Bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome profile of water in the Manila Bay South Harbor

Harlene B. Cardos^{*1}, Leslie Michelle M. Dalmacio¹, Marilen P. Balolong²

¹University of the Philippines Manila, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, College of Medicine, Manila, Philippines

²University of the Philippines Manila, Department of Biology, College of Arts and Sciences, Manila, Philippines

ABSTRACT

nthropogenic activities in Manila Bay, the oldest and busiest international port in the Philippines, may cause changes in flora and fauna within its harbors. Specifically, the ballasting and deballasting of ships may accidentally introduce new populations of microorganisms, plants, and animals. Ballasting (and deballasting), or the process of carrying in/out of seawater from ship tanks in major ports/harbors, are causing major disturbances, particularly in marine ecosystems. Previous

*Corresponding author Email Address: hbcardos@up.edu.ph Date received: July 10, 2022 Date revised: May 01, 2023 Date accepted: June 29, 2023 studies have shown that marine microorganisms comprise 98% of the primary production and regulation of the ocean's biogeochemical processes. However, with the continuous community disturbances due to human influence, potential marine bacterial populations with antibiotic resistomes may occur, and impact marine diversity. Since data on the microbial communities in Manila Bay South Harbor are limited, this study determined the bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome profiles of water samples from the area. Next-generation sequencing techniques and culture-based methods were utilized to elucidate the bacterial and functional diversity, as well as the antibiotic resistome of the water samples from the Manila Bay South Harbor. The bacterial diversity of the water sample was made up primarily of members of Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, and

KEYWORDS

Manila Bay South Harbor, marine bacteria, shotgun metagenomic sequencing, antibiotic resistance genes, antibiotic-resistant bacteria Prevotella. The Clusters of Orthologous Group (COG) Level 1 identified metabolism as the most dominant functional predicted metagenome. The characterization of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) from water samples revealed that ARGs encoding resistance to multidrug was the most abundant. On the other hand, the identified antibiotic-resistant bacteria included ampicillin-resistant *Escherichia coli*, multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, ampicillin- and cefuroxime-resistant *Vibrio alginolyticus* and ampicillin resistant *Vibrio fiurnissii*. The above results provide a baseline marine bacterial community and antibiotic resistome profile of the Manila Bay South Harbor. This information is critical in gaining a better understanding of the potential roles of shifts in marine microbiomes, and in turn, help in developing appropriate solutions for managing the undesirable consequences of ballast water.

INTRODUCTION

Shipping is the most efficient mode of goods and passenger transport worldwide. International Maritime Organization reported that ships carry almost 80% of world trade. In an archipelagic country like the Philippines, thousands of ships navigate the Philippine waters on both inter-island and international routes. The country's most prominent and main shipping port is the port of Manila, situated on the eastern shore of Manila Bay. The port comprises the North and South Harbors, with the North Harbor for local inter-island shipping and the South Harbor for international shipping (Jacinto et al. 2006). Manila Bay supports the food, employment, livelihood, and recreation needs of 23 million Filipinos residing on its coasts (Prudente et al. 1997; Kim et al. 2011; Jacinto et al. 2006; PEMSEA and MBEMP-MBIN 2007; Greenpeace 2013).

Like many ports, the port of Manila is prone to pollution. The ballasting and deballasting of ships had been reported as one of the contributory factors to marine pollution (PoPa 2009). During the voyage, when ships are not carrying heavy enough cargo or more stability is required due to rough seas, commercial ships use ballast water to provide stability and maneuverability. An individual vessel carries approximately 150,000 metric tons of ballast water and sediments, and it can contain a diverse community of organisms, including invasive species, which are carried across the globe (Deacutis and Ribb 2002). Ships can carry about 3,000 to 4,500 marine species through the global ballasting and deballasting processes. The deballasting of water from ships acts as a vehicle for the global distribution of pathogens, waterborne diseases, and possible antibiotic-resistant forms, which may adversely impact humans, marine animals, and the aquatic ecosystem (Ruiz et al. 2000). Therefore, untreated ballast water can potentially impose an environmental and public health threat to coastal regions where ballast waters are released.

In a previous study by Balolong et al. (2020), Bacillus sp. (S23) isolate from Baseco Beach, Manila Bay was susceptible to four classes of antibiotics namely: ampicillin, cefazolin, cefuroxime, and ceftazidime. Klebsiella pneumoniae isolate was resistant to ampicillin while Vibrio alginolyticus (S6, S20, and S22) isolates were resistant to ampicillin, cefazolin, and cefuroxime (Balolong et al. 2020). In another study by Ng et al. (2015), antibiotic resistance profiles were screened and the result showed that the ballast water samples in the port of Singapore encode resistance to sulfonamides, trimethoprim, and chloramphenicol-florfenicol antibiotics. In particular, ARGs can be transferred via horizontal gene transfer (HGT) between microbes, including pathogens. Therefore, ARGs are spreading rapidly and becoming global environmental and public health issues (Pruden et al. 2006). If ballast water containing ARGs is discharged into new destination ports, these ARGs may proliferate in the receiving waters and threaten both environmental and human health (Lv et al. 2020). To date, few studies regarding the abundance and profiles of ARGs in ship ballast water have been reported (Lv et al. 2020). To reduce the risk of introducing an alien species via ballast water, several measures have been established by the International Maritime Organization (IMO), such as instituting the International Convention for the Control and Management of Ships' Ballast Water and Sediments (Lv et al. 2020). Of the proposed solutions, ballast water exchange (BWE) is an important and widely used method that involves the replacement of coastal water from ballast tanks with open-ocean water (Balaji et al. 2014; Gray et al. 2007; Seiden and Rivkin 2014).

On June 8, 2018, the Philippines acceded to the IMO Ballast Water Management and Anti-Fouling Conventions. These management and conventions oblige the Philippines to ensure its ports and maritime transport industry comply with the agreements to lessen the risk of biological invasion, public health threats, and the transport and translocation of harmful marine organisms and pathogens. A key program in the Ballast Water Management Convention (BWMC) is to come up with port ecological baselines that will provide a basis for assessing risks in ballast water species translocation.

Due to the ballasting and deballasting operations of ships and other human activities, Manila Bay may support a diverse array of marine ecosystems that include vertebrates, invertebrates, and large groups of microorganisms, including bacteria, viruses, archaea, protists, and fungi. However, only a few baseline reports exist on these microbial groups in Manila Bay South Harbor. This under-explored marine community can result in the most crucial environmental issues due to the emergence of possible pathogenic bacteria and antibiotic-resistant forms. Hence, this study provides baseline information on bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome profiles of water in the Manila Bay South Harbor. Specifically, this study describes the bacterial diversity of water in the Manila Bay South Harbor and the bacterial community's functional diversity, characterizes the antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) of bacteria from the site, and identifies the clinically relevant culturable antibiotic-resistant bacteria (ARB).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Study Site

Three sampling sites in Manila Bay, with entry points shown in Figure 1, were selected as these sites receive international vessels that could carry non-indigenous species from large ocean-going vessels. Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates at each sampling points were obtained.

