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2 **Short Research Article**
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8 **Occurrence and distribution of antibiotic resistant bacterial genes in**
9 **agricultural lands of Japan, Indonesia and Philippines**
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22 **Abstract**
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24 **Aim:** The spread of Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria (ARB) world-wide leads to difficult and
25 prolonged treatment of diseases and causes significant damage to human health and the
26 environment. In this study, the distribution of resistance genes was investigated in terms of
27 country, plant species, and with/without manure.

28 **Methodology:** Fifty-five soil DNA libraries from Japan, the Philippines and Indonesia were
29 amplified by PCR and electrophoresis was used to detect target bands of antibiotic resistance
30 genes, which included three types of sulfonamide resistance, *Sul1*, *Sul2*, and *Sul3*; eight types of
31 tetracycline resistance, *TetM*, *TetO*, *TetS*, *TetW*, *TetC*, *TetA*, *TetB*, and *TetL*; *blaTEM* for beta-
32 lactam resistance; *ermB* for macrolide resistance; and *qnrA* for quinolone resistance, *int11* as
33 integrons.

34 **Results:** The most characteristic results were obtained for plant species, and the difference

35 between orchards and fields was found to affect the resistance genes. The distribution of genes
36 was bimodal between Japan, which belongs to the temperate zone, and the Philippines and
37 Indonesia, which belong to the tropical zone, and the differences in drug resistance genes were
38 found to be due to differences in biome. The detection rate increased in soils with and without
39 manure, but there were no significant differences in resistance genes other than *ermB*.

40

41 **Keywords:** Animal manure, Antibiotics, Country, Drug, Resistant bacteria

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47 **Introduction**

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49 Antibiotics are introduced to farm animals along with their food to treat or prevent the
50 development of diseases. Drug-resistant bacteria, that are resistant to the antibiotics action,
51 survive and multiply in the cattle. The proliferating drug-resistant bacteria migrate to the cattle
52 manure and remain in the compost. The compost is used on farmland, and the drug-resistant
53 bacteria also spread through it. Antibiotic-Resistant Genes are also leached into the soil around
54 cattle farms, where they are spread into the environment by the movement of people and wildlife,
55 by wind with soil particles, and by runoff as wastewater and groundwater [1, 2].

56 Human agricultural practices have a significant impact on soil ecosystems, and tillage is
57 one of the most effective ways to significantly change the ecological environment [3]. Therefore,
58 the soil ecosystem is most stable in nature, without human intervention, while the least stable is
59 in fields where annual plants are replanted every year, the soil is plowed, and compost is applied.
60 In contrast, orchards grow fruit trees, which are perennial plants, so although fertilizers and other
61 human interventions are required, the soil is tilled less frequently and the soil ecosystem is
62 considered more stable than in fields [4, 5]. It was assumed that the less stable the soil, the less
63 likely that only certain bacteria will increase, so that drug resistance genes will be less likely to
64 remain.

65 In recent years, as the worldwide population has increased, the number of resources
66 consumed by humans has increased to the equivalent of 2.8 Earths, according to a 2014 study [6]
67) the goal is to create a sustainable society [7]. The same is true for agriculture, where resource
68 recycling and production efficiency are desired to meet the increasing population, while one of
69 the problems is the residue of antibiotics and ARGs (antibiotic resistant genes) contained in

70 animal manure in the soil and their leaching into the surrounding environment [1, 8]. An increase
71 in the number of antibiotic resistant pathogenic bacteria due to the spread of drug resistance genes
72 may reduce the options of antibiotics that can be used when infecting livestock and humans [9,
73 10].

74 In China, around 8,000 tons of antibiotics are administered annually as feed additives [11].
75 In the United States, 16,000 tons of antibiotics are administered annually. In the United States,
76 16,000 tons of antibiotics are used annually, and it is estimated that 70% of these are for
77 prevention and growth promotion rather than for disease treatment [12]. Prolonged exposure to
78 the selection pressure of antibiotics causes bacteria in animals to acquire drug resistance genes.

