

Reservoir, sink, or reactor? Repositioning marine sponges as candidate indicators for coastal antimicrobial resistance monitoring

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Abstract

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) spreads through the environment, and in coastal areas it is investigated mainly in water and sediment. These matrices capture antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs) passing through them but may fail to retain that information over time because of the dynamics inherent in these ecosystems. Filter-feeding invertebrates are obvious candidates for the role, and bivalves have already been used for this purpose. Marine sponges (phylum Porifera) surpass bivalves on multiple fronts: they retain submicrometric particles that bivalves let pass, harbor microbial communities orders of magnitude denser than the surrounding water, and are sessile and long-lived in coastal areas receiving anthropogenic waste. Even so, researchers have never evaluated them as AMR indicators because sponge microbiology has focused on bioprospecting. Resistance in sponges almost always appears as incidental antibiogram data, or as annotation in metagenomes generated for other purposes. Here, we argue that the problem is not in collecting samples but in interpreting them: a sponge signal can only be read once an ecological question is resolved. As a reservoir, the holobiont accumulates ARGs and reflects environmental abundance, making it a valid monitoring target. As a sink, it removes ARG-carrying cells without passing them on, decoupling the signal from environmental load. As a reactor, it mobilizes ARGs into the resident symbiont community, so the signal indicates a risk the organism itself generates. This perspective distinguishes each role, identifies factors that confound these observations, and defines the validation strategy required for sponges to serve as indicators in AMR monitoring.

Keywords: Porifera; resistome; AMR ecology; bioindicator; sentinel; horizontal gene transfer; holobiont; One Health

1. Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a major global public health issue that can evolve, persist, and spread through environmental mechanisms (Larsson & Flach, 2022). The One Health concept applied to AMR posits that antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs) circulate among human, animal, and environmental compartments, and research has focused on this dynamic: sewage, rivers, coastal waters, soils, and agricultural areas are being studied regarding ARGs and their mobility (UNEP, 2023; Bongiovanni et al., 2025; Liang et al., 2025; Mao et al., 2025; Brown et al., 2026). The coastal marine environment plays a prominent role in this network. This compartment receives the bulk of land-based ARG discharges, particularly from domestic sewage, hospital effluents, aquaculture waste, and agro-industrial runoff, and serves as the point of contact between these discharges and humans, whether through recreational activities or the consumption of fish and seafood (Leonard et al., 2018, 2022; Sala-Comorera et al., 2021). Nevertheless, investigations often focus solely on water and sediment (Cuadrat et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2024; Kong et al., 2025); while these capture the resistome in transit, they do not account for the organisms in which it may be processed and evolve to become more significant.

This reliance represents a technical issue regarding the choice of indicators, not merely a matter of coverage. Grab sampling of water provides an instantaneous value for a compartment where ARG abundance fluctuates with tides, rainfall, and discharge flows, potentially missing critical peak levels (Carney et al., 2019; Jang et al., 2021). What is missing from research aimed at establishing environmental surveillance procedures for AMR, particularly in coastal regions, is a biological integrator: an organism that remains continuously in the water column, concentrates filtered material, and serves as a time-integrated record of the resistome to which it has been exposed. Among potential biological compartments, marine sponges (phylum Porifera) combine a unique set of properties. They are among the most efficient water-filtering organisms known, capable of filtering 20 to 2,000 times their body volume per hour while retaining sub-micrometer particles (Reiswig, 1974; Gerrodette & Flechsig, 1979; Weisz et al., 2008; Mariani et al., 2019; Morganti et al., 2019). They harbor dense, stable, and well-organized microbial consortia, with abundances ranging from 10^6 to 10^9 microbial cells per gram of tissue, levels orders of magnitude higher than those found in the surrounding water (Gloeckner et al., 2014; Moitinho-Silva et al., 2017). Furthermore, they are sessile, long-lived, and

abundant in coastal areas subject to anthropogenic discharges (Van Soest et al., 2012; Stubler et al., 2015).

