in single and multi-species communities  
286 in soil.

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

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

### 303 **Materials and Methods**

#### 304 **Site and soil collection**

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

#### 316 **Soil microcosms**

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

320 experiment, the center of the microcosm was inoculated with 2mL of wildtype *P. stutzeri*  
321 cells suspended in liquid LB at a concentration of  $10^6$  CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil. All LB media used  
322 throughout the manuscript followed a recipe of 10% tryptone, 5% yeast extract, and 5%  
323 NaCl (solid media contained 1.5% agarose). Immediately after adding the live *P. stutzeri*  
324 cells to soil, eDNA was slowly pipetted into the center of each soil microcosm. For the  
325 experiments shown in Fig. 4, eDNA was pipetted into each eDNA introduction site  
326 separately. eDNA and live cells were never combined before inoculation into soil. To  
327 control for contamination or evolution of gentamicin resistance via mutation, two  
328 additional treatments were included in every experiment; 1) 5 $\mu$ g of eDNA g<sup>-1</sup> soil made  
329 from gentamicin susceptible *P. stutzeri* cells, and 2) sterile water without eDNA.  
330 Transformants never appeared in the control treatments. All microcosms were  
331 maintained at ~23°C and the soil was never mixed unless directly specified (e.g. in Fig.  
332 3B). All microcosms were initially inoculated to ~40% soil moisture on day 0, and then  
333 dried to 20% soil moisture (except in the experiments manipulating soil moisture where  
334 the soil was dried according to the treatment-level soil moisture). Generally, we counted  
335 the number of transformants, and the population size every 5 days, and then added  
336 more eDNA to simulate periodic inputs of eARGs (only one eDNA input in Fig. 4). After  
337 eDNA additions, soils were gradually dried back to 20% soil moisture.

338 **Bacterial cultures and extracellular antibiotic resistance genes (eARG)**

339 Soil microcosms were inoculated with *Pseudomonas stutzeri*, strain 28a24 (51).  
340 Prior to inoculation, the bacterial cultures were grown at 30°C on an orbital shaker at  
341 120 rpm for 24hr in liquid LB media to a concentration of  $10^6$  CFU/mL. Stocks of  
342 antibiotic resistant extracellular DNA contained antibiotic resistance genes (eARGs) and

343 were made from a mutant *P. stutzeri* strain (see strain DAB390 Dougherty et al.  
344 2014) encoding a gentamicin resistance gene and a LacZ gene (Tn7 transposition of  
345 pUC18-mini-Tn7T-Gm-lacZ into strain 28a24, see Choi and Schweizer 2006). eDNA  
346 was also made from the wildtype *P. stutzeri* to act as a negative control. The gentamicin  
347 resistant *P. stutzeri* cells were genetically identical to the wildtype *P. stutzeri* cells,  
348 except for the presence of the antibiotic resistance gene. The batch cultures for  
349 eDNA/eARG stocks were prepared under the same conditions specified above but were  
350 grown for 48hr and then resuspended in sterile nanopure water. The cells for eDNA  
351 stocks were then killed via heat shock (90°C for 1hr) and confirmed dead by plating.  
352 Before every assay, 100ul of stock eDNA was plated 3x to ensure the absence of live  
353 gentamicin resistant cells. We used eARGs released from dead *P. stutzeri* cells to  
354 better represent environmental eDNA, as purified genomic DNA is not found in soil. The  
355 final concentrations of eDNA ranged from 25-50 ng/µl and were appropriately diluted for  
356 each experiment (determined using Qubit fluorometric quantification and Invitrogen  
357 Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay Kit). *P. stutzeri*'s transformation efficiency plateaus  
358 at ~5ng/µl eDNA in assays conducted on agar petri dishes (Fig. S6).

359 **Counting transformants and total cells**

360 To determine the number of transformants in each soil microcosm, we weighed  
361 out 0.2g of soil from each microcosm or eDNA pool and placed it into a 1.5mL  
362 centrifuge tube. To each tube, we added 180µl of liquid LB and vortexed for 10 seconds  
363 (~10<sup>-1</sup> dilution). After allowing the soil to settle for 10 minutes, we transferred the  
364 supernatant to a 96-well plate and diluted out to 10<sup>-6</sup> or 10<sup>-9</sup> depending on the  
365 experiment and the expected number of cells. In the experiments that manipulated