79 Livestock manure is used as compost to improve soil fertility on farmland, but livestock
80 manure contains drug- and antibiotic-resistant bacteria that have acquired drug resistance in their
81 bodies and spread to farmland. Widespread antibiotics exert selective pressure on the bacterial
82 community in agricultural land, and drug-resistant genes can be transmitted horizontally to
83 indigenous bacteria, thus promoting the establishment of more antibiotic-resistant genes [13].

84 Vegetables grown in soils with high concentrations of ARGs due to fertilizers may mediate
85 the transfer of resistance genes from soil to humans and threaten human health [14–16]. In
86 addition, compost has been shown to contain large amounts of bacteria harboring antibiotic
87 resistance genes and mobile genetic factors such as plasmids, transposons and integrons [17].

88 Reviewing the use of animal manure is an unavoidable task to prevent the spread of
89 antibiotic resistance genes. Drug Resistance genes exist in the form of resistant bacteria, which
90 originally exist as a natural ecosystem, but are thought to be influenced by various human
91 agricultural systems, such as fertilization, irrigation, and tillage [3, 18]. Among these, manure
92 application is thought to be particularly likely to affect drug resistance genes in soil because it
93 mediates the movement of antibiotic-resistant bacteria and contains high concentrations of
94 antibiotics in addition to carbon, which is used for bacterial growth. In fact, sulfonamide resistance
95 genes increased in Korean paddy fields soils after prolonged manure application [19]. Differences
96 in water quality, physicochemical properties, and bacterial composition had different outcomes
97 and impacts in rice soils and terrestrial soils [20, 21]. There were no studies that reported the effect
98 of cultivation on drug resistance genes. It is possible that drug resistance genes are affected by the
99 frequency of tillage in fields and rice fields where annual plants are grown and in orchards where
100 perennial plants are grown.

101 This survey mainly investigated the distribution of resistance genes per country and plant
102 at the moment, in order to combat the spread of antibiotic resistance genes from animal manure
103 into the environment. Following this, the background and objectives are described, as well as the
104 materials and methods used for data analysis, the methodology, and the results.

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107 **2. Materials & Methods**

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109 **2.1 Sample Collecting and DNA Library**

110 PCR was performed on soil DNA libraries from each site and plant to amplify the drug
111 resistance target genes. Then, electrophoresis is used to identify the target band of DNA amplified
112 by PCR and to identify the presence or absence of the drug resistance target gene in the sample.

113 The next step in the methodology is to consider the antibiotic resistance genes used in the
114 experiment. Three Sulfonamide resistance genes, eight tetracycline resistance genes and one
115 resistance gene for each beta-lactam, macrolide, quinolone and integron were investigated.

116 Samples of DNA were selected from seven regions - Tohoku, Kanto, Chubu, Kansai,
117 Chugoku-Shikoku, Kyushu, and Okinawa - so that each contained at least one species of fruit tree,
118 grain, rice, and vegetable plant. DNA libraries from the Philippines and Indonesia are considered.
119 Four banana samples were used as fruit trees and four soybean samples as cereals. The samples
120 from Indonesia are from a University of Tadulako farm in Poso, Sulawesi. Eight cocoa samples
121 were used as fruit trees.

122 A total of 55 samples were used in the experiment: 11 samples from Japanese orchards,
123 28 samples from Japanese fields and paddy fields, 4 samples from Philippine orchards, 4 samples
124 from Philippine fields, and 8 samples from Indonesian orchards. Each sample was also checked
125 for the use of animal manure.

126 The soil DNA libraries used were those that had been cryopreserved after extraction. Japan
127 was selected to include at least one fruit tree, one field grain, paddy rice, and plant species from
128 Tohoku, Kanto, Chubu, Kinki, Chugoku/Shikoku, Kyushu, and Okinawa, respectively. In the
129 Philippines, four types of cereal (soybean) and four types of fruit trees (banana) from the
130 University of the Philippines Los Baños field were used. In Indonesia, eight species of fruit trees
131 (cocoa) from the University of Tadulako field near Poso, Sulawesi were used. The use of animal
132 manure in each soil was confirmed by the soil sample donor. The country, plant and manure
133 availability for each soil DNA library are presented in the result part .

