Swine Growth Promotion with Antibiotics or Alternatives can Increase Antibiotic Resistance Gene Mobility Potential

Johanna Muurinen,[a]# Jacob Richert,[b] Carmen Wickware,[a] Brian Richert, [a] and Timothy A. Johnson[a]#

[a]Department of Animal Sciences, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA

[b]Department of Animal Sciences & Industry, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas, USA

Running Title: Growth Promoters Mobilize Antimicrobial Resistance

#Address correspondence to Johanna Muurinen and Timothy Johnson, johanna.muurinen@onehealth.fi and john2185@purdue.edu, respectively.

Abstract

The use of antimicrobials in animal production has been shown to contribute to the emergence of antimicrobial resistance. Currently, the use alternative growth promoters is increasing and more information is needed on their capability to select for antimicrobial resistance. We investigated the impact of different growth promoters on the pig fecal resistome and microbiome. The growth promoters were carbadox (antibiotic), copper sulfate and zinc oxide (metal) or mushroom powder (natural product). Six pens of seven weanling piglets per treatment were used in a 33-day growth trial. Fecal samples were taken from one median weight female and male pig per pen, samples from the same pen were pooled, and DNA was isolated. Relative antibiotic resistance gene (ARG) and mobile genetic element (MGE) abundances were measured using high-throughput qPCR array with 382 primers and the bacterial community composition was investigated by 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Only modest changes were observed in community structure and resistome in response to growth promoters, but more ARGs were co-occurring with MGEs in growth promoter group samples than in the control group samples. The taxonomic structure could not be linked to resistome structure in the growth promoter groups. In the light of these results, we suggest that increased resistance gene co-occurrence and mobility potential are the primary responses to the dietary additives used in this study to induce growth promotion. Thus, ARG mobility should be taken into account when designing new antimicrobial use policies and antimicrobial resistance surveillances.

Importance

Due to increasing antimicrobial drug resistance of pathogenic bacteria, international health organizations are advising livestock and poultry industries to limit the use of antimicrobials in growth promotion. Together with growing consumer concerns regarding antimicrobial use in animal agriculture, markets are favorable to alternative growth promoters. Since the interest

towards enhancing animal productivity and health through microbiome approaches is also increasing, it is important to study the linkages between the antibiotic resistome and bacterial community structure to avoid enriching ARGs in animal microbiomes. Our study explores the influences of different growth promoters on the bacterial community and resistome compositions and we show that replacing the use of antibiotics with alternative growth promoters is probably an insufficient antibiotic resistance mitigation strategy and that resistance gene mobility might be an underestimated factor in the emergence of antimicrobial resistance in animal agriculture.

Introduction

Antibiotics have been used in pork production to prevent diseases and to increase productivity since the 1940's (1, 2). Due to the established connection of antibiotic use in animals and the emergence of antibiotic resistance in pathogenic bacteria (e.g. 3), in 2017, the use of medically important antibiotics as growth promoters was prohibited in the U.S. (4). Additionally, a report to the Secretary General of the United Nation suggests that antibiotic growth promoters should be completely phased out from livestock production (5). Currently, the livestock industry is adapting to reduced antibiotic use for growth promotion and because consumer concerns towards antibiotic use in animal agriculture are increasing, the markets are favorable to antibiotic alternatives (6, 7).

Despite the increasing restrictions, some antibiotics can still be used for growth promotion of animals, but interest towards antibiotic-alternative growth promoters is increasing rapidly. Among the antibiotics that are still allowed for growth promotion, carbadox is used in pigs mainly to control dysentery and bacterial enteritis. Carbadox can cause short-term but also long-lasting alterations in the microbiome (8) and can promote the mobility of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) through transduction (9). Numerous antibiotic alternatives are currently under study for their efficacy to promote animal growth and gastrointestinal health. Among

natural products, of special interest are medicinal mushrooms. *Cordyceps militaris* and *Ophiocordyceps sinensis* (formerly *C. sinensis*) produce many bioactive compounds, such as Cordycepin and Beta-Glucan, which have antimicrobial effects and can enhance the immune system (10). Zinc (Zn) and copper (Cu) are important trace elements for all organisms and livestock animals commonly receive feed supplements that ensure their required concentration in the feed. Higher concentrations of Zn and Cu can be used for controlling various bacterial infections in livestock animals, such as diarrheal diseases (7) and also for growth promotion (7, 11, 12). However, use of Zn oxide has shown to select zoonotic methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and multiresistant *E. coli* (13–16). Consumption of Cu-supplemented animal feed can increase the prevalence of erythromycin resistance in gram-positive bacteria (17) and various plasmid-mediated resistance genes in microbiomes (16, 18). Thus, it seems that alternative growth promoters may also select ARGs similarly as the antibiotics they are meant to replace.

Several studies have found that metals and growth promotion antimicrobials can enrich ARGs and promote horizontal gene transfer, but the capability of natural products to select resistance and increase resistance gene mobility is currently understudied. It has also shown that the taxonomic composition may explain resistance composition (19, 20). Since growth promoters alter the gut microbial community composition, it has been proposed that the microbiota composition could be manipulated to promote animal growth by inducing populations favorable to animal growth, immunity, and gut health (21). Therefore, it would be important to determine if the populations linked to induced animal growth carry resistance genes and mobile genetic elements (MGEs). However, making connections between taxonomic data and resistance gene data can be challenging, since microbiome datasets are compositional and rarely meet assumptions of normality that many statistical tests require (22, 23). In addition, it has been

pointed out that different normalization strategies could influence the results derived from sequence data (24, 25).

In order to examine the influence of carbadox, cordyceps mushroom powder and pharmacological concentrations of Zn and Cu on the community composition and resistome (26), we took fecal samples from pigs that were administered these growth promoters, extracted DNA, analyzed 16S rRNA gene sequences and quantified genes related to resistance and gene transfer with 382 primer pairs using high-throughput qPCR array (27, 28). We also compared two 16S rRNA gene sequence normalization strategies using statistical analyses that are suitable for compositional data. Our results suggest that inclusion of ARGs into MGEs led to uncoupling of bacterial community composition and resistome composition in response to growth promotion, highlighting the importance of MGEs in shaping the resistomes under the influence of antimicrobial agents.

Results

Samples and data quality control

Samples were collected from pigs that had been assigned into non-treatment control group (NTC = no antibiotic or alternative growth promoters), or one of the growth promoter groups (AB = carbadox, M = mushroom powder mixture of *C. militaris* and *O. sinesis*, ZnCu = Zn oxide and Cu sulfate). Each treatment group consisted of six pens and each pen had seven pigs. The DNA for 16S rRNA gene sequencing was extracted from combined fecal samples of one medium weight female and male per pen. After quality filtering, a total of 741,785 sequences were obtained. For 22 samples sequences per sample ranged from 11,392 to 67,072. Two samples were discarded due to low number of sequences, resulting in five samples in the NTC and AB groups. The data analysis for 16S rRNA gene sequencing was completed using two different methods: rarefication and subsampling or total sum scaling (TSS). The TSS normalized

16S rRNA gene sequence data had 132 observed taxonomical units (OTUs), while rarefied and subsampled 16S rRNA gene sequence data 127 OTUs. The same DNA samples were used for qPCR array analysis to examine how the treatments altered the resistome. One hundred and thirty-six assays out of 382 assays (Table S1) targeting antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) or mobile genetic elements (MGEs) were positive. See materials and methods for qPCR data processing and Ct value adjustment for four assays that had unspecific amplification.

The profiles of most abundant genera and genes were similar in different treatment groups

To take into account the influence of normalization of 16S rRNA gene sequence reads on the results, we used two different normalization methods. Only small differences were discovered between TSS normalized and rarefied and subsampled OTUs among the most abundant genera (Fig. 1A and B). The TSS normalized OTUs and rarefied and subsampled OTUs correlated significantly ($\rho = 0.97$, $p < 0.05$) (Fig. S1), indicating the agreement of the overall community composition of the two normalization methods. *Prevotella* was the most abundant genera in all treatments and all samples had several short chain fatty acid producers (Fig. 1A and B). Very few OTUs were found only in one treatment group with both normalization methods and a majority of the OTUs were found in all treatment groups, however more OTUs were found in all treatment groups using TSS normalization than rarefied and subsampled normalization (Fig. 1D and E).

The different treatment groups also had similar resistome profiles (Fig. 1C). The NTC group had the highest number of positive assays (110), the AB group had 106 positive assays, The M group had 100 positive assays and the ZnCu group had 103 positive assays. Twenty-eight genes were detected in only one treatment group, but most genes were found in all treatment groups (Fig. 1F). Out of the positive assays, 108 targeted ARGs and 28 MGEs. Among the detected ARGs, 63 conferred resistance to aminoglycosides, MLSBs or tetracyclines and the

most common resistance mechanism was antibiotic deactivation (Fig. S2A and B). Among MGE positive assays, most targeted insertion sequences (12) or transposases (7) (Fig. S2C).

