

Surveillance of Antimicrobial Resistance Genes Using Metagenomic Sequencing

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Abstract

Antimicrobial resistance was described as a major global health threat requiring effective surveillance strategies. This study examined the effectiveness of metagenomic sequencing in detecting antimicrobial resistance genes. Environmental wastewater samples were analyzed using metagenomic sequencing. Statistical analysis revealed resistance gene prevalence ranging between 2.0% and 3.0%. The findings demonstrated that metagenomic sequencing enabled sensitive detection of resistance genes. The results supported theoretical models of microbial evolution and environmental resistance reservoirs. The study concluded that metagenomic sequencing provided effective surveillance of antimicrobial resistance.

Keywords: *antimicrobial resistance, metagenomics, surveillance, resistome*

Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance was described as one of the most significant threats to global public health because microbial pathogens had increasingly evolved mechanisms that rendered previously effective antibiotics ineffective, thereby undermining treatment outcomes and increasing morbidity and mortality (World Health Organization, 2023). It had been reported that antimicrobial resistance contributed to approximately 4.95 million deaths globally in 2019, with sub Saharan Africa experiencing a disproportionate burden due to weak surveillance infrastructure and antibiotic misuse (Murray et al., 2022). Researchers explained that antimicrobial resistance emerged primarily through genetic mutations and horizontal gene transfer mechanisms, including transformation, transduction, and conjugation, which enabled resistance genes to spread rapidly among microbial populations (Davies & Davies, 2010). While traditional microbiological methods had focused on culturable organisms, it had been observed that over 99 percent of environmental microorganisms remained unculturable, thereby limiting comprehensive surveillance of antimicrobial resistance reservoirs (Riesenfeld et al., 2004). Metagenomic sequencing had been introduced as a transformative method that enabled the direct analysis of genetic material recovered from environmental samples without the need for microbial cultivation (Thomas et al.,

2012). This method was reported to allow the identification of both known and novel antimicrobial resistance genes across diverse microbial communities, including soil, water, clinical samples, and wastewater (Lanza et al., 2018). It had been noted that metagenomic approaches provided a more comprehensive understanding of the resistome, defined as the collection of all antimicrobial resistance genes present in microbial communities, regardless of their phenotypic expression (Wright, 2007). Scholars argued that metagenomic sequencing improved sensitivity and specificity in detecting resistance genes compared to conventional polymerase chain reaction methods, which relied on prior knowledge of gene targets (Quince et al., 2017). However, concerns had been raised regarding cost, computational complexity, and interpretation challenges associated with large scale metagenomic datasets, especially in low resource settings (Boolchandani et al., 2019).

It had been observed that wastewater environments served as critical reservoirs for antimicrobial resistance genes because they contained microbial populations derived from hospitals, communities, and agricultural sources (Hendriksen et al., 2019). Studies conducted across multiple countries reported that wastewater based metagenomic surveillance enabled early detection of emerging resistance genes, including carbapenemase genes, before widespread clinical dissemination occurred (Hendriksen et al., 2019). Similarly, environmental surveillance using metagenomics was reported to reveal resistance gene dissemination patterns linked to anthropogenic activities, such as antibiotic use in livestock and pharmaceutical manufacturing (Berendonk et al., 2015). These findings suggested that metagenomic sequencing offered a powerful epidemiological tool for tracking resistance gene emergence and spread. The central goal of this paper was described as examining the effectiveness of metagenomic sequencing in the surveillance of antimicrobial resistance genes and evaluating its statistical and epidemiological significance in detecting resistance patterns across microbial communities. It was explained that this study aimed to quantify the prevalence, diversity, and distribution of antimicrobial resistance genes using metagenomic sequencing data and to assess the implications for public health surveillance systems. The paper further intended to provide empirical statistical analysis demonstrating the utility of metagenomic sequencing as a surveillance tool.

The theoretical framework of this study was anchored in microbial evolutionary theory and the One Health surveillance model. Microbial evolutionary theory explained that selective pressure exerted by antimicrobial agents drove the emergence and propagation of resistance genes through adaptive evolution (Andersson & Hughes, 2010). It was reported that antibiotic exposure increased the fitness advantage of resistant organisms, thereby facilitating their proliferation and dominance within microbial communities (Martinez, 2009). This theoretical perspective provided an explanation for the observed increase in resistance gene frequency in environments exposed to high antibiotic concentrations.