134

135 **2.2 PCR analysis and agarose gel electrophoresis**

136 The reaction solution was a 25 $\mu\ell$ mixture containing 1 $\mu\ell$ of genomic DNA, 12.5 $\mu\ell$ of
137 Takara's Emerald Amp MAX PCR Master Mix, 2 $\mu\ell$ of each of the forward and reverse DNA
138 primers, 7.5 $\mu\ell$ of sterile distilled water containing 25 $\mu\ell$ of mix; PCR amplification proceeded

139 with an initial denaturation at 94°C for 4 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for
140 30 s, annealing at 55°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 1 min, and finally extension at 72°C for 7
141 min. The primers for the target genes were the sulfonamide resistance genes (*Sul1*, *Sul2*, *Sul3*)
142 [22], the tetracycline resistance genes (*TetM*, *TetO*, *TetS*, *TetW*, *TetC*, *TetA*, *TetB*, *TetL*) [23, 24],
143 the β -lactam resistance gene (*blaTEM*) [25] macrolide resistance gene (*ermB*) [26] quinolone
144 resistance gene (*qnrA*) [27], and Integron gene (*intl1*), which aids in horizontal gene dissemination
145 [28] A total of 15 primers were used: 7 $\mu\ell$ PCR products were stained with Loading 0.5 $\mu\ell$ and
146 Midori Green 0.5 $\mu\ell$ dye and placed next to a 100 bp λ marker for band size confirmation and
147 subjected to 0.8% Agarose gel electrophoresis was performed. After electrophoresis, the agarose
148 gel was irradiated with UV light and photographed to visually confirm band detection; the
149 presence of the target gene was confirmed and recorded by comparing the detected band size with
150 reference to the λ marker and the photograph of the previously confirmed positive control.

151

152 **2.3 Data Analysis**

153 For each sample, the ranking of country, plant species, and presence/absence of target
154 gene detection was presented using a heat map. To determine the effect of country, plant species,
155 and compound on the presence or absence of target genes, significant differences were calculated
156 for each resistance gene using the Kruskal Wallis test with SPSS ver 2000. To examine the
157 similarity of each sample, Genes software was used to calculate correlations based on the presence
158 or absence of resistance genes, and a principal coordinate analysis was performed [29].

159

160 **Results**

161 The Sulfonamide 1 gene was found in large numbers in fruit trees from Japan and the
162 Philippines. Tetracycline O, C, A and β -lactam were also abundant in Japanese fruit trees. On the
163 other hand, tetracycline B was found in many fields, but rarely in fruit trees. These differences
164 may be influenced by the plants grown. Tetracyclines W and A, circled in green, were rarely
165 found in the Philippines and Indonesia, while macrolides and integron were found in greater
166 numbers than in Japan, suggesting that they may have been influenced by the country.

167 The correlations between the detection of ARGs by plant species, country and compound
168 availability are calculated using the Kruskal Wallis test. By plant, significant differences were
169 identified in seven species. By country, four species had a significant difference of 90% or more.
170 Only the macrolides had a significant difference of 90% or more in the presence or absence of
171 animal manure. Cereals and vegetables, are distributed in a close area, indicating similar trends
172 in drug resistance genes. The fruit trees plotted with green triangles were distributed over a much

173 larger area and showed a different trend than the cereals and vegetables. It can be seen that the
174 Japanese fruit trees show a rather specific trend. The analysis of principal correlations for each
175 sample, classified by country shows that the Philippines and Indonesia were concentrated in close
176 proximity, while Japan was widely dispersed.

177 In general, resistance genes were detected most frequently in fruit trees, with a particular
178 concentration in Japanese fruit trees. Resistance genes were detected in 37% of plots in fruit trees
179 as a whole, compared to 27% in cereals and 29% in vegetables. Looking at resistance genes
180 individually, *Sul1*, *TetO*, *TetC*, *TetA* and *blaTEM* were detected with particular frequency in
181 Japanese fruit trees. In contrast, *TetB* was detected mostly in Japanese cereals and vegetables, and
182 almost none in others. Looking at countries, 33% of the resistance genes were detected in Japan,
183 30% in the Philippines, and 25% in Indonesia. Analyzing the resistance genes individually, *TetW*
184 and *TetA* were detected less frequently in the Philippines and Indonesia, while *ermB* and *int11*
185 were detected more frequently. *TetM* and *TetL* were universally abundant, while *Sul2*, *Sul3* and
186 *qnrA* were generally present, but were detected at low levels.

