

URBAN WASTEWATER EFFLUENT INCREASES ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE GENE CONCENTRATIONS IN A RECEIVING NORTHERN EUROPEAN RIVER

Björn Berglund, Jerker Fick and Per-Eric Lindgren

Linköping University Post Print



N.B.: When citing this work, cite the original article.

Original Publication:

Björn Berglund, Jerker Fick and Per-Eric Lindgren, URBAN WASTEWATER EFFLUENT INCREASES ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE GENE CONCENTRATIONS IN A RECEIVING NORTHERN EUROPEAN RIVER, 2015, Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry, (34), 1, 192-196.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/etc.2784>

Copyright: Wiley: 12 months

<http://eu.wiley.com/WileyCDA/>

Postprint available at: Linköping University Electronic Press

<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:liu:diva-113727>

1 **Running title:** Wastewater increases antibiotic resistance in receiving

2 river

3

4 **Corresponding author:** Björn Berglund

5 **Address:** Hälsouniversitetet, Medicinsk mikrobiologi, Plan 12,

6 581 85, Linköping, Sweden

7 **Telephone number:** +46 10 1032616

8 **Fax:** +46 10 1034789

9 **Email:** bjorn.berglund@liu.se

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21 **Urban wastewater effluent increases antibiotic resistance gene**
22 **concentrations in a receiving Northern European river**

23

24 **Björn Berglund^{*†}, Jerker Fick[‡], Per-Eric Lindgren^{†,§}**

25

26 [†] Linköping University, Division of Medical Microbiology, Department of Clinical and
27 Experimental Medicine, Linköping, Sweden

28 [‡] Department of Chemistry, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

29 [§] Department of Microbiology, Medical Services, County Hospital Ryhov, Jönköping, Sweden

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37 * Address correspondence to bjorn.berglund@liu.se.

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51 **Abstract**

52 Antibiotic resistant bacteria are an emerging global problem which threatens to undermine
53 important advances in modern medicine. The environment is likely to play an important role in
54 dissemination of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) among both environmental and pathogenic bacteria.
55 Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) accumulate both chemical and biological waste from the
56 surrounding urban milieu and have therefore been viewed as potential hotspots for dissemination and
57 development of antibiotic resistance. To assess the effect of wastewater effluent on a river which flows
58 through a Swedish city, sediment and water samples were collected from Stångån River, both upstream
59 and downstream of an adjacent WWTP over three months. Seven ARGs and the integrase gene on class 1
60 integrons were quantified in the collected sediment using real-time PCR. Liquid chromatography-mass
61 spectrometry was used to assess the abundance of ten different antibiotics in the water phase of the
62 samples. The results showed an increase in ARGs and integrons downstream of the WWTP. The measured
63 concentrations of antibiotics were low in the water samples from Stångån River, suggesting that selection
64 for ARGs did not occur in the surface water. Instead, the downstream increase in ARGs is likely to be due
65 to accumulation of genes present in the treated effluent discharged from the WWTP.

66

67 **Keywords:** Antibiotic resistance genes, Antibiotics, Integrons, Quantitative real-time PCR, Wastewater

68

69

70

71

72

73

INTRODUCTION

74 The increasing prevalence of antibiotic resistance among human pathogenic bacteria is a
75 major global threat. Bacterial infections, which are currently cured readily by treatment with antibiotics,
76 may become difficult, if not impossible, to treat. Furthermore, the lack of access to efficient antibiotics
77 may make routine medical procedures such as surgery and chemotherapy in cancer treatment extremely
78 risky [1]. Human use and misuse of antibiotics are likely to have significantly contributed to the
79 emergence of antibiotic resistance. Recently, much attention has been directed to the role of
80 environmental bacteria. Many antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) carried by pathogenic bacteria are
81 thought to have originated in environmental bacteria [2], and ARGs have been found to be ubiquitous in a
82 large range of environments [3], including those considered pristine [4]. In particular, environments
83 exposed to high concentrations of antibiotics have been demonstrated to also contain high concentrations
84 of ARGs [5,6]. It seems plausible that perturbations of environmental ecosystems caused by human
85 antibiotic contamination may play an important role in the dissemination of clinical antibiotic resistance
86 [7,8].

