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- 1 Antibiotic resistance genes in phage particles isolated from human feces and
- 2 induced from clinical bacterial isolates

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Abstract

Phage particles have emerged as elements with the potential to mobilize antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) in different environments, including the intestinal habitat. The aim of this study was to determine the occurrence of ARGs in phage particles present in fecal matter and induced from strains isolated from feces. Nine ARGs (bla_{TEM}, bla_{CTX-M} 1-group, bla_{CTX-M-9}-group, bla_{OXA-48}, qnrA, qnrS, mecA, sul1 and armA) were quantified by qPCR in the phage DNA fractions of 150 fecal samples obtained from healthy individuals. These subjects had not received antibiotic treatment or travelled abroad in the three months prior to the sample collection. On the suspicion that the detected particles originated from bacterial flora, 82 Escherichia coli and Klebsiella pneumoniae isolates possessing at least one identified ARG (bla_{TEM}, bla_{CTX-M-1}-group, bla_{CTX-M-9}group, armA, qnrA, qnrS, and sul1) were isolated and their capacity to produce phage particles carrying these ARGs after induction was evaluated. Seventy-two percent of samples were positive for at least one ARG, with bla_{TEM} and bla_{CTX-M-9}-group being the most prevalent and abundant. Fifty-one isolates (62%) showed an increase in the number of copies of the respective ARG in the phage fraction after induction, with bla_{TEM}, bla_{CTX-M-1}-group, bla_{CTX-M-9}-group and sull being the most abundant. Phages induced from the isolates were further purified and visualized using microscopy and their DNA showed ARG levels of up to 10¹⁰ gene copies/ml. This study highlights the abundance of phage particles harboring ARGs and indicates that bacterial strains in the intestinal habitat could be sources of these particles.

48 **Key words:** antibiotic resistance, bacteriophage, feces, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella*49 *pneumoniae*, horizontal genetic transfer, transduction.

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1. Introduction

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Bacteriophages, or bacterial viruses, are the most abundant biological entities on Earth and one of the keys to the evolution and potential control of bacterial populations [1]. Knowledge of phages has been essential for the progress of molecular biology and they have been used as models for studying different biological processes. In recent decades, phages have acquired increasing relevance in molecular biology due to new insights into their presence in many bacterial genomes [1,2], their role in horizontal gene transfer [3], the phage-bacterium relation and bacterial defense mechanisms against phage infection [4].

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Meanwhile, bacterial resistance to antibiotics continues to increase and is severely undermining our ability to control infectious diseases. The World Health Organization (WHO) has identified antibiotic resistance as one of the most challenging problems in public health global scale (available care on a at http://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf files/WHA68-REC1/A68 R1 REC1-en.pdf). The causes of this increase in resistance are believed to include overuse and inconsistent application of antibiotics in humans, together with the use of antibiotics in animal husbandry [5,6]. The scientific community and governments have reacted by calling for a better control of antibiotic usage in both humans and livestock. Researchers are trying to find new generations of antibiotics to treat infections by resistant strains [7], but more research into the mechanisms of resistance would also be advisable. This is the purpose of the multidisciplinary "One-Health" approach [8], which aims to encourage the collaborative efforts of multiple disciplines working locally, nationally, and globally.

Antibiotic resistance may be intrinsic, or conferred either by mutation or by acquiring antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) through mobile genetic elements (MGEs) [5]. Clinical studies point to conjugation and transformation as the most likely mechanisms of transfer [8]. However, little attention has been paid to other mechanisms, such as transduction mediated by phages or phage-derived particles, which have only recently emerged as potentially relevant [9–11]. Bacteriophages basically consist of one nucleic acid molecule (the phage genome) surrounded by a protein coating, the capsid. This packaging of the nucleic acid confers protection and hence an extracellular persistence that cannot be found in naked DNA or RNA. Therefore, capsid protection could be important in cases where there is no close cell-to-cell contact [12].

