
Identifying macroplastic pathobiomes and antibiotic resistance in a subtropical fish farm

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Abstract :

Macroplastics are ubiquitous in aquaculture ecosystems. However, to date the potential role of plastics as a support for bacterial biofilm that can include potential human pathogenic bacteria (PHPB) and antibiotic-resistant bacteria (ARB) has been largely overlooked. In this study, we used a combination of metabarcoding and standard antibiotic susceptibility testing to study the pathobiome and resistome of macroplastics, fish guts and the environment in a marine aquaculture farm in Mauritius. Aquaculture macroplastics were found to be higher in PHPB, dominated by the Vibrionaceae family (0.34 % of the total community), compared with environmental samples. Moreover, isolates from aquaculture plastics showed higher significant multiple antibiotic resistance (MAR) compared to non-plastic samples of seawater, sediment and fish guts. These results suggest that plastics act as a reservoir and fomite of PHPB and ARB in aquaculture, potentially threatening the health of farmed fish and human consumers.

Highlights

► The plastic bacteriome harbors more potential pathogens than environmental communities. ► Aquaculture plastic bacteria show a higher MAR index than non-plastic bacteria. ► Plastic can act as a reservoir for pathogenic and antibiotic-resistant bacteria. ► The fish and macroplastic bacteriome share certain pathogens. ► A nearby river can increase the risk of pathogen introduction in a fish farm.

Keywords : Plasticsphere, Aquaculture, Pathogen, Antibiotic, resistance

41 **Introduction**

42 Plastic pollution is a worldwide scourge that particularly affects marine environments, where
43 debris is ubiquitous (Chiba et al. 2018; Galgani et al. 2020). It is estimated that more than one
44 million tons of plastic waste enter oceans just from rivers each year (Lebreton et al. 2017). This
45 debris can persist for centuries in the marine environment. Floating plastics in marine
46 environments have different sizes: large debris (macroplastics) and smaller particles, which are
47 further classified into mesoplastics (< 20 mm), microplastics (< 5 mm) and nanoplastics (< 1
48 mm) (Barnes et al. 2009; Hanke et al. 2013; Provencher et al. 2017). The Indian Ocean is
49 particularly affected by the accumulation of plastic due to an oceanic gyre that concentrates
50 debris (van der Mheen et al. 2019; Chenillat et al. 2021).

51 Plastic pervades aquaculture settings. In open water aquaculture, free-floating plastic debris
52 from the ocean can enter the cages, and the aquaculture infrastructure itself is mainly composed
53 of plastic (e.g. buoys, pipes, nylon nets). Over time, this plastic tends to degrade under the
54 action of ultraviolet radiation, waves and wind, releasing small particles into seawater (Song et
55 al. 2017). These particles can subsequently be ingested by marine organisms, including reared
56 animals (reviewed in Barboza et al. 2018; Walkinshaw et al. 2020; Bowley et al. 2021; Chen et
57 al. 2021). A number of consequences of plastic ingestion by aquatic animals have been
58 described: for instance, obstruction, intoxication, or physiological and behavior modifications,
59 all of which can lead to death (Oliveira et al. 2013; Kershaw 2015; Law 2017; Yin et al. 2018;
60 de Sá et al. 2018).

61 In addition to their direct mechanical action, plastics can also adsorb molecules and serve as
62 potential sources of chemical contaminants of their own composition (Andrady et al. 2009) or
63 from the environment (Mato et al. 2001; Rios et al. 2010). Additionally, the formation and
64 accumulation of microbial biofilms on plastic polymer surfaces, facilitated through various
65 physical and chemical interactions, including van der Waals forces, electrostatic interactions,
66 and hydrophobic interactions, can contribute to the persistence and spread of harmful animal
67 pathogens (Oberbeckmann et al. 2016; Frère et al. 2018; Martínez-Campos et al. 2022) and
68 human pathogens (Zettler et al. 2013; Delacuvellerie et al. 2022; Lear et al. 2022; Liang et al.
69 2023). For example, the accumulation of pathogenic *Vibrio* species on marine plastic debris has

70 been described in several studies (Sun et al. 2020, Silva et al. 2019; Laverty et al. 2020; Bhagwat
71 et al. 2021, Pedrotti et al. 2022). Furthermore, biofilms developing on plastics are known to
72 provide a favorable environment for the development of antibiotic resistance (reviewed in Dong
73 et al. 2021) due to slow antibiotic penetration, accelerated horizontal transfer, or antibiotic
74 antagonists (Stewart et al. 2001; Mah 2012; Lebeaux et al. 2012; Uruén et al. 2021). This
75 situation is of particular concern in aquaculture systems, where, driven by economics, antibiotic
76 use is widespread in order to prevent and control bacterial diseases in farmed species. Misuse
77 and overuse of antibiotics in aquaculture settings can lead to the emergence and spread of
78 antibiotic-resistant bacteria (Haya et al. 2001; Boxall et al. 2004), with significant consequences
79 for public health and the environment. Yet the pathogenic risk posed by plastics as fomites of
80 pathogenic bacteria and carriers of antibiotic resistance genes has received little attention to
81 date, and even less in the context of food security.

82 Assessing the extent of macroplastic contamination by pathogens and associated antibiotic
83 resistance in aquaculture is crucial to identify a potential decline in food production due to
84 bacterial infections as well as to minimize the health risk to consumers. The objective of this
85 study was to characterize the pathobiome of macroplastics used in fish farm infrastructure
86 (“aquaculture plastics”) and its antibiotic resistance using metabarcoding and bacterial isolates.
87 More specifically, our first aim was to explore the relative abundance and diversity of
88 macroplastic-associated bacterial communities in aquaculture and to determine whether they
89 differ from those in the surrounding water and sediment, in floating macroplastics, and in
90 aquaculture fish guts. The second aim was to focus specifically on potential pathogens and their
91 antibiotic resistance genes. The third aim was to investigate the influence of the proximity of a
92 river on pathogen diversity and antimicrobial resistance in the marine environment around the
93 farm. Finally, we compared the plastic and fish pathobiomes to determine to what extent these
94 are shared in order to evaluate the role of aquaculture plastics as fomites in fish farms.

95 **Materials and methods**

96 **Sample collection**

97 The sampling for this experiment took place in November 2021 in the vicinity of the Mahébourg
98 fish farm in Mauritius, which rears red drum (*Sciaenops ocellatus*) in open water cages. Four
99 sites were sampled: site 1 (20°18'49.4"S, 57°47'03.8"E) and site 2 (20°21'27.1"S, 57°46'54.8"E)
100 were two fish cages in different locations, site 3 (20°17'13.18" S, 57°46'42.49" E) was the
101 estuary of Grand River South East that empties near the farm, and site 4 (20°19'20.36" S,
102 57°48'57.55" E) was the northern channel of the Mauritian lagoon (Suppl. Fig. 1).

103 Bacterial communities from water and sediment were collected in triplicate at each sampling
104 site. Sediment was collected in dives at each site, kept in sterile Falcon tubes and stored at 0°C
105 in a portable icebox until arrival at the laboratory, and then stored at -80°C until DNA
106 extraction. Water samples were collected at 1 m below the surface using 500 mL plastic bottles
107 and stored at 4°C in a portable icebox until arrival at the laboratory. Planktonic microbes were
108 collected on 0.2 µm GTTP filters (Whatman®), and the membranes were then placed in sterile
109 cryotubes at -80°C until further analysis. Metadata such as the temperature, salinity and
110 conductivity of the water at the sampling sites were measured and gathered (Suppl. Table 1).
111 Nutrient analyses of the water showed equivalent nitrate and phosphate concentrations in the
112 four sampling sites. Nitrites and ammoniac concentration were under the detection threshold
113 (data not shown).

114 “Floating plastics” (free-floating macroplastic waste or channel buoys) were collected using
115 sterile forceps to avoid contamination when found on the four sites (Table 1). In addition, at the
116 two farm sites, “aquaculture plastics” (plastic parts of the fish cages such as ties, buoys, nets
117 and pipes) were sampled in five replicates (Suppl. Fig. 2). Each macroplastic was rinsed with
118 MilliQ water to remove non-attached microorganisms. A swab (SK-2S swabs, Isohelix, UK)
119 was then used to collect biofilm from the plastic surface (4 cm²). Swabs were stored in sterile
120 microtubes at -80°C until DNA extraction.

121 Fish (n = 8 per site) were collected using nets in the cages (site 1 and 2) by experienced farm
122 staff. Only adult individuals (standard length: 57 ± 18 cm) were collected in order to avoid
123 bacteriome variability due to different ontogenetic stages. Fish were bought to farmers and
124 conserved on ice in coolers for dissection. The content of the last third of the gut (i.e. hindgut)

125 was homogenized and collected to extract the gut bacteriome (Mouchet et al. 2012; Cheutin et
126 al. 2021). The gut content was stored at -80°C in a 3 mL cryotube until DNA extraction.

127 Bacterial culture and phenotypic antimicrobial resistance (AMR) testing

128 Fish gut content, sediment and water samples were diluted at a ratio of 1/10 in sterile seawater.
129 For plastic samples, swabs were immersed in 10 mL of sterile seawater and vortexed for 60
130 seconds to detach the biofilm from plastic debris. To specifically target PHPB, a 100 µL sample
131 of these solutions was streaked onto Mueller Hinton agar, a non-selective growth medium, and
132 incubated for 24h at 37°C in aerobic conditions, to simulate internal conditions of the human
133 body. All colonies were then collected and inoculated in a tube culture medium (Bio-Rad,
134 France). After 24h of incubation at 37°C with a non-hermetic seal, tubes were kept at room
135 temperature until isolate analyses in the lab (~one week).

136 All samples were then seeded on five different solid culture media: non-selective (chocolate
137 agar PolyViteX) and selective either for gram negative bacteria (MacConkey agar), gram
138 positive bacteria (Columbia-CNA agar: blood + colistin + nalidixic acid), bacteria resistant to
139 Beta-lactam (chromID[®] ESBL agar: extended spectrum Beta-lactamase) and bacteria resistant
140 to carbapenems (chromID[®] CARBA SMART carbapenemase-selective agar). Samples were
141 then incubated at 37°C for 24h in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ to isolate anaerobic species on
142 blood + CNA agar and chocolate PolyXiteX agar, and in aerobic conditions for the others. Each
143 phenotypically different colony was then isolated and identified with a Matrix-Assisted Laser
144 Desorption Ionization-Time of Flight (MALDI-TOF) Mass Spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics,
145 Bremen, Germany) following the manufacturer's instruction for identification acceptance.

146 Isolated strains were tested against several antibiotics using the Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion
147 method on Mueller Hinton agar. Since all our isolates grew well on Mueller Hinton agar, no
148 NaCl was added to the agar for the antibiotic-resistance tests, even for marine bacteria such as
149 *Vibrionaceae* (Rubin and Tilton 1975; Singleton et al. 1982; Jo et al. 2020). A panel of
150 antibiotics among 36 antibiotic disks (i2a, Pérols, France) were tested for each strain ([Suppl.
151 Table 2](#)), according to the European Committee on Guidelines for Antimicrobial Susceptibility
152 Testing (EUCAST) (2021, version 1.0). Measurement of the inhibition zone diameters was
153 performed on a "Sirscan automatic" zone reader (i2a, Pérols, France). The interpretation of the
154 antibiogram results was performed according to EUCAST recommendations (Vong 2021).

155 The multiple antibiotic resistance (MAR) index is defined as the proportion of resistance to a
156 panel of tested antibiotics. It was calculated for each strain or group of strains, following the
157 method described by Krumperman (1983): the MAR index is equal to a/b , where “a” represents
158 the number of antibiotics to which the strain was resistant, and “b” represents the number of
159 antibiotics to which the strain was exposed.

160 DNA extraction and sequencing

161 Total genomic DNA from 200 mg of homogenized fish gut contents, GTTP filters and swabs
162 (for plastic samples) was extracted using the MagAttract PowerSoil[®] DNA kit according to the
163 manufacturer’s instructions (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) with automated processing and the
164 liquid handling system KingFisher Flex[™] (ThermoScientific[®], Waltham, MA, USA). Nucleic
165 acids were eluted in molecular water (Merck Millipore[™], Burlington, MA, USA) and
166 quantified on a NanoDrop 8000 [™] spectrophotometer (ThermoScientific[®], Wilmington, MA,
167 USA). The DNA extracts were stored at -20°C until further analyses and PCR amplification.