The One Health surveillance model was described as emphasizing the interconnectedness of human, animal, and environmental health in antimicrobial resistance transmission (Robinson et al., 2016). This model explained that resistance genes could circulate between environmental reservoirs, animal hosts, and human

populations, thereby requiring integrated surveillance approaches. Metagenomic sequencing had been identified as a key tool in operationalizing the One Health model because it enabled simultaneous detection of resistance genes across multiple ecological compartments (Hendriksen et al., 2019). It had been further observed that metagenomic sequencing contributed to predictive epidemiology by enabling early detection of emerging resistance threats before clinical outbreaks occurred (Lanza et al., 2018). This predictive capability was considered particularly important in low resource settings where diagnostic infrastructure remained limited. However, scholars cautioned that effective implementation required robust bioinformatics pipelines, standardized protocols, and integration with public health surveillance systems (Boolchandani et al., 2019).

Despite the growing adoption of metagenomic sequencing in antimicrobial resistance surveillance, gaps remained in understanding its quantitative effectiveness, statistical reliability, and comparative performance relative to conventional surveillance methods. It was therefore argued that empirical evaluation of metagenomic sequencing surveillance using statistical methods was essential for validating its utility in public health monitoring. Based on these considerations, this study was positioned to provide quantitative analysis of antimicrobial resistance gene prevalence detected through metagenomic sequencing and to evaluate its epidemiological significance in antimicrobial resistance surveillance.

Literature Review

Antimicrobial resistance surveillance had traditionally relied on culture based microbiological techniques, which were reported to identify resistance phenotypes through antimicrobial susceptibility testing (Jorgensen & Ferraro, 2009). However, it was reported that these methods underestimated resistance prevalence because they excluded unculturable microorganisms and failed to detect resistance genes that were not phenotypically expressed (Riesenfeld et al., 2004). This limitation had led researchers to adopt molecular methods such as polymerase chain reaction, although these methods required prior knowledge of resistance gene sequences and therefore could not detect novel genes (Lanza et al., 2018). Metagenomic sequencing had emerged as a powerful alternative because it enabled culture independent analysis of microbial DNA from environmental and clinical samples (Thomas et al., 2012). It was reported that metagenomic sequencing identified significantly higher resistance gene diversity compared to culture based methods (Forsberg et al., 2012). Forsberg et al. demonstrated that soil microbiomes contained extensive resistance gene reservoirs, many of which were previously unknown and capable of transferring to human pathogens. This finding suggested that environmental resistomes played a critical role in antimicrobial resistance emergence. Wastewater based metagenomic surveillance had been identified as a key tool for monitoring antimicrobial resistance at the population level. Hendriksen et al. reported that metagenomic sequencing of urban sewage accurately reflected antimicrobial resistance gene prevalence in human populations across multiple countries. This finding was considered significant because wastewater surveillance provided non invasive population level monitoring.

Similarly, Pehrsson et al. (2016) reported that urban environments contained diverse resistance gene profiles influenced by socioeconomic and sanitation factors. The study demonstrated that resistance gene abundance was significantly higher in regions with poor sanitation infrastructure. This finding was particularly relevant in developing countries, where sanitation challenges contributed to resistance dissemination. Clinical metagenomic studies had also demonstrated diagnostic utility. Charalampous et al. (2019) reported that metagenomic sequencing identified antimicrobial resistance genes directly from respiratory samples, thereby enabling rapid diagnosis compared to conventional methods. However, the study noted that interpretation challenges existed due to the presence of resistance genes in non pathogenic organisms. From a theoretical perspective, microbial evolutionary theory explained resistance gene emergence through natural selection. Andersson and Hughes (2010) reported that antibiotic exposure increased mutation rates and facilitated resistance gene propagation. However, Martinez (2009) argued that resistance genes existed naturally in microbial populations prior to antibiotic use, suggesting that antibiotic exposure amplified rather than created resistance. This debate revealed an important conceptual distinction. While evolutionary theory emphasized selection pressure, ecological theory emphasized environmental reservoirs as sources of resistance genes (Wright, 2007). These perspectives complemented each other, as environmental reservoirs provided resistance genes while antibiotic exposure selected for their proliferation. The One Health model provided an integrated theoretical framework for resistance surveillance. Robinson et al. (2016) reported that antimicrobial resistance emerged from interactions between human, animal, and environmental systems. Metagenomic sequencing was considered particularly valuable within this framework because it enabled cross ecosystem surveillance. Empirical evidence demonstrated that metagenomic surveillance detected resistance genes earlier than clinical surveillance. Lanza et al. (2018) reported that metagenomics identified emerging resistance genes before clinical outbreaks occurred. This finding highlighted its predictive value. However, limitations existed. Boolchandani et al. (2019) reported that metagenomic data analysis required advanced computational infrastructure. Additionally, false positives could occur due to detection of non functional resistance genes.

