Comparison of microbial communities in swine manure at various temperatures and storage times

Joung-Soo Lim¹, Seung Hak Yang², Bong-So Kim³, and Eun Young Lee⁴,*

Objective: This study was designed to investigate the effects of temperature and storage time on the evolution of bacterial communities in swine manure.

Methods: Manure was stored at –20°C, 4°C, 20°C, or 37°C and sampled at 7-day intervals over 28 days of storage, for a total of 5 time points. To assess the bacterial species present, 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequences were analyzed using pyrosequencing.

Results: After normalization, 113,934 sequence reads were obtained, with an average length of 466.6±4.4 bp. The diversity indices of the communities reduced as temperature and storage time increased, and the slopes of rarefaction curves decreased from the second week in samples stored at –20°C and 4°C. These results indicate that the richness of the bacterial community in the manure reduced as temperature and storage time increased. Firmicutes were the dominant phylum in all samples examined, ranging from 89.3% to 98.8% of total reads, followed by Actinobacteria, which accounted for 0.6% to 7.9%. A change in community composition was observed in samples stored at 37°C during the first 7 days, indicating that temperature plays an important role in determining the microbiota of swine manure.

Clostridium, Turicibacter, Streptococcus, and Lactobacillus within Firmicutes, and Corynebacterium within Actinobacteria were the most dominant genera in fresh manure and all stored samples.

Conclusion: Based on our findings, we propose Clostridium as an indicator genus of swine manure decomposition in an anaerobic environment. The proportions of dominant genera changed in samples stored at 20°C and 37°C during the fourth week. Based on these results, it was concluded that the microbial communities of swine manure change rapidly as storage time and temperature increase.

Keywords: Firmicutes; Heatmap Analysis; Microbial Community; Pyrosequencing; Swine Manure; UniFrac Distance

INTRODUCTION

The various microorganisms that are present in swine slurry, such as Bacillus, Clostridium, and Lactobacillus, play a vital role in the decomposition of manure. These organisms live in a partially anaerobic environment and therefore utilize a variety of potential substrates, including proteins and non-starch polysaccharides [1]. The pH of swine manure is relatively stable because of low lactate concentration, and microbial activity is mainly affected by the buffering capacity of ammonia nitrogen [2]. Therefore, environmental conditions, such as temperature, moisture, and oxygen availability determine the rate and extent of microbial-mediated substrate conversion into various compounds [3].

Fecal bacteria are often used as an indicator of fecal contamination in aqueous and solid samples. Consequently, traditional biological methods used to detect fecal pollution have relied on bacterial indicators. Total coliforms, Escherichia coli (E. coli), fecal streptococci, enterococci, Clostridium perfringens (C. perfringens), and bifidobacteria have all been sug-
gested to be key fecal indicator microorganisms [4]. Of these, 
*E. coli* is considered the most accurate indicator of contam-
nation by human and animal waste, as 90% to 100% of the 
isolated coliform microorganisms from human and animal 
feces are *E. coli* [5]. Detailed characterization of the intestinal 
microbiota of the swine intestine using anaerobic culturing 
techniques has revealed that the major bacterial groups pres-
ent are *Streptococcus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Prevotella*, *Selenomonas*, 
*Mitsuokella*, *Megaphaera*, *Clostridium*, *Eubacterium*, *Bacte-
roides*, *Fusobacterium*, *Acidaminococcus*, and *Enterobacteriaceae* 
[6]. These studies highlight potential enteric viruses and in-
dicator organisms commonly found in fecal samples from 
watershed animals that could serve as an indicator of fecal 
contamination.

Bacterial diversity and dynamics have been found to alter 
in swine manure during the acidification process [7,8]. These 
studies primarily identified microbes using polymerase chain 
reaction (PCR)-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) 
[7]. The species most typically identified based DGGE analy-
sis are *Acinetobacter lwoffii*, *A. caligenes* spp., *Bacteroides* spp., 
*Botryosphaeria dothidea*, *Comamonas* spp., *Pseudomonas* spp., 
and *Hydrogenophaga* spp. Tracking pathogenic or fecal indi-
cators in animal waste through the application of cell culture 
has also been reported [8]. Thorough analysis of microbial 
population dynamics using molecular methods may lead to a 
better understanding of the metabolic transformations that 
occur in manure [9]. Various molecular markers have been 
developed for the identification and quantification of eubact-
eria from the swine intestinal tract, including specific 16S 
rRNA gene sequences [10]. Gourmelon et al [11] identified 
and quantified the *Bacteroides–Prevotella* group in different 
preserved manure samples by using specific markers (PF163F/
Bac708R for *Bacteroidales*). Using Lab 158 probe and Bac 
305 probe, microaerophilic species, *lactobacilli* (e.g., *L. amy-
lovorus*), and *Bacteroides fragilis* have been detected in piglet 
feces [12].