366 eDNA concentration and soil moisture, we plated 50 $\mu$ l cell suspensions. For the  
367 remaining experiments we plated 10 $\mu$ l dots. All plating was done on petri dishes with  
368 solid LB (to count the total population size) or solid LB + gentamicin (50  $\mu$ g/ml) + Xgal  
369 (20  $\mu$ g/ml) (to count transformants in soil). Plates were incubated at 30°C and the  
370 number of colonies counted after 48-72hr. The number of cells is reported g<sup>-1</sup> soil,  
371 except in Fig. 4 where it is reported per eARG pool (0.2g soil) and calculated according  
372 to the following equation: Cells per unit = Cells  $\mu$ l<sup>-1</sup> x [Soil slurry volume (200 $\mu$ l) / Soil  
373 Mass in slurry (g)].

374 **Manipulation of eARG concentration in soil microcosms**

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

383 **Manipulation of soil moisture in soil microcosms**

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

389 report the number of transformants present on day 10, using 8 replicate microcosms per  
390 treatment. To understand if the physical structure of the soil was important for  
391 transformation, we manipulated the physical structure of the soil by mixing the soil every  
392 2hr, 8hr or never, throughout a 48hr period (Fig. 3B). Each treatment consisted of 4  
393 replicates and the eDNA concentration was maintained at  $5 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  soil, with the soil  
394 moisture remaining constant at 10%. Individual microcosms were gently mixed for  
395 approximately 30 seconds using a sterile spatula at the designated intervals.

396 **Manipulation of eARG introduction site in soil microcosms**

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

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

419 **Antibiotic selective pressure in assays outside of soil**

420 Outside of soil, we tested how an equal concentration of 'eARGs' and 'live  
421 antibiotic resistant cells' establish in populations of *P. stutzeri* challenged with a low  
422 dose of antibiotic (Fig. 5). Initially, we established two equal populations of *P. stutzeri*  
423 cells carrying kanamycin resistance (Kan<sub>R</sub>) (see strain DAB386 Dougherty et al. 2014).  
424 To one of the two populations, we added 60,000 'live' gentamicin resistant *P. stutzeri*  
425 cells (Gent<sub>R</sub>). To the other population, we added 60,000 'dead Gent<sub>R</sub>' cells which  
426 provided a source of eARGs. Therefore, on day 0 of the experiment, the two treatments  
427 contained either 4% Gent<sub>R</sub> and 96% Kan<sub>R</sub> cells, or 0% Gent<sub>R</sub> and 100% Kan<sub>R</sub> cells,  
428 respectively. We used kanamycin resistant cells for the founding population instead of  
429 the antibiotic susceptible strain *P. stutzeri* 28a24 (used in previous experiments), so that  
430 we could track the evolution of multi-drug resistance, which we found was quite rare and  
431 only occurred at 25% the lethal dose of gentamicin (Fig. S7). Populations were founded  
432 in 1mL of LB media, and the experiment ran for 10 days, with each population receiving  
433 1 mL of fresh LB media every 24hr. Each day we counted the number of Gent<sub>R</sub>  
434 genotypes and the total number of cells using serial dilution and selective plating. Data

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

440 **Statistical analyses**

441 Prior to analyses all data were verified to meet assumptions of normality and  
442 homogeneity of variance. Data shown in Fig. 3A and Fig. 4 did not conform to  
443 assumptions of homogeneity of variance and were log transformed. The results from the  
444 soil microcosm studies were analyzed by either one-way or two-way ANOVA followed  
445 by Tukey's post hoc with test variable (i.e. soil manipulation and sampling day) as a  
446 fixed effect using the R *stats* package (R core team 2018). Experiments with multiple  
447 sampling days were analyzed by two-way ANOVA, except in certain instances, when  
448 the test variables were analyzed individually on the final sampling day (e.g. Fig. 3A).  
449 Results from the soil microcosm experiment in (Fig 4) were analyzed by two-way  
450 ANOVA with the 'distance to eARGs' and 'soil moisture' as fixed effects. When  
451 significant, interactions between test variables were included in the model. The  
452 frequency of antibiotic resistant bacteria present in each laboratory population at the  
453 end of the experiment were compared using two-way ANOVA with the treatment (Live  
454 vs Dead cells) and selection regime (10 or 25% lethal dose gentamicin) as fixed effects  
455 (Fig. 5). Differences between all test variable groups were considered significant at  $\alpha \leq$   
456 0.05. Raw data is on the open science framework data repository (<https://osf.io/7jp3b/>).

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

469 **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.