168 The V4-V5 region of the 16S rDNA gene was targeted with the universal primers 515F-Y (5’-
169 GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3’) and 926R (5’-CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT-3’)
170 (Parada, Needham and Fuhrman 2016) coupled with platform-specific Illumina adaptor
171 sequences on the 5’ ends. Each 50 µL PCR reaction was prepared with 25 µL Taq Polymerase
172 Phusion[®] High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix with GC Buffer (New England Biolabs[®], Inc.,
173 Ipswich, MA, USA), 1 µL forward primer (10 µM), 1 µL reverse primer (10 µM), 2 µL template
174 DNA, 1.5 µL DMSO, and 19.5 µL molecular water. PCR amplifications involved the following
175 protocol: an initial 98°C denaturing step for 30 s followed by 35 cycles of amplification (10 s
176 denaturation at 98°C; 1 min at 60°C annealing; 1.5 min extension at 72°C), and a final extension
177 of 10 min at 72°C. Amplification and primer specificity were verified by electrophoresis on a
178 2.0% agarose gel for confirmation of ~450 bp amplicon size. Extraction of blank samples used
179 as DNA extraction controls and standard mock communities (ZymoBIOMICS Microbial
180 Community DNA Standards II, Zymo Research) was performed to evaluate the quality of our
181 sample-processing pipeline. Sequencing was performed on Illumina Miseq by GeT-Biopuces
182 (INSA, Toulouse, France). Raw reads were deposited in the NCBI database under Bioproject
183 number PRJNA895209.

184 Sequence processing

185 Raw sequencing data was analyzed in R (version 4.1.1), using the dada2 pipeline (Callahan et
186 al. 2016). Briefly, sequences were first trimmed and filtered based on read-quality profiles
187 (maxN = 0; maxEE = [2,2]; truncQ = 2; and truncLen = [250,250]). Amplicon sequence variants
188 (ASVs) were inferred using the dada2 algorithm (Divisive Amplicon Denoising Algorithm)
189 after pooling dereplicated reads from all samples. Then forward and reverse reads were merged
190 and chimeric sequences were removed. The taxonomic classification of ASVs was performed
191 with the naive Bayesian RDP classifier implemented in dada2 and using the SILVA reference
192 database nr_V132. The ASV count table, taxonomy and sequences were organized in a
193 phyloseq object using the phyloseq package (v.1.28.0, McMurdie et al. 2013) in R.

194 We used a combination of two methods to remove contaminants from our dataset. First, the R
195 package decontam (Davis et al. 2018) was used to identify ASV contaminants from the dataset
196 based on the “prevalence method” of the package. However, some known extraction kit
197 contaminants listed by Salter et al. (2014), such as ASVs from the genera *Bradyrhizobium* and
198 *Cupriavidus*, remained in our dataset. They were manually removed from the final dataset.
199 Overall, 293 taxa corresponding to 8% of the total reads were removed.

200 In order to identify potential human pathogenic bacteria (PHPB) in our pathobiome dataset, all
201 ASV sequences were blasted against a homemade full-length 16S rRNA gene database derived
202 from the enhanced infectious disease database (EID2, Wardeh et al. 2015) containing bacterial
203 species (i.e. cargos) described to have had interactions with the human species. Our database
204 contained 87,405 full-length 16S rRNA from the 878 human bacterial cargos in the EID2
205 database. Only ASVs matching a 16S rRNA sequence with 100% similarity, 100% coverage
206 and on more than 250 bp were included in our pathobiome dataset. The potential pathogenicity
207 of each ASV was subsequently checked in the literature, and only ASVs matching a pathogen
208 described at least once were kept. Of the 110 PHPB ASVs detected in our study, only 11 were
209 discarded.

210 Sample read sums were randomly equalized at 11,900 reads per sample using the phyloseq
211 package (McMurdie et al. 2013). Three samples were discarded following this process. After
212 standardization, our final dataset consisted of 1,035,300 sequences belonging to 34,675 ASVs.

213 Statistics workflow

214 Taxonomic diversity of each microbial community was measured using richness (number of
215 ASVs) and the Shannon diversity index H. Statistical analyses on alpha diversity comparisons

216 were carried out using a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a Dunn post-hoc test (p-value
217 corrected by Bonferroni's method). Beta diversity was assessed using Bray–Curtis distance
218 with the vegan package in R (Oksanen et al. 2022), and statistical analyses were performed
219 using permutational analyses of variance (PERMANOVA). Bray–Curtis dissimilarity was
220 shown in a principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) plot.

221 ASV biomarkers (i.e. differential abundance of ASV between sample types) were identified by
222 the analysis of bacteriome composition with bias correction (ANCOMBC; p-value corrected by
223 Benjamini–Hochberg method) in the microbiomeMarker package (Cao et al. 2022).

224 Core bacteriomes were identified by examining species abundance distribution (SAD), patterns
225 of each ASV, and by partitioning the SAD into core and satellite ASVs (Magurran et al. 2003).
226 The index of dispersion for each ASV was calculated as the ratio of the variance to the mean
227 abundance (VMR) multiplied by the occurrence. This index was used to model whether lineages
228 follow a Poisson distribution (i.e. stochastic distribution), falling between the 2.5% and 97.5%
229 confidence interval of the chi-squared (χ^2) distribution. Index values lower or higher than 1
230 meant that the ASV was under- or overdispersed compared to the Poisson distribution, such
231 that it spread uniformly and could be considered a core ASV. Index values close to 1 meant that
232 the ASV followed a Poisson distribution and corresponded to a satellite ASV.

233

234 **Results**

235 Composition of the bacterial plastisphere

236 A total of 34,675 ASVs were retrieved from the 87 samples analyzed in this study. The analysis
237 of these revealed differences in the composition and diversity of bacterial communities in
238 aquaculture plastic, floating plastic, fish guts, and the environment (i.e. water and sediment).
239 Aquaculture plastic (AP) and floating plastic (FP) bacterial communities had significantly
240 lower richness and Shannon diversity values than sediment communities (Dunn post-hoc test,
241 $p < 0.01$), and higher values than communities associated with the fish digestive tract, this was
242 significantly higher in AP (Dunn post-hoc test, $p < 0.05$; [Fig. 1A and 1B](#)). The AP and FP
243 communities were as rich and diverse as planktonic bacterial communities in the water. Sample
244 type (i.e. water, sediment, fish guts, AP or FP) explained a higher proportion of the variance
245 (PERMANOVA, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.273$) in bacterial community composition than the sampling

246 site (PERMANOVA, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.0281$). In particular, AP and FP bacterial composition
247 turned out to be significantly different from the communities in fish guts or the environment
248 (i.e. water and sediment) as shown in PERMANOVA pairwise comparisons ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 1C,
249 Suppl. Table 3). Although it is not clear on the two first axes of the PCoA (Fig 1C), the
250 variability of the plastisphere composition was also higher than the variability found in fish gut
251 or water samples (betadisper, $p < 0.01$; Suppl. Fig. 3). A pairwise comparison between AP and
252 FP bacterial communities also highlighted significant differences in their composition (pairwise
253 PERMANOVA, $p < 0.01$; Suppl. Table 3).

254 These differences in bacteriome composition were related to high taxonomic rank differential
255 abundance. *Proteobacteria* was the most represented phylum among all samples (38.5% of all
256 reads), and was particularly abundant in plastic samples (48.7% for AP and 44.6% for FP)
257 compared to fish gut, sediment and water samples (18.9%, 19.2%, 35.6%, respectively) (Fig.
258 1D). At the ASV level, differential abundance analysis using the ANCOM-BC approach
259 highlighted 556 biomarkers from aquaculture plastics and 88 biomarkers from floating plastics.
260 The composition of these markers was similar to the composition of the total communities from
261 plastic samples, with a majority of *Proteobacteria*, *Cyanobacteria* and *Bacteroidota* (49%, 20%
262 and 18% respectively from AP, and 45%, 30% and 16% respectively from FP; Suppl. Fig. 4A).

263

264 Plastics harbor an abundant and rich pathobiome

265 Of the ASV sequences retrieved in our samples compared with the sequences of the infectious
266 disease database, 99 were identified as potential human pathogenic bacteria (PHPB), including
267 85 different species and 52 different genera (Suppl. Table 4). These PHPB belonged mainly to
268 the families *Listeriaceae* and *Vibrionaceae* (47% and 25% of PHPB reads respectively). In
269 total, PHPB reads represented 4% of all reads in the whole dataset. The percentage of PHPB
270 reads varied according to the sample type. While PHPB reads accounted for less than 1% of
271 reads associated with sediment, water and AP, they represented 2.1% of FP reads and 27% of
272 reads associated with fish digestive tracts (Fig. 2A). We detected 48 ASVs that were part of the
273 core pathobiome of our samples, with 6 species appearing in more than 50% of the samples
274 (*Cutibacterium avidum*, *Photobacterium damsela*, *Staphylococcus haemolyticus*, *Vibrio*
275 *parahaemolyticus*, *Vibrio alginolyticus* and *Listeria innocua*; Fig. 2B). The potential infections
276 caused by these species are summarized in Suppl. Table 5. Remarkably, in the core pathobiome,
277 metabarcoding analyses also identified *Bacillus anthracis* in 8 samples from sediment and
278 plastic (AP and even more so in FP).

279 The pathobiome associated with FP showed higher taxonomical richness than in AP or
280 environmental samples (Dunn post-hoc test, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 3A). Analyzing PHPB abundance
281 using the Shannon index revealed no significant differences in pathobiome diversity according
282 to sample type. In contrast, PERMANOVA pairwise comparisons showed significant
283 differences in pathobiome community composition according to sample type (Fig. 3C, Suppl.
284 Table 3). In a similar pattern to the whole bacteriome community, AP and FP pathobiome
285 composition differed significantly from fish gut and environmental communities (with an
286 exception between AP and sediment) as shown in PERMANOVA pairwise comparisons ($p <$
287 0.01 ; Fig. 3C, Suppl. Table 3).

288 The *Vibrionaceae* family represented a high proportion of PHPB in all sample types, accounting
289 for 57% in AP, 36% in FP, 49% in sediment, 60% in water, and 21% in fish gut. Similarly, the
290 *Listeriaceae* family was a ubiquitous PHPB family in all sample types with proportions of 18%
291 in AP, 4.2% in FP, 14% in sediment, 7.1% in water, and 54% in fish gut. *Staphylococcaceae*
292 represented 7.7% of PHPB reads in AP, 4.6% in FP, 6.7% in sediment, 0% in water, and 5.2%
293 in fish gut samples. The *Moraxellaceae* family was more represented in plastic samples, with
294 proportions of 3.8% in AP and 15% in FP, and 2.2% in sediment, 0.44% in water, and 2.5% in
295 fish samples.

296 The ANCOM-BC approach highlighted PHPB biomarkers in all sample types (Fig. 4B).
297 *Moraxella osloensis*, found on FP, was the only species identified as characteristic of plastic
298 substrates.

299 To investigate the potential transfer of PHPB bacteria between plastics and fish in the farm, we
300 analyzed the shared pathobiome (Fig. 4A). We found that 30 bacterial species (30% of PHPB
301 ASVs) were shared between fish and plastics, including the species with the highest occurrence
302 identified in the core pathobiome: *Listeria innocua*, *Photobacterium damsela*, *Vibrio*
303 *parahaemolyticus*, *Vibrio alginolyticus*, *Staphylococcus haemolyticus*, *Cutibacterium avidum*,
304 *Moraxella osloensis*, *Pantoea conspicua*, *Corynebacterium tuberculostearicum* (Fig. 2B).

305 Investigating the potential effect of sampling site on PHPB richness and the Shannon index, we
306 found significantly higher values for both indices in sampling site 3 (estuary of the Grand River
307 South East) than in aquaculture sampling sites (Dunn post-hoc test, $p < 0.05$; Suppl. Fig. 5A
308 and 5B). PERMANOVA results also showed significant differences in the pathobiome
309 composition of site 3 compared to the two aquaculture sites ($p < 0.01$; Suppl. Fig. 5C, Suppl.
310 Table 6).

311

312 Isolated strains and antibiotic resistance

313 A total of 72 bacterial strains from 27 different species were isolated from all samples, of which
314 48 were gram negative and 24 were gram positive (Suppl. Table 7). The PHPB strains belonged
315 to 19 different species and represented 83% of all isolated strains. Similar to the results from
316 the metabarcoding analyses, isolates were dominated by PHPB from the *Vibrionaceae* family
317 (47% of all isolated strains), and the same dominant species were identified: *Vibrio*
318 *alginolyticus*, *Photobacterium damsela* and, to a lesser extent, *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. Three
319 PHPB strains from the *Staphylococcaceae* family were also found in isolates (4.2% of all
320 isolated strains), and two PHPB strains of *Moraxellaceae* were isolated (2.8% of all isolated
321 strains). However, no strains from the *Listeriaceae* family were isolated. Isolated strains from
322 FP samples showed greater diversity in bacterial families compared to other sample types, with
323 seven bacterial families isolated (*Aeromonaceae*, *Bacillaceae*, *Enterobacteriaceae*,
324 *Moraxellaceae*, *Nocardiaceae*, *Pseudomonaceae*, *Vibrionaceae*), while the other sample types
325 had only two or three families (Suppl. Fig. 6). The PHPB strains from the *Moraxellaceae* family
326 were found exclusively on plastic samples.