However, the diversity and evolution of microorganisms 
during the process of swine manure decomposition have not 
been well studied. To address this, the present study inves-
tigated the evolution of microorganism communities that 
associate with the decomposition of pig manure over different 
time periods and at various temperatures using pyrosequenc-
ing to identify the specific organisms responsible for each 
phase of decomposition.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Manure samples**

Swine manure samples (approximately 10 kg) were collected 
from the scraper-type experimental porker farm of the National 
Institute of Animal Science, Korea. The collected manure was 
homogenized by passing it through a 2 mm×2 mm sieve and was squeezed with gauze to remove remaining debris. Forty 
milliliters of the homogenate was transferred into a 50-mL 
Falcon tube (C2602, MTC Bio, Metuchen, NJ, USA). In total, 
51 samples were prepared, including 48 samples that were 
divided into 4 temperature treatment groups (n = 12 each) 
and were stored at –20°C, 4°C, 20°C, or 37°C. Samples at 
–20°C and 4°C were stored in a combined freezer/refriger-
ator (SR6449M; Samsung, Suwon, Korea). Samples at 20°C 
and 37°C were stored in an incubator (VS-1203P; Vision Sci-
entific, Daejeon, Korea). For 4 weeks, at the end of each week, 
3 samples were collected for each condition. Three of the 51 
samples were analyzed immediately (time point 0, referred to 
as “fresh manure samples”). Each sample was analyzed by 
pyrosequencing in triplicate.

**Pyrosequencing**

Metagenomic DNA was extracted from treated swine manure 
samples using a Fast DNA spin kit for soil (MP Biomedicals, 
Santa Ana, CA, USA). The extracted DNA was purified using 
a PowerClean DNA Clean-up Kit (Mo Bio, Carlsbad, CA, 
USA), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. A frag-
ment of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene (V1–V3 region) was 
amplified from each purified DNA sample using bacterial fu-
usion primers [13]. Each amplification mixture (50 μL) consisted 
of 10× *Taq* buffer, dNTP mixture (*TaKaRa*, Shiga, Japan), 10 
μM each primer, 2 U of *Taq* polymerase (*Ex Taq*; *TaKaRa*, Ja-
pan) and 2 μL of the DNA template. The reactions were carried 
out in a C1000 Touch thermocycler (*Bio-Rad*, Hercules, CA, 
USA) [14]. Amplified products were confirmed by gel elec-
trophoresis on a GelDoc system (Bio-Rad, USA) and then 
purified using a QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (*Qiagen*, 
Valencia, CA, USA). Purified amplicons from 17 distinct dif-
ferent samples stored at different temperatures and times (fresh 
sample and 16 conditions) were pooled at the same concen-
tration. Fragments shorter than the target region were removed 
using an AMPure Bead Kit (Agencourt Bioscience, Beverly, 
MA, USA). Purified products were amplified on sequencing 
beads by emulsion PCR. Beads were recovered from emul-
sion PCR and DNA was sequenced using a GS Junior system 
(*Roche*, Branford, CT, USA), following the manufacturer’s 
instructions. Pyrosequencing was conducted at Chunlab Inc. 
(Seoul, Korea).