663 **FIG 3** The relationship between soil moisture and the number of antibiotic resistant *P.*  
664 *stutzeri* cells. (A) The number of antibiotic resistant bacteria (transformants) in soil  
665 incubated at 5%, 10%, 20%, 30% or 40% soil moisture over a 10-day experiment. Bars  
666 represent the average number of  $\log_{10}$ (antibiotic resistant bacteria per gram soil) and  
667 error bars show the standard error of the mean (n=8 replicates). The different letters  
668 indicate significant differences based on Tukey's post hoc test. (B) The relationship  
669 between the frequency of soil homogenization and transformation frequency  
670 (transformants/total cells) at 10% soil moisture. Homogenization was conducted every  
671 2hr, 8hr or never over a 48hr window. Closed points represent treatment averages and  
672 open points represent individual replicates. Error bars show the standard error of the  
673 mean (n=4 replicates).

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**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<sub>R</sub>) over 10 days in *P. stutzeri* populations provided live or dead gentamicin resistant cells. 'Living Cells' treatments started at 4% Gent<sub>R</sub> and 'Dead Cells' treatments started at 0% Gent<sub>R</sub> but were provided eARGs encoding Gent<sub>R</sub>. *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

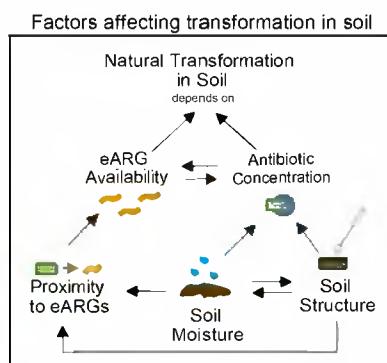


Figure 2

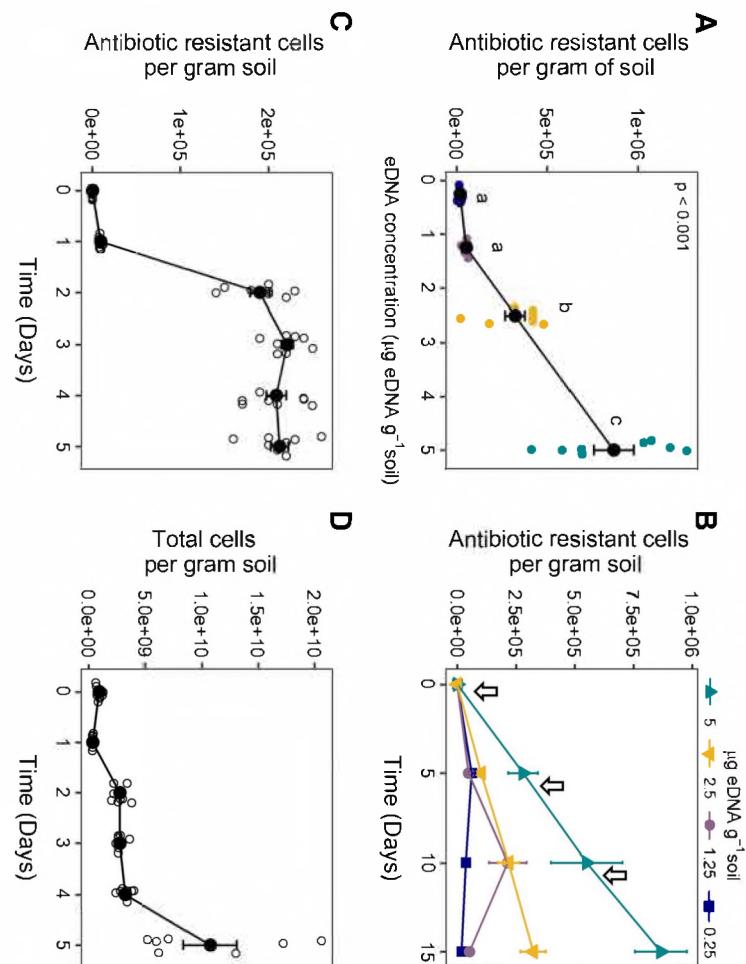


Figure 3

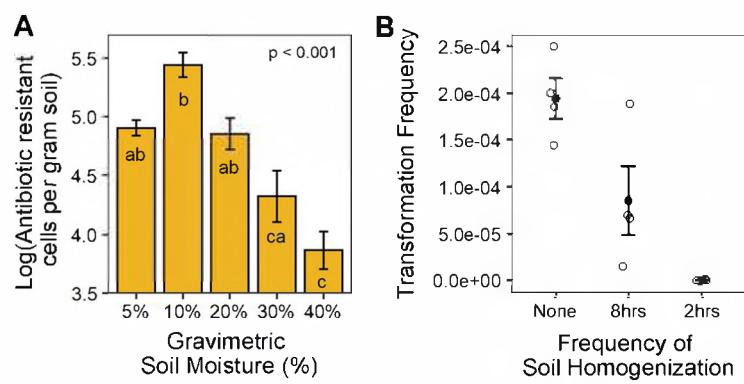


Figure 4

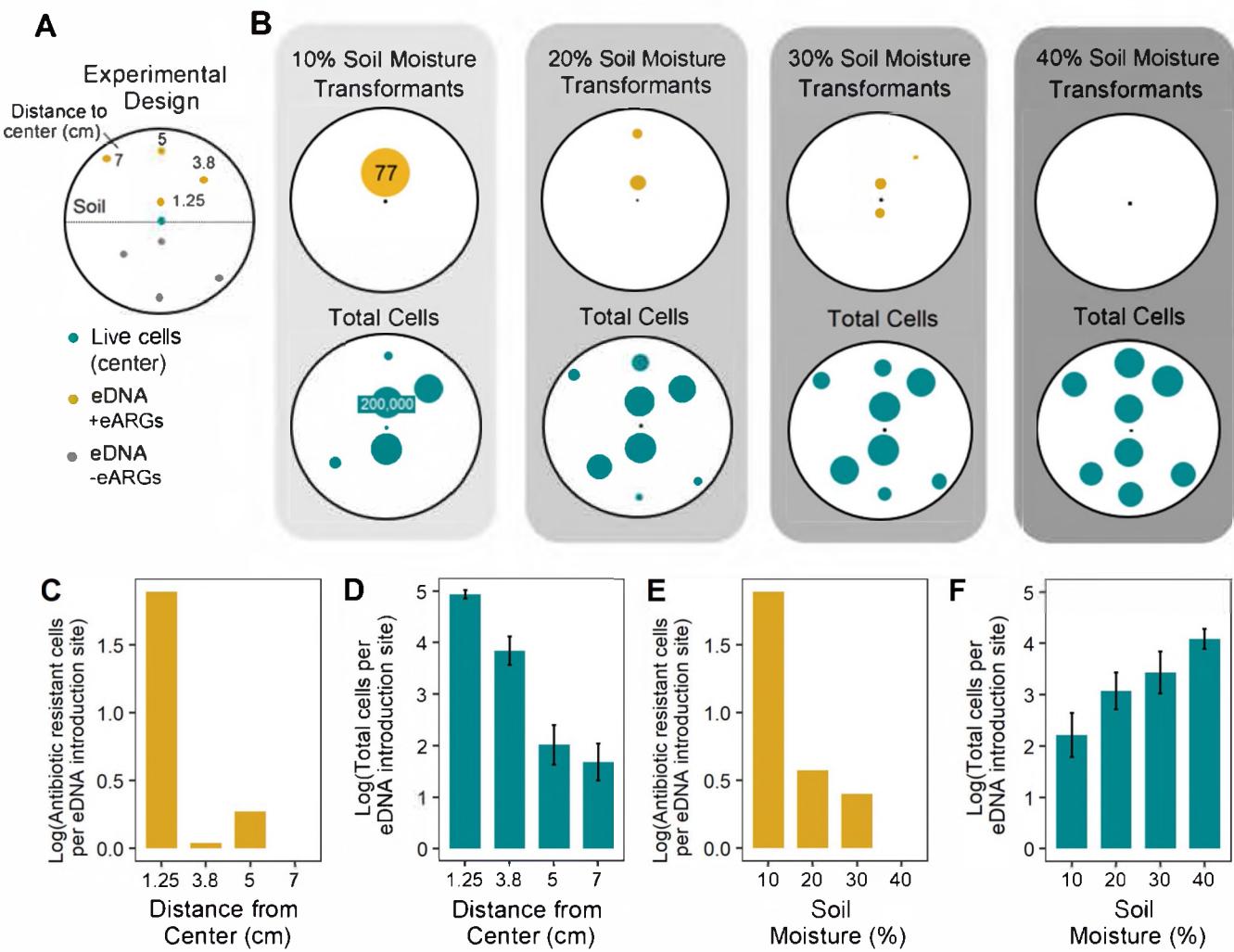


Figure 5