327 As in the metabarcoding analysis, we investigated the isolates shared between fish and
328 macroplastics (Fig. 4). Three species were found in both types of samples: *Vibrio alginolyticus*,
329 *Photobacterium damsela* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. In the metabarcoding results, the
330 two *Vibrionaceae* bacteria were also shared between fish and macroplastic samples, and
331 belonged to the core pathobiome, with occurrence of > 40% in all samples.

332 Antibigrams were carried out on all the strains (n = 72), and the MAR index was calculated.
333 We focused on the antibiotic resistance of *Vibrionaceae* strains (n = 34) as they were
334 preponderant and potentially all pathogenic. There was a high level of resistance to certain
335 antibiotics, notably members of the penicillin family. For instance, the tested strains presented
336 88% resistance to ampicillin (n = 33) and 73% to ticarcillin (n = 44; Suppl. Fig 7). However,
337 antibiotics known to be occasionally used in aquaculture (cyclins, quinolones and trimethoprim
338 + sulfonamides) efficiently inhibited the isolates: there was 3% global resistance to the tested
339 quinolones (norfloxacin, ciprofloxacin, ofloxacin and levofloxacin; n = 155) and all tested
340 strains were susceptible to trimethoprim + sulfonamides and to tetracycline (respectively n =
341 69 and n = 65; Suppl. Fig 7).

342 A MAR index higher than 0.2 is considered a marker for a high risk of antibiotic contamination
343 (Krumperman 1983; Reverter et al. 2020). In our samples, the mean MAR value was $0.098 \pm$
344 0.080 , and 88% of all isolated strains had MAR values below 0.2, indicating a low level of
345 multiple antibiotic resistance. Nonetheless, bacterial communities on AP had a higher MAR
346 index (mean for all strains: 0.15 ± 0.06 ; mean for *Vibrionaceae* strains: 0.17 ± 0.06), with
347 significant differences between AP and FP (Fig 5) when considering the MAR index of all
348 isolated strains (Dunn post-hoc test, $p < 0.01$), and significant differences between AP and non-
349 plastic substrates for strains belonging to the *Vibrionaceae* family (Dunn post-hoc test, $p <$
350 0.05).

351 Concerning sampling sites, isolates from the estuary area (site 3) had a significantly lower MAR
352 index than other sampling sites. No significant differences were found between the MAR
353 indices of the two aquaculture sites and the lagoon channel (Suppl. Fig. 8).

354

355 **Discussion**

356 PHPB and antibiotic-resistant bacteria (ARB) represent a significant component of the
357 aquaculture plastisphere

358 When immersed in aquatic environments, macroplastics act as unique colonization supports on
359 which microbial biofilms quickly develop. Their composition (large carbon polymers) and
360 surface characteristics (hydrophobic) select for specific microorganisms compared to those
361 found in the surrounding environment (Zettler et al. 2013; Dussud et al. 2018; Delacuvellerie
362 et al. 2019). These constitute what has been defined as the “plastisphere” (Zettler et al. 2013).
363 Our results were no exception. The bacterial communities associated with aquaculture and
364 floating macroplastics were different to communities found in the surrounding sediment and
365 water, and in fish gut (Fig. 1C). We found a total of 556 ASV biomarkers from aquaculture
366 macroplastics and 88 biomarkers from floating macroplastics (Suppl. Fig. 4A), mainly
367 belonging to the *Proteobacteria*, *Cyanobacteria* and *Bacteroidia* phyla. Other studies have also
368 found these phyla in high proportions on micro-, meso- or macroplastics (Zettler et al. 2013;
369 Oberbeckmann et al. 2016; Dussud et al. 2018; Martínez-Campos et al. 2022).

370 The presence of potential pathogens and/or ARB on plastic substrates has been described in a
371 number of studies (Zettler et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2020; Kesy et al. 2021; Rasool et al. 2021;
372 Lear et al. 2022; Delacuvellerie et al. 2022; Liang et al. 2023), but our study aimed to address

373 a gap by investigating their contribution to the whole plastisphere. In metabarcoding analyses,
374 we identified 75 PHPB species in aquaculture and floating plastic samples (Suppl. Table 4).
375 The vast majority of the bacterial strains isolated from plastics, mainly dominated by PHPB
376 from the *Vibrionaceae* family, displayed a high level of resistance to antibiotics from the
377 penicillin family. The proportion of PHPB on plastic samples ranged from 0.017% to 7%, with
378 an average of 2.1% on FP and 0.6% on AP (Fig. 2A). Two previous studies have tried to
379 quantify the proportion of pathogenic bacteria in their samples. Using a custom-made 16S
380 rDNA gene database, Hou et al. (2021) looked at potentially pathogenic communities
381 developing on incubated microplastics in a mariculture cage and found that these represented
382 on average 0.81% of the whole bacterial plastisphere. Basili et al. (2020) mainly focused on
383 fecal indicators on macroplastics collected in coastal sites, and found relatively low abundance
384 of these bacterial indicators, ranging from 0% to 5.1% in the sampled plastisphere. These
385 proportions are consistent with our results on plastics (Fig. 2A), although our approach was
386 more conservative than Basili's (based on pathogen taxonomic nomenclature) and Hou's (based
387 not only on PHPB but also on fish, mammal, invertebrate and plant potential bacterial
388 pathogens).

389 A critical issue is to determine whether macroplastics (AP and FP) provide a favorable matrix
390 for both PHPB and ARB compared to other environmental matrices, acting as potential carriers
391 of infectious diseases and spreading antibiotic resistance from the aquaculture environment to
392 fish stock and, ultimately, to humans. This question has been explored mainly on microplastics;
393 several studies have shown a selective enrichment of PHPB and ARB on microplastics
394 compared to inorganic supports or matrices (Kirstein et al. 2016; Frère et al. 2018; Wu et al.
395 2019; Junaid et al. 2022; Yu et al. 2022). Zhang et al. (2020) found ARB abundance to be 100
396 to 5000 times higher in the microplastisphere than in the surrounding environment. In addition,
397 the exchange of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) between bacterial cells seems to be
398 enhanced in the microplastisphere, as plasmid transfer frequency can be three orders of
399 magnitude higher than in free-living microbial communities (Arias-Andres et al. 2018).
400 However, other studies have shown no enrichment of PHPB in the microplastisphere compared
401 to control surfaces (glass, wood or cellulose) or particle-attached fraction (Keszy et al. 2019;
402 Hou et al. 2021). Interestingly, we found that aquaculture and floating plastics were enriched
403 in PHPB compared to sediment and water samples, with significant differences between FP and
404 sediment (Fig. 2A). In addition, we found higher MAR indices for bacteria sampled on AP
405 compared to non-plastic samples (water, sediment and fish guts), especially concerning the

406 *Vibrionaceae* family (Fig. 5). Aquaculture macroplastics seem to be enriched in ARB compared
407 to environmental samples. Nevertheless, this must be put into perspective as the MAR indices
408 found in this study (0.15 ± 0.06) were low compared to the average MAR index of aquaculture-
409 related bacteria found in other countries around the Indian Ocean (0.19 in South Africa, 0.35 in
410 Indonesia and 0.36 in India and Sri Lanka; Reverter et al. 2020). This result could be explained
411 by very low antibiotic pressure in this environment.

412 While it is important to note that the molecular detection of PHPB does not prove their
413 pathogenicity, nor their phenotypic resistance to antibiotics, the results of this study suggest
414 that the large amount of plastics typically used in aquaculture infrastructure and the presence
415 of external (non-aquaculture) plastics polluting the farm environment can represent a source of
416 PHPB and ARB in a fish farm. The potential health risks for aquaculture stock and humans
417 caused by these enriched bacteria should not be underestimated, as these plastics may act as
418 dissemination vehicles (fomites) for the spread of infectious diseases and antibiotic
419 resistance.

420 Aquaculture macroplastics are reservoirs of cultivable ARB that are potentially pathogenic for 421 humans and fish

422 Metabarcoding data revealed the high variety of PHPB detected on aquaculture and floating
423 plastics; the families most commonly associated with potentially harmful bacteria were
424 *Vibrionaceae* (for AP 0.34% and for FP 0.78% of the whole community), *Moraxellaceae*
425 (0.02% and 0.31%), *Listeriaceae* (0.11% and 0.09%) and *Staphylococcaceae* (0.05% and
426 0.1%). Except for the family *Moraxellaceae*, the three other PHPB families are commonly
427 found on the marine plastisphere (reviewed in Junaid et al. 2022), with similar relative
428 abundance (Kesy et al. 2019; 2021). Considering the 0.1% threshold generally used to separate
429 the rare bacterial biosphere from more abundant microorganisms (Pedrós-Alió 2012), many of
430 these PHPB families represented a significant component of the plastisphere of our samples
431 (Fig. 2A). However, the detection alone of PHPB on plastics is not enough to classify them as
432 environmental reservoirs. A crucial criterion is whether the plastics can support the survival of
433 these PHPB.

434 Of all the plastic PHPB detected in this study, members of the *Vibrionaceae* family were the
435 most abundant both in metabarcoding and isolate data. More than any other clade, this family
436 has attracted a lot of attention in literature on the plastisphere (reviewed in Junaid et al. 2022),
437 particularly in aquaculture systems (Lu et al. 2019; Sun et al. 2020). This is because

438 *Vibrionaceae* are (1) ubiquitous and abundant in marine ecosystems (Haldar 2012; Ina-Salwany
439 et al. 2019), (2) pioneers in the colonization of the plastisphere (Kesy et al. 2021), and (3)
440 capable of causing human illness (Rivas et al. 2013; Mustapha et al. 2013; Schröttner et al.
441 2020; Letchumanan et al. 2019) or mass mortality of animals reared in aquaculture (Austin et
442 al. 2016; Stentiford et al. 2017; Ina-Salwany et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). In our study, three
443 cultivable species were particularly ubiquitous and abundant on plastics: *Vibrio*
444 *parahaemolyticus*, *Vibrio alginolyticus* and *Photobacterium damsela* (Fig. 2B). All of these
445 species can be pathogenic for humans, causing mainly foodborne diseases and opportunistic
446 infections (Nelapati et al. 2012; Mustapha et al. 2013; Rivas et al. 2013; Suppl. Table 5). They
447 can also be pathogenic for fish, causing skin lesions and ulcers (Romalde 2002; Lai et al. 2014;
448 Marudhupandi et al. 2017) and losses in aquaculture systems (Ina-Salwany et al. 2019; Zhang
449 et al. 2020). In line with previous studies (Zhang et al. 2020; Moore et al. 2020), we found that
450 *Vibrionaceae* PHPB were particularly resistant to beta-lactam antibiotics of the penicillin
451 family (88% resistant to ampicillin and 94% resistant to ticarcillin) but susceptible to
452 quinolones and trimethoprim + sulfonamides, which are sometimes used in aquaculture. These
453 results indicate that macroplastics, both external to aquaculture infrastructure and those used in
454 aquaculture, are a potential reservoir of ARB that may be pathogenic, and could thus represent
455 a danger to aquaculture stock and human health (Sun et al. 2020; Amaral-Zettler et al. 2020).

456 A particular cultivable PHPB drew our attention: *Bacillus anthracis*, known to be responsible
457 for the lethal zoonosis anthrax. It was found in the metabarcoding dataset, and its culture proved
458 that it was still viable and physiologically capable of dividing and growing. This bacterium is
459 normally found in soils and is well known for its long persistence in the environment: it can
460 remain in soils for up to 100 years. Its persistence in aquatic environments is not well described,
461 but spores are thought to be able to survive ~20 months in seawater (Sinclair et al. 2008). In
462 humans, there are cutaneous (most common), gastrointestinal or inhalational forms of anthrax,
463 according to the pathway of infection. It particularly affects people working with animals or
464 derived products (Anthrax | CDC 2020; Savransky et al. 2020). No cases in fish or fish farmers
465 have yet been described to our knowledge. Although its identification with MALDI-TOF is
466 qualified by the manufacturer's instructions as "excellent," this result needs to be confirmed,
467 as both the non-pathogenic *Bacillus thuringiensis* and the pathogenic *Bacillus cereus* are very
468 close genetically to *Bacillus anthracis*, and we cannot completely exclude bias resulting from
469 the identification method used (Spencer 2003; Kolstø et al. 2009; Gee et al. 2014; Marston et

470 al. 2016). The safety rules of the hospital microbiology department where we performed the
471 isolates did not allow antibiograms on *Bacillus anthracis*.