In preliminary studies the presence of ARGs was determined in total and phage DNA in feces of individuals without any enteric disease [13]. That work is extended here by the analysis of more ARGs in the phage fraction of a new collection of fecal samples from 150 healthy individuals free of contact with clinical settings and who had not received antibiotic therapy in the previous three months. The ARGs studied consisted of four β-lactamases (*bla*_{TEM}, *bla*_{CTX-M-1}-group, *bla*_{CTX-M-9}-group, *bla*_{OXA-48}) [14], two quinolone resistance genes (*qnrA* and *qnrS*)[15,16], the *mecA* gene that confers resistance to methicillin in *Staphylococcus aureus* [17], the emerging *armA* gene that confers resistance to aminoglycosides [18] and *sul1*, the most extended gene

conferring resistance to sulfonamides [19]. Another aim of the study was to gain insight into the origin of the phage particles, suspected to be derived from bacterial flora. Accordingly, bacterial strains (*Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*) isolated from the feces that possessed a given ARG were treated to induce phage particles carrying this ARG.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Fecal samples

This study was performed with 150 human fecal samples of individuals living in the city of Barcelona (Catalonia, North East Spain), collected over a period of six months (from February to August 2016). All individuals were healthy, not related with clinical environments nor involved in a food-borne outbreak or showing any gastro-intestinal pathology or known infection. None of the subjects had consumed antibiotics or travelled to foreign countries in the three months before the sampling. All samples were completely anonymized. Besides ensuring the above criteria were fulfilled, no individual data were collected except for age. The samples were destroyed immediately after the study, which was approved by the Clinical Ethics Committee (12/065/1350). Informed consent was obtained for all individuals.

2.2. Bacterial strains

The *E. coli* strains used as controls for the different ARGs are listed in Table 1. Fecal samples were cultured on chromogenic agar chromID® CPS® Elite (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France). After 24 h of incubation at 37°C, all the isolates growing on the plates compatible with *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* were identified by matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time-of-flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) (MALDI Autoflex IITM / TOF/TOF, Bruker, Daltonik GmbH, Germany). Antimicrobial susceptibility testing was performed according to the guidelines of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute [20].

Seventy *E. coli* and 12 *K. pneumoniae* isolates were selected on the basis of the presence of one of the target ARGs (one isolate per individual) to determine the presence of phage particles containing the ARGs.

2.3. Partial purification of phage DNA

Fecal samples were homogenized 1:5 (*w:v*) in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) by shaking for 15 minutes. Then, a final volume of 50 ml of the homogenate was centrifuged at 3,000 g and the supernatant was filtered through low protein-binding 0.22 µm pore-size membrane filters (Millex-GP, Millipore, Bedford, MA). The suspensions were treated with chloroform, centrifuged at 16,000 g for 10 minutes and the supernatants were treated with DNAse (100 units/ml; Sigma-Aldrich, Spain) for 1 hour at 37°C. DNAse was heat-inactivated at 75°C for 5 minutes. To rule out the presence of non-packaged DNA, an aliquot of the sample was taken after DNase treatment and before its desencapsidation. Using this control sample, the absence of free 16SrDNA was established as well as the absence of the ARGs studied by qPCR, confirming total

removal of non-encapsidated DNA [13,21]. Different controls were performed to verify the stability and appropriate inactivation of the DNase [10]. Packaged DNA was extracted by proteinase K digestion, purified and quantified [10,13].

2.4. Purification of bacteriophages from clinical isolates

Twenty ml cultures of each clinical isolate in Luria Beltrani (LB) broth were grown to the mid-exponential phase (optical density (OD) $_{600}$ of 0.3). Each culture was aliquoted in two 10 ml tubes and one aliquot was treated with mitomycin C (mitC) (final concentration 0.5 μ g/ml) to induce phage particles. Both tubes were incubated for 6h at 37°C by shaking in the dark and the absorbance of the culture after induction was monitored by comparing the OD of the mitC-treated and non-treated cultures. Phages in the supernatant lysate from both aliquot cultures were partially purified as described above.

2.5. Standard PCR and qPCR procedures

PCRs were performed with a GeneAmp® PCR 2700 system (Applied Biosystems, Barcelona, Spain). ARGs from the control strains were amplified by conventional PCR, cloned in pGEM-T Easy vectors (pGEM®-T-Easy Vector, Promega, Barcelona, Spain) to generate the constructs and verified by sequencing (Table 2). The constructs were used to generate the standard curves.