B. Sampling and Monitoring of Water Quality Parameters

Two water sample collection periods, eight weeks apart, were done in the dry season of 2021. Environmental parameters, such as dissolved oxygen, temperature, pH, total dissolved solids, and conductivity of the water sample, were measured using the Horiba water quality checker U-5000 (Horiba Ltd., Kyoto, Japan). Two liters of harbor water were collected from the three sampling sites and were pooled as one sample. The sample was obtained using a pre-cleaned bucket with a rope that was submerged twelve inches below the surface water. The water sample was transferred into a sterile plastic container, which was then labeled and sealed. The sample containers were transported in tightly-packed, sealed coolers to the laboratory and were filtered immediately.



Figure 1: Sampling sites (labeled 1-3) of the study

C. Water Filtration and Genomic DNA Extraction

A one-liter water sample from each sampling site was filtered using a 0.22 um sterile nylon filter membrane. The filter membranes containing the residue were stored for 12 hours at -80°C in a centrifuge tube containing RNAlater, a tissue storage reagent, until further use.

The genomic DNA from the filter membrane containing the residue was extracted with the DNeasy® PowerWater® DNA Isolation kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's procedures. DNA yields and purity were measured using a Thermo Scientific Nanodrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Wilmington, DE 19810, USA).

D. Shotgun Metagenomic Sequencing and Bioinformatics Analysis

Extracted bacterial genomic DNA was sent to Macrogen, Inc. in South Korea for fragment library construction and shotgun sequencing. The concentration of at least 5ng/ul and 260/280 purity ratio of at least 1.7 required by Macrogen, Inc. were satisfied, and the samples were subjected to Quality Control. Qualified samples proceeded to the library construction.

The sequencing library was prepared by random fragmentation of the DNA or cDNA sample, followed by 5' and 3' adapter ligation. Adapter-ligated fragments were then PCR amplified and gel purified. The library was loaded into a flow cell for cluster generation. When the cluster generation was completed, the templates were prepared for sequencing using Illumina SBS technology.

Sequencing data were converted into raw data for analysis. All raw reads were functionally and taxonomically classified using the metagenomics Rapid Annotation using Subsystem Technology (MG-RAST) server version 4.0.3. The taxonomic classification and functional characterization were performed with the MG-RAST server using the Reference Sequence (RefSeq) and Clusters of Orthologs Group (COG) databases, respectively, with default parameters.

E. Antibiotic-Resistance Genes (ARG) Characterization

Antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) were identified using the data obtained from the shotgun metagenomic sequencing and bioinformatics analysis. Read quality was first checked using the FastQC quality control checker, and low-quality reads were trimmed using the Trimmomatic flexible read trimming tool. Trimmed reads were then assembled using the de novo type Megahit assembler into contigs. The quality of the contigs was then checked using Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO). Finally, contigs were mapped against the ARG-miner database (VirginiaTech) with the Diamond aligner tool (Buchfink et al. 2021). The shotgun reads were compared with databases of known functional and resistance genes to determine the relative abundance of resistance genes.

F. Identification and Antibiotic Susceptibility Test (AST) of Clinically Relevant Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria (ARB)

One liter from each sampling site was mixed well to a total volume of three liters. A volume of 120 ml of the combined water sample was transferred to a sterile sample container. The samples were placed in a cold shipping container and brought to the Microbiology Laboratory of Makati Medical Center, Department of Pathology and Laboratories for identification and antibiotic susceptibility test (AST) of antibiotic-resistant bacteria (ARB) using the VITEK® Automated System. The antibiotics tested were cefepime, amikacin, gentamicin, amoxicillin/ clavulanic acid, piperacillin/ tazobactam, cefoxitin, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime, trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole, ampicillin, ertapenem, imipenem, meropenem, and ciprofloxacin.

1. Isolation and Purification

A volume of 10 ml water samples was planted in five test tubes of Lactose Broth and incubated for 24 hours at 35°C. Subculture was done with all turbid lactose tubes in Blood Agar Plate (BAP), and MacConkey (MAC) using a 10 ul loop and incubated at 35-37°C for 24 hours. All growth from subculture plates was picked and re-isolated in another MAC and BAP media to ensure growth purity.

2. Partial Characterization

For gram-negative bacteria, differentiation was done in MacConkey agar and an oxidase test was performed. For grampositive microorganisms, differentiation was done by hemolysis reading on a blood agar plate and a catalase test was conducted.

3. Identification

The VITEK[®] MS target slides were used in the VITEK[®] MS for the identification of the isolated colonies.

4. Antibiotic Susceptibility Testing (AST)

VITEK® 2 AST-N261 ID Card was used for the rapid, accurate species-level AST of clinically relevant bacteria and are also validated to be used for non-clinical samples (Pecson et al. 2021, Park et al. 2021, and Nakamura et al. 2020). The antibiotics tested were cefepime, amikacin, gentamicin, amoxicillin/ clavulanic acid, piperacillin/ tazobactam, cefoxitin, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime, trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole, imipenem, ampicillin, ertapenem, meropenem, and ciprofloxacin. The selection of antibiotics in the VITEK® 2 XL is based on the Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) and the European Committee for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST). Every Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) result was checked against a database of more than 3,500 phenotypes and 30,000 MIC distributions to determine consistency with previously defined wild or resistant phenotypes. Results were certified by a clinical pathologist from the Microbiology Section of the Makati Medical Center.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

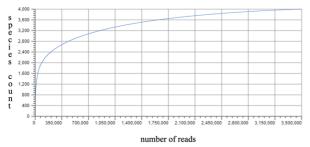
The amount of data obtained through next-generation shotgun sequencing, bioinformatics analysis, and culture-dependent antibiotic susceptibility test, provides baseline information on bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome of water samples from Manila Bay South Harbor. The sampling was performed during the dry season to capture all the bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome present in Manila Bay. Results of the first and second sampling collections were consolidated to provide a more explicit description of the bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome in Manila Bay.

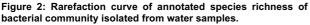
A. Water Quality Parameters

Generally, tropical regions' marine water temperatures range from about -2°C to 30°C (Webb, 2022). The study's surface water temperature values have an average value of 30.15°C. The result suggests that the temperature in Manila Bay is generally ambient for microorganisms to thrive. Meanwhile, the ideal pH value for marine and natural freshwater bacteria ranges from 2 to 13.1 (EMB DENR, 2008). The average pH value of the sample is 6.22, suggesting that the pH level for the bacterial community in Manila Bay is ideal for their survival. The dissolved oxygen level in the sampling area is 6.05 milligrams per liter (mg O2/L). Levels above five mg/L are considered optimal for the survival of marine organisms (EMB DENR, 2008). Thus, the water quality in Manila Bay can support desirable aquatic life. Too high or too low values of these water quality parameters may negatively impact the water's biological and chemical activities.