472 Overall, our results show that macroplastics, both from external sources and those used in
473 aquaculture facilities, may serve as breeding grounds for a great variety of physiologically
474 active PHPB strains and may contribute to the emergence and dissemination of antibiotic
475 resistance.

476 Potential transfer of plastic-associated PHPB and ARB to reared fish

477 The role of plastics as fomites or reservoirs of pathogens and antibiotic resistance genes is
478 drawing increasing attention in the scientific community (Goldstein et al. 2014; Viršek et al.
479 2017; Bowley et al. 2021). The persistence of plastic in aquatic environments and its ability to
480 drift from one place to another make it an effective fomite for potentially harmful
481 microorganisms. Rivers and estuaries are known to be a major source of plastic debris in coastal
482 environments (Lebreton et al. 2017); these plastics can be enriched in pathogens and antibiotic-
483 resistant bacteria from nearby anthropogenic industries and activities (Zhu et al. 2017; Shih et
484 al. 2021). To investigate this, we looked at the influence of the proximity of the estuary of the
485 Grand River South East (3 km and 7.8 km from the two studied aquaculture sites) on the
486 presence of PHPB and ARB in the fish farm. The results showed that samples from the estuary
487 displayed the highest taxonomical richness and Shannon diversity of PHPB compared to the
488 other sampling sites (Suppl. Fig. 4). Moreover, some PHPB species – for instance, *Vibrio*
489 *parahaemolyticus* and *Photobacterium damsela* – were shared by plastics from the estuary and
490 from the aquaculture sites, but not by plastics from the lagoon channel. Some of the floating
491 plastics sampled in the estuary were drifting, so further analyses to investigate the role these
492 plastics play in coastal environments as fomites, and the risk they represent in the epidemiology
493 of infectious diseases, would be of interest. In contrast, we found that isolated strains from the
494 estuary showed significantly lower MAR indices than other sampling sites, suggesting that the
495 proximity of the river does not represent a risk for the development of ARB in the fish farm. In
496 our study, aquaculture sites, and particularly aquaculture plastics, seem to be the main reservoir
497 of ARB (Suppl. Fig. 8).

498 The degradation of macroplastics enhances the risks associated with plastic debris because
499 micro- and nanoplastics are more easily ingestible, and potential transfers from these particles
500 to marine biota could occur (Lamb et al. 2018). In an ex situ experiment, Rotjan et al. (2019)
501 proved the persistence of ingested bacteria from microplastic biofilm in coral polyps for several

502 weeks. However, this issue has been less studied for PHPB and edible marine animals,
503 including reared species, although it is known that these animals ingest plastic (Feng et al. 2019;
504 Priscilla et al. 2019), sometimes in greater quantities than wild animals (Mathalon et al. 2014).

505 Our metabarcoding analyses identified 30 pathogenic species shared by plastics and fish guts.
506 Of these, two species were cultivable: *Vibrio alginolyticus* and *Photobacterium damsela* (Fig.
507 4A and 4B). The virulence of these isolates was not tested, so their ability to cause infections
508 is not known. Virulence depends on the presence of various virulence factors, but also on their
509 expression in specific environmental conditions (Wassenaar et al. 2001; Diard et al. 2017). It
510 can be presumed that as these isolates were viable and cultivable, their potential to cause
511 infection in reared fish or in human consumers cannot be excluded.

512 We also identified a further 28 PHPB species shared between plastic samples and fish guts that
513 were not cultivable. Bacteria can reach a viable but not cultivable (VBNC) state to survive
514 under stressful conditions (such as living on plastic in saltwater). Bacteria in a VBNC state
515 cannot be detected by standard laboratory methods, but they can recover their viability and
516 potential virulence in appropriate culture conditions (Fakruddin et al. 2013; İzgördü et al. 2022).
517 The recovery of virulence in *Vibrionaceae* species after a VBNC state has been shown and
518 merits attention due to its potential impact on food safety and the epidemiology of foodborne
519 diseases (Kahla-Nakbi et al. 2007; Wagley 2023). The observation of 30 PHPB species shared
520 by macroplastics and fish suggests that there may be a potential transfer of bacteria associated
521 with plastics after ingestion by animals (Fig. 4A). As some of these are pathogens for humans
522 and marine animals and responsible for foodborne diseases, this is a potential animal and human
523 health issue. It should be noted that we cannot exclude the possible contamination of fish
524 through the ingestion of bacteria present in the water rather than plastics. However, as we found
525 the abundance of these pathogens in water lower than that on plastics, this route of
526 contamination may be more moderate. Further ex situ controlled experiments would be valuable
527 to confirm this hypothesis and to prove effective transfer (Beloe et al. 2022).

528

529 **Conclusion**

530 This study, carried out in a tropical aquaculture context, showed that the pathobiome on plastics
531 differed significantly from that in fish gut or the environment (water and sediment). We
532 conducted bacterial analyses using metabarcoding and isolates, and both confirmed that
533 aquaculture plastics and floating plastics were enriched in PHPB and had a higher MAR index
534 compared to environmental samples. These results highlight the risk that plastics could
535 represent as fomites and reservoirs of potential pathogens and antibiotic resistance in
536 aquaculture systems. The findings also showed that a sizable proportion of pathogen species
537 were shared between fish and plastics (both external and internal to aquaculture infrastructure)
538 (30% of the PHPB ASVs), supporting the hypothesis of a potential risk of pathogen transfer
539 from plastics to animals. Further studies would be of interest to test the effectiveness of these
540 transfers in controlled experiments of plastic and bacterial ingestion by fish.

541

542 **List of abbreviations**

543 ARB: Antibiotic-resistant bacteria; AP: Aquaculture plastic; FP: Floating plastic; PHPB:
544 Potential human pathogenic bacteria; MAR: Multiple antibiotic resistance

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564

565 **Availability of data and materials**

566 The online version contains supplementary material and is available at xxx

567 **Authors’ contributions**

568 TB, JCA and ER obtained the funding for this study. JCA and ER designed the study, collected
569 the samples and revised the manuscript. JN contributed to the design of the study, collected the
570 samples, performed the biometrics and all the analyses, performed the statistics analyses and
571 wrote the manuscript. CRO created the PHPB 16 rRNA gene database. SG supervised some
572 analyses (cultures and antibiograms). SD contributed to the collection of the samples, and
573 performed some cultures and antibiograms. SB welcomed the team to the farm, provided the
574 farm boats and laboratories, and contributed to all the sampling. YB contributed to the
575 collection of the samples and to the biometrics analysis. All authors approved the manuscript
576 before submission.

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579 Sylvain GODREUIL (SG), Sabrina DYALL (SD), Simon BOUVY (SB), Yvan BETTAREL
580 (YB).

581 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

582 Animal handling was performed respecting ethical animal welfare guidelines; the number of
583 fish sampled was limited to the strictly necessary. Informed consent was obtained from all
584 individual participants included in the study.

585 **Consent for publication**

586 Not applicable.

587 **Competing of interest**

588 The authors declare no competing interests that could have appeared to influence the work
589 reported in this paper.

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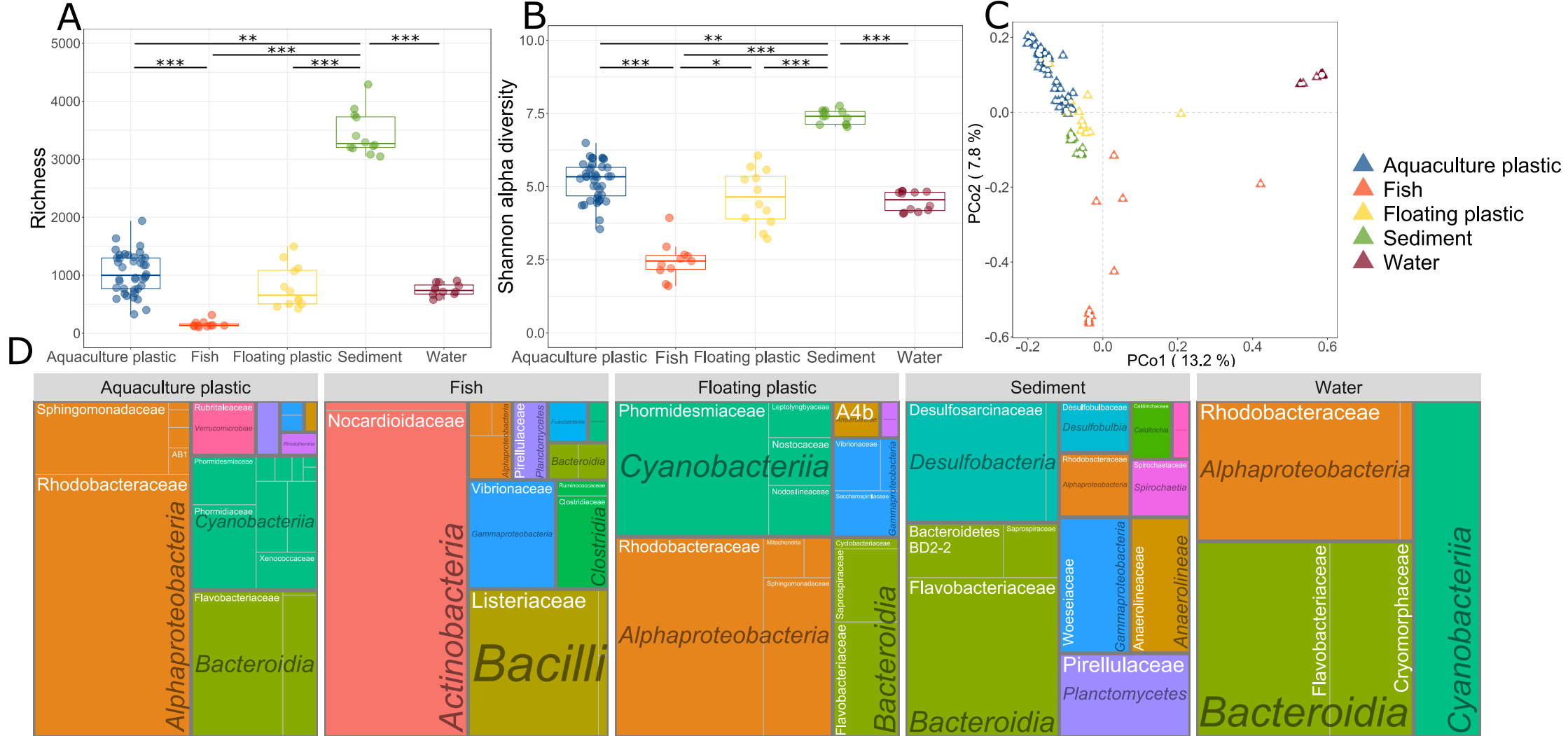


Figure 1: Composition, alpha and beta diversity of the bacterial community. A: taxonomical richness. B: Shannon diversity. A and B: Dunn test between sample origins, ***: $p < 0.001$, **: $p < 0.01$, *: $p < 0.05$. C: Non metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarities in microbial communities according to the sample type. D: Treemap representing the relative abundance of the most represented phyla (in dark grey) and families (in white) of the microbial community in each sample ($> 5\%$).