Real-time qPCR assays for bla_{TEM} , $bla_{\text{CTX-M-1}}$ -group, $bla_{\text{CTX-M-9}}$ -group ,mecA, armA, qnrA group, qnrS group and sul1 were performed as previously described [10,13,22,23]. The $bla_{\text{OXA-48}}$ gene qPCR assay (Table 2) was designed with the Primer Express Software version 3.0 (Applied Biosystems). The gene was amplified using specific primers (Table 2) from the sequence of $bla_{\text{OXA-48}}$ harbored in the K. pneumoniae clinical isolate HSP172. The amplified $bla_{\text{OXA-48}}$ was sequenced and cloned in pGEM-T Easy. The construct was confirmed by sequencing and used to generate the standard curves [10]. The qPCR assay for $bla_{\text{OXA-48}}$ showed a 99.8% efficiency and a quantification limit of 18.2 gene copies $/\mu$ L (threshold cycle of 32.4), similar to the other genes.

Primers and Taqman hydrolysis probes (Table 2) were used under standard conditions in a StepOne Real-Time PCR system [10]. To further screen for PCR inhibition, dilutions of known gene copy concentration of the *mecA* standard were spiked with the DNA isolated from the samples, and results were compared to the expected concentration. No inhibition of the PCR by the samples was detected. All the samples were run in duplicate.

2.6. Phage purification by CsCl density gradients.

Eight isolates showing good induction and a high level of ARGs in phage DNA were selected for purification by cesium chloride (CsCl) density gradients [24] and electron microscopy observations. The easily visible grey bands corresponding to

bacteriophages [24,25] were collected and dialyzed. Phage DNA was extracted from the particles in the band and used to quantify the ARGs. Phage particles forming a band were visualized by electron microscopy in a JEOL 1010 transmission electron microscope (JEOL Inc. Peabody, MA USA) operating at 80 kV [26].

2.7. Statistical analysis

Computation of data and statistical tests was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Science software (SPSS). A tolerance interval with 90% confidence in 90% of the population (considering collected isolates as the population) was used to determine which isolates were considered positive for induction after mitC treatment (using OD_{600} and ARGs gene copy data).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. ARGs in phage particles isolated from feces

Stool samples from healthy individuals in the Barcelona area were selected as described in Materials and methods. It was verified that the subjects had no contact with a clinical environment and had not received any antibiotic treatment or travelled abroad in the three months before sampling. The age of the individuals ranged from 1.3 to 85 years.

About 72% of the phage suspensions obtained from the stools were positive for
at least one ARG. From these, 29 samples (19.3%) were positive for one ARG; 40
samples (26.7%) for 2 ARGs; 24 samples (16.0%) for 3 ARGs; 14 samples (9.3%) for 4
and 2 samples (1.3%) for 5 ARGs. Among the detected ARGs, blaTEM was the most
prevalent, followed by blactx-m-9-group, sull and qnrA (Figure 1A). blatem was also the
most abundant (Fig. 1B), reaching maximum densities of 10 ⁶ gene copies/g, although
the samples showed a great heterogeneity in the number of particles carrying bla_{TEM}
gene copies. Next in abundance were both blactx-m groups 1 and 9. Although not
among the most prevalent ARGs, mecA and qnrS showed an average abundance of 3.1
and 2.4 \log_{10} gene copies, respectively. The average number of particles bearing bla_{OXA}
$_{48}$, $qnrA$ and $armA$ was close to $2 \log_{10}$ gene copies /g (although some samples showed
higher densities of qnrA), while sul1, despite its high prevalence, was one of the least
abundant genes (Fig. 1B).

Analyzing the distribution of ARGs among subjects in different age segments (<20, 20-40, 40-60 or >60) revealed a higher prevalence of *sul1* and *bla*_{CTX-M-1}-group in samples from older subjects, which also showed a lower level of *bla*_{CTX-M-9}-group, as the most remarkable observations (Fig. S1A). Individuals aged 20-60 years gave a higher percentage of samples without any ARGs, although this group also provided the most samples. The trend line (Fig. S1B) did not show any correlation with different age groups. In a previous study, correlations between age and the number of ARGs in phage DNA were not observed either [13].