B. Bacterial Diversity

The shotgun data set generated a total average of 3,232,667 sequences and 794,655,193 base pairs with an average length of 245.5 bps. After quality filtering, 2,759,361 (85.36%) unique sequences, with an average length of 249 base pairs, passed the Quality Control pipelines. Taxonomic affiliations were assigned to sequences with predicted proteins and rRNA genes based on a comparison with the M5NR database. Alpha diversity value and rarefaction curve were obtained using the Metagenomics Rapid Annotation using Subsystem Technology (MG-RAST) tool. Alpha diversity based on Shannon's index for the sample was 155. The Shannon's diversity index combines richness and diversity; thus, this value is the number of species with wellbalanced abundances in the sample. The sample's rarefaction curve was asymptotic, suggesting that most taxonomic diversity was recovered and that a more intensive sampling will yield only a few additional species (Figure 2). The sampling curve ascended quickly and then leveled off toward an asymptote as fewer new species per unit of individuals were collected, indicating that the bacterial communities in the metagenome were well-represented.





The metagenomic sequencing of Manila Bay South Harbor water samples revealed that $\sim 85\%$ of the total assigned reads for taxonomic classification are bacteria (Figure 3A). A total of 27 bacterial phyla were identified in the sample, and these were further classified into 42 classes and 86 orders (Table 1). The bacterial community was diverse, representing 206 families and 502 genera.

Bacteroidetes (60.98%) and Firmicutes (26.37%) were found to be the two predominant phyla, representing 87.28% of the total bacterial community (Figure 3B). Bacteroidetes is one of the most abundant bacterial groups in aquatic ecosystems, contributing approximately 4% to 22% of total bacteria (Acinas et al. 2015; Alonso-Sáez and Gasol 2007; Cottrell and Kirchman 2000). Bacteroidetes is reported to be pivotal in processing organic matter in the oceans (Kirchman 2002). The phylum Bacteroidetes is also known to be inhabitants of fecal material and have been used to discern fecal source types (Jeong et al. 2011). Similar studies by Unno et al. (2010) revealed that the phylum Firmicutes is also one of the significant human fecal bacteria detected in watersheds. Sun et al. (2017) reported the detection of high levels of Firmicutes attributed to the fecal bacteria in the effluent discharged from a nearby wastewater treatment plant. The high abundance of fecal bacteria phyla in the sample may be due to human interference and the direct discharge of human excreta from the surrounding environments into Manila Bay.

The bacterial class with the highest relative abundance was Bacteroidia (58.15%). The relative abundance of the dominant bacterial groups at the class level is presented in Figure 3C. Bacteroidia, belonging to the phylum Bacteroidetes, was primarily detected in municipal sewage samples (Tiwari et al. 2021). The genus under class Bacteroidia has been reported to exhibit pathogenicity to marine organisms (Reza et al. 2018). The most abundant order in the metagenome is Bacteroidales accounting for almost 58.15% of the total bacterial population (Figure 3D). The order Bacteroidales belongs to the class Bacteroidia and phylum Bacteroidetes. Bacteroidales are fecal anaerobic bacteria commonly observed in the wastewater collection system (Bae and Wuertz 2009) and most surface water (Schriewer et al. 2010). The most dominant bacterial family in the metagenome is Bacteroidaceae (Figure 3E). Bacteroidaceae includes gram-negative, anaerobic, nonspore-forming rod (Moore et al. 1976) species that are recovered mostly from clinical specimens (Brook 2017) and are resistant to penicillins, mainly through the production of β-lactamase (Brook 2017). They are part of the normal gastrointestinal flora and predominate in intra-abdominal infections and other infections originating from the gut flora (Brook 2017).

The topmost abundant bacterial genera isolated from the water sample of Manila Bay are Bacteroides and Prevotella (Figure 3F). Bacteroides species are anaerobic, bile-resistant, non-sporeforming, gram-negative rods and are significant clinical pathogens (Wexler 2007). Bacteroides are the most abundant organism in human feces (Cabral 2010) and are reported to exhibit resistance to a wide variety of antimicrobials (Vedantam 2009). Bacteroides are naturally resistant to aminoglycosides and can acquire resistance to the beta-lactams, tetracyclines, macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin (MLS) drugs, nitroimidazoles, and quinolones (Vedantam 2009). A previous study showed that certain Bacteroides species in the environment always indicate fecal pollution since they are strict anaerobe and are not expected to grow in oxic environments (Bakir et al. 2006). Since Bacteroides were detected from water samples of Manila Bay, this suggests that fecal pollution around the sampling areas is likely due to a high anthropogenic influence on the area's coastal water. The second most abundant bacterial genus was Prevotella within the family Prevotellaceae of the phylum Bacteroidetes. Prevotella species are rod-shaped, gramnegative, obligate anaerobic bacteria often found in the human oral, intestinal, and urogenital floras (Jousimies-Somer 1995). This anaerobe is considered an opportunistic pathogen (Könönen et al. 1994) and several studies have demonstrated the increasing resistance among *Prevotella* species against β -lactam antibiotics. Some have shown partial resistance to metronidazole (Sandoe 2001, Könönen et al. 1997). Earlier studies have reported that members of the Prevotella genus have been detected in feces-contaminated surface waters (Ponce-Terashima et al. 2014). Prevotella was also reported as the most abundant genus in human fecal samples and sewage samples (Koskey et al. 2014). The high prevalence of this genus in the water sample may be caused by the transmission of waste belonging to human and animal normal flora into the bodies of water in Manila Bay.

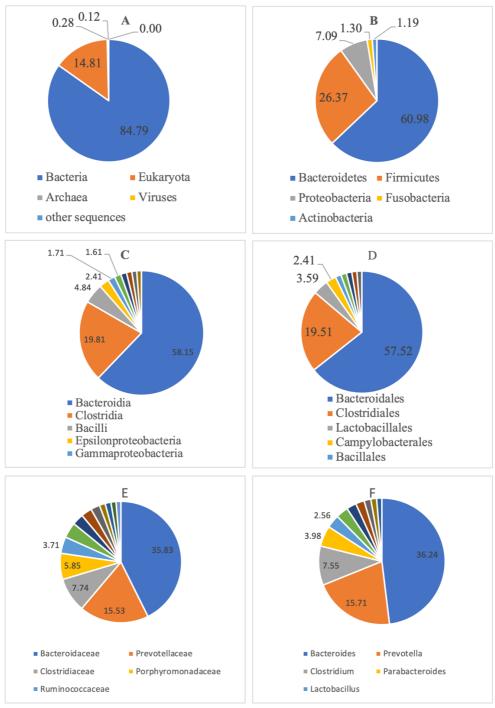


Figure 3: Bacterial domain distribution based on metagenomic analysis of bacterial genomic DNA isolated from water samples, A – Domain, B – Phylum, C – Class, D – Order, E – Family, and F - Genus

Table 1: Physicochemical cha	aracteristics of water samples.