187 Significant differences were calculated using the Kruskal Wallis test, and those with a
188 significant difference of 90% or more were considered significant. In the plant species, two
189 resistance gene types with 90% or more significant difference were *TetO* and *TetL*, three
190 resistance gene types with 95% or more significant difference were *Sul1*, *TetA* and *ermB*, and two
191 resistance gene types with 99% or more significant difference were *tetB* and *blaTEM*, resulting in
192 seven resistance gene types with significant difference in total. In the country, three genes (*TetA*,
193 *TetB* and *ermB*) and only one gene (*int11*) showed more than 95% and 99% significant differences,
194 respectively, indicating that a total of four resistance genes were significantly different. In the
195 presence/absence of animal manure, only *ermB* showed more than 99% significant difference.

196 The distance between each plant species attribute and country was widely distributed
197 among plant species, with cereals and vegetables being very close, and fruit trees ranging from
198 near until far from the former. By country, the Philippines and Indonesia were concentrated
199 nearby, while Japan was widely dispersed. The fruit tree sample was further compared between
200 Japanese fruit trees and tropical fruit trees from the Philippines and Indonesia combined, with
201 Japanese and tropical fruit trees forming distinct populations.

202

203 Discussion

204 Finally, the plant and country were correlated with many types of resistance genes. Plant
205 species: orchards, which are not cultivated, may be more prone to the growth of antibiotic-
206 resistant bacteria than fields, and resistance genes may be more likely to remain. Regarding the
207 countries, the Philippines and Indonesia are located tropical areas, where the rainfall, temperature

208 ranging, and soil types are different. Additionally, they might use other antibiotics, as
209 compared to those applied in Japan.

210 There is a possibility that the resistance genes have spread to fields where the manure was
211 not added due to human and material traffic in addition that plant species and country showed
212 significant differences in several resistance genes. The reason for the correlation by plant species
213 is the orchards that are not cultivated are more conducive to the growth of soil microorganisms
214 than fields, and drug-resistant bacteria may have grown in the same way, leading to residual
215 antibiotic resistance genes [30]. The reasons for the correlation between the countries may be that
216 there is a gap in the biological community between the temperate zone of Japan and the tropical
217 zone of the Philippines and Indonesia, due to differences in climate and soil properties, and the
218 fact that the type and rate of antibiotics used in each country may be different.

219 The presence or absence of compost did not differ significantly in correlation with the
220 presence or absence of most resistance genes. This may be due to the original presence of
221 antibiotic resistance genes in soils not fertilized with compost, or the spread of resistance genes
222 due to human and material traffic. In the classification of plant species, many ARGs were
223 detected, especially in fruit trees, while cereals and vegetables showed a similar distribution.

224 Cereals and vegetables showed a similar distribution. As a reason for this difference, it
225 was observed that fruit trees are perennial plants, while cereals and vegetables are annual plants.
226 Orchards that grow perennial crops do not use tillage, which is one of the main agricultural
227 practices. Compost may contain residues of antibiotics fed to livestock [31], and their selection
228 pressure would be higher if there was no change in the soil environment due to tillage. In addition,
229 as the soil microbial biomass can be changed in no-till and tillage [32], antibiotic-resistant genes
230 may also increase with the growth of the resistant bacteria. Such phenomena can occur especially
231 in situations where antibiotic selection pressure is applied, which increases the likelihood that
232 they will remain in the soil [1, 33, 34].