The ARG prevalence in the phage fraction is in agreement with previous data obtained with a different set of fecal samples [13]. In the former study, 22.5% of

samples were negative, compared to 28% here, and the proportions of each ARG were slightly higher in abundance. The most notable difference between the studies is that whereas both cohorts of individuals were not affected by gastrointestinal disease, in the previous study prior administration of antibiotics or travel abroad was not monitored.

3.2. Phage particles induced from clinical bacterial isolates

The nature of phage particles carrying ARGs detected in feces is unknown. They could be free particles in the gut incorporated by ingestion of food or water, or particles produced by bacterial strains present in the microbiota. To evaluate this second possibility, 70 *E. coli* and 12 *K. pneumoniae* isolates from fecal samples of different individuals in this study (82 individuals) were selected on the basis of the presence of one or more targeted ARGs (Table 3). The isolates allowed us to analyze phage particles carrying *bla*_{TEM}, *bla*_{CTX-M-1}-group, *bla*_{CTX-M-9}-group, *armA*, *qnrA*, *qnrS* and *sul1*. Phage particles were induced from the isolates using mitC at a subinhibitory concentration, a commonly used method [27]. The *Enterobacteriaceae* group does not harbor *mecA*, therefore this gene was not included in this part of the study. The absence of isolates with *bla*_{OXA-48} could be expected considering that the isolation performed was not specific for its detection, and in addition this gene should not be prevalent in healthy carriers [28].

The effect of mitC on the isolates was determined by monitoring the reduction of the OD₆₀₀ of the treated aliquot of each culture in comparison with the untreated aliquot after 6 hours of incubation at 37°C. The OD reduction is interpreted as activation of the

phage lytic cycle or a similar mechanism causing cell lysis. Each isolate was mitC-treated at least in duplicate, and although the OD reached differed slightly between replicates, the differences between the control and the treated aliquot of the culture were consistent between replicates. To statistically support which samples showed induction, we considered a tolerance interval of 90% confidence in 90% of the population. Therefore, we excluded isolates falling outside the tolerance range, i.e. those showing an OD_{600} reduction of less than 0.2 points, which indicates a lack of cell lysis. Only seven of the 82 isolates were considered non-inducible (isolates marked with an asterisk in Fig. 2). In contrast, 54 isolates showed an OD_{600} decrease of > 0.5 points (Fig. 2) and these were suspected of harboring prophages or phage-derived particles causing the lysis of the host strain after induction.

3.3. ARGs in phage particles induced from clinical isolates

bla_{TEM}, bla_{CTX-M-1}-group, bla_{CTX-M-9}-group, armA, qnrA, qnrS, and sul1 were quantified in the phage DNA in the culture supernatant of 82 isolates treated or not with mitC. ARG values were usually higher in the mitC-treated culture, attributed to the generation of phage particles by the treatment. Isolates Ec7, Ec22, Ec37, Ec60 Ec70, Kp2, Kp3, which did not show a reduction in the OD₆₀₀ measurements after mitC treatment (Fig. 2), accordingly did not show an increase in gene copies/ml of the corresponding ARGs in phage DNA after induction (Fig. 3). armA is not included because no differences between the induced culture and the control were detected.

After two independent induction experiments, 51 isolates (62.2%) showed an increase in the ARG copy number in the phage fraction. We selected as inducible those isolates with an increase of more than 0.2 log₁₀ gene copies, on the basis of a tolerance interval of 90% confidence in 90% of the population. In fact, for all 51 isolates that showed an increase in the ARG copy number the difference was equal or greater than 0.5 log₁₀. Thirty-one strains (37.8%) did not show an increase in the gene copy values $(\leq 0.2 \log_{10} \text{ units})$. In some cases (qnrA and qnrS) (Fig. 3), particles containing an ARG were only observed after induction, probably because the number of ARG-particles in the untreated culture was too low and below the limit of quantification of our qPCR assays. In contrast, the occurrence of ARG-particles in the uninduced culture is attributed to basal, spontaneous generation of phage particles, widely reported in phages [29] and phage-related particles, such as gene transfer agents (GTA)[30]. Moreover, some isolates showed higher gene copy densities in the control than in the induced culture, although the differences were not significant (P >0.05) (Fig. 3). These results could be attributed to a reduction in cell number caused by activation of the lytic cycle of other prophages in the isolate chromosome, which are very commonly found in E. coli or Klebsiella spp. [31,32]. Another possibility is that the treatment with mitC reduced the growth rate of the isolate, thereby diminishing the number of particles produced per cell.