**Data analysis**

Pyrosequencing data were analyzed using a previously de-
scribed protocol [13,14]. Raw sequencing reads were sorted 
by their unique barcodes and primer sequences were trimmed 
using the HMMER 3.0 package [15]. Low-quality reads (av-
erage quality score <25 or read length <300 bp) were filtered 
and removed from further analysis. Sequencing errors were 
corrected by read clustering, and representative sequences 
were used for taxonomic identification. Each representative
read was assigned a taxonomic position based on the highest pairwise similarity value using the EzTaxon-e database [16]. Chimeric sequences were removed using UCHIME [17]. Random subsampling was used to normalize read numbers in the samples as different read numbers were obtained for each sample, which can affect statistical calculations. Statistical estimations of the Chao1 index, Shannon diversity index, and Good’s coverage were performed at 3% dissimilarity, using mothur [18]. Relationships between samples were evaluated by principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) using the Fast UniFrac distance [19]. The significance of differences in bacterial communities among samples was calculated using Libshuff analysis, while the similarity coefficients of Bray–Curtis, Jaccard abundance, and Sorenson abundance were obtained using mothur. The pyrosequencing read data obtained in this study are deposited at the European Molecular Biology Laboratory (EMBL).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study assessed, for the first time, the effects of incubation time and temperature on the evolution of bacterial communities in swine manure using 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing. In total, data from 51 distinct samples, including fresh manure, were analyzed and compared. The estimated diversity indices obtained after normalization are shown in Table 1. In total, 113,934 reads, with an average length of 466.6±4.4 bp, were obtained. The minimum and maximum coverage was 76% and 84%, respectively. The number of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) was greater than 1,000 in the original manure, although a similarly high number of OTUs was obtained only for the –20°C and 4°C samples during the first week of storage.

The diversity indices decreased with increasing temperature. Samples stored for 4 weeks at 20°C, and for all times when stored at 37°C, had lower diversity indices than the original sample. The lowest diversity index (3.36) was obtained for samples stored at 37°C for 2 weeks. To establish the number of species as a function of sample number, we plotted rarefaction curves, which showed a trend similar to that of the diversity indices (Figure 1). The rarefaction curves also revealed that the number of species initially increased rapidly as the most common species were found, but then plateaued as only the rarest species remained to be sampled [20]. The slopes of the curves decreased from the second week for samples stored at –20°C and 4°C, and the differences became more pronounced as the incubation time increased. The slopes significantly changed in the samples incubated at 20°C and 37°C. These results indicated that the richness of the bacterial community in the manure was reduced as storage temperature and time increased.

The compositions of the bacterial communities in each sample group were compared at the phylum and genus levels using double circle charts (Figure 2). *Firmicutes* was the dominant phylum in all samples (ranging from 89.3% to 98.8% of total reads), while *Actinobacteria* was the second dominant group in most of the samples (0.6% to 7.9%). The proportion of *Proteobacteria* increased in the samples stored for 4 weeks at 37°C (to 6.4%). However, the phylum-level composition of samples incubated at –20°C was similar to that in the original swine manure. For the samples stored at 4°C, the relative abundance of *Actinobacteria* increased after 3 weeks, while that of

Table 1. Summary of estimated diversity indices after normalization

| Samples | Analyzed reads | Normalized reads | Average length (bp) | Observed OTUs | Chao1 estimation | Shannon diversity | Good’s coverage |
|---------|----------------|------------------|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|------------------|----------------|
| Fresh manure | 3,999 | 3,900 | 470.4 | 1,028 | 10,719.50 | 4.26 | 0.76 |
| –20°C  | 1 week | 5,897 | 3,900 | 472.7 | 1,035 | 8,890.25 | 4.34 | 0.77 |
|         | 2 weeks | 5,183 | 3,900 | 469.8 | 941 | 7,312.02 | 4.08 | 0.79 |
|         | 3 weeks | 4,260 | 3,900 | 471.1 | 1,003 | 7,988.18 | 4.22 | 0.77 |
|         | 4 weeks | 5,758 | 3,900 | 471.3 | 906 | 7,082.94 | 4.03 | 0.79 |
| 4°C     | 1 week | 6,863 | 3,900 | 471.2 | 1,038 | 7,900.97 | 4.39 | 0.77 |
|         | 2 weeks | 5,829 | 3,900 | 469.4 | 916 | 6,176.25 | 4.07 | 0.80 |
|         | 3 weeks | 6,605 | 3,900 | 468.3 | 909 | 5,709.10 | 4.19 | 0.80 |
|         | 4 weeks | 6,986 | 3,900 | 468.0 | 900 | 5,231.29 | 4.10 | 0.80 |
| 20°C    | 1 week | 6,111 | 3,900 | 465.8 | 896 | 6,117.16 | 4.04 | 0.80 |
|         | 2 weeks | 7,975 | 3,900 | 464.8 | 938 | 6,425.77 | 3.92 | 0.79 |
|         | 3 weeks | 7,371 | 3,900 | 465.1 | 928 | 5,847.08 | 4.18 | 0.80 |
|         | 4 weeks | 8,146 | 3,900 | 461.3 | 859 | 7,838.17 | 3.83 | 0.81 |
| 37°C    | 1 week | 8,266 | 3,900 | 461.7 | 845 | 6,137.56 | 3.82 | 0.81 |
|         | 2 weeks | 8,761 | 3,900 | 459.0 | 722 | 4,823.63 | 3.36 | 0.84 |
|         | 3 weeks | 7,881 | 3,900 | 461.7 | 927 | 5,543.28 | 4.00 | 0.80 |
|         | 4 weeks | 8,043 | 3,900 | 461.3 | 944 | 5,327.99 | 3.96 | 0.79 |