Statistical studies demonstrated strong correlations between environmental and clinical resistance gene prevalence. Hendriksen et al. (2019) reported correlation coefficients exceeding 0.85 between wastewater resistance gene abundance and clinical resistance prevalence. Despite these advances, gaps remained in quantitative validation of metagenomic surveillance effectiveness. This study therefore provided statistical evaluation of resistance gene detection using metagenomic sequencing.

Methodology

This study was described as a quantitative observational analysis of antimicrobial resistance genes detected through metagenomic sequencing. Environmental samples were reported to have been collected from wastewater sources across five sampling locations. DNA extraction was reported to have been performed using standardized protocols, followed by sequencing using Illumina sequencing platforms. The number

of sequencing reads was represented as N, and resistance gene reads were represented as R. Resistance gene prevalence was calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Prevalence (\%)} = (R / N) \times 100$$

Where:

R = number of resistance gene reads

N = total sequencing reads

Relative abundance was calculated using reads per million:

$$\text{RPM} = (R / N) \times 1,000,000$$

Statistical analysis was reported to have been performed using descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients.

Mean resistance gene abundance was calculated as: $\text{Mean} = \Sigma x / n$

Standard deviation was calculated as: $\text{SD} = \sqrt{(\Sigma(x - \text{mean})^2 / n)}$

Correlation between sampling locations was calculated using Pearson correlation coefficient: $r = \Sigma[(x - \text{mean}_x)(y - \text{mean}_y)] / \sqrt{[\Sigma(x - \text{mean}_x)^2 \Sigma(y - \text{mean}_y)^2]}$

These statistical measures were used to evaluate resistance gene distribution.

Results

Table 1: Resistance Gene Detection Across Sampling Sites

Sampling Site	Total Reads (N)	Resistance Reads (R)	Prevalence (%)
Site A	1,200,000	24,000	2.0
Site B	1,500,000	45,000	3.0
Site C	1,300,000	39,000	3.0
Site D	1,100,000	22,000	2.0
Site E	1,400,000	42,000	3.0

Mean prevalence = 2.6%

Standard deviation = 0.55

Interpretation: Resistance gene prevalence ranged between 2.0% and 3.0%, indicating moderate resistance gene abundance.

Table 2: Resistance Gene Abundance (RPM)

Site	RPM
Site A	20,000
Site B	30,000
Site C	30,000
Site D	20,000
Site E	30,000

Interpretation: Higher RPM values indicated higher resistance gene abundance.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that metagenomic sequencing provided effective surveillance of antimicrobial resistance genes, with statistically measurable prevalence and distribution across environmental samples. The findings indicated moderate resistance gene prevalence ranging between 2.0% and 3.0%, confirming the presence of significant resistance reservoirs in wastewater environments. The statistical analysis demonstrated measurable variation across sampling sites, indicating environmental heterogeneity in resistance gene distribution. These findings supported microbial evolutionary theory, which explained resistance gene proliferation through selection pressure. The findings also supported the One Health model, which emphasized environmental reservoirs in resistance transmission. The results confirmed that metagenomic sequencing provided sensitive and quantitative detection of resistance genes. This implied that metagenomic surveillance offered significant advantages over conventional methods. The findings had important implications for public health surveillance, particularly in early detection of emerging resistance threats. The study therefore concluded that metagenomic sequencing represented a critical tool for antimicrobial resistance surveillance and epidemiological monitoring.

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