Here, we argue that marine sponges have been studied from an incomplete perspective, resulting in the loss of a potential indicator of antimicrobial resistance in coastal areas. Our aim is to evaluate the sponge holobiont as a candidate indicator of the coastal resistome and to define what must be measured before interpreting any signal from the sponge. We propose three testable hypotheses: the sponge acting as a reservoir, a sink, or a reactor for antimicrobial resistance. We show that each hypothesis implies a different type of indication, derive the observable prediction that distinguishes each case, and describe the validation strategy capable of differentiating them (Fig. 1).

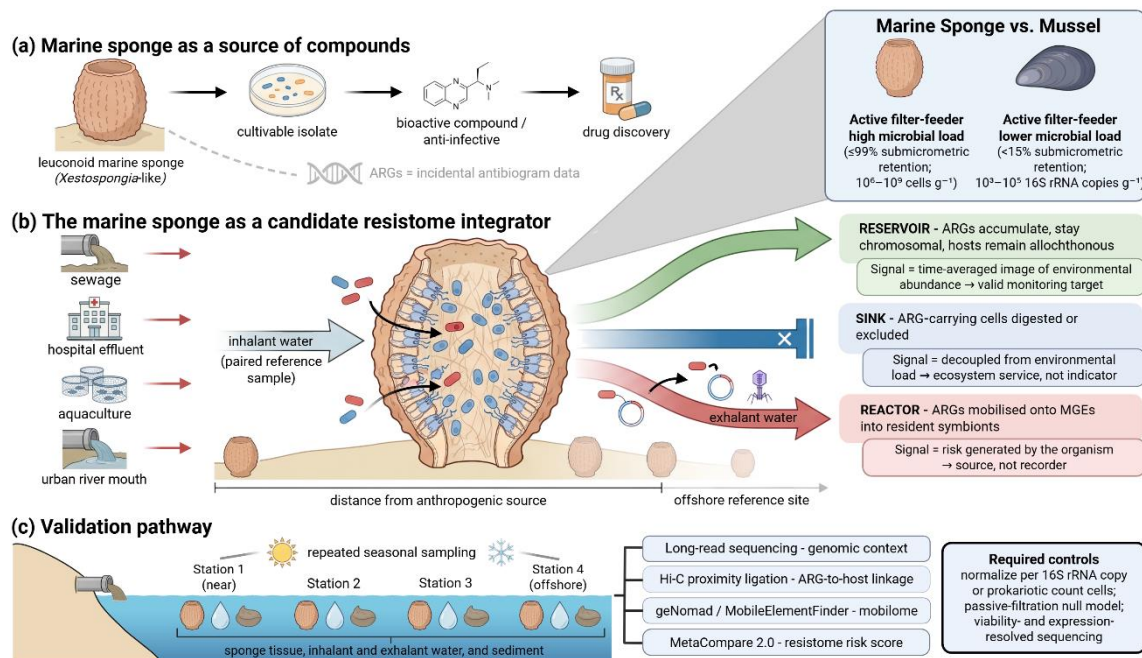


Fig 1. Marine sponges as candidate indicators of the coastal resistome. (a) The inherited paradigm: the sponge holobiont has been investigated as a source of bioactive compounds, with ARGs appearing as incidental antibiogram data. (b) The sponge as a candidate resistome integrator: filtration delivers allochthonous, ARG-carrying cells from coastal sources into a resident consortium orders of magnitude denser than the surrounding water, retaining the sub-micrometer fraction that bivalves let pass (inset). Three outcomes remain compatible with the available evidence, each assigning a different meaning to the same measured value (indicator semantics, tinted boxes): reservoir, sink, and reactor. Predictions are tested against paired inhalant water and against distance from the anthropogenic source (gradient bar). (c) Validation pathway: paired sampling of sponge tissue, inhalant and exhalant water, and sediment along a source-to-offshore

transect, repeated across seasons, with the analytical methods and the controls required to render the signal interpretable. The figure was generated in BioRender (<https://www.biorender.com>).