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Average gene copy/ml values of those samples with an increase in the number of particles after mitC induction were box-plotted (Fig. 4), and differences between control and mitC-treated samples were significant (P<0.05) for all ARGs except *sul1*. Similar averaged densities were observed for all ARGs except *qnrA* and *qnrS*, which showed

lower values.	Some	ARGs (sul1,	bla _{TEM} or	$bla_{\text{CTX-M-1}}\text{-group})$	showed u	ip to	10^{9}	gene
copies/ml afte	er induc	etion (Fig. 4).						

3.4. Observation of phage particles carrying ARGs

Observation of fecal samples and the supernatant of some of the mitC-treated bacterial cultures revealed tailed phage particles, corresponding to the *Myoviridae* and *Siphoviridae* morphological types (like those shown in Fig. 5). Not all samples allowed visualization of phage particles, either because they corresponded to samples where no integral capsids were present, or very probably because they were present in concentrations below those required for visualization in the electron microscope (*c.a.* 10⁸ particles/ml) [26].

The phage particles were obtained from induced cultures of 4 *E. coli* (Ec4, Ec11, Ec30, Ec69) and 4 *K. pneumoniae* (Kp4, Kp8, Kp9, Kp11) isolates selected on the basis of high induction rates and an increase in the gene copies of one or more ARG after mitC treatment (Fig. 3). Particles were further purified by CsCl gradients and the resulting grey band corresponded to a density of 1.5 g/ml, which is in accordance with what is expected for phage particles [25] (Fig. 5A). The band was recovered and used to confirm the presence of phage particles. After chloroform and DNAse treatment, the DNA from the phage capsids was extracted and the ARG quantified.

The eight strains showed the presence of phage particles of the *Myoviridae* and *Siphoviridae* morphological types (Fig. 5B). Both groups have been reported as the

most abundant infecting *E. coli* and *Bacteroides fragilis* in fecally polluted water samples [33–35] and stool samples [36]. Analysis of fecal virones also indicates that tailed, doubled-stranded DNA viruses of the order Caudovirales, which include *Siphoviridae*, *Myoviridae*, and *Podoviridae*, are the most abundant types in feces [37,38].

A minimal amount of 10^7 particles/ml of sample is required for electron microscopy observation, therefore the phages observed are assumed to be the most abundant in these samples. Accordingly, the packaged DNA extracted from the CsCl density gradient bands containing the phages showed densities of gene copies/ml $> 10^7$ for at least one of the ARGs (Fig. 5C) and some ARGs showed densities of up to 10^{10} gene copies/ml. It can be assumed that at least a fraction of the phage particles visualized by microscopy would carry one of the ARGs in densities in accordance with the particles observed by microscopy and at the same order of magnitude as shown in Fig. 3.

The mobilome [39] includes all the mobile genetic elements (MGEs) in a genome, while the resistome [40] refers to all the ARGs and their precursors in a bacterial genome. The two concepts are closely linked, because in general, ARGs found intrinsically in certain bacteria are mobilized to recipient cells by a range of MGEs, and their spread is the main cause of the alarming emergence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria worldwide [6]. However, the scope of the elements that comprise the mobilome has not yet been definitively defined. The role of plasmids in ARG transfer in clinical settings

has been widely reported [8,41–43], but it is now suspected that other elements, such as phages [10,11,21] or phage-derived particles [12], could also be involved.

The intestinal habitat is a densely populated environment where phages play a determinant role, either in regulation of intestinal populations, thereby influencing human welfare, or as MGEs of genes related to pathogenicity [2,13,44,45]. It has been suggested [12] that phages are efficient genetic vehicles due to the protection conferred by the protein capsid in extracellular environments.

Some phage genomes are spontaneously induced from resistant strains by environmental conditions [27,29], resulting in transcription and production of new phage particles which then infect and lysogenize other uninfected host cells. Other elements that can be considered as phage-related, because of their evident similarities with phages, are induced in a similar way: this is the case of GTA [46,47].

