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Amoxicillin effects on functional microbial community and spread of antibiotic resistance genes in amoxicillin manufacture wastewater treatment system

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to reveal how amoxicillin (AMX) affected the microbial community and the 16 spread mechanism of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) in the AMX manufacture wastewater 17 treatment system. For this purpose, a 1.47 L expanded granular sludge bed (EGSB) reactor was 18 designed and run for 241 days treating artificial AMX manufacture wastewater. 454 pyrose-19 quencing was applied to analyze functional microorganisms in the system. The antibiotic genes 20 OXA-1, OXA-2, OXA-10, TEM-1, CTX-M-1, class I integrons (int11) and 16S rRNA genes were also 21 examined in sludge samples. The results showed that the genera *Ignavibacterium*, *Phocoenobacter*, 22 Spirochaeta, Aminobacterium and Cloacibacillus contributed to the degradation of different organic 23 compounds (such as various sugars and amines). And the relative quantification of each 24 β -lactam resistance gene in the study was changed with the increasing of AMX concentration. 25 Furthermore the vertical gene transfer was the main driver for the spread of ARGs rather than 26 horizontal transfer pathways in the system.

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Introduction

The antibiotics in the aquatic environment have received considerable concerns in recent years. The main reason is that antibiotics emitted into receiving water systems have adverse effects on aquatic organisms (Batt et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2003), and easily lead to the development of multi-resistant strains of bacteria, even threat the health of human being (Li et al., 2010; Novo et al., 2013). Besides, antibiotics discharged into the wastewater treatment system restrain functional microbial community, and make troubles in the system (Amin et al., 2006a; Chelliapan et al., 2006). Therefore, the study on how antibiotics affect the microbial community structure in the system becomes necessary. Previous studies have proven this by investigating the impacts of some antibiotics on microbial

communities, especially on bacterial and archaea communities 55 (Aydin et al., 2015; Kor-Bicakci et al., 2016; Meng et al. 2015a). 56 According to the previous studies, *Deltaproteobacteria* was the 57 major bacterial groups in anaerobic reactors treating antibiotic- 58 bearing (mainly streptomycin) wastewater (Deng et al. 2012b). 59 The long-term adverse impact of tetracycline was quite 60 variable for fermentative bacteria and methanogenic archaea 61 (Rodriguez-Mozaz et al., 2015).

And most of previous research reveal the risks that antibiotic 63 resistance genes (ARGs) threaten to human health have pre-64 dominantly been found in the clinical setting (Prabhu et al., 2007; 65 Tatavarthy et al., 2006). Therefore, the spread of ARGs in the 66 wastewater system have also been recognized as a significant 67 problem in the last few decades. Research shows that wastewa-68 ter treatment plants contribute to the presence and spread of 69

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ARGs, because the high load of organic matter, and the bacterial density created an ideal condition for cell-to-cell contact and gene exchange (Sorensen et al., 2005). And some studies find that there is a positive correlation between ARGs and concentration of antibiotics (Rodriguez-Mozaz et al., 2015, Wang et al., 2015). Especially, the wastewaters coming from the manufacture of antibiotic products contain a higher level of organic matter and antibiotics which may create more favorable conditions for the spread of ARGs than other environmental water (Larsson et al., 2007; Saravanane et al., 2001).

Amoxicillin (AMX) is a broad-spectrum β -Lactam antibiotic that belongs to penicillin class organism (De Baere and De Backer 2007) and is the most common featured pollutant in antibiotic manufacture wastewater (Parmar et al., 2000). AMX manufacture wastewater mainly contains high concentration of chemical oxygen demand (COD) with reaching to several thousand mg/L. The ammonia–nitrogen and the high residual antibiotic reaching to several hundred mg/L also have been detected in the wastewater (Chen et al., 2011).

ARGs proliferate mainly through two processes: horizontal gene transfer (HGT) attributed to the transfer of ARGs between different bacterial cells via mobile elements, and vertical gene transfer attributed to the reproduction of bacterial hosts (Sørensen et al., 2005). For the class I integrons (intI1), the mobile bacterial genetic elements capable of acquiring and expressing genes embedded within gene cassettes (Stokes and Hall, 1989). And intI1 have also been commonly reported to contain antibiotic-resistance gene cassettes (Stalder et al. 2013b) and associated with other mobile elements such as plasmids and transposons (Stalder et al. 2012), which contribute to the spread of ARGs. As the most abundant integron in environmental bacteria, intI1 have been suggested as a proxy for antibiotic pollution (Stalder et al. 2013a). In addition, the bacterial reproduction which was attributed to the ARG proliferate has been suggested during sludge composting (Tian et al., 2016). Nevertheless, the understanding of specific development and spread of ARGs in anaerobic manufacture wastewater treatment process remains limited.