••		
	Environmental Parameters	Mean of Two Sampling Collection Periods
	Temperature °C	30.15±0.93
	pH level	6.22 ± 0.90
	Conductivity (mS/cm)	37.63±1.62
	Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	6.05 ± 0.03
	Total dissolved solids (g/L)	22.67±1.24

Of the potential bacterial pathogens in the water, a total of 17 were detected from the samples. The potential pathogens include *Bacillus, Escherichia, Enterococcus, Mycoplasm, Pseudomonas, Vibrio, Neiserria, Salmonella, Shigella, Arcobacter, Mycobacterium, Leptospira, Corynebacterium, Legionella, Enterobacter, Aeromonas,* and *Serratia.* The direct exposure of humans to pathogens can contribute to developing health threats. The interaction of the pathogen and the susceptibility of the host and its environment are factors to the threats and risks to the community near the Manila Bay South Harbor.

Ballast water containing ARBs and ARGs has the potential to invade the receiving waters' indigenous ecosystems. Because of the abundance of ARGs and potential pathogens in ballast tanks or destination ports after discharge, it is possible that ARGs was transmitted among bacteria via HGT. Ship ballast water should be considered a fast-moving carrier of antibiotic resistance due to the high abundances of the ARGs found in the sample.

Based on the results of the taxonomic composition, the study site may be constantly exposed to fecal bacteria. Fecal bacteria can contribute to the accumulated load of biological, organic, and chemical contaminants in water environments (Paruch et al. 2019). These contaminants additionally create different stresses on the central environmental processes in ecosystems, such as nutrient flow and availability, biodegradation, and disturbances in the water and energy cycle (Paruch et al. 2019). Because of these factors, fecal pollution can cause negative impacts on the structure of the aquatic community (Paruch et al. 2019). Fecal input can also constitute an extra selective pressure on the aquatic microbial community, selectively promoting the growth of some beneficial microbes and thus resulting in the extinction of other microbial populations (Paruch et al. 2019). Direct or indirect sewage or domestic waste disposal from nearby facilities may have introduced clinical strains in the environment. Aside from the marine pollution due to ballasting and deballasting processes, reports from the Department of Health (DOH) Environmental and Occupational Health Cluster revealed that wastes from nearby households and healthcare facilities like clinics and hospitals contribute to the contamination of the Manila Bay waters. The polluted water in Manila Bay may pose potential health risks to the environment; thus, quality issues should become the core concern for public and regulatory authorities.

C. Functional Characterization

The Clusters of Orthologous Group (COG) database revealed different patterns of functions from the bacterial community in water samples of Manila Bay. Level 1 indicates the broadest set of functions to which sequences are assigned, while level 2 refers to a more specific functional assignment within level 1 categories. The three metagenomes predicted functions classified using Clusters of Orthologous Group (COG) level 1 are metabolism (48.03%), information storage and processing (26.93%), and cellular processes and signaling (25.04%) (Table 2), suggesting the dominant role of these functional categories in all samples. Within the level 1 metabolism category, sequences associated with level 2 functional categories such as carbohydrate transport and metabolism, amino acid transport and metabolism, and energy production and conversion were dominant in the sample (Table 3). This finding corresponds well with the expected higher content of carbohydrates in water samples because these compounds can serve as carbon and energy sources for microbial activity. Amino acid transport and metabolism were also detected with high abundance in the water sample. This might be due to the presence of free and combined amino acids (e.g., oligopeptides and proteins), which are essential sources of carbon, nitrogen, and energy for marine heterotrophic bacteria. The presence of energy production and conversion are significant in the water sample since they are responsible for many fundamental biological processes of most heterotrophic marine bacteria. The top functional genes appeared to be consistent with previous reports, where genes involved in carbohydrate, protein, and amino acid metabolism were observed in the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans (Venter et al. 2004; Rusch et al. 2007; Hewson et al. 2009). This result implies that the prokaryotes that dominate surface water environments possibly share a core set of genes critical to these communities' adaptation and survival (Hewson et al. 2009). For more specific functional assignments within level 1 information storage and processing (ISP), functions affiliated with level 2 were cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis, replication, recombination, repair transcription, and Chromatin structure and dynamics. Biogenesis of cell wall/membrane/envelope is a cellular process that results in the synthesis of constituent macromolecules,

assembly, and arrangement of constituent parts of the cellular component (Smith et al. 2019). This process is also essential for marine bacteria to maintain their shape and protect them from osmotic lysis (Smith et al. 2019).

Table 2: Percent relative abundance of sequences belonging to COG level 1 category.

COG Level 1	Percent Relative Abundance
Metabolism	48.03
Information Storage And Processing	26.93
Cellular Processes And Signaling	25.04

Functional analysis of the metagenomic data explored what the microbes that are present are doing, and how they are doing it. The functional analysis provides essential clues about functional diversity and variation to better understand the molecular function, cellular component, and biological processes of bacterial communities in the water sample. Determining subtle differences in metabolic potential will allow environmental changes at the early stages of perturbation and identify previously unknown pathways for therapeutics (Dinsdale et al. 2008). Understanding the capabilities of bacterial communities in water will aid the industry and its regulators improve environmental and economic sustainability through informed water management decisions.

D. ARG Characterization

The relative abundance of the dominant ARGs (greater than 1% abundance) is presented in Table 4. The ARGs encoding resistance to multidrug was the most abundant in water samples. Multidrug-ARGs were also previously reported as the dominant ARG types in sewage and activated sludge (Li et al. 2015). As expected, these dominant ARGs were usually associated with antibiotics that have been extensively used in human or veterinary medicine (Li et al. 2015). Land-based human activities, including the discharge of municipal, industrial and agricultural wastes and runoff, and ballasting and deballasting, can be the leading cause of this pollution in Manila Bay.

E. Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria Identification

Culture-dependent identification and susceptibility testing using VITEK® MS and VITEK® 2 XL automated system are only limited to analyzing the most clinically relevant culturable bacteria. However, some previous publications demonstrate that VITEX[®]2 XL is a versatile platform that can be used for detecting pathogens in a variety of non-clinical samples; thus manual validation using other method(s) is/are not needed. A study by Pecson et al. (2021) demonstrated the use of VITEX® 2 XL for detecting SARS-CoV-2 in wastewater sample. Another study by Park et al. (2021) validated the use of VITEX®2 platform for detecting Norovirus in fresh produce wash water. Nakamura et al. (2020) also demonstrated the use of VITEX[®] 2 XL for detecting foodborne pathogens in food samples. The antibiotics tested in this study were cefepime, amikacin, piperacillin/ gentamicin. amoxicillin/ clavulanic acid, tazobactam, cefoxitin, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime, trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole, ampicillin, ertapenem, imipenem, meropenem, and ciprofloxacin.