2. What indication requires, and why sponges qualify for this role

Based on established frameworks for indicator selection (Carignan & Villard, 2002; McGeoch, 2007; Heink & Kowarik, 2010), we synthesize three conditions that an indicator, such as one for the resistome, must satisfy: (i) the organism must integrate the signal over time and space, something a snapshot sample cannot do; (ii) the relationship between the signal displayed by the organism and the environmental condition being monitored must be monotonic and easily interpretable; and (iii) the measurement must be reproducible across different sites and seasons. Filter feeders naturally meet the first condition; consequently, researchers have used bivalves as sentinels for AMR in coastal and freshwater environments (Bighiu et al., 2019; Grevskott et al., 2017).

The case of bivalves serves as a prime example, as clear data regarding them have already been gathered. Research has shown that zebra mussels concentrated fecal indicator bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli* and *Enterococcus* spp., to levels approximately 132 times higher than those found in the surrounding water, retaining these bacteria for up to two days following a pulse exposure (Bighiu et al., 2019). In field studies, high proportions of antimicrobial-resistant *E. coli* were detected in both mussels and water downstream of a wastewater treatment plant. One-third of the bacteria isolated from mussels exhibited multi-drug resistance, leading the authors to propose these bivalves as an efficient tool capable of time-integrated monitoring to quantify resistant fecal indicators (Bighiu et al., 2019). Similarly, marine bivalve mollusks collected along the Norwegian coast have been proposed as a monitoring tool for antimicrobial-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* in coastal environments (Grevskott et al., 2017). Currently, the body of literature is sufficiently extensive to support a systematic review and meta-analysis of AMR prevalence in marine bivalves (Albini et al., 2022), and resistome studies have begun to reveal profiles of ARGs and their associations with mobile genetic elements (MGEs) within mussel digestive glands (Fu et al., 2025).

However, marine sponges may surpass bivalves as bioindicators of AMR because of several advantages. Sponges particularly excel regarding the first criterion. Through

filtration, they: (i) retain finer particles (sponges retain up to 99% of sub-micrometer particles from the water, compared to <15% for bivalves) (Ward & Kach, 2009; Leys et al., 2018); and (ii) maintain these particles within a resident microbial consortium that is far denser than a bivalve's gut microbiome (the mesohyl of high microbial abundance (HMA) sponges harbors approximately 10^6 to 10^9 microbial cells per gram, versus 10^3 to 10^5 copies of 16S rRNA per gram of mussel tissue) (Gloeckner et al., 2014; Moitinho-Silva et al., 2017; Valenzuela et al., 2021). It is worth noting that the <1 μm size fraction is precisely the one carrying the resistome; furthermore, allochthonous bacteria captured by sponges are delivered to a consortium orders of magnitude denser than the one receiving them in bivalves, and it is cell density, along with close contact, that defines the conditions favoring horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (Michaelis & Grohmann, 2023; Djermoun et al., 2025). Therefore, a sponge could, in principle, function as a more efficient resistome integrator than the organism the field has spent decades developing.

Regarding the second criterion, sponges may fail, as might bivalves, though less obviously. Every claim regarding this indicator rests on an unstated assumption: that the resistance signal recovered from the tissue is a concentrated reflection of the resistance present in the surrounding water. This assumption is a hypothesis that remains untested in marine sponges. Until it is, the abundance of ARGs measured in sponge tissue remains a value without a reference point.

3. The inherited paradigm

Scientific interest in the sponge-associated microbiome grew from a bioprospecting perspective (Fig. 1a). Sponges are sessile, soft-bodied, and chemically defended; their symbionts produce these defenses, including antimicrobials with pharmaceutical potential (Van Soest et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2022). This logic was productive: it yielded compounds currently in clinical development and generated a substantial body of literature (Jimenez et al., 2020; Hong et al., 2022; Xia et al., 2024). However, it was also all-encompassing. A major review on sponge-derived antimicrobials frames the entire topic as a search for new anti-infective agents to replenish a depleted clinical pipeline (Devkar et al., 2022): sponges appear as a solution to the problem of resistance, rarely as a site where resistance occurs, and never as a matrix in which resistance could be measured.