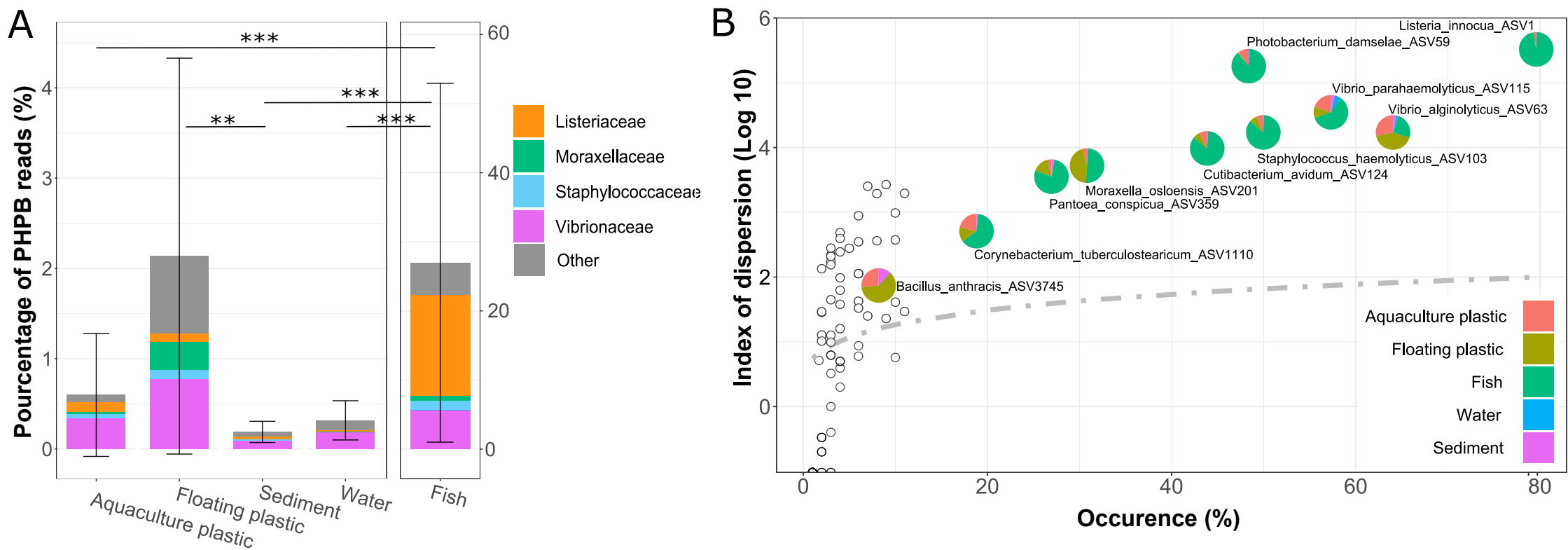


Figure 2: Proportion of pathogenic communities and core pathobiome. A: barplot of the percentage of pathogenic reads according to the origin of the sample. Dunn test between sample origins, ***: $p < 0.001$, **: $p < 0.01$. B: occurrence of pathogenic ASVs among samples plotted against its dispersion index. The dotted line depicts the 2.5% confidence limit of the Chi2 distribution: ASVs located above this line are non-randomly distributed among samples, whereas those below the line follow a random Poisson distribution. Piecharts display the relative abundance among sample types of the most frequent ASVs.

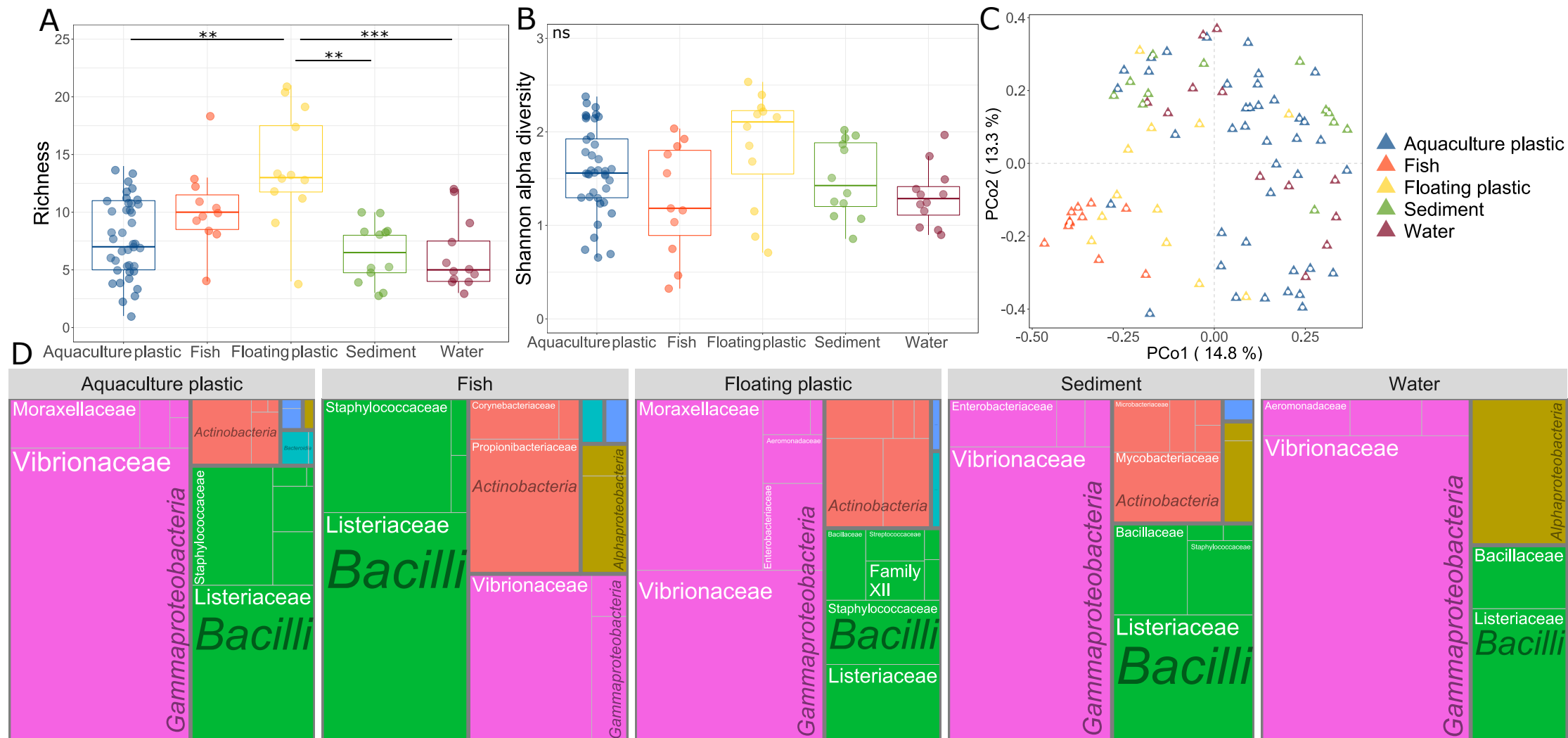
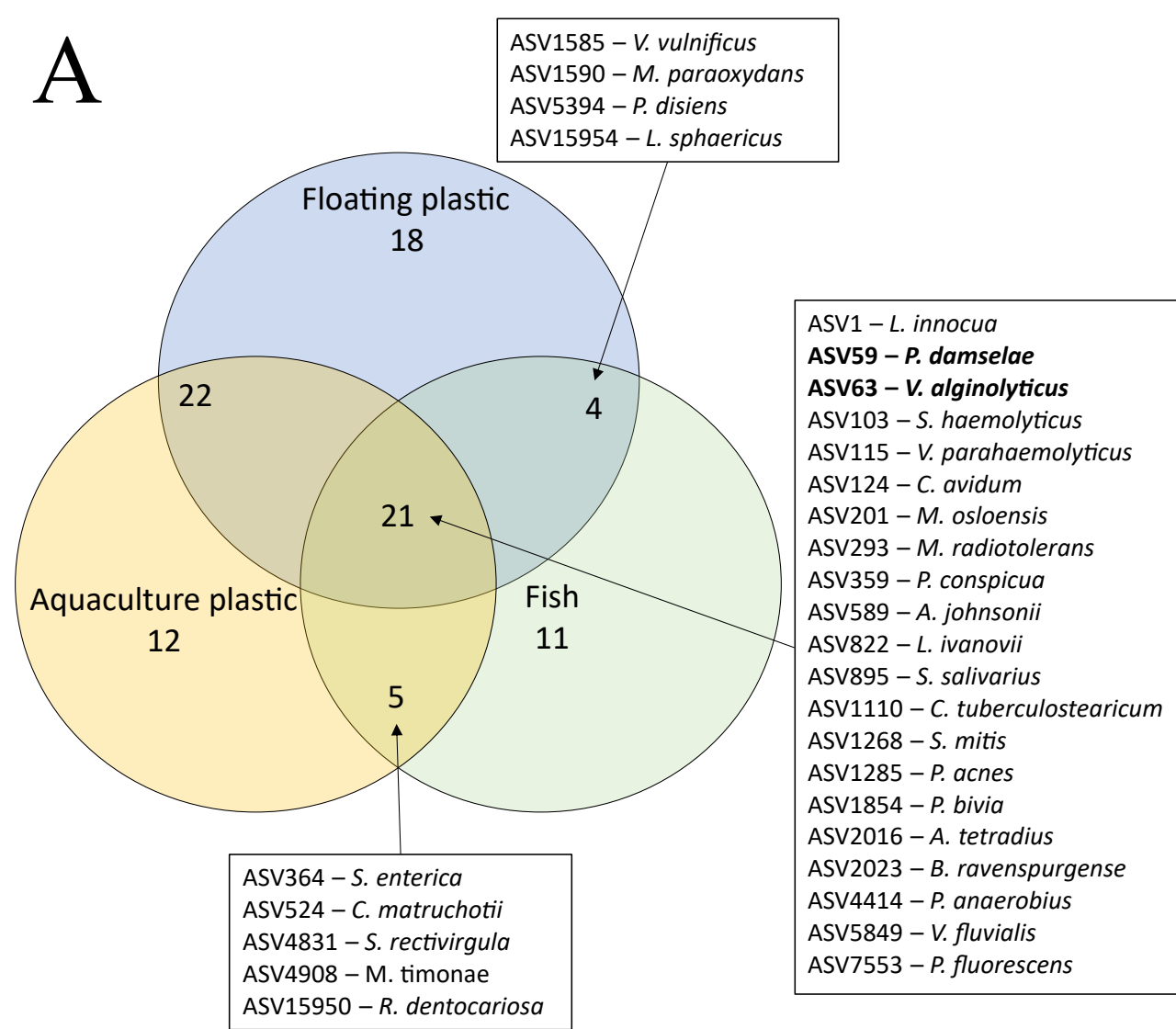


Figure 3: Composition, alpha and beta diversity of the pathobiome. A: taxonomical richness. B: Shannon diversity. A and B: Dunn tests between sample types, ***: $p < 0.001$, **: $p < 0.01$, ns: non significant. C: PCoA plot with Bray-Curtis distances. D: Treemap representing the relative abundance of most abundant phyla (in dark grey) and families (in white) of the pathogenic microbial community in each sample ($> 5\%$).

A



B

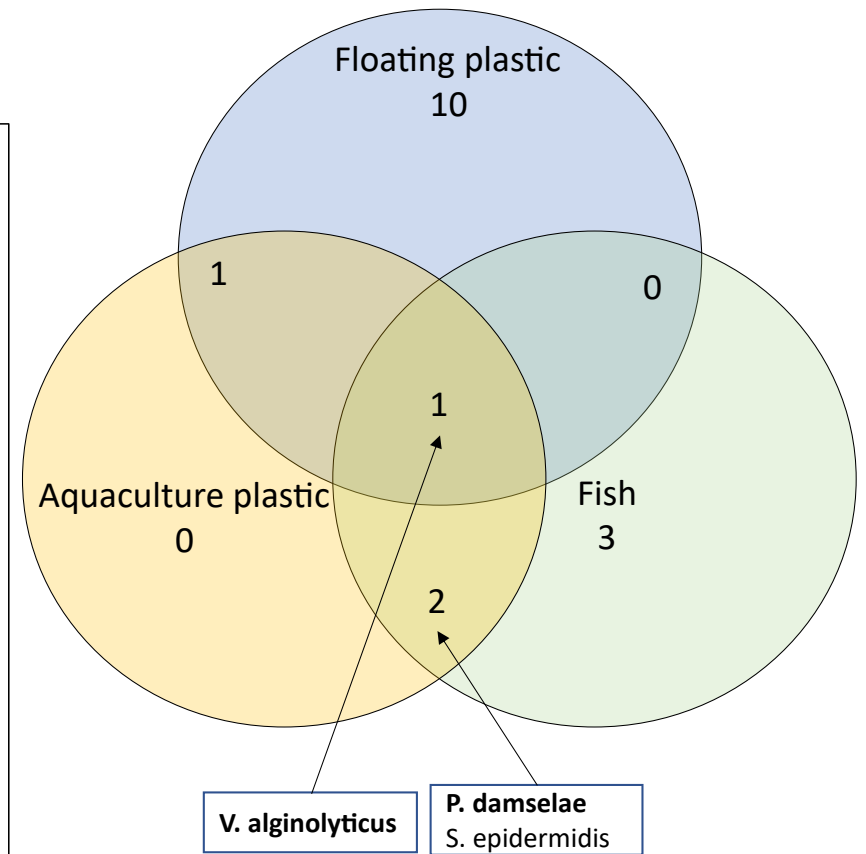


Figure 4: Venn diagram of PHPB detected (A) in metabarcoding analyses or (B) in isolates according to sample type. Species common in (A) and (B) are written in bold.