Twelve bacterial isolates were identified in the sample (Table 5). Four isolates were recognized as antibiotic-resistant bacteria, namely, multidrug (cefepime, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, ciprofloxacin, and amoxicillin/clavulanic) resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, ampicillin-resistant *Escherichia coli*, ampicillin-resistant *Vibrio furnissi*, and cefuroxime and ampicillin-resistant *Vibrio alginolyticus*. The presence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria may serve as source for the transmission of resistant determinants to susceptible bacteria, including human pathogens. Some of the

Table 3: Percent relative abundance of sequences belonging to COG level 2 functional categories within associated level 1 categories.

COG Level 1	COG Level 2	Percent	Relative
		Abundance	
Metabolism	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	11.38	
Metabolism	Amino acid transport and metabolism	10.22	
ISP	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	8.65	
	Cell cycle control, cell division, chromosome	5.62	
CPS	partitioning		
Metabolism	Energy production and conversion	5.18	
Metabolism	Coenzyme transport and metabolism	5.18	
ISP	Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	5.12	
CPS	Cell motility	4.91	
ISP	Chromatin structure and dynamics	4.23	
CPS	Defense mechanisms	3.77	

Legend: ISP-Information, Storage and Processing; CPS-Cellular Processes and Signaling

Table 4: List of bacterial ARGs representing >1% of the total community identified by metagenomic analysis

i community identi	neu by melayenomic analysis.
Туре	Percent Relative Abundance
evgS	2.41
macB	2.10
Mfd	2.03
OXA-34	1.69
optrA	1.53
desR	1.31
TaeA	1.41
mupB	1.03
	Type evgS macB Mfd OXA-34 optrA desR TaeA

Table 5: Antibiotic Susceptibility Assay of Isolates using VITEK® 2 XL.

Antibiotic	Isolates											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Cefepime	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Amikacin	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Gentamicin	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Amoxicillin/	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Clavulanic Acid												
Piperacillin/ Tazobactam	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Cefoxitin	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Ceftazidime	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Ceftriaxone	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Cefuroxime	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S
Trimethoprim/	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Sulfamethoxazole												
Ampicillin	R	R	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	R	S
Ertapenem	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Imipenem	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Meropenem	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Ciprofloxacin	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Legend: S-Susceptible; I-	Intermediate;	R-R	esistant;	1-Escl	herichia	coli;	2-Klebsiella	pne	umoniae;	3-Photo	bacterium	damsela

Sphingomonas paucimobilis; 5-Aeromonas hydrophila; 6-Vibrio furnissii; 7-Aeromonas punctate; 8-Vibrio parahaemolyticus; 9-Proteus penneri; 10-Aeromonas enteropelegenes; 11-Vibrio alginolyticus; 12-Vibrio fluvialis

bacterial strains identified are of clinical importance and may pose treatment failures in the host during antibiotic therapy. The ability to disseminate of multidrug-resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae strains from hospitals to the environment was previously demonstrated (Mahon et al. 2017; Khan et al. 2018; Lepuschitz et al. 2019) highlighting the ability of these strains to survive and persist in environmental conditions. Multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is a major nosocomial pathogen, causing infections with high morbidity and mortality rates of up to 50% (Bassetti et al. 2018), caused by limited treatment options. This pathogen harbors a wide resistome that could evolve under antibiotic selective pressure, leading to extremely drug-resistant or high-risk clones with great epidemic potential (Navon-Venezia et al. 2017) if not correctly treated. Members of the Vibrio genus were also detected to have in this sample. This genus is an autochthonous inhabitant of aquatic environments and plays a vital role in sustaining the aquatic milieu. A recent study in Baseco Beach, Manila Bay, revealed that some Vibrio species harbor resistance toward ampicillin, cefazolin, cefuroxime, and gentamicin (Balolong et al. 2020). The development of resistance in *Vibrio* species can be due to frequent usage of antibiotics as part of the *Vibrio* infection treatment regimen (Sudha et al. 2014). *Escherichia coli* isolated from this sample showed resistance against ampicillin. In the previous study of *Escherichia coli* isolates from irrigation water in Metro Manila, the highest resistance was also observed in ampicillin, and tetracycline (Vital et al. 2018). The presence of ampicillinresistant *Escherichia coli* in Manila Bay water is alarming, as ampicillin is widely available and extensively used in the management and treatment of certain infections that are caused by bacteria.

F. Bacterial Composition and Antibiotic Resistome in the Manila Bay South Harbor

The water bacterial diversity is mainly composed of phylum Bacteroidetes and members of bacterial taxa under it. However, in the culture-dependent bacterial identification and antibiotic susceptibility tests using the VITEK[®] automated system, the predominant bacterial isolates were enteric bacteria from phylum Proteobacteria, because they were specifically selected through the culture conditions employed. The enteric bacteria, members of Enterobacteriaceae family that were detected by culture-dependent methods, were found lower in abundance in the metagenomic studies. As expected, many bacteria detected by the shotgun metagenomic sequencing were not isolated by the conventional culture-dependent methods. However, culturing complemented the metagenomic data results as clinically-relevant bacteria of concern were detected. Therefore, culture-dependent methods and metagenomics approaches are needed for a full insight into resistomes, and the combination of both methods significantly advanced our understanding of the role of the bacteria in the environmental samples.

The presence of enteric bacteria indicates fecal pollution and bacteria under Bacteroidetes have also been found in wastewater thus, Manila Bay might be highly contaminated by human/animal wastes. Considering the harsh environment in Manila Bay due to the shipping activities that disturb the marine habitat, functional genes that dominate surface water are important to the communities' adaptation and survival. The ARB present in the sample are members of the phylum Proteobacteria. Although they are present in lower abundance in the samples, there is still a tendency for horizontal gene transfer in the aquatic environment, hence a cause for concern for the environment's ecology. Acquisition of foreign DNA material through horizontal gene transfer is one of the most critical contributors to bacterial evolution and is often responsible for developing antimicrobial resistance. In this study, the antibiotic resistance genes encoding resistance to multiple drugs were the most abundant genes in the water sample; thus, the isolation of the multidrug-resistant bacteria phenotypically confirms the presence of the multidrug resistance genes in the sample. Antibiotics used in human and animal medicine are released through wastewater and subsequently to bodies of water, which is a major concern in the development of ARB. Even though the released antibiotics are diluted and degraded in the aquatic environment, trace level concentrations can potentially select for and preserve ARB. The detection of ARB in the sampling area will serve as a good contamination marker that will benefit human health risk evaluation. Although no data is available about medical cases of infections from Manila Bay due to bathing and other recreational activities done by people in Manila Bay or ingestion of contaminated seafood, the DOH warned the public that swimming or bathing in or near the polluted bodies of Manila Bay could lead to infections. Few studies have been conducted to estimate human health risks associated with ARB in recreational waters during various activities such as swimming, surfing, diving, boating, wading/splashing, and fishing. Exposure to ARB is possible during these recreational activities; however, further studies are necessary to draw public health conclusions. The direct exposure of humans to pathogens can contribute to developing health threats. The interaction of the pathogen and the susceptibility of the host and its environment are factors to the threats and risks to the community near the Manila Bay South Harbor.