The consequence is methodological, not merely rhetorical. Bioprospecting requires isolates, compounds, and biosynthetic gene clusters. Bioprospecting does not need to know an ARG's origin, which host carries it, or whether the ARG is mobilizable; nor does it require a paired environmental reference to calibrate any indicator. When ARGs were described in sponge-associated bacteria, they typically appeared as incidental data from antibiograms of strains isolated for other purposes or as annotations in metagenomes generated for other objectives (Phelan et al., 2011; Versluis et al., 2015; Laport et al., 2016; Costa et al., 2021). Only one study has targeted sponges to search for ARG reservoirs (Versluis et al., 2016), and no body of work has been designed to track ARG flow: there has been no source-to-sink sampling, no analysis of contamination gradients, and no large-scale paired water-tissue comparisons.

This blind spot has already been highlighted within the field: research into sponge microbial biotechnology has focused on secondary metabolites, leaving biomonitoring and pollution indication understudied (De Oliveira et al., 2023).

The clearest illustration of this is technical. Uppal et al. (2022) applied genome-resolved metagenomics to a *Forcepia* sp. sponge and detected a biosynthetic gene cluster with GC content and pentanucleotide frequency vastly different from those of the host symbiont genome, signaling horizontal acquisition. Methods for detecting HGT within a sponge holobiont already exist and have been used; however, they were used to identify an anticancer compound.

4. Why current methods fail to produce an interpretable signal

Five limitations separate existing evidence from the questions a claim of indicator potential must answer.

- **Cultivation.** Sponge symbiont communities are dominated by taxa that do not grow under laboratory conditions; the fraction that can be isolated is small and biased (Dat et al., 2021). Antibiograms derived from this fraction reveal only the phenotypes of the cultivable portion of the sponge microbiome rather than the holobiont's complete resistome; consequently, they cannot serve as a reliable indicator signal.

- 185 • **Gene-centric detection.** Targeted PCR or the mapping of metagenomic reads
186 indicates the presence of an ARG. This presence does not indicate which organism
187 carries the ARG, whether the ARG is located on a chromosome or a plasmid, or
188 whether it is mobilizable. The presence of the ARG can fit three different
189 hypotheses; this is precisely why presence data alone are insufficient.
- 190 • **Lack of linkage.** To distinguish a reservoir from a reactor, three elements must be
191 connected: the ARG, the MGE carrying it, and the bacterial host. Short-read
192 assembly of a complex, highly diverse consortium often breaks apart these very
193 regions (e.g., repetitive, mobile, or low-coverage regions), resulting in a loss of
194 linkage between them (Abramova et al., 2024).
- 195 • **Denominator/null model of filtration.** Comparing ARG abundance per gram of
196 tissue with abundance per liter of water yields no useful information: tissue
197 biomass exceeds that of seawater by three to six orders of magnitude (Hentschel
198 et al., 2012), making the tissue appear enriched even if the filters were inert. When
199 reported this way, this enrichment factor is a denominator artifact rather than a
200 meaningful signal. Comparisons must be normalized against 16S rRNA gene
201 copies or prokaryotic cell counts, and filtration expectations should be based on
202 pumping rate, retention efficiency, and cell density.
- 203 • **Relic DNA in digestive tissue.** Sponges continuously capture and digest
204 prokaryotic cells (de Goeij et al., 2013), so the tissue likely contains relic DNA
205 from lysed cells, a known confounder in similar matrices (Carini et al., 2016). A
206 perfect sink that digests every antimicrobial-resistant cell produces a DNA
207 signature indistinguishable from that of accumulation (reservoir); only
208 sequencing (resolved by viability or expression) can distinguish between them.

209 The mobility vector, meanwhile, is well-documented. Pascelli et al. (2020)
210 characterized viromes in fifteen individuals across nine sponge species and found
211 assemblages dominated by *Caudovirales* carrying accessory genes for herbicide and
212 heavy-metal resistance; these assemblages varied according to host species and site. Thus,
213 phage-mediated gene flow within the holobiont is not merely hypothetical; it has simply
214 not yet been examined in relation to ARGs.