233 Regarding the country classification, the Japanese crop had a high variance, while the
234 Philippines and Indonesia had a low variance. As a reason for this difference, it was observed that
235 Japan belongs to the temperate zone, while the Philippines and Indonesia belong to the tropical
236 zone. When forest soils are converted to new agricultural land, organic carbon and organic
237 nitrogen tend to decrease for a certain period of time in temperate soils before it stops decreasing
238 and creates a new equilibrium [35]. In contrast, tropical soils experience rapid reductions in
239 organic carbon and organic nitrogen, as well as physical erosion due to precipitation, and
240 microbial biomass declines rapidly [36, 37]. The fact that more antibiotic-resistant genes were
241 detected in Japanese fruit trees, in particular, compared to tropical fruit trees, may be due to the
242 fact that tropical soils have a lower microbial biomass than Japanese soils, and drug-resistant

243 bacteria may have been less likely to proliferate. However, it is possible that the sample data used
244 in this study was biased because it was collected from one organization in the Philippines and
245 Indonesia, while in Japan the samples were collected nationwide. More detailed and accurate data
246 could be obtained by collecting samples from a wider area, such as farms from different
247 organizations in the Philippines and Indonesia.

248 Regarding the presence or absence of animal manure, more drug resistance genes were
249 detected in the population without animal manure, but significant differences were found only for
250 *ermB*, with no significant differences in other antibiotic resistance genes. There are several
251 previous studies showing that fertilization with animal manure spreads and maintains antibiotic
252 resistance genes in agricultural land [2].

253

254 **Conclusions**

255

- 256 • The presence or absence of antibiotic resistance bacterial genes was detected.
- 257 • The differences of spreading of ARG was mostly related to the plant species, where the soils
258 were collected.
- 259 • Differences of locations were detected too, especially between Japan (Temperate zone) and the
260 Philippines and Indonesia (tropical zone).
- 261 • Such detection increased in soils by the historical utilization of animal manure for the *ermB*.

262

263 **Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)**

264 Option 1:

265 Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models
266 (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during writing or
267 editing of manuscripts.