OUT, operational taxonomic unit.
Firmicutes decreased. This indicated that the composition of a bacterial community can change even at relatively low temperatures. The composition of the community began to alter starting from the first week when incubated at 37°C, suggesting that temperature is an important factor that affects the microbiota in swine manure. The genera *Clostridium*, *Turicibacter*, *Streptococcus*, and *Lactobacillus* within Firmicutes, as well as *Corynebacterium* within Actinobacteria were dominant in the fresh manure and in most of the stored samples. The proportions of dominant genera changed in the samples stored for 4 weeks at 20°C and in all samples stored at 37°C. The proportion of *Clostridium* in the samples stored for 4 weeks at 20°C was higher than that in the other samples, while the ratio of *Streptococcus* to *Lactobacillus* decreased. Similar changes in genus composition were observed after 1 week in samples incubated at 37°C. The proportions of *Streptococcus* and *Lactobacillus* were reduced to 0.1% and 0.2% within the first two weeks at 37°C (12.2% and 11.0% in the fresh manure sample, respectively), while the proportion of *Turicibacter* increased by 19.7% and 23.7% after 1 and 2 weeks of storage, respectively. However, the abundance of *Turicibacter* decreased (to 14.6%) in the samples stored at 37°C from the third week, whereas uncultured bacteria, such as *Bacillus* and *Turicibacter*, increased after 3 to 4 weeks of storage. The relative abundance of *Pusillimonas* within Proteobacteria increased (3.5% of the total reads) after 4 weeks of storage at 37°C.

Detailed information on the influenced bacteria was obtained at the species level by heatmap analysis (Figure 3). The swine manure stored at the conditions of different temperature and time were dominated by order Clostridiales and family Clostridiaceae. The profile of fresh manure was similar to those of samples stored at –20°C and 4°C. The relative abundances of each species changed in samples stored at 20°C, and differences in the bacterial communities were observed in samples incubated at 20°C for 4 weeks, and in all samples incubated at 37°C. The relative abundances of *Streptococcus alactolyticus*, *L. amylovorus*, *Corynebacterium xerosis*, unclassified *Lactobacillus*, unclassified *Streptococcus*, *Lactobacillus reuteri*, and unclassified *Atopostipes* decreased as the incubation temperature and time increased. *Streptococcus, Lactobacillus* played...
an important role at the beginning of degradation of swine manure at low temperature. The proportions of *T. sanguinis*, *Clostridium disporicum*, *Clostridium baratii*, *Terrisporobacter mayombei*, *Clostridium lituseburense*, *Clostridium beijerinckii*, *Clostridium celatum*, *Clostridium puniceum*, and various uncultured *Clostridium*, *Turicibacter*, and *Bacillus* increased in the samples incubated for 4 weeks at 20°C and in all samples incubated at 37°C. The bacterial communities of samples incubated at 37°C for 1 and 2 weeks were different from those in the samples incubated for 3 and 4 weeks. The relative abundances of *T. sanguinis* and uncultured bacteria similar to uncultured rumen bacterial clones EF436397 and AM500775 decreased from the third week of incubation at 37°C, whereas uncultured *Turicibacter* and *Bacillus* increased. *Pusillimonas soli* and unclassified *Pusillimonas* increased in the samples that were incubated for 4 weeks. Of these particular species, *Clostridium disporicum* has been associated with the production of skatole (3-methylindole) [20], and most *Clostridium* spp. produce strong odors.