Growth promoters favored different genera, ARGs and MGEs

Generalized linear models (GLMs) were used for testing which genera, ARGs and MGEs differed in abundance between treatments. Mostly only minor differences in abundance of different genera were found between treatment groups (Fig. S3A and B). Compared to all other growth promoters, carbadox favored unclassified *Veillonellaceae* in feces and decreased the abundance of *Streptococcus*, whereas Zn and Cu decreased the abundance of *Bifidobacterium* and *Campylobacter* ($p < 0.05$, gamma distribution GLMs [TSS OTUs] and negative binomial GLMs [rarefied and subsampled OTUs]) (Fig. 2A and B, Table S2 and S3). Mushroom powder decreased the abundance of fecal *Roseburia* and favored *Campylobacter* compared to other treatments ($p < 0.05$, gamma distribution GLMs [TSS OTUs] and negative binomial GLMs [rarefied and subsampled OTUs]) (Fig. 2A and B, Table S2 and S3). *Streptococcus* was more abundant in M and ZnCu group samples compared to other groups ($p < 0.05$, gamma distribution GLMs [TSS OTUs] and negative binomial GLMs [rarefied and subsampled OTUs]) (Fig. 2A and B, Table S2 and S3). More ARGs and MGEs were differentially abundant in NTC group and M group comparison than when NTC group was compared to ZnCu or AB groups (Fig. S3C). Compared to all other growth promoters, carbadox and Zn and Cu increased the relative abundance of *vat(E)*, mushroom powder increased the relative abundance of *tetW*, and Zn and Cu favored *tetM* ($p < 0.05$, gamma distribution GLMs) (Fig. 2C, Table S4). Interestingly, carbadox treatment decreased the relative abundance of *tetW*, *tet(32)*, *erm(B)*, *ermT* and *tetM* compared to other treatments or to NTC group ($p < 0.05$, gamma distribution GLMs) (Fig. 2C, Table S4).

Both OTU normalization methods yielded similar results for differential OTU abundance in the treatment groups (Fig. 2A and B). The exceptions were that *Phascolarctobacterium* was

among the differentially abundant genera when TSS normalization was used, whereas *Faecalibacterium* was differentially abundant when rarefying and subsampling was used (Fig. 2A and B) and that more genera were differentially abundant when TSS normalization was used (Table S2 and Table S3).

Growth promoters had modest influences on overall bacterial community composition and resistome

With both TSS normalized OTUs and rarefied and subsampled OTUs, the treatment group explained 24% of the variability in community composition (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.239$, $p < 0.05$). With ARGs and MGEs, the treatment group explained 27% of the variability (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.267$, $p < 0.05$). The number of sequences per sample was also included as a variable in the PERMANOVA model with both normalization methods, but the library size did not have influence on the community variability in our samples ($p > 0.05$).

The different growth promoters altered the community composition and resistome only slightly, since in all non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordinations the samples belonging to different treatment groups clustered close to each other with mostly overlapping centroid confidence intervals (Fig. 3A, B and D). In ordinations of TSS normalized and rarefied and subsampled OTU-tables, the ZnCu group tended to cluster further away from the other samples indicating more dissimilar community composition (Fig. 3A and B), however there were no significant differences between treatment groups among pairwise PERMANOVA comparisons. In the ordination of the ARG and MGE data, there was no separation between ZnCu group and the other groups, instead the M group clustered slightly separately (Fig. 2D) and in the pairwise comparisons using the ARG and MGE data, M vs. AB group explained 32% of the variance (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.321$, $p < 0.05$), but in all the other pairwise comparisons the differences were nonsignificant ($p > 0.05$)

Taxonomic variation did not explain resistome variation in growth promoter group samples

The OTU ordinations were correlated against each other and against the ARG and MGE NMDS ordination using Procrustes analysis to determine if the taxonomic variation explains resistome variation. The two OTU NMDS ordinations had reasonably high (0.7) and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation and the Procrustes residual error remained lower than 0.25 in all samples except one (Fig. 3C). The correlation between the rarefied and subsampled OTU ordination (which did not include all the data due to subsampling) and the ARG and MGE ordination was moderately high (0.6, $p < 0.05$) and there was no pattern in Procrustes residual errors across different samples (Fig. 3F). Contrariwise, the correlation between the TSS normalized OTU ordination (that included all quality filtered data) and the ARG and MGE ordination was nonsignificant ($p > 0.05$) and Procrustes residual errors were high in most samples not belonging to NTC group, in which the residual errors were mostly equal or less than the first quantile residual value (Fig. 3E). The Procrustes analyses performed on TSS normalized OTUs and resistome implies that taxonomic variation explained resistance variation in NTC samples with less error. However, growth promoters altered the resistome, resulting higher residual errors in samples belonging to AB, M and ZnCu groups and thus the overall correlation between TSS normalized OTU ordination and ARG and MGE ordination was not significant (Procrustes analysis, $p > 0.05$).

The links between bacterial community structure and resistome were further examined with Mantel's test using Spearman's rank correlation. The correlation coefficients between the TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs and MGEs distance matrices as well as the rarefied and subsampled OTUs and ARGs and MGEs distance matrices were low ($\rho = 0.25$ and $\rho = 0.23$, respectively, $p < 0.05$), which suggests that the phylogenetic composition did not govern the resistome composition when all samples were included in the analysis. We also used Mantel's

test for all treatment groups individually. With the NTC group and both OTU normalization methods, the bacterial community distance matrix correlated significantly with the distance matrix obtained from ARGs and MGEs (ρ = 0.66 [TSS OTUs] and ρ = 0.62 [rarefied and subsampled OTUs], $p < 0.05$). With all growth promoter groups and both OTU normalization methods, the correlations between OTU and ARG and MGE distance matrixes were nonsignificant, giving more evidence that the growth promoters shaped the resistance composition and thus taxonomic variation did not explain the resistance variation in the growth promoter group samples. It should be denoted that we had only five or six samples in each treatment group;, however, the results were consistent, since the correlations between taxonomic structure and resistome were reasonably high and significant in NTC group and nonsignificant in all other groups.

Growth promoters increased the co-occurrences of ARGs and MGEs

A correlation matrix between ARG and MGE relative abundances was visualized using network analysis to examine if the growth promoters selected resistance genes into mobile genetic elements. The network of NTC group was simpler compared to growth promoter group networks as the number of correlating ARGs and MGEs increased in response to growth promotion (Fig. 4). There were no integrons co-occurring with resistance genes in the NTC group network, but integrons were present in all the growth promoter group networks (Fig. 4) and co-occurred with many ARGs. AB and M group networks had more aminoglycoside resistance genes than other networks and M group also had the most multidrug resistance genes, but the least tetracycline resistance genes, whereas AB group network had the most vancomycin resistance genes (Fig. 4).

Transposase gene for insertion sequence-like element IS1216 was the best predictor for resistance and community composition

We used machine-learning approaches to identify drivers of changes in community composition. First, a cluster analysis was performed on a combined data table of TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs and MGEs using *t*-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) algorithm (29) and HDBSCAN algorithm (30). Then, a classification random forests model (31, 32) was used for identifying the predictors for the clustering pattern. Three clusters were identified after dimension reduction. Most of the samples belonged to cluster 2, while cluster 1 had two ZnCu samples, one M group sample and one AB group sample, and cluster 3 contained only three ZnCu samples (Fig. 5A). According to the partial dependence plot that shows the most important predictors found by the classification random forests model, clusters 1 and 3 were separated from cluster 2 due to higher abundance of transposase gene linked to IS1216 element and from each other because the abundance of *tetO* was lower in cluster 3 (Fig. 5B). Five of the nine best predictors for clustering pattern were MGEs and ARGs and four were bacterial genera (Fig. 5B). Interestingly, only one of the ZnCu group samples belonged to cluster 2, while all the other ZnCu samples clustered to clusters 1 and 3. Thus, growth promotion with Zn and Cu might cause more alterations in the community composition and resistome than the other growth promoters examined in this study.

Discussion

Our study explores the influences of antibiotic and alternative growth promoters on the pig fecal resistome, ARG mobility, and bacterial community composition. The abundances of nearly all ARGs and MGEs were on similar level in the non-treatment control group and the growth promoter groups, which indicates that it is unlikely that changing the substance that is used for growth promotion would reduce antimicrobial resistance in the pig fecal microbiome, at

least in a short period of time (33 days in this study). Gut bacteria, especially gram-negative species, are known to carry many ARGs and MGEs and the gastro-intestinal tract is suspected to be a major hotspot for horizontal gene transfer (33, 34). These observations have also been made with individuals without antibiotic exposure (35, 36).