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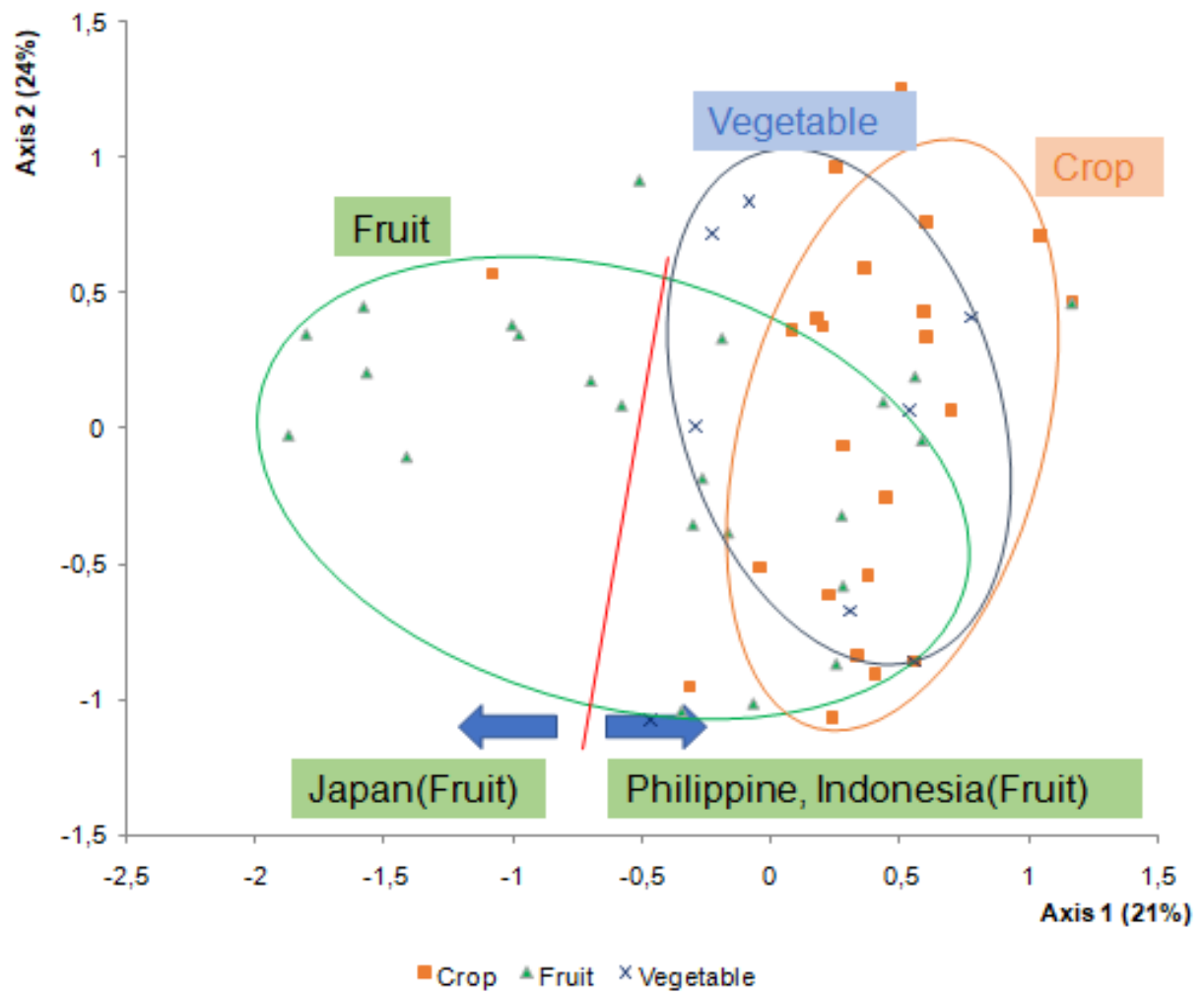
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| Country | Plant | <i>Sul1</i> | <i>Sul2</i> | <i>Sul3</i> | <i>TetM</i> | <i>TetO</i> | <i>TetS</i> | <i>TetW</i> | <i>TetC</i> | <i>TetA</i> | <i>TetB</i> | <i>TetL</i> | <i>blaTEM</i> | <i>ermB</i> | <i>qnrA</i> | <i>int1</i> | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| Japan | Fruit | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| | Crop | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| | Vegetable | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| Philippines | Fruit | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Crop | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Indonesia | Fruit | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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381
 382 Fig. 1 - Distribution of fruit, grain, and vegetable soils and resistance genes in Japan,
 383 the Philippines, and Indonesia.
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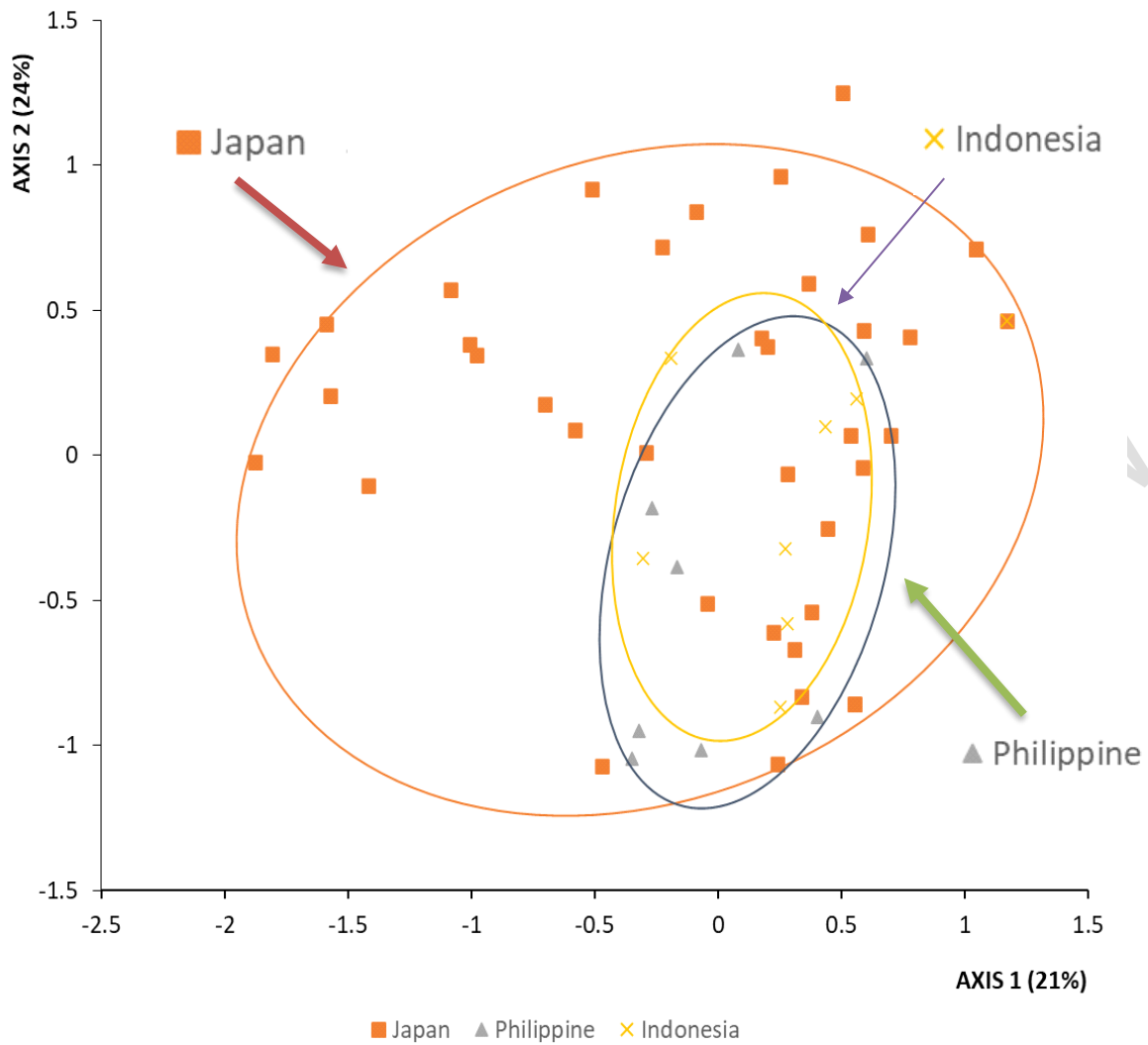
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UNDER PEER REVIEW