In a study by Ng et al., (2015), they observed differences in the bacterial community composition, indicator organisms (*Escherichia coli, Enterococcus, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Salmonella spp.*, and Vibrio spp.), and the concentrations of ARB and ARGs in the ballast water of 3 ships and harbor waters at their port of call. They were able to find correlations between the concentrations of indicator organisms (*Escherichia coli, Vibrio cholera, Vibrio vulnificus,* and *P. aeruginosa*) and ARGs, which suggest that these species in ballast and harbor waters

may be carriers of ARGs. Generally, the culturable marine microbial communities in ballast and harbor waters were most resistant to trimethoprim, sulfanilamide, lincomycin, and tetracycline (Ng et al., 2015).

In this study, the high abundance of ARB and ARGs found in port water samples may act as a carrier for international ARGs transfer if these water samples are to be used for ship ballast water. Because of the large carrying capacities and high speeds of ocean vessels, ARGs in water samples should be given greater consideration. Although Ballast Water Exchange (BWE) can reduce the levels of several ARGs in ballast water, it is not a perfect protective strategy because residual ARGs are a risk (Lv et al. 2020). Disinfection techniques that remove ARGs may aid in the management of these emerging contaminants. As a result, more research on the removal of ARGs from ship ballast water is required to mitigate their negative effects. The ecological risks posed by emerging contaminants introduced by ship ballast water must be adequately addressed.

The identification of members of Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, and Prevotella, as well as ARGs encoding resistance to multidrug, in ballast water samples is crucial for developing appropriate solutions for managing the undesirable consequences of BWE. The development of effective ballast water treatment technologies that can eliminate harmful microorganisms and reduce the spread of antibiotic resistance. This study can inform policies and regulations that aim to reduce the impact of BWE on the environment and public health. The findings of such study can help identify the sources and routes of transmission of antibiotic-resistant bacteria. By identifying the fecal bacterial and antibiotic resistome in ballast water, researchers can determine the types and prevalence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria in different ports and shipping lanes. This information can then be used to develop appropriate solutions for managing the spread of antibiotic resistance, such as the implementation of ballast water treatment technologies, regulation of ballast water exchange, or the use of alternative methods for managing ship ballast.

CONCLUSION

The bacterial diversity of water from the Manila Bay South Harbor was primarily composed of Bacteroidetes and members of bacterial taxa under it. Potential bacterial pathogens in the sample were detected, implying that Manila Bay is a reservoir of these potentially harmful bacteria. The functional diversity profiles of the bacterial community from the said water sample were dominated by carbohydrate and amino acid transport and metabolism genes. The characterization of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) from water samples revealed that ARGs encoding resistance to multidrug, macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin, and quinolone was the most abundant. These dominant ARGs are usually associated with antibiotics that have been extensively used in human or veterinary therapy. The antibiotic-resistant bacteria (ARB) present in the sample were multidrug (cefepime, ceftriaxone, ceftazidime, cefuroxime, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, ciprofloxacin, amoxicillin/clavulanic, and ampicillin) resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae, ampicillin-resistant Escherichia coli, ampicillinresistant Vibrio furnissii, and ampicillin- and cefuroximeresistant Vibrio alginolyticus. Detecting these microorganisms will help prevent the widespread dissemination of invasive species and possible antibiotic-resistant forms. Findings from this study provide baseline data for future studies on marine bacterial community and will serve as a good platform for many prospective areas of study. These data may be used to prevent widespread dissemination of ARB and ARGs in port water,

ensure proper ballast water management programs, and provide safe water to the surrounding environment. Based on the water sample's bacterial composition and antibiotic resistome, Manila Bay harbor contains potentially opportunistic pathogens. This contaminated harbor water may pose health risks to humans and the environment, and could possibly be spread in other areas through ballasting thus, water management decisions must be regulated in the area surrounding Manila Bay.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The study was funded by the Department of Science and Technology – Philippine Council for Industry, Energy, and Emerging Technology Research and Development (DOST-PCIEERD) through the Port and Ballast Water Baselines using Ecological, Microbiological, and eDNA approaches (PORTEC) Project. The study was also supported by the DOST-Science Education Institute (SEI) under the Accelerated Science and Technology Human Resource Development Program (ASTHRDP). The authors would like to extend special thanks to Francis Jayson B. Vallesfin for conducting the sampling and assisting with sample processing.

REFERENCES

- Acinas SG, Ferrera I, Sarmento H, Díez-Vives C, Forn I, Ruiz-González C, Cornejo-Castillo FM, Salazar G, Gasol JM. Validation of a new catalysed reporter depositionfluorescence in situ hybridization probe for the accurate quantification of marine Bacteroidetes populations: Quantification of marine Bacteroidetes. Environmental Microbiology 2015; 17(10): 3557–3569.
- Alonso-Sáez L, Gasol JM. Seasonal Variations in the Contributions of Different Bacterial Groups to the Uptake of Low-Molecular-Weight Compounds in Northwestern Mediterranean Coastal Waters. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 2007; 73(11): 3528–3535.
- Bae S, Wuertz S. "Discrimination of Viable and Dead Fecal Bacteroidales Bacteria by Quantitative PCR with Propidium Monoazide." Applied and Environmental Microbiology 2009; 75(9):2940–44.
- Bakir MA, Sakamoto M, Kitahara M, Matsumoto M, Benno Y. *Bacteroides dorei* sp. nov., isolated from human faeces. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 2006; 56:1639–1643.
- Balaji R, Yaakob O, Koh KK. A review of developments in ballast water management. Environ. Rev. 2014; 22 (3): 2
- Balolong MP, Pagoso EJ, Tesoro AN, Carrillo MC, Kitahara K. Isolation, identification and antibiogram profiling of bacteria isolated from water, seafood, and macroplastic samples from Baseco Beach, Manila Bay. Journal of Health Research 2020; 24: 20-30.
- Bassetti M, Righi E, Carnelutti A, Graziano E, Russo A. Multidrug-resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae: challenges for treatment, prevention and infection control. Expert Rev. Anti Infect. Ther. 2018; 16: 749–761.
- Brook I. 184—Anaerobic Bacteria. In Cohen J, Powderly MG, Opal, SM (Eds.), Infectious Diseases (Fourth Edition) 2017; e2:1628-1644.