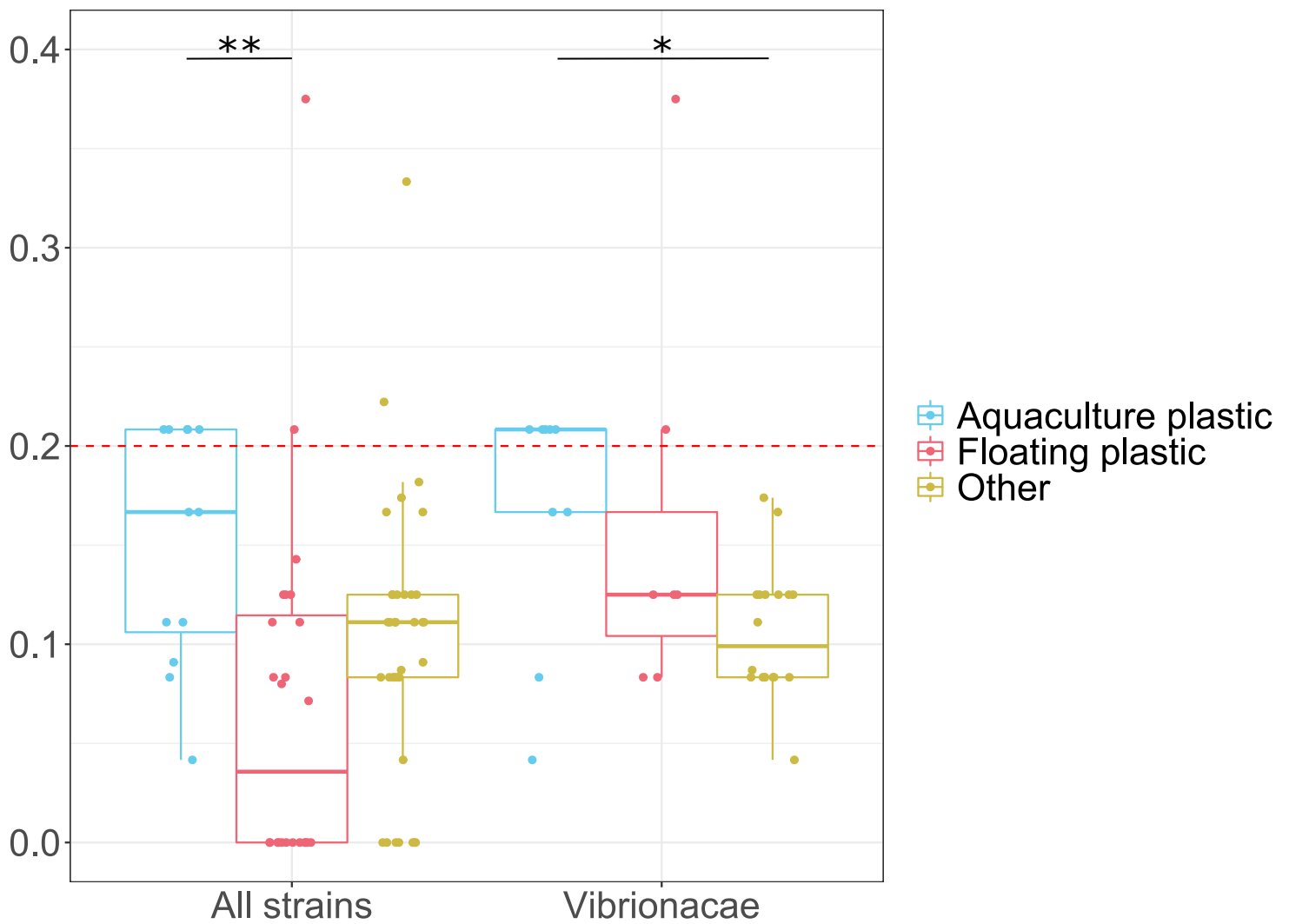
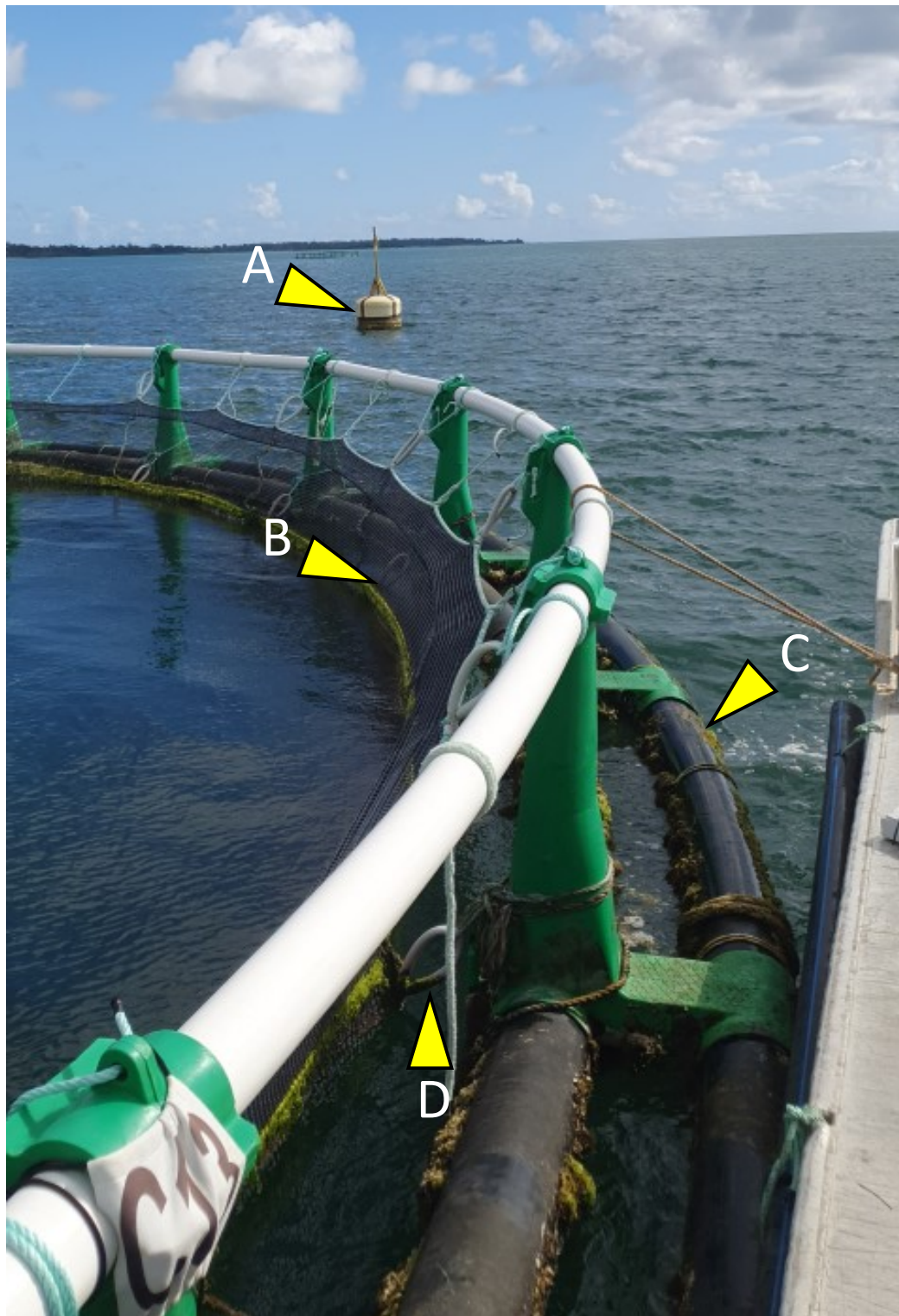


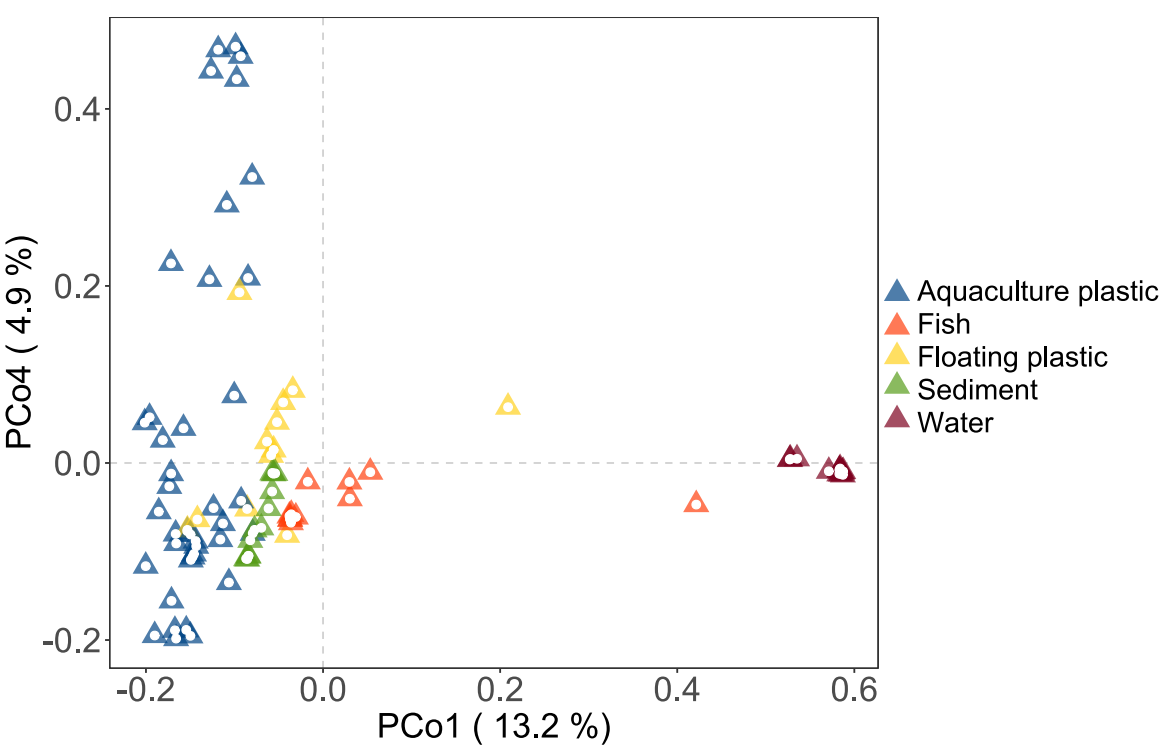
Figure 5: MAR index of all isolated strains and *Vibrionaceae* strains according to the sample type. Boxplot represents the median and quartiles for each sample type. The dotted line depicts the MAR threshold above which resistant bacteria are considered as marker of high antibiotic contamination in the area. Dunn test between sample origins, **: $p < 0.01$, *: $p < 0.05$.



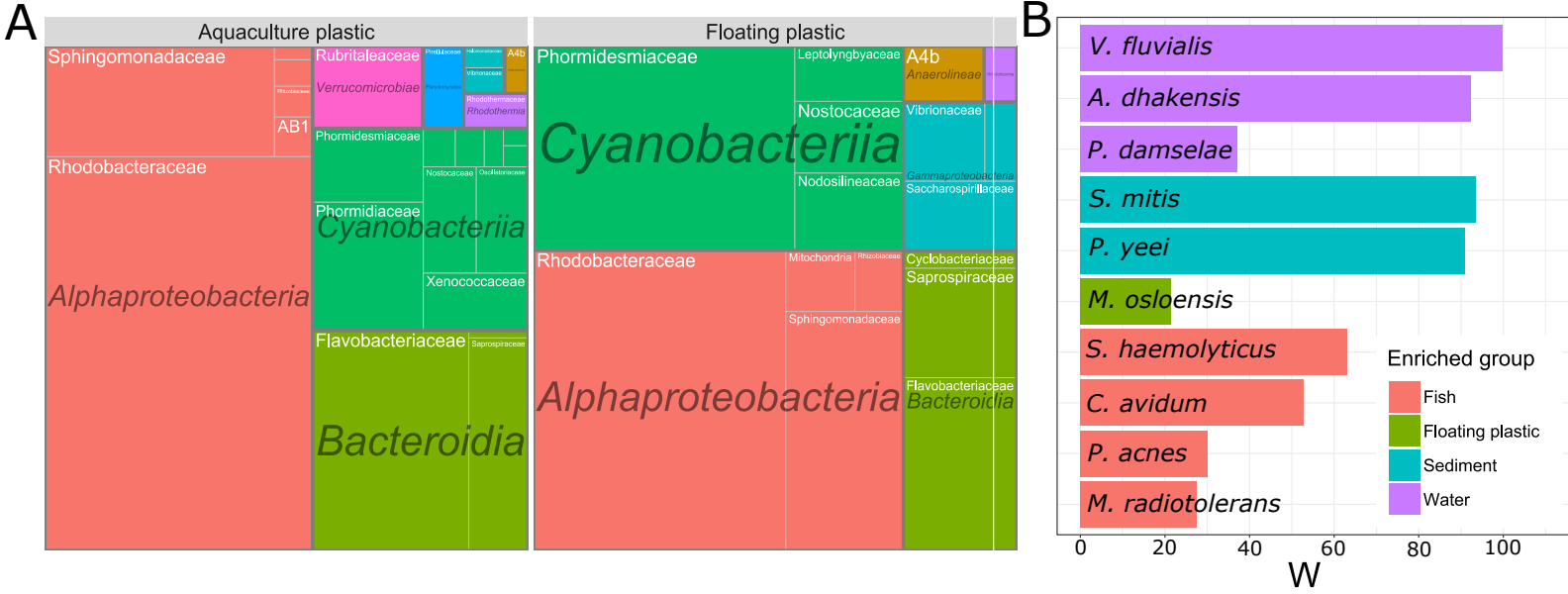
Supplementary figure 1: Geographical representation of the four sampling sites, in Mauritius. Sites 1 and 2 correspond to aquaculture sites, and sites 3 and 4 correspond respectively to the estuary of the South East Grand River and to the lagoon channel.