Interestingly, many ARGs were less abundant in the AB group than in the NTC group and alternative growth promotion groups. A potential explanation for this could be that carbadox is a broad acting antibiotic and suppresses most bacterial populations (8). Overall, we did not observe large shifts among genera as a result of growth promotion feed additives. *Bifidobacteria*, which have been previously linked to lower antibiotic resistance level (37, 38), were somewhat more abundant in the NTC and M group samples; however, in this study the ARG abundances in samples belonging to different groups were similar. It is possible that the shifts in the community composition caused by growth promoters were small with high variability and thus the changes in the community structure are difficult to capture with community-wide molecular approaches.

We were able to link the resistome structure to taxonomic structure only in the NTC group samples and not in growth promotion group samples. Some have reported that community composition predicts resistance profile (19, 20, 39), while others have reported that under the presence of a selective pressure, phylogeny and resistance profile become uncoupled (40). Our network analysis revealed that the growth promoters in this study increased linkages between ARGs and MGEs. More ARGs correlated with MGEs in the resistome of growth promoter group pigs than in the resistome of NTC group pigs. Besides the increased frequency of ARG-MGE co-occurrences in the pig gut microbiome, another possible scenario is that bacteria carrying MGEs with multiple ARGs and other embedded features would have tolerated the growth promoters better than bacteria carrying MGEs with only few ARGs, possibly due to more variability in stress response mechanisms (16, 41). Despite the mechanism, more ARGs co-occurring with

MGEs in response to growth promotion could indicate more persistent resistance gene collection (42) and potential for ARGs to be mobilized by the MGEs in future.

Taken alone, the rarefied and subsampled OTU data and TSS normalized OTU data mostly agreed; however, in Procrustes analysis, the rarefied and subsampled OTU data correlated significantly with the resistome data when all samples were used, although the same analysis using the TSS normalized data as input showed that the taxonomic data did not explain resistance. It is important to acknowledge that rarefying and subsampling captures the most abundant OTUs for each sample (25) and discards rare OTUs, as well as slightly adjusting OTU relative abundances in different samples. If the sample size and differences in OTU abundances are small before the procedure, the shifts might change the outcome if rarefied OTU data is used in comparison with data obtained using a different method. Thus, researchers making connections between taxonomic data and resistome observations should use multiple methods to confirm their findings.

Although the shifts in community composition and resistome were modest and mostly nonsignificant, we observed changes with machine learning methods. The differences we observed did not precisely follow the experimental grouping, and therefore they were not found with commonly used ordination methods or differential abundance analysis. The transposase gene linked to IS1216 element that was the driver for the clustering result has been previously associated to Gram-positive bacteria (40, 43), mainly *Enterococcus faecium* (44). However, *Enterococcus* was not among the most abundat or differentially abundat genera, or among the predictors of the clustering result in random forest analysis. In addition, we found that taxonomic composition did not explain the resistome compostition. Despite the fact that we cannot demonstrate the factors explaining the clustering result, the observation that zinc and copper treatment perhaps altered the microbiome and resistome more than the other treatments would not have been possible without the use of machine learning approach in statistical analyses.

Thus, machine learning is an important tool in determining the complex relationship between resistome and bacterial community compositions.

Conclusions

Under this experimental design, the withdrawal of antibiotics did not decrease antibiotic resistance, however, we did not observe enrichment of ARGs in response to growth promotion either. Instead our results show that growth promoters increased the co-occurrences between ARGs and MGEs and a decoupling between community taxonomic composition and resistance gene composition, which indicates that all tested growth promoters can increase and maintain resistance gene mobility potential. Only modest changes in the community composition and resistome and increased linkages between ARGs and MGEs suggests that determining the abundance of ARGs in antimicrobial resistance surveillance may not be a sufficient approach to establish the impact of agricultural practices on antimicrobial resistance. Therefore, we suggest that resistance gene mobility potential be considered in antimicrobial resistance surveillances.

Materials and methods

Animal experiment statement

All procedures involving animal use were approved by the Purdue University Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol #1303000841), and animal care and use standards were based upon the Guide for the Care and Use of Agricultural Animals in Research and Teaching (45).

Samples and DNA

The pig fecal samples were obtained from growth promoter experiment where 210 weanling pigs ((Duroc × (York × Landrace)) avg. 19 d of age and 5.8 kg were used in a 33-day trial. The experiment had 7 pigs in each pen and 6 pens per each treatment. Feed amendment treatments were: 1) non-treatment control (NTC); 2) antibiotic growth promoter (carbadox, 55

ppm) (AB); 3) mushroom powder (mixture of *C. militaris* and *O. sinesis*, 300 ppm) (M); 4) carbadox and mushroom powder mixture (results are not included in this study); 5) copper sulfate (125 ppm) and zinc oxide (3000 ppm d 0-7, 2000 ppm d 7-35) (ZnCu). After 33 days, fecal samples were taken from 1 median weight female and male per pen. Samples from the same pen were pooled, and DNA was extracted using the DNeasyPowerLyzer PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Extracted DNA was stored at −20 °C before 16S sequencing and qPCR array.

16S sequencing and quantitative PCR array

The 16S rRNA gene library was constructed as described (46). Briefly, the V4 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was amplified with the 515R (GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA) / 806R (GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT) primers. 16S rRNA gene libraries were also prepared for a known mock community (20 Strain Even Mix Genomic Material; ATCC® MSA–1002TM) and a no-template control (water). The amplified DNA from one 96-well plate was normalized using a SequalPrep Normalization Plate (Invitrogen), and pooled into a single library. Library concentrations were determined using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit (Roche) and the average fragment length was determined using a high sensitivity kit with the Bioanalyzer (Agilent). The pooled samples, mock community, and water were sequenced with Illumina MiSeq v2 (500 cycles). Sequences were demultiplexed using oligonucleotide bar code sequences and Illumina software.

Quantitative PCR reactions and raw data processing were conducted using WaferGen SmartChip Real-time PCR system as reported (47). The qPCR array reactions were performed using 384 previously described and validated primer sets (assays) (Table S1) (28). One sample from M group (2_M) was not included in the qPCR array analysis due to technical error. Samples from pigs that received both mushroom powder and carbadox were also excluded and therefore the results from 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing are not presented in this study.

16S sequence analysis and qPCR array data processing

The 16S rRNA amplicon sequences were analyzed using mothur (v 1.39.3) (45): contigs were made from paired forward and reverse raw reads, aligned to reference sequences (SILVA database release 132) (48), screened and filtered to remove low quality reads (ambiguous bases allowed = 0, maximum read length = 275, homopolymers allowed = 8), classified with reference to known taxonomic classifications (RDP training set 16) (49) and clustered into OTUs. The sequences clustered into 137 different OTUs at the 3% dissimilarity level. One NTC group sample (11_NTC) and one AB group sample (16_AB) were discarded due to low number of obtained sequences. 16S sequences were normalized using two different methods: total sum scaling (TSS) using R and rarefying and subsampling using mothur. To produce the rarefied and subsampled OTU table, the data were subsampled to 7,500 reads per sample according to rarefication curves (Fig. S4). The rarefied and subsampled OTU table and only quality filtered OTU table (for TSS) were imported into R. After removing the results of samples from animals that received both mushroom powder and carbadox, 132 different OTUs remained in the TSS normalized OTU table and 127 different OTUs in the rarefied and subsampled OTU table. The TSS normalization was carried out in R by dividing each OTU read count by the total number of reads in that sample and all the NA observations (zero sequences) were replaced with 1.490935e-07, which was 100-fold lower than the lowest observed relative abundance.

In the qPCR array, assays “16S old 1_1”, “blaOXY-1_1118”, “cmlV_911”, “czcA_1536”, “fabK_1520”, “intI1F165_clinical_359” and “tetPA_1507” were positive in the negative control, however the Ct-values in the negative control were mostly higher than in experimental samples (Table S5). Assay “tetPA_1507” was detected only in the negative control and the Ct-values of assay “czcA_1536” were removed from the results since they were lower in the negative control than in samples. Assay “16S old 1_1” results were removed and not used in normalization since DNA amplification was more efficient in assay “16S new 2_2”. The Ct-

values of the remaining four assays that were positive in the negative control were adjusted as follows: The Ct values of each of these assays in each sample were subtracted from Ct value of the assay in the negative control. The resulting numbers were then subtracted from 27, which was the Ct value was used as the cutoff between true positive values and primer-dimer amplification. Next, all the Ct values that were higher than 27 were set to "NA". After this, all the assays that were undetected in all the samples were removed, resulting in 136 assays out of 382 targeting to AGRs or MGEs being included in the data table. The ΔCt values, ΔΔCt values and relative gene abundances were calculated from these Ct values as previously described (27). Genes under the detection limit were given a ΔCt value of 20, which was higher than any observed ΔCt (17.4).