5. The marine sponge holobiont: reservoir, sink, or reactor?

Conditions favoring HGT are well-characterized in other environmental compartments, such as high cell density and close cell-to-cell contact (Michaelis & Grohmann, 2023; Djermoun et al., 2025), steep chemical gradients, and chronic sub-inhibitory exposure to antimicrobials and biocides (Zhang et al., 2017; Jutkina et al., 2018), and these are precisely the conditions that define hotspots for gene transfer, such as sewage biofilms (Wang et al., 2026). Sponges combine many of these factors: in waters receiving effluent, filtration can deliver allochthonous, resistant bacteria directly to a dense resident consortium maintained within a collagenous matrix.

If transfer can occur within the holobiont, it has already been tested. Cartwright et al. (2020) exposed laboratory cultures of the freshwater sponge *Ephydatia fluviatilis* to donor and recipient strains of *Enterococcus faecalis* in microcosms. Presumed transconjugants increased significantly compared to controls, and fluorescence *in situ* hybridization revealed enterococcal aggregates in direct cell-to-cell contact within the sponge matrix, although the mechanism remains unclear. This may be related to binding to the collagen matrix. This result serves as a proof of concept in a freshwater species under laboratory conditions using a single donor-recipient pair; it has not been replicated in marine sponges, *in situ*, or along a contamination gradient. Consequently, three responses remain consistent with the evidence, each attributing a different significance to the same measured value. Initial expectations are unfavorable: marine sponge symbiont genomes are rich in CRISPR and other defense systems (Horn et al., 2016), which argues for testing H3 rather than accepting it.

H1 – Reservoir. Sponges accumulate and retain ARGs from the water column, but the genes largely remain within their original host organisms. *Prediction:* ARG abundance in the tissue, normalized by prokaryotic cells or 16S rRNA gene copies, exceeds that of paired inhalant water and decreases with distance from anthropogenic sources; ARGs are primarily located on the chromosome; association with MGEs is not higher than in the source water; ARG-carrying taxa reflect allochthonous input. *Indicator semantics:* the tissue signal represents a concentrated, time-averaged image of environmental abundance, making the marine sponge a valid monitoring target.

H2 – Sink. Sponges capture and eliminate ARG-carrying bacterial cells through digestion, host immunity, or competition from resident symbionts, without passing them

on. *Prediction*: normalized ARG levels in the tissue are lower than in the inflow water, or ARGs decrease in viable/expressible fractions compared to total DNA; there is no increase in ARG-carrying MGEs; ARG-carrying taxa appear only transiently and are not resident members of the consortium. *Indicator semantics*: the sponge tissue signal is decoupled from environmental abundance by a removal process that is currently unknown and potentially variable; the sponge functions as an ecosystem service provider rather than an indicator.

H3 - Reactor. The holobiont facilitates ARG transfer from incoming cells to the established symbiont community, increasing resistance frequency. *Prediction*: ARGs are more concentrated in tissue MGEs compared to inflow water; nearly identical ARG sequences appear in phylogenetically distinct hosts within the same holobiont (a signature of recent HGT), with recipients belonging to sponge-specific symbiont lineages rather than allochthonous taxa; the pattern intensifies with proximity to antimicrobial sources; and there is a net export of ARGs or ARG-carrying cells in the outflow water. *Indicator semantics*: the tissue signal reflects a risk generated by the organism itself; the sponge acts as a source of coastal resistance rather than a passive recorder.

When the same ARG appears in phylogenetically distant hosts within a holobiont, it indicates recent HGT. However, this signature does not reveal where the transfer occurred; a marine sponge filtering sewage-impacted water may receive donor-recipient pairs that were already formed upstream. To distinguish between transfer occurring within the holobiont and transfer imported into it, we need two additional constraints on the “reactor” hypothesis. First, ARG sharing must differ among distinct clades, comparing paired tissue and inhaled water samples, rather than looking at the tissue state in isolation. Second, to validate or refute the hypothesis, the recipients’ identity must be restricted to established, sponge-specific symbiont lineages rather than allochthonous taxa.