87 Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) and their subsequent effluent are environments in
88 which human bacteria and antibiotics from the urban milieu mix together with environmental bacteria,
89 making them potential hot spots for both development and dissemination of ARGs [9,10]. WWTPs are not
90 always efficient at removing antibiotics; these and other pharmaceuticals are often found in concentrations
91 ranging from ng/L to low $\mu\text{g/L}$ in wastewaters [11]. ARGs too, have been reported to be ubiquitous in
92 wastewater [3,12]. Insufficiently treated industrial waste has also been observed to elevate levels of
93 antibiotics in the environment [6,13].

94 Class 1 integrons are genetic assembly platforms capable of incorporating and utilising
95 gene cassettes from the environment. These gene cassettes can encode a wide range of functions including
96 antibiotic resistance. Class 1 integrons are widely associated with mobile genetic elements which make

97 them ideal for disseminating ARGs in a bacterial community [14]. Several studies have shown that class 1
98 integrons are more abundant in anthropogenically affected environments which indicate that these genetic
99 elements are important in mediating ARGs in the environment [15,16].

100 In this study, we aimed to assess the impact of WWTP effluent on relative abundances of
101 ARGs and integrons in the receiving river. Antibiotic and ARG concentrations were investigated in a river
102 which flows through a Swedish city. Samples were taken in the winter 2011, upstream and downstream of
103 the WWTP which receives wastewater from the city.

104 MATERIAL AND METHODS

105 *Sampling site and collection of samples*

106 Stångån is a river in the southern part of Sweden. It is 202 km in length and passes through
107 the city of Linköping (population: 150,000) just before its outlet in the lake, Roxen. From its source to
108 Linköping, Stångån passes through an area which is only lightly affected by human activities. As Stångån
109 passes through Linköping, it receives effluent from the WWTP Nykvarnsverket. In 2011, the average flow
110 of incoming and outgoing water of the WWTP was 46,000 m³/d and the hydraulic retention time was 12-
111 13 h. Water and sediment samples were gathered from five sampling locations (R1-R5) in the river. R1
112 was approximately 1 km upstream of the WWTP, and R2 was located just prior to the river passing the
113 WWTP. R3 was located in the river just as it passed the WWTP, R4 was approximately 1 km downstream
114 of the WWTP, and R5 approximately 2.5 km downstream of the WWTP. Grab-samples were collected in
115 2011, once in October, November and December each. The average flow of the river during these months
116 was 6.6 m³/s. Effluent from the WWTP was also collected at each time point. The sediment phase of the
117 samples was pre-treated within 4 h after sampling whereas the water phase of the samples was frozen in -
118 20 °C before chemical analysis.

119 *Pre-treatment of samples and DNA extraction*

120 Sediments were pelleted from each water sample by centrifugation of 2,000 mL of sample
121 for 30 min in 5,000 g. Pellets were stored overnight in -20 °C before subsequent DNA extraction. DNA
122 was extracted from the pellets accumulated from the water samples with the FastDNA SPIN Kit for Soil
123 and the FastPrep Instrument (MP Biomedicals). Extracted DNA was stored in -20 °C before subsequent
124 analyses.

125 *Quantification of 16S rRNA genes, ARGs and intI1*

126 Quantitative real-time PCR was used for gene quantification on the DNA extracted from
127 the samples. The genes which were quantified were *sulI* (sulphonamide resistance gene), *dfrI*
128 (trimethoprim resistance gene), *ermB* (macrolide/lincosamide/streptogramin B resistance gene), *tetA* and
129 *tetB* (tetracycline resistance genes), *vanB* (vancomycin resistance gene), *qnrS* (quinolone resistance gene)
130 and *intI1*, the integrase gene on class 1 integrons. 16S rRNA gene content was quantified and used to
131 normalise the quantified number of genes in each sample. All PCRs were carried out on a CFX96™ Real-
132 Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Quantification method, primers, primer
133 concentrations and thermal cycling protocols for each gene were used as described in Berglund et al. [17].

134 *Antibiotic quantification*

135 Antibiotic concentrations in the water samples were determined by chemical analysis using
136 an in-line SPE column coupled to liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry, as described in Khan
137 et al. [6]. In short, a triple stage quadrupole MS/MS TSQ Quantum ULTRA EMR (Thermo Fisher
138 Scientific) coupled with an Accela and a Surveyor LC Pump (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and a PAL HTC
139 autosampler (CTC Analytics AG) were used as analytical system.

140 *Statistical analysis*

141 A Friedman test followed by a Dunn's Multiple Comparisons test was used to assess
142 differences in ARG gene concentrations between the different sampling locations. t-tests using Welch's

143 correction were used to assess differences in concentration of specific genes between sites upstream and
144 downstream of the WWTP. All statistical analyses were carried out using Prism 5 for Windows v.5.00.