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UNDER REVIEW



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397 Fig. 2 Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) to analyse the ARB according to the plant
 398 species (A), country (B).

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400 Table 1. Significant difference between plant, country, and compost fertilization and
 401 detection of resistance genes (Kruskal Wallis Test)

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| | <i>Sul1</i> | <i>Sul2</i> | <i>Sul3</i> | <i>TetM</i> | <i>TetO</i> | <i>TetS</i> | <i>TetW</i> | <i>TetC</i> | <i>TetA</i> | <i>TetB</i> | <i>TetL</i> | <i>blaTEM</i> | <i>ermB</i> | <i>qnrA</i> | <i>intl1</i> |
|-------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Plant | * | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | z | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | * | ** | z | ** | z | n.s. | n.s. |

| | <i>Sul1</i> | <i>Sul2</i> | <i>Sul3</i> | <i>TetM</i> | <i>TetO</i> | <i>TetS</i> | <i>TetW</i> | <i>TetC</i> | <i>TetA</i> | <i>TetB</i> | <i>TetL</i> | <i>blaTEM</i> | <i>ermB</i> | <i>qnrA</i> | <i>intl1</i> |
|---------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Country | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | * | * | n.s. | n.s. | * | n.s. | ** |

| | <i>Sul1</i> | <i>Sul2</i> | <i>Sul3</i> | <i>TetM</i> | <i>TetO</i> | <i>TetS</i> | <i>TetW</i> | <i>TetC</i> | <i>TetA</i> | <i>TetB</i> | <i>TetL</i> | <i>blaTEM</i> | <i>ermB</i> | <i>qnrA</i> | <i>intl1</i> |
|--------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Manure | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | ** | n.s. | n.s. |

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405 (n.s. – Non significant ; z - $p < 0.1$; * - $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$)

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