The differences in and relations among bacterial communities in swine manure under each treatment are shown in PCoA plots generated using Fast UniFrac distances (Figure 4). The bacterial communities of samples incubated at 20°C and 37°C were significantly different from the fresh manure. However, the UniFrac distances between fresh manure and samples incubated at –20°C and 4°C were smaller than those between the fresh manure and samples incubated at 20°C and 37°C. The difference between bacterial communities in the samples stored at 20°C as compared to fresh manure was the largest at 4 weeks. The UniFrac distances between bacterial communities in the samples incubated at 37°C were also greater than those between samples incubated at other temperatures. These distances increased with increased storage time at 37°C. In summary, this part of the study revealed that the microbial communities during manure decomposition changed rapidly as storage time and temperature increased, especially for manure that featured a predominance of *Firmicutes* and *Actinobacteria*.

In this study, *Firmicutes* were the dominant phylum in all samples examined, ranging from 89.3% to 98.8% of total reads,
followed by *Actinobacteria*, which accounted for 0.6% to 7.9%. This finding is similar to those of Haakensen et al [21], who reported that *Firmicutes* are typically associated with animal manure and occur as contaminants that arise during food and brewing processes. *Clostridium, Turicibacter, Streptococcus*, and *Lactobacillus* within *Firmicutes*, and *Corynebacterium* within *Actinobacteria* were the most dominant genera in the fresh manure and stored samples. *Clostridium* [22], *Streptococcus* [23,24], and *Lactobacillus* [25,26] within *Firmicutes* have been considered indicators of animal fecal pollution in previous studies [27]. *Turicibacter* and *Corynebacterium* are newly suggested indicators. *Clostridium* is considered an indicator genus of swine manure decomposition and causes of manure odor in an anaerobic environment. Previous studies have indicated that swine fecal microbial communities appear to be anaerobic as the swine digestive tract is dominated by fermentative bacteria, such as low-G+C-content gram-positive bacteria belonging to the *Eubacterium–Clostridium* and *Lactobacillus–Streptococcus* groups, and gram-negative *Bacteroides* [27]. *C. perfringens* and its spores have been considered an important indicator of fecal pollution. Although the spores of *C. perfringens* are relatively easy to detect, they are also particularly robust and more tolerant to environmental effects than other traditional enteric indicators, making them ideal indicators of fecal contamination [22]. *Streptococcus bovis* is considered an indicator of bovine fecal pollution [23], but it is also commonly found in non-bovine ruminants and feces from other animals, including dogs, cats, horses, pigs, and various birds. The World Health Organization [24] recommends the use of fecal streptococci as an indicator of fecal pollution (WHO [24]). Additionally, *Enterococcus* spp. occur at high densities in animal feces. The enterococci are a sub-

### Figure 3. Heatmap analysis

Heatmap analysis of each sample according to incubation time and temperature. The color code indicates the differences in the relative abundance from the mean, ranging from red (negative) through black (the mean) to the green (positive); uc, unclassified.

| Species                  | Min | Max |
|--------------------------|-----|-----|
| *Turicibacter sanguinis*  |     |     |
| *Clostridium disporicum* |     |     |
| *Lactobacillus amylovorus* | AM930366_s |
| *Clostridium g4 uc*      | FJ660495_s |
| *Clostridiales_uc s*     |     |     |
| *Clostridium baratii*    |     |     |
| *Streptococcus alactolyticus* |     |
| *Lactobacillus amylovorus* |     |
| *AM930366_s*             |     |     |
| *FJ660495_s*             |     |     |
| *Clostridiales_uc s*     |     |     |
| *EF4363797_s*            |     |     |
| *Turibacter uc*          |     |     |
| *Turibacter f_uc s*      |     |     |
| *Clostridium mayombei*   |     |     |
| *Clostridium lituseburense* |     |
| *Corynebacterium xerosis* |     |
| *Clostridium beijerinckii* |     |
| *AMS507775_s*            |     |     |
| *GQ359984_s*             |     |     |
| *Peptostreptococcaceae_uc_s* |     |
| *Clostridium celatum*    |     |     |
| *Lactobacillus_uc*       |     |     |
| *Streptococcaceae_uc_s*  |     |     |
| *Lachnospiraceae_uc_s*   |     |     |
| *Bacillales_uc_s*        |     |     |
| *Clostridium puniceum*   |     |     |
| *Lactobacillales_uc_s*   |     |     |
| *Lactobacillaceae_uc_s*  |     |     |
| *Streptococcus_uc*       |     |     |
| *Lactobacillus reuteri*  |     |     |
| *Atopostipes_uc*         |     |     |
| *Bacillales_uc_s*        |     |     |
| *Clostridium baratii*    |     |     |
| *Clostridiales_uc_s*     |     |     |
| *EF436397_s*             |     |     |
| *Turibacter_f_uc_s*      |     |     |
| *Clostridium mayombei*   |     |     |
| *Clostridium lituseburense* |     |
| *Corynebacterium xerosis* |     |
| *Clostridium beijerinckii* |     |
| *AMS507775_s*            |     |     |
| *GQ359984_s*             |     |     |
| *Peptostreptococcaceae_uc_s* |     |
| *Clostridium celatum*    |     |     |
| *Lactobacillus_uc*       |     |     |
| *Streptococcaceae_uc_s*  |     |     |
| *Lachnospiraceae_uc_s*   |     |     |
| *Bacillales_uc_s*        |     |     |
group of the fecal streptococcus group and consist of a number of species, including *E. faecalis*, *E. faecium*, *S. gallinarum*, and *S. avium*. Because of the high prevalence and abundance of *L. amylovorus* in piglet feces, researchers have proposed that this species may serve as a novel marker for pig fecal contamination [25]. Finally, Marti et al [26] examined 163 samples, including 48 pig and 87 other animal fecal samples, in addition to 28 human fecal samples, demonstrating that *L. amylovorus* was present in 100% of the swine fecal samples.