145 **RESULTS**

146 *Quantification of antibiotic resistance genes*

147 ARGs were detected and quantified in water samples taken from all sampling points at all
148 sampling times (Figure 1). Overall, ARG concentrations were lower at the upstream sites R1 and R2, than
149 at the site R3, downstream of the WWTP ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ respectively). The ARGs which were
150 found in the highest concentrations were *sull*, *tetA* and *ermB*. Concentrations of *ermB* were significantly
151 higher downstream than upstream of the WWTP ($p < 0.01$), whereas concentrations of *sull* and *tetA* were
152 more than ten times higher downstream compared to upstream of the WWTP ($p < 0.01$). ARGs *tetB*, *dfr1*
153 and *vanB* were found in comparatively lower concentrations, particularly at the upstream sites at which
154 *tetB* and *dfr1* were detected below the quantification limit. *vanB* was only detected at one time point
155 among the upstream sampling locations. ARG *qnrS* was not detected at any sampling location. All ARGs
156 (except *qnrS*) were detected and quantified in the WWTP effluent at concentrations at similar levels as in
157 the downstream sites.

158 The integrase gene *intI1* was detected and quantified in all samples (Figure 1).
159 Concentrations were significantly higher downstream of the WWTP than upstream ($p < 0.001$). In general,
160 *intI1* concentrations at the downstream sites were higher by approximately one order of magnitude
161 (around 10^4 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA copies for the upstream sites and 10^5 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA copies for
162 the downstream sites). *intI1* concentrations in the WWTP effluent were of similar magnitude to the
163 concentrations found at the downstream sites.

164 *Quantification of antibiotics and other pharmaceuticals*

165 Antibiotics were quantified in the downstream locations and in the wastewater effluent
166 (Figure 2). CIP, CLA and CLI were quantified at concentrations close to the detection limit in the treated
167 wastewater effluent (10, 3 and 3 ng/L, respectively) while the average concentration of TRI was 24 ng/L,
168 about an order of magnitude higher than the detection limit (3 ng/L). At the downstream sites, CLA, CLI
169 and TRI were found sporadically, at concentrations similar to those in the wastewater effluent. No
170 antibiotics were detected in any of the upstream sampling locations. NOR, OFX, OXY, ROX, SUL and
171 TET were not detected at any sampling location.

172 Additionally, 83 non-antibiotic pharmaceuticals were analysed. Of these, only 19 were
173 detected, mostly in effluent and downstream sampling locations. Three were detected in upstream
174 sampling locations, very close to the detection limit (Supplemental Data, Table S1).

175 DISCUSSION

176 ARGs and integrons were quantified in sediments from Stångån River, Sweden, both
177 upstream and downstream of a WWTP receiving wastewater from the adjacent city Linköping. Both for
178 ARG abundance in general and when comparing abundances of specific genes, the locations downstream
179 of the WWTP displayed significantly higher abundance than upstream locations. The difference was most
180 pronounced for genes *sull* and *tetA*. Several other studies have reported similar trends in ARG abundance
181 upstream and downstream of anthropogenic perturbations. In [6], ARGs were quantified in river sediments
182 in a river upstream and downstream of a large Pakistani city. ARG concentrations were consistently
183 higher downstream than upstream. Abundances of *sull* was approximately 10^3 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA
184 copies upstream and 10^5 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA copies downstream which is higher compared to this
185 study. The upstream abundances of *tetA* and *dfr1* were not high enough to be detected, which can be
186 compared to the upstream abundances in this study in which *dfr1* was detectable but not quantifiable and
187 *tetA* was found in the order of magnitude of 10^0 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA. The downstream abundances of
188 these genes in [6], were notably higher than compared to this study; with *dfr1* being found at

189 approximately four orders of magnitude higher concentrations and *tetA* at almost two orders of magnitude
190 higher concentrations. The abundance of *sullI* in river sediments has been observed to increase in a river in
191 the United States, at a pristine site and downstream of a range of human activities [18]. Concentrations
192 increased from approximately 10^0 to 10^2 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA copies from the pristine site to the
193 perturbed sites, overall somewhat lower abundances than in this study. In [19], ARGs were measured in
194 sediments of a river upstream and downstream of a WWTP in Spain. *sullI* was found at similar
195 concentrations upstream and downstream, approximately 5×10^3 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA copies. *ermB* was
196 measured at higher concentrations downstream than upstream, although at both locations at lower
197 concentrations than in this study (by approximately one order of magnitude). It should be noted that these
198 studies were done in different areas of the world. Factors such as temperature and nutrient availability may
199 be important in resistance development, and these factors were likely different between the compared
200 locations.