Statistical analyses

R version 3.5.1 (2018-07-02) was used for data exploration, visualization and for all statistical analyses. Analysis of differential abundances of taxa and ARGs and MGEs were carried out using gamma distribution GLMs with TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs and MGEs (relative abundances) and negative binomial GLMs with rarefied and subsampled OTUs (abundance). Gamma distribution model was selected because the relative abundance values (TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs and MGEs) did not fit to normal distribution but followed the gamma distribution. Negative binomial models were selected for rarefied and subsampled OTUs because of the overdispersion in the abundance data. With both model types, p-values were obtained with Tukey's post-hoc test and adjusted with False discovery rate control (50) using *glht* function in the multcomp package (51).

The community and resistome compositions were analyzed using vegan package (52). PERMANOVA was used to examine the shifts in community composition and resistome between treatment groups with function *adonis* and 9,999 permutations. Nonmetric multidimensional scalings (NMDS) were completed using the Bray−Curtis dissimilarity index

with function *metaMDS*. Procrustes analysis with the *protest* function was used to examine the agreement of ordinations of TSS normalized OTUs and rarefied and subsampled OTUs as well as ordination of ARGs and MGEs and both OTU ordinations separately. Mantel's test and Spearman's rank correlation was used to analyze the links between microbial community structure and resistome: first, Bray-Curtis dissimilarity indexes were calculated for TSS normalized OTUs, rarefied and subsampled OTUs and for ARGs and MGEs with function *vegdist*. Then the *mantel* function was applied for the dissimilarity indexes of TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs and MGEs as well as rarefied and subsampled OTUs and ARGs and MGEs. Mantel's tests between both OTU dissimilarity matrices and dissimilarity matrix of ARGs and MGEs were also run for all the treatment groups separately.

To examine if the treatments selected resistance genes into mobile genetic elements, a correlation matrix between ARG and MGE relative abundances was visualized using network analysis with Gephi (53). Spearman's rank correlations between ARGs and MGEs within treatment groups and their *p*-values used in network analysis were obtained with package psych (54) using False discovery rate control (50). Only ARG-MGE-pairs that were detected at least in three samples with a strong positive correlation ($\rho > 0.8$, $p < 0.05$) were included.

The factors influencing the shifts in taxonomic structure and resistome were analyzed with machine learning algorithms as previously described (55). First, dimension reduction was executed on a combined data table of TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs and MGEs using t-SNE algorithm (29) and the R package Rtsne (56), with 50,000 iterations and "perplexity" set to 5. Then, clusters in the two-dimensional data were identified using HDBSCAN algorithm (30) in the package dbscan (57). The minimum number of members in clusters ("minPts") was set to 3. Classification random forest model (31) was used with partial dependence plot function in edarf package (58) for identifying the most important predictors for the clustering pattern. The forests were grown to 10,000 trees using the ranger package (59) and the best predictors were screened

using Gini index by adding predictors one at a time in the order of decreasing importance (60). The final model was then selected according to the highest Cohen's Kappa (comparison of observed accuracy and expected accuracy).

Data availability

Raw reads from 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing are deposited under BioProject accession number PRJNA605462 at NCBI. The R code, mothur commands and all datasets used in statistical analyses are available at https://github.com/sjmuurine/ZnCu.

Acknowledgements

We thank Ms. Olivia Consoli for excellent technical assistance in laboratory analysis and Purdue University for internal financial support. Information Technology at Purdue is acknowledged for providing computational resources.

References

1. Economou V, Gousia P. 2015. Agriculture and food animals as a source of antimicrobial-resistant bacteria. Infection and Drug Resistance 8:49–61. doi:10.2147/IDR.S55778

2. Dibner JJ, Richards JD. 2005. Antibiotic growth promoters in agriculture: history and mode of action. Poultry Science 84:634–643. doi: 10.1093/ps/84.4.634

3. Marshall BM, Levy SB. 2011. Food animals and antimicrobials: Impacts on human health. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 24:718–733. doi:10.1128/CMR.00002-11

4. Centner TJ. 2016. Recent government regulations in the United States seek to ensure the effectiveness of antibiotics by limiting their agricultural use. Environ Int 94:1–7. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2016.04.018.

5. Interagency Coordination Group on Antimicrobial Resistance (IACG). 2019. No time to wait: securing the future from drug-resistant infections. https://www.who.int/antimicrobial-

resistance/interagency-coordination-group/IACG_final_report_EN.pdf?ua=1

6. Thacker PA. 2013. Alternatives to antibiotics as growth promoters for use in swine production: a review. J Anim Sci Biotechnol 4:35–35. doi:0.1186/2049-1891-4-35

7. Willing BP, Pepin DM, Marcolla CS, Forgie AJ, Diether NE, Bourrie BCT. 2018. Bacterial resistance to antibiotic alternatives: A wolf in sheep's clothing? Animal Frontiers 8:39–47. doi:10.1093/af/vfy003

8. Looft T, Allen HK, Casey TA, Alt DP, Stanton TB. 2014. Carbadox has both temporary and lasting effects on the swine gut microbiota. Frontiers in Microbiology 5:1–1. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2014.00276

9. Johnson TA, Looft T, Severin AJ, Bayles DO, Nasko DJ, Wommack KE, Howe A, Allen HK. 2017. The in-feed antibiotic carbadox induces phage gene transcription in the swine gut microbiome. mBio 8:1–14. doi:10.1128/mBio.00709-17

10. Richert J, Palencia JY, Thayer MT, Chastain C, Richert B, Nelssen JL. 2018. Effects of cordyceps mushroom powder on nursery pig performance. Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station Research Reports 4. doi:10.4148/2378-5977.7668

11. Di Giancamillo A, Rossi R, Martino PA, Aidos L, Maghin F, Domeneghini C, Corino C. 2018. Copper sulphate forms in piglet diets: microbiota, intestinal morphology and enteric nervous system glial cells. Animal Science Journal 89:616–624. doi:10.1111/asj.12948

12. Jacela JY, DeRouchey JM, Tokach MD, et al. Feed additives for swine: Fact sheets – high dietary levels of copper and zinc for young pigs, and phytase. J Swine Health Prod. 2010;18(2):87–91. http://hdl.handle.net/2097/13585

13. Slifierz MJ, Friendship R, Weese JS. 2015. Zinc oxide therapy increases prevalence and persistence of methicillin-resistant staphylococcus aureus in pigs: a randomized controlled trial. Zoonoses and Public Health 62:301–308. doi:10.1111/zph.12150

14. Bednorz C, Oelgeschläger K, Kinnemann B, Hartmann S, Neumann K, Pieper R, Bethe

A, Semmler T, Tedin K, Schierack P, Wieler LH, Guenther S. 2013. The broader context of antibiotic resistance: zinc feed supplementation of piglets increases the proportion of multi-resistant *Escherichia coli* in vivo. International journal of medical microbiology: IJMM 303:396–403. doi:10.1016/j.ijmm.2013.06.004

15. Ciesinski L, Guenther S, Pieper R, Kalisch M, Bednorz C, Wieler LH. 2018. High dietary zinc feeding promotes persistence of multi-resistant *E. coli* in the swine gut. PLoS ONE 13:1–18. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0191660

16. Poole K. 2017. At the nexus of antibiotics and metals: the impact of Cu and Zn on antibiotic activity and resistance. Trends in Microbiology 25:820–832. doi:10.1016/j.tim.2017.04.010

17. Van Noten N, Gorissen L, De Smet S. 2016. Assistance in the update of the systematic literature review (SLR): "Influence of copper on antibiotic resistance of gut microbiota on pigs (including piglets)." EFSA Supporting publications 13. http://hdl.handle.net/1854/LU-7142409

18. Fang L, Li X, Li L, Li S, Liao X, Sun J, Liu Y. 2016. Co-spread of metal and antibiotic resistance within ST3-IncHI2 plasmids from *E. coli* isolates of food-producing animals. Scientific Reports 6:25312. doi:10.1038/srep25312.