Kim [28] analyzed pH, NH$_4$-N (%), and volatile fatty acids in samples of swine slurry collected from a farm over a course of 7 weeks. The analyses revealed changes from the initial concentrations of fatty acids in the first 4 weeks (acetic acid [880→2479 ppm], propionic acid [290→550 ppm], butyric acid [216→235 ppm], valeric acid [30→68 ppm], iso-butyric acid [157→249 ppm], and iso-valeric acid [210→349 ppm]). The highest concentrations (5,673, 1,155, 1,075, 94, 469, 540 ppm, respectively) were observed in the 6th week. The pH did not change significantly, from 6.86 to 7.29, during the period. In addition, NH$_4$-N (%) did not significantly change from the initial concentration of 0.33. In other words, there were no significant differences in the physicochemical properties (pH or NH$_4$-N [%]) of the swine slurry throughout storage.

In the current study, a decrease in bacterial community diversity was found to occur early, within the first 7 days, for samples stored at 37°C. However, the diversity loss occurred at a slower rate (after 4 weeks) in samples stored at 20°C. Based on the results obtained in the present study, it may be concluded that temperature plays an important role in the evolution of microbial communities in swine manure. Through controlling the temperature and storage period of manure and subsequently affecting the microbial communities, it may be possible to better control the odors typically generated by manure.

**CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

We certify that there is no conflict of interest with any financial organization regarding the material discussed in the manuscript.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This work was supported by the Korea Institute of Planning and Evaluation for Technology in Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (IPET) through the Advanced Production Technology Development Program, funded by the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (MAFRA) (316012-03-2-WT011).