- Buchfink B, Reuter K, Drost HG. Sensitive protein alignments at tree-of-life scale using DIAMOND. Nature Methods 2021; 18: 366–368
- Cabral J. Water Microbiology. Bacterial Pathogens and Water. International Journal of Environmental Research And Public Health 2010; 7(10): 3657-3703.
- Cottrell MT, Kirchman DL. Community Composition of Marine Bacterioplankton Determined by 16S rRNA Gene Clone Libraries and Fluorescence in Situ Hybridization. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 2000; 66(12): 5116–5122.
- Environmental Management Bureau Department Of Environment And Natural Resources (EMB DENR). Water Quality Monitoring Manual Volume I– Manual on Ambient Water Quality Monitoring 2008.
- Deacutis CF, Ribb RC. Ballast water and introduced species: management options for Narragansett Bay and Rhode island. Narragansett Bay Estuary Program. RI Department of Environmental Management 2002.
- Dinsdale EA, Edwards RA, Hall D, Angly F, Breitbart M, Brulc JM, Furlan M, Desnues C, Haynes M, Li L, McDaniel L, Moran MA, Nelson KE, Nilsson C, Olson R, Paul J, Brito BR, Ruan Y, Swan BK, Rohwer F. Functional metagenomic profiling of nine biomes. Nature 2008; 452(7187): 629–632.
- Gray DK, Johengen TH, Reid DF, MacIsaac HJ. Effificacy of open-ocean ballast water exchange as a means of preventing invertebrate invasions between freshwater ports. 2007; 52 (6):2.
- Greenpeace. Ocean Defender Tour of Southeast Asia: Manila Bay. 2013 Retrieved from http:// www.greenpeace.org/seasia/ph/press/reports/OceanDefender-Briefers.
- Hewson I, Paerl RW, Tripp HJ, Zehr JP, Karl, DM. 'Metagenomic potential of microbial assemblages in the surface waters of the central Pacific Ocean tracks variability in oceanic habitat', Limnology and Oceanography 2009; 54(6): 1981-1994.
- Jacinto GS, Velasquez IB, Diego-Mcglone ML, Villanoy CL, Siringan FB. Biophysical Environment of Manila Bay—Then and Now. In: The Environment in Asia Pacific Harbours. Wolanski 2006; E ed.: 293-307.
- Jeong, JY, Park HD, Lee KH, Weon HY, Ka JO. Microbial community analysis and identification of alternative hostspecific fecal indicators in fecal and river water samples using pyrosequencing. The Journal of Microbiology 2011; 49(4): 585–594.
- Jousimies-Somer HR. Update on the Taxonomy and the Clinical and Laboratory Characteristics of Pigmented Anaerobic Gram-Negative Rods. Clinical Infectious Diseases 1995: 20(Supplement_2): S187–S191.
- Khan FA, Hellmark B, Ehricht R, Söderquist B, Jass J. Related carbapenemase-producing Klebsiella isolates detected in both a hospital and associated aquatic environment in Sweden. European Journal of Clinical Microbiology & Infectious Diseases 2018; 37(12): 2241–2251.
- Kim J, Isobe T, Chang K, Amano A, Maneja RH, Zamora PB, Tanabe S. Levels and distribution of organophosphorus flame retardants and plasticizers in fishes from Manila Bay, the

Philippines. Environmental Pollution 2011; 159(12): 3653-3659.

- Kirchman DL. The ecology of Cytophaga–Flavobacteria in aquatic environments. FEMS Microbiology Ecology 2002; 39(2): 91–100.
- Könönen E, Asikainen S, Saarela M, Karjalainen J, Jousimies-Somer H. The oral gram-negative anaerobic microflora in young children: longitudinal changes from edentulous to dentate mouth. Oral Microbiology And Immunology 1994; 9(3): 136-141.
- Könönen E, Nyfors S, Mättö J, Asikainen S, Jousimies–Somer H. β-Lactamase Production by Oral PigmentedPrevotellaSpecies Isolated from Young Children. Clinical Infectious Diseases 1997; 25(s2): S272-S274.
- Koskey AM, Fisher JC, Eren AM, Ponce-Terashima R, Reis MG, Blanton RE, McLellan SL. Blautia and Prevotella sequences distinguish human and animal fecal pollution in Brazil surface waters: Blautia and Prevotella distinguish human fecal pollution. Environmental Microbiology Reports 2014; 6(6): 696–704.
- Lepuschitz S, Schill S, Stoeger A, Pekard-Amenitsch S, Huhulescu S, Inreiter N, Hartl R, Kerschner H, Sorschag S, Springer B, Brisse S, Allerberger F, Mach RL, Ruppitsch W. Whole genome sequencing reveals resemblance between ESBL-producing and carbapenem resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae isolates from Austrian rivers and clinical isolates from hospitals. Science of The Total Environment 2019; 662: 227–235.
- Li B, Yang Y, Ma L, Ju F, Guo F, Tiedje J, Zhang T. Metagenomic and network analysis reveal wide distribution and co-occurrence of environmental antibiotic resistance genes. The ISME Journal 2015; 9(11): 2490-2502.
- Lv B, Cui Y, Tian W, Wei H, Chen Q, Liu B, Xie B. Vessel Transport of antibiotic resistance genes across oceans and its implications for Ballast Water Management 2020; *253*:2
- Mahon BM, Brehony C, McGrath E, Killeen J, Cormican M, Hickey P, Keane S, Hanahoe B, Dolan A, Morris D. (2017). Indistinguishable NDM-producing Escherichia coli isolated from recreational waters, sewage, and a clinical specimen in Ireland, 2016 to 2017. Eurosurveillance 2017; 22(15): 30513
- Moore WEC, Johnson JL, Holdeman LV. Emendation of Bacteroidaceae and Butyrivibrio and Descriptions of Desulfomonas gen. Nov. And Ten New Species in the Genera Desulfomonas, Butyrivibrio, Eubacterium, Clostridium, and Ruminococcus. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 1976; 26(2): 238–252.
- Nakamura M, Okochi M, Mizuno J, Suzuki T, Akita T, Matsue T. Detection of foodborne pathogens using a portable impedance biosensor. Analytical Chemistry 2020; 92(11), 7708-7714. doi: 10.1021/acs.analchem.0c00970.
- Navon-Venezia S, Kondratyeva K, Carattoli A. Klebsiella pneumoniae: A major worldwide source and shuttle for antibiotic resistance. FEMS Microbiology Reviews 2017; 41(3): 252–275.