The particles produced by the bacterial isolates in this study seemed to be resident in our isolates as prophages and were induced by the mitC treatment. The presence of ARGs in these particles opens up two possibilities. The first is that these are prophages with the ARG inserted in their genome. We would then expect to be able to isolate these ARG-harboring phages and plausibly to transduce the gene in relatively high frequencies. This was not the case here: our transduction attempts were not successful, in line with previous attempts using phage particles isolated from fecally polluted samples [10]. Moreover, some sequencing studies [10,13], as in the present

work (data not presented), have shown a lack of phage genes flanking the targeted ARGs.

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The second possibility is that after induction, prophage genes in the bacterial isolates have packaged bacterial DNA (including the ARG) in a sort of generalized transduction or GTA-like particle. These would then be detectable by the methods used and show an increase after induction, but with an absence of phage DNA genes, which is more in accord with our observations. These ARG-containing phage particles would theoretically be capable of attaching to new host cells and injecting their DNA [48]. In fact, quite a number of phages reportedly involved in ARG transfer seem to be derived from generalized transduction [49–53]. In terms of their genome, these cannot be considered phages, because they contain only bacterial and not phage DNA. In line with these assumptions, an interesting recent study revealed that bacterial DNA, including ARGs, found in viromes was rarely encoded in phage genomes [54]. Once the possibility of bacterial DNA contamination is discarded (although not completely ruled out), and considering ARGs as those genes that confer real resistance, the most plausible explanation for the presence of ARGs in the studied phage particles is that bacterial DNA is mobilized through generalized transduction or related mechanisms [54].

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Figure L	egends
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Figure 1.- ARGs in the phage fraction of human fecal samples. A) Percentage of positive samples for each ARG. B) Abundance of each ARG. Box plot of the average values ((log₁₀ gene copies)/g feces) of all ARGs in the positive samples. In the box plot, the cross-pieces of each box represent (from top to bottom) the maximum, upper-quartile, median (black bar), lower-quartile and minimum values. The black diamond shows the mean value. The upper boxes in the box plot include samples showing values within the 75th percentile and lower white box samples show values within the 25th percentile.

Figure 2.- Induction of phage particles from the bacterial isolates by mitomycin C treatment. OD₆₀₀ measurements for cultures of the *E. coli* (Ec) and *K. pneumoniae* (Kp) isolates with (mitC) or without (control) mitomycin C (0.5 μ g/ml) treatment. An asterisk indicates the non-inducible strains.

Figure 3.- ARGs in the phage fraction of each bacterial isolate from human fecal samples. ARG densities (gene copies/ml) in phage DNA extracted from the cultures of the *E. coli* (Ec) and *K. pneumoniae* (Kp) isolates with (mitC) or without (control) mitomycin C (0.5 μg/ml) treatment. Results correspond to one independent induction experiment. An asterisk indicates the non-inducible strains in Figure 2.

Figure 4.- Average ARG densities in the phage fraction of bacterial isolates.

Average number of ARG copies (log₁₀ gene copies/ml) in phage DNA from isolates

showing significant (P<0.05) (*) increase in the number of ARG copies after mitC

treatment versus uninduced controls in all ARGs except *sul1*. In the box plot, the crosspieces of each box represent (from top to bottom) the maximum, upper-quartile, median (black bar), lower-quartile and minimum values. A black diamond shows the mean value. The colored boxes in the box plot represent samples showing values within the 75th percentile; white boxes represent samples showing values within the 25th percentile.

Figure 5.- Visualization of phage particles from the induced cultures carrying ARGs. (A) Example of the grey band corresponding to a density of 1.5 g/ml in a tube of CsCl density gradients prepared with the induced fraction of the isolate Ec4. (B). Electron micrographs of phage particles purified from the eight *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* induced isolates. (C) The qPCR results of the ARGs present in the phage particles purified from the CsCl density bands and visualized by electron microscopy in

Figure S1.- Distribution of the ARGs in the phage DNA fraction of feces in different ages. A) Results for ARGs in phage DNA are presented in a stacked column chart that compares the percentage of positive samples among the total number of samples analyzed for each segment. B) Distribution of the number of ARGs in phage DNA (0-5 ARGs) detected in each individual in relation to age. Dotted line represents the trend line.

(B). Bar: 100nm.