19. Munk P, Knudsen BE, Lukjacenko O, Duarte ASR, Van Gompel L, Luiken REC, Smit LAM, Schmitt H, Garcia AD, Hansen RB, Petersen TN, Bossers A, Ruppé E, Graveland H, van Essen A, Gonzalez-Zorn B, Moyano G, Sanders P, Chauvin C, David J, Battisti A, Caprioli A, Dewulf J, Blaha T, Wadepohl K, Brandt M, Wasyl D, Skarzyńska M, Zajac M, Daskalov H, Saatkamp HW, Stärk KDC, Lund O, Hald T, Pamp SJ, Vigre H, Heederik D, Wagenaar JA, Mevius D, Aarestrup FM. 2018. Abundance and diversity of the faecal resistome in slaughter pigs and broilers in nine European countries. Nature Microbiology 3:898–908. doi:10.1038/s41564-018-0192-9

20. Forsberg KJ, Patel S, Gibson MK, Lauber CL, Knight R, Fierer N, Dantas G. 2014.

Bacterial phylogeny structures soil resistomes across habitats. Nature 509:612–6. doi doi.org/10.1038/nature13377

21. Ward TL, Weber BP, Mendoza KM, Danzeisen JL, Llop K, Lang K, Clayton JB, Grace E, Brannon J, Radovic I, Beauclaire M, Heisel TJ, Knights D, Cardona C, Kogut M, Johnson C, Noll SL, Arsenault R, Reed KM, Johnson TJ. 2019. Antibiotics and host-tailored probiotics similarly modulate effects on the developing avian microbiome, mycobiome, and host gene expression. mBio 10:1–17. doi:10.1128/mBio.02171-19

22. Gloor GB, Macklaim JM, Pawlowsky-Glahn V, Egozcue JJ. 2017. Microbiome datasets are compositional: and this is not optional. Frontiers in Microbiology 8:2224. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2017.02224

23. Zuur AF, Ieno EN, Elphick CS. 2010. A protocol for data exploration to avoid common statistical problems. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 1:3–14. doi:10.1111/j.2041-210X.2009.00001.x

24. McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. 2014. Waste Not, want not: why rarefying microbiome data is inadmissible. PLoS Computational Biology 10. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003531

25. Weiss S, Xu ZZ, Peddada S, Amir A, Bittinger K, Gonzalez A, Lozupone C, Zaneveld JR, Vázquez-Baeza Y, Birmingham A, Hyde ER, Knight R. 2017. Normalization and microbial differential abundance strategies depend upon data characteristics. Microbiome 5:27–27. doi:10.1186/s40168-017-0237-y

26 Wright, G. 2007. The antibiotic resistome: the nexus of chemical and genetic diversity. Nature Reviews Microbiology 5:175–186. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro1614

27. Muurinen J, Karkman A, Virta M. 2017. High throughput method for analyzing antibiotic resistance genes in wastewater treatment plants, p. 253–262. *In* Antimicrobial Resistance in Wastewater Treatment Processes. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. doi:10.1002/9781119192428.ch14

28. Stedtfeld RD, Guo X, Stedtfeld TM, Sheng H, Williams MR, Hauschild K, Gunturu S,

Tift L, Wang F, Howe A, Chai B, Yin D, Cole JR, Tiedje JM, Hashsham SA. 2018. Primer set 2.0 for highly parallel qPCR array targeting antibiotic resistance genes and mobile genetic elements. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 94. doi:10.1093/femsec/fiy130.

29. van der Maaten LJP. 2014. Accelerating t-SNE using tree-based algorithms. Journal of Machine Learning Research 15:3221-3245 http://jmlr.org/papers/v15/vandermaaten14a.html

30. Campello RJGB, Moulavi D, Sander J. 2013. Density-based clustering based on hierarchical density estimates, p. 160–172. *In* Pei, J, Tseng, VS, Cao, L, Motoda, H, Xu, G (eds.), Advances in Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg.doi; 10.1007/978-3-642-37456-2_14

31. Breiman L. 2001. Random forests. Machine Learning 45:5–32. doi: 10.1023/A:1010933404324

32. Liaw A, Wiener M. 2002. Classification and regression by randomForest. R news 2:18–22. https://cran.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2002-3.pdf

33. Davies J, Davies D. 2010. Origins and evolution of antibiotic resistance. Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews 74:417–433. doi:10.1128/MMBR.00016-10

34. Netherwood T, Bowden R, Harrison P, O'Donnell AG, Parker DS, Gilbert HJ. 1999. Gene transfer in the gastrointestinal tract. Applied and environmental microbiology 65:5139–41.

35. Moore AM, Ahmadi S, Patel S, Gibson MK, Wang B, Ndao IM, Deych E, Shannon W, Tarr PI, Warner BB, Dantas G. 2015. Gut resistome development in healthy twin pairs in the first year of life. Microbiome 3:27. doi:10.1186/s40168-015-0090-9.

36. Gibson MK, Wang B, Ahmadi S, Burnham C-AD, Tarr PI, Warner BB, Dantas G. 2016. Developmental dynamics of the preterm infant gut microbiota and antibiotic resistome. Nature Microbiology 1:16024. doi:10.1038/nmicrobiol.2016.24

37. Pärnänen K, Karkman A, Hultman J, Lyra C, Bengtsson-Palme J, Larsson DGJ, Rautava S, Isolauri E, Salminen S, Kumar H, Satokari R, Virta M. 2018. Maternal gut and breast milk

microbiota affect infant gut antibiotic resistome and mobile genetic elements. Nature Communications 9:3891. doi:10.1038/s41467-018-06393-w

38. Taft DH, Liu J, Maldonado-Gomez MX, Akre S, Huda MN, Ahmad SM, Stephensen CB, Mills DA. 2018. Bifidobacterial dominance of the gut in early life and acquisition of antimicrobial resistance. mSphere 3:1–24. doi:10.1128/mSphere.00441-18

39. Su JQ, Wei B, Ou-Yang WY, Huang FY, Zhao Y, Xu HJ, Zhu YG. 2015. Antibiotic resistome and its association with bacterial communities during sewage sludge composting. Environmental Science and Technology 49:7356–7363. doi:10.1021/acs.est.5b01012

40. Johnson TA, Stedtfeld RD, Wang Q, Cole JR, Hashsham SA, Looft T, Zhu Y. 2016. Clusters of antibiotic resistance genes enriched together stay together in swine agriculture. 7:1–11. doi:10.1128/mBio.02214-15

41. Poole K. 2012. Bacterial stress responses as determinants of antimicrobial resistance. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy 67:2069–2089. doi:10.1093/jac/dks196

42. Enne VI, Delsol AA, Davis GR, Hayward SL, Roe JM, Bennett PM. 2005. Assessment of the fitness impacts on Escherichia coli of acquisition of antibiotic resistance genes encoded by different types of genetic element. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy 56:544–551. doi:10.1093/jac/dki255

43. Partridge SR, Kwong SM, Firth N, Jensen SO. 2018. Mobile Genetic Elements Associated with Antimicrobial Resistance. Clin Microbiol Rev 31:e00088-17. doi:10.1128/CMR.00088-17

44. Clewell DB, Weaver KE, Dunny GM, et al. 2014. Extrachromosomal and Mobile Elements in *Enterococci*: Transmission, Maintenance, and Epidemiology. *In*: *Enterococci*: From Commensals to Leading Causes of Drug Resistant Infection. Boston: Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK190430/

45 Federation of Animal Science Societies. 2010. Chapter 11: Swine, p. 143–155. *In*: Guide for the Care and Use of Agricultural Animals in Research and Teaching. 3rd ed. Federation of Animal Science Societies, Champaign, IL. ISBN:978-1-884706-11-0, https://www.asas.org/ag_guide_3rded/HTML5/index.html

46. Kozich JJ, Westcott SL, Baxter NT, Highlander SK, Schloss PD. 2013. Development of a dual-index sequencing strategy and curation pipeline for analyzing amplicon sequence data on the MiSeq Illumina sequencing platform. Appl Environ Microbiol 79:5112. doi:10.1128/AEM.01043-13

47. Wang F, Qiao M, Chen Z, Su J, Zhou X, Zhu Y. 2014. High throughput profiling of antibiotic resistance genes in urban park soils with reclaimed water irrigation. Environmental science & technology. doi:10.1021/es502615e

48. Quast C, Pruesse E, Yilmaz P, Gerken J, Schweer T, Yarza P, Peplies J, Glöckner FO. 2013. The SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database project: improved data processing and web-based tools. Nucleic Acids Res 41:D590–D596. doi:10.1093/nar/gks1219

49. Cole JR, Wang Q, Fish JA, Chai B, McGarrell DM, Sun Y, Brown CT, Porras-Alfaro A, Kuske CR, Tiedje JM. 2013. Ribosomal Database Project: data and tools for high throughput rRNA analysis. Nucleic Acids Research 42:D633–D642. doi:10.1093/nar/gkt1244.

50. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. 1995. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. Journal of the Royal statistical society: series B (Methodological) 57:289–300. doi:10.1111/j.2517-6161.1995.tb02031.x

51. Hothorn T, Bretz F, Westfall P, Heiberger RM, Schuetzenmeister A, Scheibe S, Hothorn MT. 2016. Package 'multcomp.' Simultaneous inference in general parametric models. R package version 1.4-12. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=multcomp

52. Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Friendly M, Kindt R, Legendre P, McGlinn D, Minchin PR,

O'Hara RB, Simpson GL, Solymos P, Stevens MHH, Szoecs E, Wagner H. 2019. Vegan: community ecology package. R package version 2.5-6. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan

53. Bastian M, Heymann S, Jacomy M. 2009. Gephi: an open source software for exploring and manipulating networks. International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media. http://www.aaai.org/ocs/index.php/ICWSM/09/paper/view/154

54. Revelle, W. 2019. psych: Procedures for Personality and Psychological Research, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, USA. R package version 1.9.12. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=psych

55. Ruuskanen MO, St Pierre KA, St Louis VL, Aris-Brosou S, Poulain AJ. 2018. Physicochemical drivers of microbial community structure in sediments of lake hazen, nunavut, canada. Front Microbiol 9:1138–1138. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.01138

56. Krijthe J, van der Maaten L. 2018. Rtsne: T-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding using a barnes-hut implementation. R package version 0.15. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/Rtsne/index.html

57. Hahsler M, Piekenbrock M, Arya S, Mount D. 2019. dbscan: Fast Density-Based Clustering with R. Journal of Statistical Software 91:1-30. R package version 1.15. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=dbscan

58. Jones Z, Linder F. 2017. edarf: Exploratory Data Analysis using Random Forests. Journal of Open Source Software 1:92. R package version 1.1.1. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=edarf

59. Wright MN, Ziegler A. 2017. ranger: A fast implementation of random forests for high dimensional data in C++ and R. Journal of Statistical Software, 77:1-17. R package version 0.12.1. R Foundation, Vienna, Austria. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ranger

60. Menze BH, Kelm BM, Masuch R, Himmelreich U, Bachert P, Petrich W, Hamprecht FA.

2009. A comparison of random forest and its Gini importance with standard chemometric methods for the feature selection and classification of spectral data. BMC Bioinformatics 10:213–213. doi:10.1186/1471-2105-10-213

Figures and figure legends

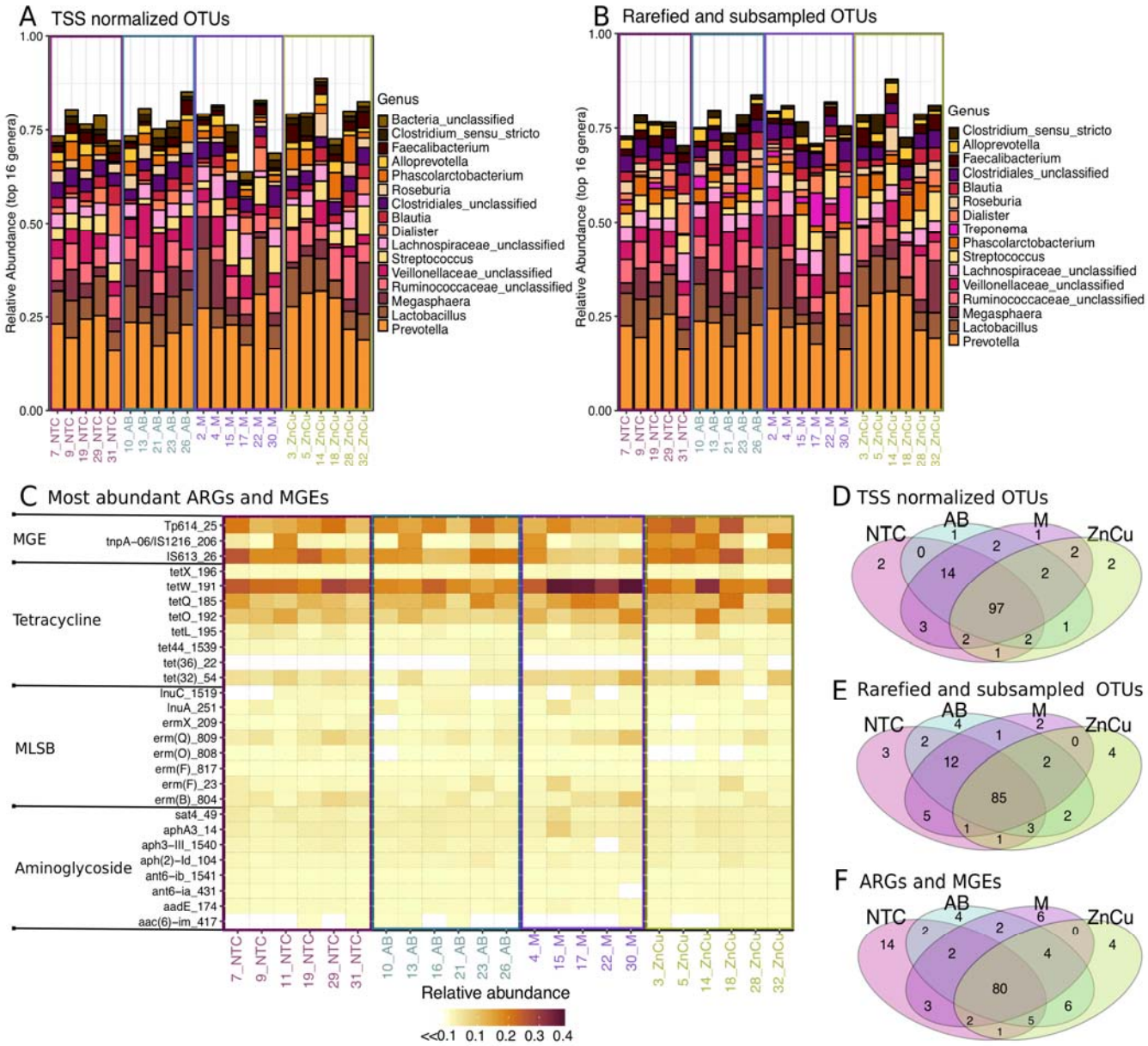

Fig. 1. Comparison of most abundant genera, ARGs and MGEs in different treatment groups. Samples on x-axis are grouped according to the treatments and color-coded. Sample names are as follows: NTC= Non-treatment control, AB= Carbadox (antibiotic), M= Mushroom powder

and ZnCu= zinc oxide and copper sulfate. The number in front of the group code denotes the number of the pen. (A) Stacked bar plot showing 16 most abundant genera in OTUs normalized using total sum scaling (TSS). (B) Stacked bar plot showing 16 most abundant genera in rarefied and subsampled OTUs. (C) Most abundant genes related to antibiotic resistance and mobile genetic elements (n=27). Each row represents results of each primer set (assay) (Table S1) displayed on the y-axis. Assays are grouped according to the antibiotic group which the target genes confer resistance. MLSB is abbreviation for Macrolide−Lincosamide−Streptogramin B resistance and MGE for mobile genetic elements. One sample from mushroom powder group was left out from the qPCR array analysis due to a technical error. (D) Venn diagram showing the OTUs that are shared between samples belonging into different treatment groups when TSS normalization was used. (E) Venn diagram showing the OTUs that are shared between samples belonging into different treatment groups when Rarefying and subsampling was used. (F) Venn diagram showing the ARGs and MGEs that are shared between samples belonging into different treatment groups.