These hypotheses are not mutually exclusive. A marine sponge may function as a sink for some taxa and a reactor for others, with the balance shifting along a source gradient. A mixed regime does not preclude using an indicator but constrains it, as the indicator would need to be defined based on the ARG classes for which the reservoir concept holds and validated separately for each class. The distinction remains valid in all cases. A reservoir is a monitoring target. A sink is an ecosystem service. A reactor is a public health issue that discharges into the same coastal waters used for recreation and the harvesting of fish and seafood (Fig. 1b).

6. What would resolve the issue: a validation pathway

To test the hypotheses raised, appropriate methodological strategies are needed. In this regard, *long-read sequencing* recovers ARGs within their genomic context and indicates whether a gene is located on a chromosome or a plasmid. It also preserves the gene's flanking regions, regions that short-read sequencing tends to fragment (Dai et al., 2022). *Proximity-ligation metagenomics*, or Hi-C, enables physical linkage of ARGs and MGEs to their bacterial hosts without bacterial cultivation (Zhu et al., 2026). The method captures the H3 signature of the same ARG across distinct hosts within a holobiont. This linkage is necessary but insufficient; it must be compared against paired inhalant water to demonstrate contrast. *Mobilome annotation*, performed using software such as geNomad and MobileElementFinder, quantifies the association between ARGs and MGEs (Johansson et al., 2021; Camargo et al., 2024). The *resistome risk score*, calculated via MetaCompare 2.0 or ARG-Ranker, integrates ARG abundance, mobility, and association with pathogens into a single metric (Zhang et al., 2021; Rumi et al., 2024). This metric represents the form that a marine sponge-based index should take to ensure comparability across different sites.

These tools require a gradient design. Marine sponge tissue, ambient water, and sediment are collected together along a transect starting from a defined anthropogenic source, such as an outfall, a hospital effluent discharge, the mouth of an impacted urban river, or an aquaculture site, and extending to open-ocean reference points; sampling occurs during at least two seasons over approximately two to three consecutive years. Comparing tissue and water reveals enrichment or depletion; the gradient assesses dose-dependence (specifically, the indicator's required monotonicity); seasonal repetition checks reproducibility; and Hi-C analysis verifies transfer. Existing resources lower the barrier to entry. The Sponge Microbiome Project collected 3,569 sponge specimens and 370 paired seawater samples using standardized protocols (Moitinho-Silva et al., 2017); however, because the resource relies on 16S rRNA gene amplicons, the samples cannot be re-examined for ARGs. Nevertheless, this database offers a global overview of host-associated community composition and HMA/LMA classification, providing an evidence-based foundation for selecting target species and identifying sites where environmental and tissue communities have already been characterized. To address the

identified scientific and technical gaps, shotgun and long-read sequencing data must be generated anew, taking into account the conditions presented and discussed here.

7. Conclusion

Marine sponges are frequently studied as sources of pharmaceuticals but never as bioindicators of bacterial antimicrobial resistance. They are filter feeders that capture particles more finely and continuously than the bivalves typically used for this purpose in coastal AMR research. In 2020, a study hypothesized that laboratory-reared freshwater sponges could also serve as AMR indicators, acting as a tool to assess it rather than merely being targets of it, though the study did not explore this further. This was not because the question was unanswerable, but rather because it was not the specific question being addressed at the time. Assessing the sponge holobiont as an indicator is cost-effective: the tools already exist, reference databases help select species and sites, and the sampling design is standardized. This approach could yield a new coastal sentinel for AMR, a natural sampler that integrates the resistome of the filtered water, or lead to the discovery of an unmonitored amplification hotspot upstream of recreational areas and seafood harvesting sites. Any of these outcomes would improve AMR monitoring in coastal areas, contributing to the development and implementation of environmental AMR monitoring systems.

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Wellington Felipe Costa: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Resources.

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Conflict of interest statement

The author declares no competing financial interests or known personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this article.

Statement on the use of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the manuscript preparation process

During the preparation of this work, the author used BioRender for the conceptual diagram presented in Fig. 1 and Claude Opus 5 for English grammar review. After using these tools, the author reviewed and edited the content as necessary and assumes full responsibility for the content of the published article.

Data availability

No new data were generated or analyzed in this article. All material discussed is available in the cited published literature.

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