Therefore, in the study, 454 pyrosequencing of 16S rRNA genes was applied to explore the bacterial community structure. And β -lactam resistance genes were determined and quantified using PCR and quantitative PCR (Q-PCR) respectively. The intI1 which can be tracked as an indicator of horizontal gene transfer potential was also quantified using Q-PCR.

1. Material and methods

1.1. The operation of EGSB bioreactor

The laboratory-scale (1.47 L) expanded granular sludge bed (EGSB) bioreactor used in this study and its operation conditions were described in previous research (Meng et al., 2015b, 2015c). In short, AMX was introduced into the EGSB reactor with 19.7 (day 146) to 52.6 (day 166), 90.4 (day 190) and 214.7 mg/L (day 216) step by step under a hydraulic retention time of 20 hr and an average volumetric loading rate of 9.5 kg COD/(m³·day) conditions. And the detail operation parameter is shown in Table S1.

1.2. Chemical analysis

Concentrations of COD and AMX were measured according 128 the pervious methods by the Ultraviolet Spectrophotometry 129 Method and High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) 130 Method, respectively (Meng et al., 2015b).

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1.3. Sampling and DNA extraction

Sludge samples were collected at days 145 (S1), 165 (S2), 189 (S3), 133 215 (S4), and 241 (S5). DNA was extracted from a 0.25-g sample of 134 sludge with the PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laborato-135 ries, USA), according to the instructions of the manufacturer. 136 Concentrations and quality of the extracted DNA were checked 137 by spectrophotometric analysis on a NanoDrop ND-2000 (Thermo 138 Fisher Scientific, USA) and electrophoresis on a 0.8% (w/V) 139 agarose gel. Then extracted DNA was stored at -20°C until 140 analysis.

1.4. Quantification of antibiotic resistance genes

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays were used to deter- 143 mine the presence and absence of targeted ARGs. All PCRs 144 were conducted in 25 μ L of reaction mixture. The PCR was run 145 using a S2000 thermal cycler (BioRad, Hercules, CA). Negative 146 controls contained all components of the PCR mixture except 147 the DNA template. The details of primer sequences and 148 annealing temperatures of PCR and qPCR are described in 149 Table S2 (in the supporting information). PCR products were 150 analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis (2.0%).

Q-PCR amplifications were conducted using the TransStart 152 Top Green Q-PCR SuperMix (TransGen Biotech, China). Thermal 153 cycling conditions consisted of 30 sec at 95°C followed by 40 154 amplification cycles of 10 sec at 95°C, 15 sec at an annealing 155 temperature (Table S2), and 31 sec at 72°C. A melt curve profile 156 was obtained by heating the mixture to 95°C, cooling to 65°C 157 (15 sec), and slowly heating to 95 at 0.1°C/sec with continuous 158 measurement of fluorescence. Plasmids integrated with targeted 159 genes were cloned into Escherichia coli DH5 α for the purpose of 160 quantification. Standard curves were obtained by calibrating 161 standard plasmids with amplification products at a 10-fold 162 dilution from 10^9 to 10^3 copies/ μ L as shown in Table S3.

1.5. PCR amplification and 454 pyrosequencing

The DNA was amplified with a set of primers targeting the 165 hypervariable V3–V4 region (about 375 bp) of the 16S rRNA gene. 166 The forward and reverse primers were 5'- GTGYCAGCMGCC 167 GCGGTA-3', 5'-CCCCGYCAATTCMTTTRAGT-3', respectively. Be- 168 sides, the statistical analysis of 454 Pyrosequencing was showed 169 as the previous study (Stadler and Love 2016).

1.6. Statistical analysis

The redundancy analysis (RDA) was conducted to investigate 172 the relationships between bacterial community structure and 173 environmental parameter including AMX concentrations and 174 COD removal efficiency, using software package CANOCO 175 version 4.5. To visualize the correlations between ARGs and 176 bacterial taxa, 5 ARGs quantified by Q-PCR and 49 bacterial 177

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