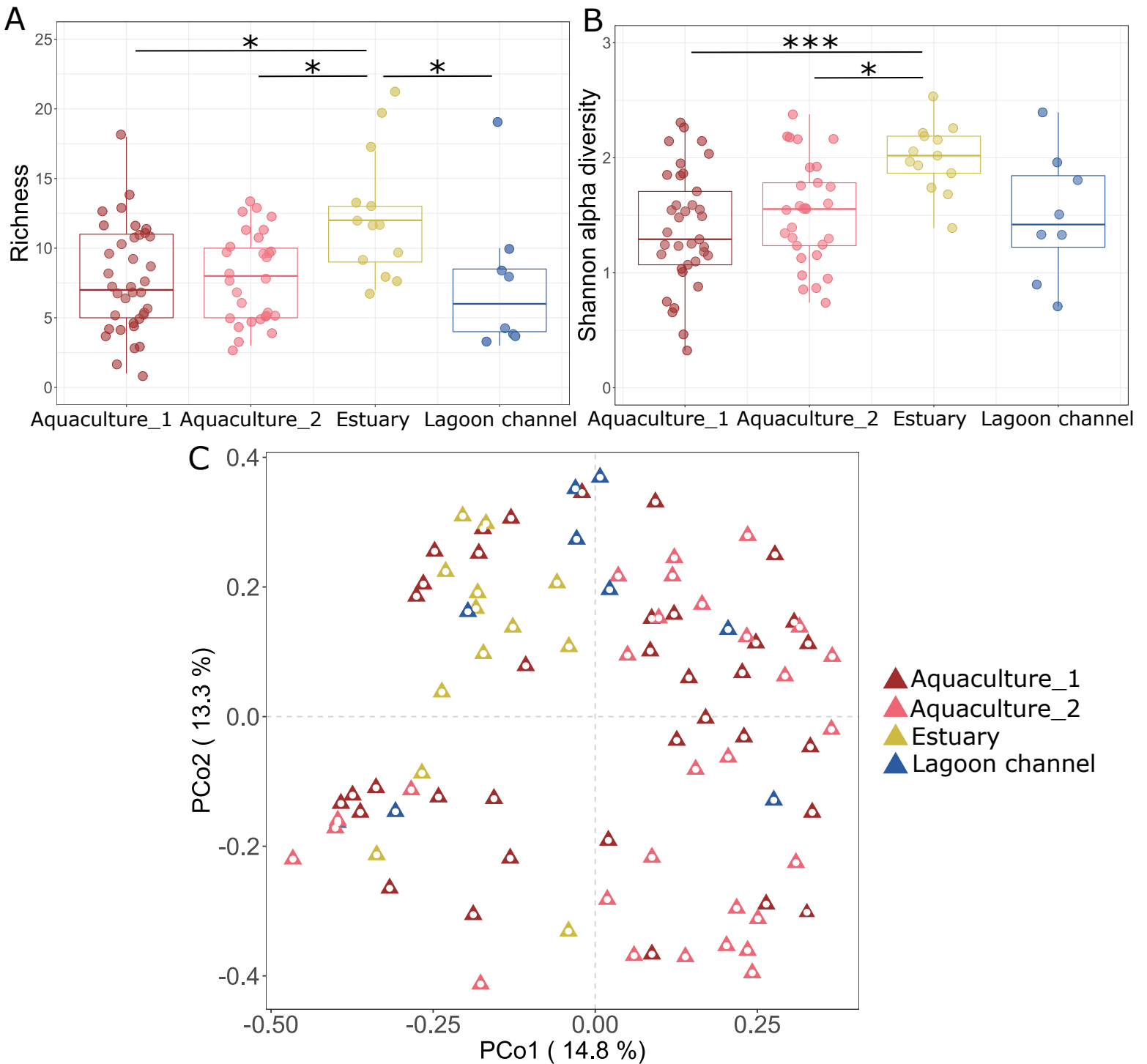
Supplementary figure 2: Photo of the four aquaculture plastics sampled. A: buoy located between cages. B: net of the cage. C: pipe structure of the cage. D: tie linking the net and the pipes.



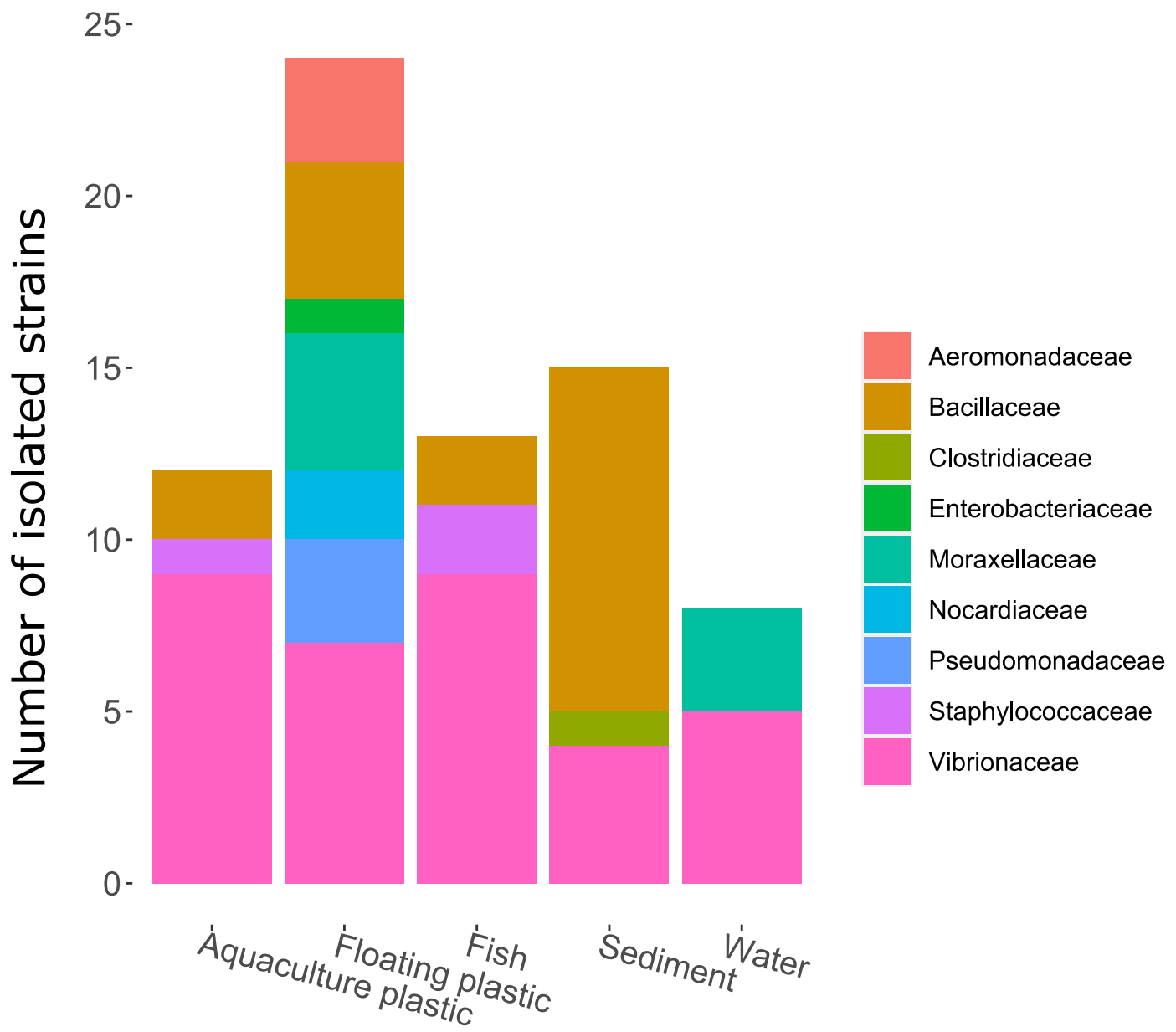
Supplementary figure 3: PCoA plot with Bray-Curtis distances (axes 1 and 4) of the diversity of the bacterial communities according to the sample type.



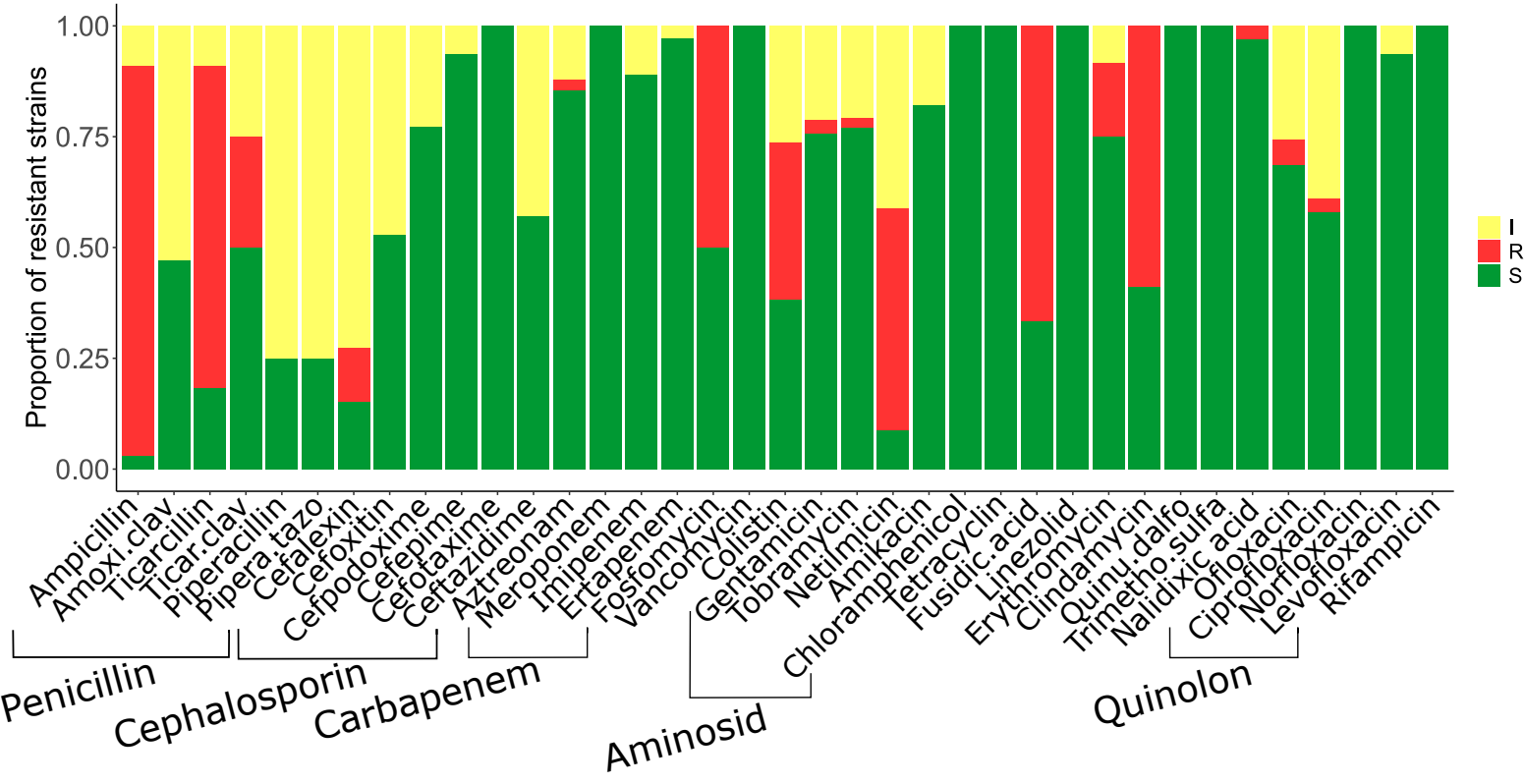
Supplementary figure 4: Biomarkers of the global plastisphere community and of the pathobiome identified by analysis of composition with bias correction (ANCOM-BC). A: treemap representing the relative abundance of the main phyla (>5%, in dark grey) and families (in white) from AP biomarkers (n = 556) and FP biomarkers (n = 88). B: biomarkers of the pathobiome communities according to the sample type, with their standardised effect sizes (W statistic) estimated via the difference on relative abundance between sample types.