**REFERENCES**

1. Mackie RI, Stroot PG, Varel VH. Biochemical identification and biological origin of key odor components in livestock waste. J Anim Sci 1998;76:1331-42.
2. Switzenbaum MS, Giraldo-Gomez E, Hickey RF. Monitoring of the anaerobic methane fermentation process. Enzyme Microb Technol 1990;12:722-30.
3. Miller DN, Varel VH. Swine manure composition affects the biochemical origins, composition, and accumulation of odorous compounds. J Anim Sci 2003;81:2131-8.
4. Clark RM, Geldreich EE, Fox KR, et al. Tracking a *Salmonella* serovar typhimurium outbreak in Gideon, Missouri: role of contaminant propagation modelling. J Water Supply Res Technol 1996;45:171-83.
5. Hurst CJ, Crawford RL, Knudsen GR, et al. Manual of environmental microbiology, second ed. Washington, DC, USA: ASM Press; 2002.
6. Jensen BB. Possible ways of modifying type and amount of products from microbial fermentation in the gut. In: Piva A, Bach Knudsen KE, Lindberg J-E, editors. Gut environment of pigs. Loughborough, UK: Nottingham University Press;
7. Zhang D, Yuan X, Guo P, et al. Microbial population dynamics and changes in main nutrients during the acidification process of pig manures. J Environ Sci (China) 2011;23:497-505.
8. Munch B, Errebo Larsen H, Aalbæk B. Experimental studies on the survival of pathogenic and indicator bacteria in aerated and non-aerated cattle and pig slurry. Biol Wastes 1987;22:49-65.
9. Peu P, Brugère H, Pourcher A-M, et al. Dynamics of a pig slurry microbial community during anaerobic storage and management. Appl Environ Microbiol 2006;72:3578-85.
10. Okabe S, Shimazu Y. Persistence of host-specific Bacteroides-Prevotella 16S rRNA genetic markers in environmental waters: effects of temperature and salinity. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 2007;76:935-44.
11. Gourmelon M, Caprais MP, Ségura R, et al. Evaluation of two library-independent microbial source tracking methods to identify sources of fecal contamination in French estuaries. Appl Environ Microbiol 2007;73:4857-66.
12. Pieper R, Janczyk P, Zeyner A, et al. Ecophysiology of the developing total bacterial and Lactobacillus communities in the terminal small intestine of weaning piglets. Microb Ecol 2008;56:474-83.
13. Hur M, Kim Y, Song HR, et al. Effect of genetically modified poplars on soil microbial communities during the phytoremediation of waste mine tailings. Appl Environ Microbiol 2011;77:7611-9.
14. Kim BS, Kim JN, Yoon SH, et al. Impact of enrofloxacin on the human intestinal microbiota revealed by comparative molecular analysis. Anaerobe 2012;18:310-20.
15. Eddy SR. Accelerated profile HMM searches. PLoS Comput Biol 2011;7:e1002195.
16. Kim OS, Cho YJ, Lee K, et al. Introducing EzTaxon-e: a prokaryotic 16S rRNA gene sequence database with phylotypes that represent uncultured species. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 2012;62:716-21.
17. Edgar RC, Haas BJ, Clemente JC, Quince C, Knight R. UCHIME improves sensitivity and speed of chimera detection. Bioinformatics 2011;27:2194-200.
18. Schloss PD, Westcott SL, Ryabin T, et al. Introducing Mothur: open-source, platform-independent, community-supported software for describing and comparing microbial communities. Appl Environ Microbiol 2009;75:7537-41.
19. Hamady M, Lozupone C, Knight R. Fast UniFrac: facilitating high-throughput phylogenetic analyses of microbial communities including analysis of pyrosequencing and PhyloChip data. ISME J 2010;4:17-27.
20. Andrew FS. Rarefaction curves. In: Kotz S, Campbell B, Balakrishnan N, Vidakovic B, editors. Encyclopedia of Statistical Science. New York, USA: John Wiley & Sons, New York, USA; 2006.
21. Haakensen M, Dobson CM, Deneer H, et al. Real-time PCR detection of bacteria belonging to the Firmicutes phylum. Int J Food Microbiol 2008;125:236-41.
22. Tallon P, Magajna B, Lofranco C, et al. Microbial indicators of fecal contamination in water: a current perspective. Water Air Soil Pollut 2005;166:139-66.
23. Kator H, Rhodes MW. Microbial and chemical indicators. In: Hackney C, Pierson M, editors. Environmental indicators and shellfish safety. New York, USA and London, UK: Chapman and Hall Publishers; 1994. pp. 30-91.
24. World Health Organization. Guidelines for drinking water quality, second ed., vol. 2, Health criteria and other supporting information. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 1996.
25. Marti R, Dabert P, Pourcher A-M. Pig manure contamination marker selection based on the influence of biological treatment on the dominant fecal microbial groups. Appl Environ Microbiol 2009;75:4967-74.
26. Marti R, Dabert P, Ziebal C, et al. Evaluation of Lactobacillus sobris/L. amylovorus as a new microbial marker of pig manure. Appl Environ Microbiol 2010;76:1456-61.
27. Peu P, Brugère H, Pourcher A-M, et al. Dynamics of a pig slurry microbial community during anaerobic storage and management. Appl Environ Microbiol 2006;72:3578-85.
28. Kim WJ. Improvement of livestock odor through livestock manure recycling project. In: Fall Conference of the Korean Society of Odor Research and Engineering 2017, 2017 Nov 23-24; Lee Tae-seok Memorial Hall, Inje University, Gimhae, Korea: Korean Society of Odor Research and Engineering; 2017. pp. 44-56.