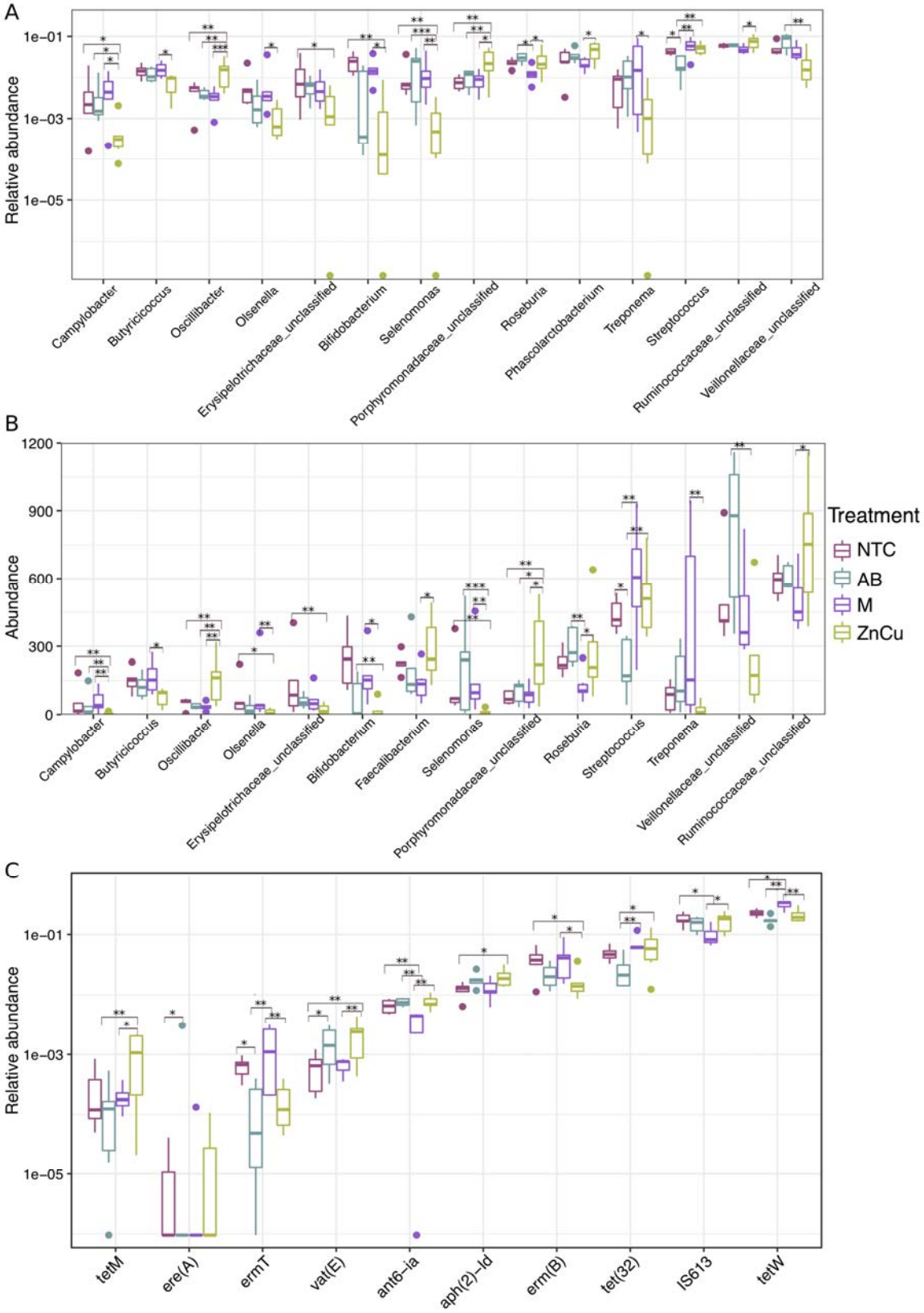

Fig. 2. Boxplots showing the most abundant genera, ARGs and MGEs with statistically significant differences between treatment groups labeled on right. NTC= Non-treatment control, AB= Carbadox (antibiotic), M= Mushroom powder and ZnCu= zinc oxide and copper sulfate.

The asterisks “*”, “**” and “***” denote statistical significance levels at $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively. (A) Most abundant genera in TSS normalized OTUs (n=14), (B) Most abundant genera in rarefied and subsampled OTUs (n=14), (C) Most abundant genes related to resistance and transfer (n=10). See Fig. S3A, B and C for all differentially abundant genera and ARGs and MGEs and Table S2, S3 and S4 for fold changes of the differently abundant genera and ARGs and MGEs.

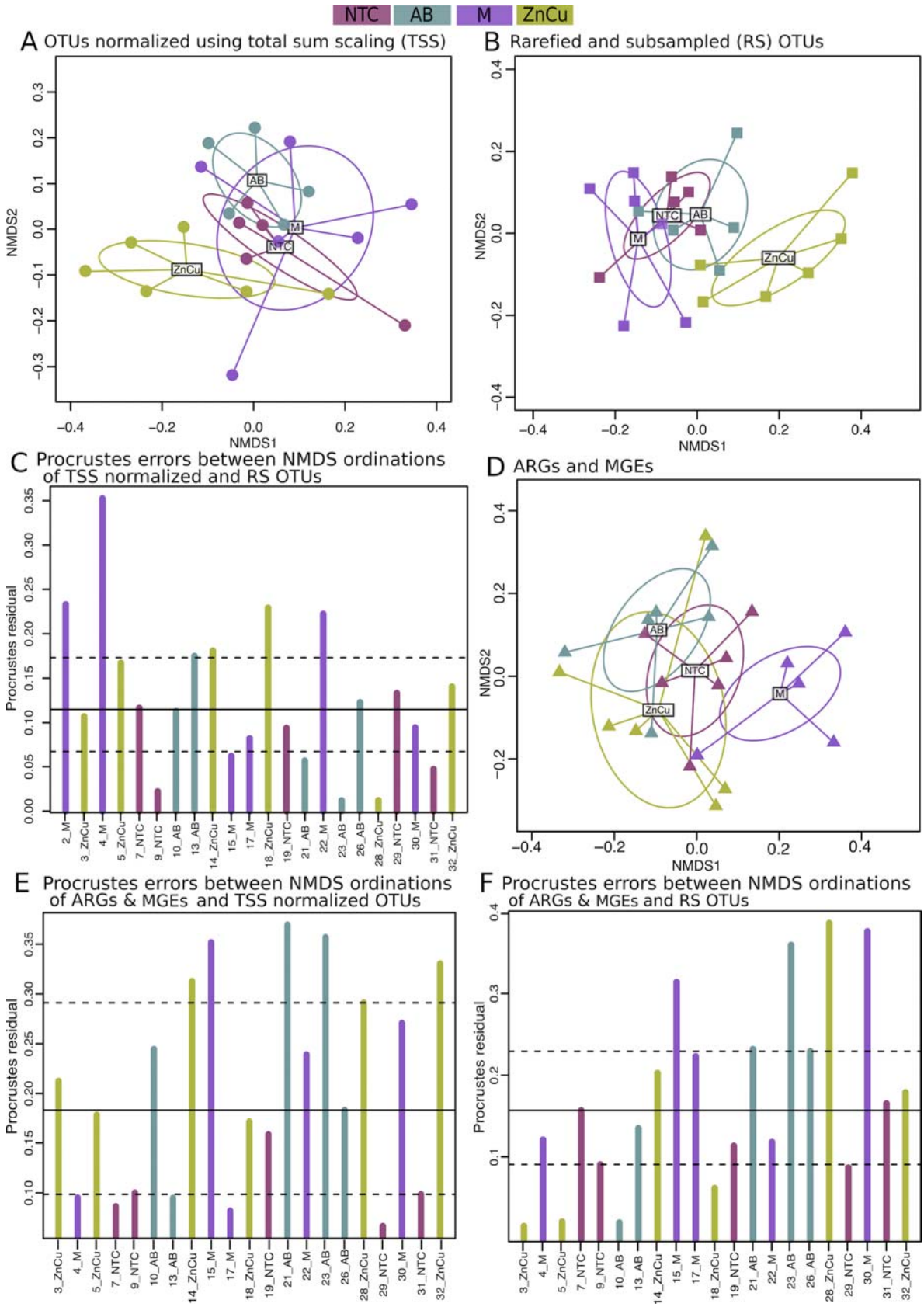

Fig. 3. NMDS ordinations of TSS normalized OTUs, rarefied and subsampled OTUs and ARGs & MGEs and Procrustes errors between them. Sample names are as follows: NTC= Non-

treatment control, AB= Carbadox (antibiotic), M= Mushroom powder and ZnCu= zinc oxide and copper sulfate. The number in the sample name denotes the number of the pen. (A) NMDS ordination of TSS normalized OTUs. (B) NMDS ordination of rarefied and subsampled (RS) OTUs. (C) Procrustes errors between NMDS ordinations of TSS normalized OTUs and rarefied and subsampled OTUs. (D) NMDS ordination of ARGs and MGEs. (E) Procrustes errors between NMDS ordinations of TSS normalized OTUs and ARGs & MGEs. (F) Procrustes errors between NMDS ordinations of rarefied and subsampled OTUs and ARGs & MGEs. The Procrustes residual error line plots (C, E and F) allow residual error size comparisons. The bars show the difference in the community structures between the two normalization methods (C) as well as the differences in community structure and resistome structure in samples belonging to different treatment groups (E and F). Horizontal lines denote the median (solid), 25% and 75% quantiles (dashed).