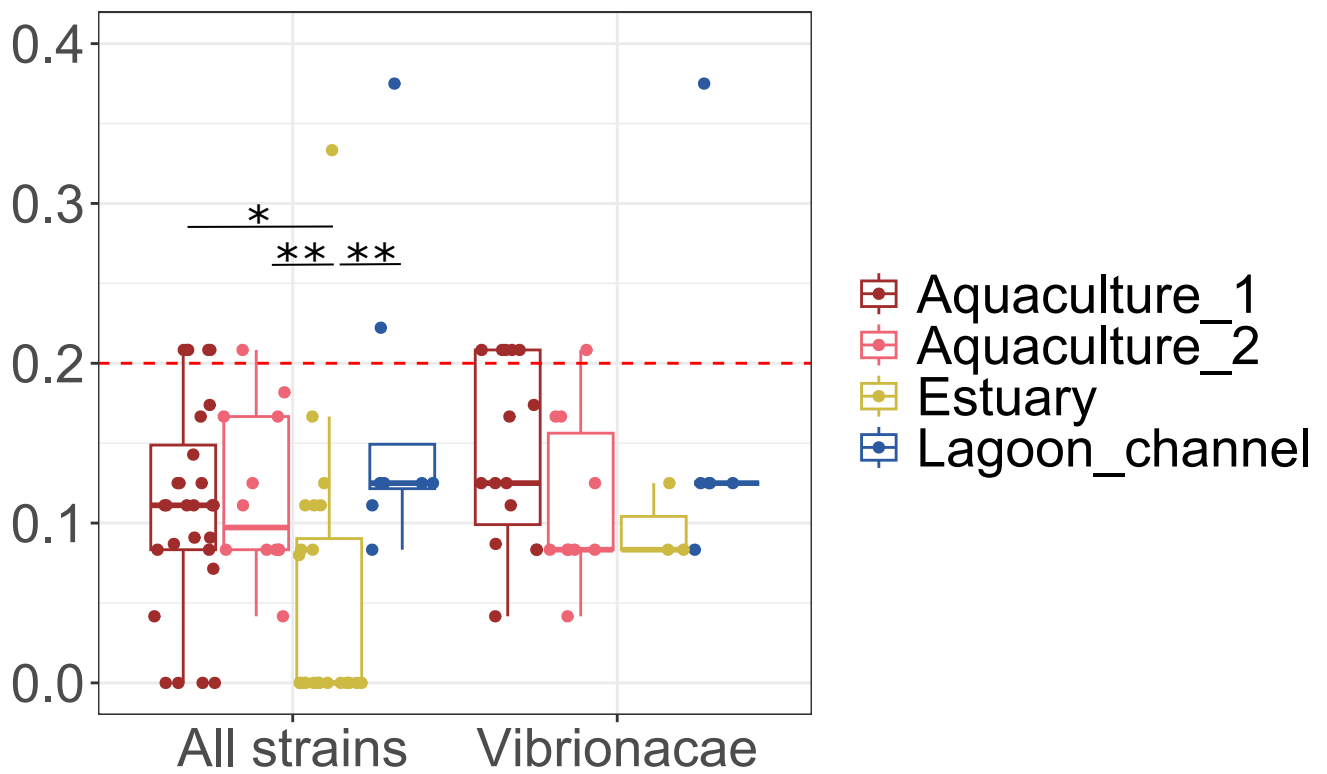
Supplementary figure 5: Alpha and beta diversity of the pathobiome according to the sampling site. A: taxonomical richness. B: Shannon diversity. A and B: Dunn tests between sample origins, ***: $p < 0.001$, *: $p < 0.05$. C: PCoA plot with Bray-Curtis distances.



Supplementary figure 6: Taxonomy at the phylum level of the isolated strains according to the sample type.



Supplementary figure 7: Proportion of resistant strains against each tested antibiotic, according to the EUCAST recommendations. R: resistant, S: sensible, I: intermedirary (sensible at high concentrations). Amoxi.clav: amoxicillin + clavulanic acid, Ticar.clav: ticarcillin + clavulanic acid, Pipera.tazo: piperacillin + tazobactam, quinu.dalfo: quinupristine + dalfoprismine.



Supplementary figure 8: MAR index of all isolated strains and Vibronaceae strains according to the sampling site. Boxplot represents the median and quartiles for each sample site. The dotted line depicts the MAR threshold above which resistant bacteria are considered as marker of high antibiotic contamination in the area. Dunn test between sampling sites, **: $p < 0.01$, *: $p < 0.05$.

Sampling site	Aquaculture site 1	Aquaculture site 2	Estuary	Lagoonchannel
Longitude	20°18'49.4" S	20°21'27.1" S	20°17'13.18" S	20°19'20.36" S
Latitude	57°47'03.8" E	57°46'54.8" E	57°46'42.49" E	57°48'57.55" E
Sampling date	12/11/2021	12/11/2021	13/11/2021	13/11/2021
Water temperature (°C)	26.53	27.33	26.83	28.07
Water salinity(psu)	30.45	34.9	17.1684	34.3037
Water conductivity (μS/cm)	46782.8	52795.6	27883.8	51954.3

Supplementary table 1: Environmental data of the sampling sites

	AP- Fish	AP- FP	AP- Sediment	AP- Water	Fish- FP	Fish- Sediment	Fish- Water	FP- Sediment	FP- Water	Sediment- Water
Global communities	0.127 (p = 0.01)	0.0460 (p = 0.01)	0.107 (p = 0.01)	0.222 (p = 0.01)	0.180 (p = 0.01)	0.262 (p = 0.01)	0.474 (p = 0.01)	0.148 (p = 0.01)	0.331 (p = 0.01)	0.442 (p = 0.01)
Pathobiome communities	0.150 (p = 0.01)	0.0607 (p = 0.02)	0.0450 (p = 0.13)	0.0610 (p = 0.02)	0.139 (p = 0.01)	0.233 (p = 0.01)	0.234 (p = 0.01)	0.122 (p = 0.03)	0.147 (p = 0.01)	0.0956 (p = 0.23)

Supplementary table 3: Summary of results obtained from PERMANOVA pairwise comparisons between beta-diversity estimates, with associated p-values in parenthesis. Bold p-values point out significant differences.

Bacteria	Hosts (human and/or fish)	Human saprophyte	Infections in humans
<i>Moraxella osloensis</i>	Human	yes	Endocarditis, meningitis, osteomyelitis, septic arthritis, vaginitis, and bacteremia (Shah, Ruth, et Coffin 2000)
<i>Cutibacterium avidum</i>	Human	yes	Breast infections, skin abscesses, infective endocarditis, and device-related infections (Corvec 2018)
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	Human and fish	no	Wound infections, necrotizing fasciitis, sepsis, urinary tract infections, food intoxications (Rivas, Lemos, et Osorio 2013, Schröttner et al. 2020)
<i>Staphylococcus haemolyticus</i>	Human	yes	Meningitis, endocarditis, prosthetic joint infections, bacteremia, septicemia, peritonitis, and otitis (Eltwisy et al. 2022)
<i>Vibrio parahaemolyticus</i>	Human and fish	no	Foodborne disease: gastroenteritis, diarrhea, stomach pains, nausea, fever (Letchumanan et al. 2019)
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Human and fish	no	Foodborne disease (gastroenteritis, diarrhea, stomach pains, nausea, fever), conjunctivitis, tissue necrosis, peritonitis (Mustapha, Mustapha, et Nozha 2013)
<i>Listeria innocua</i>	Human	no	Bacteriemia, meningitis (Perrin, Bemer, et Delamare 2003, Favaro et al. 2014)

Supplementary table 5: Summary of infections that can be caused by some potential pathogens.

	Aquaculture 1 – Aquaculture 2	Aquaculture 1 – Estuary	Aquaculture 1 – Lagoon channel	Aquaculture 2 – Estuary	Aquaculture 2 – Lagoon channel	Estuary – Lagoon channel
Global communities	0.0282 (p = 0.042)	0.0514 (p = 0.006)	0.0461 (p = 0.048)	0.0655 (p = 0.006)	0.542 (p = 0.03)	0.0883 (p = 0.198)
Pathobiome communities	0.0373 (p = 0.018)	0.0576 (p = 0.006)	0.0267 (p = 1)	0.0116 (p = 0.006)	0.0661 (p = 0.030)	0,0955 (p = 0.108)

Supplementary table 6: Summary of results obtained from PERMANOVA pairwise comparisons between beta-diversity estimates, with associated p-values in parenthesis. Bold p-values point out significant differences.

Supplementary table 7: MALDI-TOF identification of isolates according to their sampling site and type

Organism	Family	Site	Source
<i>Acinetobacter tandoii</i>	Moraxellaceae	3	Water
<i>Aeromonas hydrophila</i>	Aeromonadaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Acinetobacter venetianus</i>	Moraxellaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Pseudomonas mendocina</i>	Pseudomonadaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Aeromonas veronii</i>	Aeromonadaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Aeromonas jandaei</i>	Aeromonadaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	Bacillaceae	1	Sediment
<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	Bacillaceae	1	Sediment
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Sediment
<i>Proteus hauseri</i>	Enterobacteriaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Fish
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Bacillaceae	1	Fish
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Fish
<i>Vibrio navarrensis</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Water
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Water
<i>Rhodococcus pyridinivorans</i>	Nocardiaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Pseudomonas resinovorans</i>	Pseudomonadaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Pseudomonas mendocina</i>	Pseudomonadaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Bacillus anthracis</i>	Bacillaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Lysinibacillus pakistanensis</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Clostridium sartagoforme</i>	Clostridiaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Vibrio parahaemolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Floating plastic
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Fish
<i>Acinetobacter tandoii</i>	Moraxellaceae	3	Water
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Aquaculture plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Aquaculture plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Aquaculture plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Aquaculture plastic
<i>Lysinibacillus fusiformis</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Bacillus amylequofaciens</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Fish
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	Vibrionaceae	1	Fish
<i>Lysinibacillus fusiformis</i>	Bacillaceae	1	Fish
<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	Bacillaceae	1	Aquaculture plastic
<i>Acinetobacter junii</i>	Moraxellaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Acinetobacter junii</i>	Moraxellaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	4	Floating plastic
<i>Vibrio harveyi</i>	Vibrionaceae	4	Floating plastic
<i>Bacillus amylequofaciens</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Sediment
<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	Bacillaceae	4	Sediment
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	4	Sediment
<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	Bacillaceae	4	Sediment
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	4	Water
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	4	Floating plastic
<i>Rhodococcus hoagii</i>	Nocardiaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Exiguobacterium sp</i>	Bacillaceae	3	Floating plastic
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	Vibrionaceae	2	Aquaculture plastic
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	2	Water
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Vibrionaceae	2	Aquaculture plastic

Staphylococcus warneri	Staphylococcaceae	1 Fish
Staphylococcus epidermidis	Staphylococcaceae	1 Aquaculture plastic
Staphylococcus epidermidis	Staphylococcaceae	2 Fish
Photobacterium damsela	Vibrionaceae	2 Fish
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	2 Fish
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	2 Fish
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	2 Fish
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	2 Aquaculture plastic
Photobacterium damsela	Vibrionaceae	2 Aquaculture plastic
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	2 Aquaculture plastic
Bacillus pumilus	Bacillaceae	2 Sediment
Acinetobacter tandoii	Moraxellaceae	3 Water
Acinetobacter venetianus	Moraxellaceae	3 Floating plastic
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	4 Sediment
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	3 Water
Bacillus pumilus	Bacillaceae	1 Aquaculture plastic
Bacillus pumilus	Bacillaceae	1 Floating plastic
Vibrio alginolyticus	Vibrionaceae	3 Floating plastic