- Ng C, Le T-H, Goh SG, Liang L, Kim Y, Rose JB. A Comparison of Microbial Water Quality and Diversity for Ballast and Tropical Harbor Waters 2015; 10(11): 11-16.
- Park JW, Lee SY, Oh JY, Lee S, Lee HG, Yun H, Ko G. Validated the use of VITEX®2 platform for detecting Norovirus in fresh produce wash water. Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology 2021; 31(4), 499-505. doi: 10.4014/jmb.2011.11039
- Paruch L, Paruch A, Sørheim R, Eiken H. Faecal pollution affects abundance and diversity of aquatic microbial community in anthropo-zoogenically influenced lotic ecosystems. Sci Rep. 2019; 13.
- Pecson C, Darby J, Haas CN, Schmitz BW, Brown JM, Johnson HE. VITEX 2 XL, a rapid and high-throughput diagnostic tool for detecting SARS-CoV-2 in wastewater. Environmental Science & Technology Letters 2021; 8(1), 23-28. doi: 10.1021/acs.estlett.0c00821
- [PEMSEA] Regional Programme on Building Partnerships in Environmental Management for the Seas of East Asia, [MBEMP-MBIN] Manila Bay Environmental Management Project – Manila Bay Area Information Network. Manila Bay Area Environmental Atlas [PEMSEA Technical Report 20]. Quezon City, Philippines. 2007.
- Ponce-Terashima R, Koskey A, Reis M, McLellan S, Blanton R. "Sources and Distribution of Surface Water Fecal Contamination and Prevalence of Schistosomiasis in a Brazilian Village." Edited by Song Liang. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2014; 8(10):3186.
- PoPa L. Marine bio pollution through ballast water. Marine Transportation and Navigation Journal 2009; 1(1):105-109.
- Prudente M, Kim E, Tanabe S, Tatsukawa R. Metal levels in some commercial fish species from Manila Bay, the Philippines. Marine Pollution Bulletin 1997; 34(8): 671–674. doi:10.1016/s0025-326x(97)00035-0.
- Reza MdS, Mizusawa N, Kumano A, Oikawa C, Ouchi D, Kobiyama A, Yamada Y, Ikeda Y, Ikeda D, Ikeo K, Sato S, Ogata T, Kudo T, Jimbo M, Yasumoto K, Yoshitake K, Watabe S. Metagenomic analysis using 16S ribosomal RNA genes of a bacterial community in an urban stream, the Tama River, Tokyo. Fisheries Science 2018; 84(3):563–577.
- Ruiz GM, Rawling TK, Dobbs FC, Drake LA, TM AH. Global spread of microorganisms by ships. Nature 2000; 408:2.
- Rusch DB, Halpern AL, Sutton G, Heidelberg KB, Williamson S, Yooseph S, Wu D, Eisen JA, Hoffman JM, Remington K, Beeson K, Tran B, Smith H, BadenTillson H, Stewart C, Thorpe J, Freeman J, Andrews-Pfannkoch C, Venter JE, Li K, Kravitz S, Heidelberg JF, Utterback T, Rogers YH, Falcon LI, Souza V, Bonilla-Rosso G, Eguiarte LE, Karl DM, Sathyendranath S, Platt T, Bermingham E, Gallardo V, Tamayo-Castillo G, Ferrari MR, Strausberg RL, Nealson K, Friedman R, Frazier M, Venter JC. 'The Sorcerer II Global Ocean Sampling expedition: northwest Atlantic through eastern tropical Pacific', PLoS Biol 2007; 5(3);77.
- Sandoe J. Subdural empyema caused by Prevotella loescheii with reduced susceptibility to metronidazole. Journal Of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy 2001; 47(3): 366-367.

- Schriewer A, Miller WA, Byrne BA, Miller MA, Oates S, Conrad PA, Hardin D, Yang H.-H, Chouicha N, Melli A, Jessup D, Dominik C, Wuertz S. Presence of Bacteroidales as a Predictor of Pathogens in Surface Waters of the Central California Coast. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 2010; 76(17):5802–5814.
- Seiden JM, Rivkin RB. Biological controls on bacterial populations in ballast water during ocean transit. 2014; 78 (1e2): 2.
- Smith CM, Hayamizu TF, Finger JH, Bello SM, McCright IJ, Xu J, Baldarelli RM, Beal JS, Campbell JW, Corbani LE, Frost PJ, Lewis JR, Giannatto SC, Miers DB, Shaw DR, Kadin JA, Richardson JE, Smith CL, Ringwald M. The mouse Gene Expression Database (GXD): 2019 update. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019; 8(47)(D1): D774–D779.
- Sudha S, Mridula C, Silvester R, Hatha AAM. Prevalence and antibiotic resistance of pathogenic Vibrios in shellfishes from Cochin market. Indian J. Mar. Sci. 2014; 43:815–824.
- Sun H, He X, Ye L, Zhang XX, Wu B, Ren H. Diversity, abundance, and possible sources of fecal bacteria in the Yangtze River. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology 2017; 101(5): 2143–2152.
- Tiwari A, Hokajärvi AM, Domingo JS, Elk M, Jayaprakash B, Ryu H, Siponen S, Vepsäläinen A, Kauppinen A, Puurunen O, Artimo A, Perkola N, Huttula T, Miettinen IT, Pitkänen T. Bacterial diversity and predicted enzymatic function in a multipurpose surface water system – from wastewater effluent discharges to drinking water production. Environmental Microbiome 2021; 16(1):11.
- Unno T, Jang J, Han D, Kim JH, Sadowsky MJ, Kim OS, Chun J, Hur HG. Use of Barcoded Pyrosequencing and Shared OTUs To Determine Sources of Fecal Bacteria in Watersheds. Environmental Science & Technology 2010; 44(20): 7777–7782.
- Vedantam G. Antimicrobial resistance in Bacteroides spp.: occurrence and dissemination. Future Microbiology 2009; 4(4):413-423.
- Venter JC, Remington K, Heidelberg JF, Halpern AL, Rusch D, Eisen JA, Wu D, Paulsen I, Nelson KE, Nelson W, Fouts DE, Levy S, Knap AH, Lomas MW, Nealson K, White O, Peterson J, Hoffman J, Parsons R, Baden-Tillson H, Pfannkoch C, Rogers YH, Smith HO. 'Environmental genome shotgun sequencing of the Sargasso Sea', Science 2004; 304 (5667): 66-74.
- Vital P, Zara E, Paraoan C, Dimasupil Ma, Abello J, Santos I, Rivera W. Antibiotic Resistance and Extended-Spectrum Beta-Lactamase Production of Escherichia coli Isolated from Irrigation Waters in Selected Urban Farms in Metro Manila, Philippines. Water 2018; 10(5):548.
- Webb P. Introduction to Oceanography. Pressbook 2022; from https://rwu.pressbooks.pub/webboceanography/chapter/6-2-temperature/.
- Wexler H. Bacteroides: the Good, the Bad, and the Nitty-Gritty. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 2007; 20(4): 593-621.