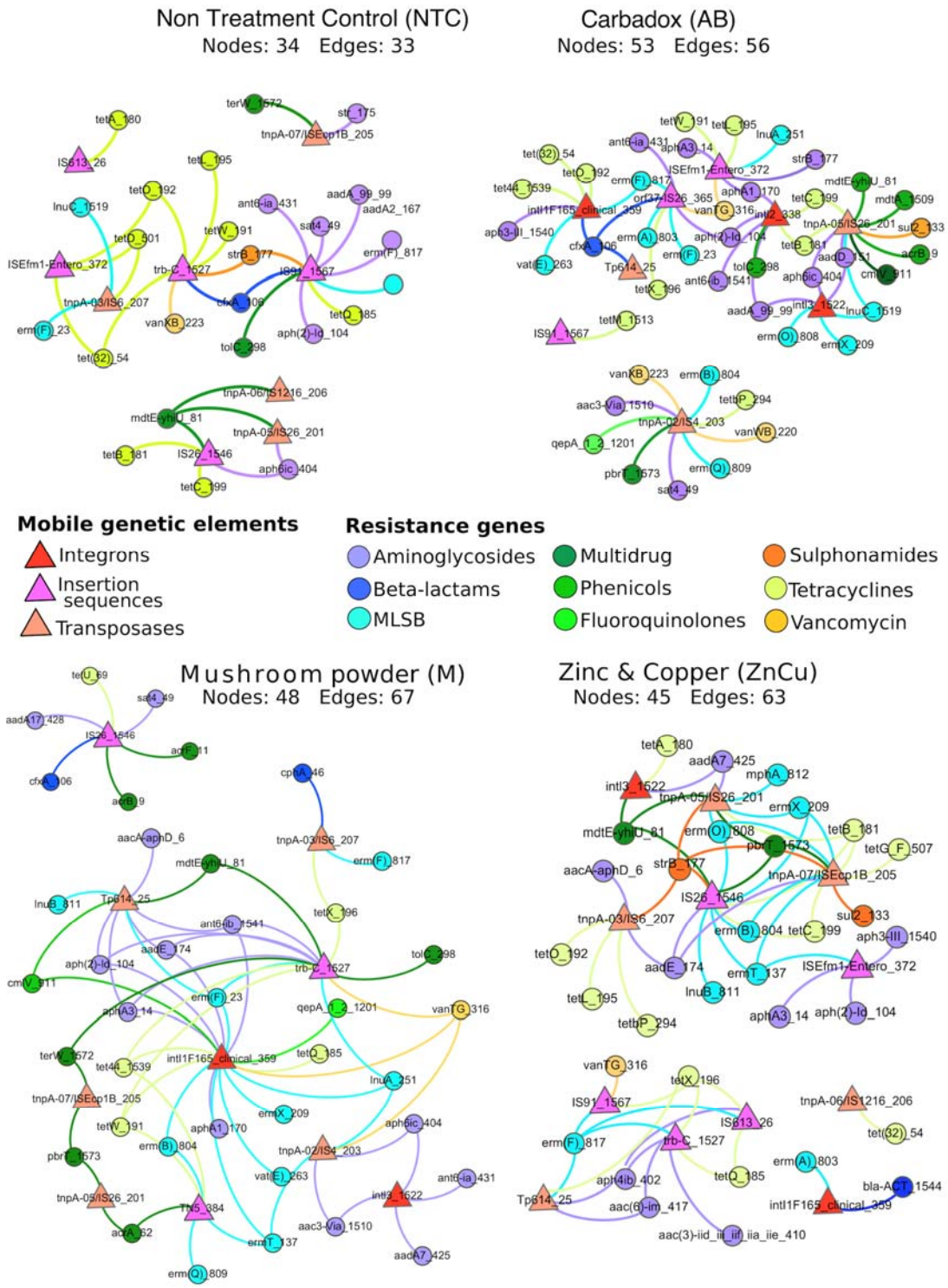

Fig. 4. Network analysis showing co-occurrence patterns between ARGs and MGEs within the samples in different treatment groups. Nodes of the MGEs are triangles, and circle resistance gene nodes are colored according to the antibiotic they confer resistance. Edges between resistance gene nodes and mobile genetic element nodes have the color of the resistance gene

node. Nodes have equal sizes, edges have equal weights, and distance between the nodes is irrelevant.

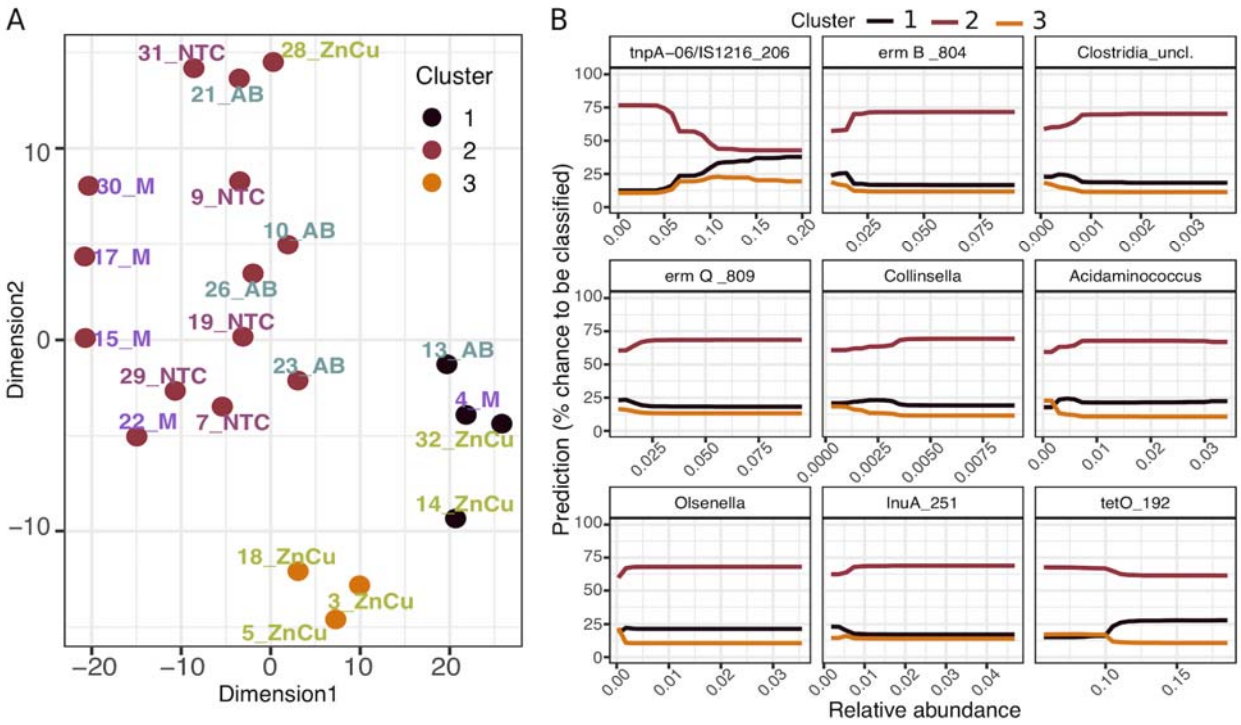

Fig. 5. t-SNE analysis of a dataset containing ARGs, MGEs and TSS normalized OTUs (all relative abundances) and the distribution of the pens where experimental pigs were kept. (A) The clustering pattern of the samples. (B) Partial dependence plot of cluster numbers and the most important predictors in the order of decreasing importance. The partial dependence plot shows the effect of each predictor on the model outcome one by one, while the other predictors are fixed to their average value.

Supporting information legends

Table S1. List of the used primer sets.

Fig. S1. Correlation between rarefied and subsampled OTUs and TSS normalized OTUs.

Fig. S2 Composition of positive assays grouped by (A) antibiotic group the targeted gene confers resistance, (B) resistance mechanism and (C) mobile genetic element group.

Fig. S3. Differentially abundant genera and genes. Samples on x-axis are grouped according to the treatments. Sample names are as follows: NTC= Non-treatment control, AB= Carbadox (antibiotic), M= Mushroom powder and ZnCu= zinc oxide and copper sulfate. The number in front of the group code denotes the number of the pen. Each row represents abundance of each genus or the results of each primer set (assay) (Table S1) displayed on the y-axis. Only genera and genes with statistically significant differences between treatment groups are shown (A) Differentially abundant genera with TSS normalization. See Table S2 for fold changes. (B) Differentially abundant genera with Rarefying and subsampling. See Table S3 for fold changes. (C) Differentially abundant ARGs and MGEs. See Table S4 for fold changes.

Table S2. Pairwise comparisons of gamma distribution GLMs of relative abundances of each genera between treatment groups. TSS normalized OTU table was used as the input.

Table S3. Pairwise comparisons of negative binomial GLMs of abundances of each genera between treatment groups. Rarefied and subsampled OTU table was used as the input.

Table S4. Pairwise comparisons of gamma distribution GLMs of relative abundances of each ARG or MGE between treatment groups.

Fig. S4. Rarefaction curves. OTU collection curves determined from sequence analysis. Each line represents one sample. Vertical line shows the subsampling cutoff: 7500 sequences

Table S5. Assays that had unspecific amplification. Ct values in the negative control and mean Ct-values in samples.