201 Class 1 integron gene *intI1* was found in all samples with a significant increase in
202 abundance from upstream to downstream sites. Although integrons are ubiquitous in nature, several
203 studies have reported that human contamination increases the abundance of integrons [15,16, 20]. In [6],
204 *intI* abundances were reported to increase in river sediments as the river passed a large Pakistani city,
205 although concentrations were higher than in this study with downstream concentrations reaching as high
206 as 8×10^5 genes / 10^6 16S rDNA copies.

207 Antibiotics were not detected in the surface water at locations upstream of the WWTP.
208 However, antibiotics were detected in both wastewater effluent and in sample locations downstream of the
209 WWTP, although only four (CIP, CLA, CLI and TRI) of the ten analysed antibiotics, and at very low
210 concentrations. TRI, which was found at the highest concentrations, had a mean concentration (n=3) as
211 low as 38 ng/L (highest concentration quantified was 47 ng/L) in the effluent and 10 ng/L (n=3) in the
212 surface water. None of the other antibiotics quantifiable were found at concentrations above 20 ng/L. The
213 non-antibiotic pharmaceuticals analysed showed a similar trend to the antibiotics, the few pharmaceuticals

214 detected were quantified at low concentrations and only three were detected at the upstream locations. In
215 [21], minimum selective concentrations for test strains of bacteria were found to be 10^6 ng/L, 1.5×10^4
216 ng/L and 10^2 ng/L for streptomycin, TET and CIP respectively. This can be compared to this study, where
217 TET could not be detected with a detection limit at 20 ng/L, and CIP which was quantified at about half
218 the minimum selective concentration. In [17], selection for ARGs could not be observed in a wetland
219 bacterial community when exposed to a mixture of antibiotics including concentrations of CLA, CLI and
220 TRI measured up to 250 ng/L, 66 ng/L and 420 ng/L, respectively. It may be reasonable to assume that the
221 low antibiotic concentrations measured in the effluent and downstream sites do not select for ARGs.
222 Consequently, the observed increase in ARG abundance from upstream to downstream sites likely stem
223 from the WWTP. The ARG abundances in the wastewater may originate either from selection in the
224 wastewater treatment process (e.g. due to exposure to antibiotics) or by accumulation of ARGs via the
225 received waste from the urban environment.

226 It should be noted that, since the antibiotics are measured in the water phase, the
227 concentrations represent only the concentrations in the water at the moment the samples were taken. As
228 such, sedentary bacteria on the examined sediments may be exposed to a range of antibiotic
229 concentrations well outside of the measured concentrations. The concentration of antibiotics in the
230 untreated wastewater is also likely higher than the concentration in the effluent. This could mean that the
231 bacteria in the WWTP are exposed to antibiotic concentrations higher than those measured in the effluent.
232 On the other hand, the measured genes include both extracellular DNA and genes within living bacteria.
233 Extracellular DNA can avoid environmental degradation by adhesion to sand and clay particles [22]. The
234 ARGs from extracellular DNA have been reported to be greater than ARGs from intracellular DNA in a
235 Chinese river basin [23]. In the case that a significant portion of the measured ARGs in the sediment are
236 extracellular, the concentration of antibiotics in the surrounding water may have little to no effect on the
237 selection and proliferation of ARGs.

238 It is becoming clear that the environment outside of clinical settings play an important role
239 in the dissemination and spread of antibiotic resistance. Therefore it is important to elucidate the ecology
240 and dynamics of ARG dissemination. Anthropogenic contamination and environmental perturbations have
241 been linked to increases in ARGs and for this reason WWTPs have been regarded as potential hotspots for
242 the dissemination of these genetic elements. The results of this study showed an increase in ARG
243 abundances in a river downstream of a WWTP. The low antibiotic concentrations in the river and WWTP
244 effluent indicate that selection for ARGs does not occur in the surface water. Instead, the WWTP is the
245 likely point source of ARGs. Further studies are needed to assess the origins of these ARGs, to determine
246 if selection for ARGs occurs in the wastewater treatment process or whether the accumulated ARGs
247 originate in the recipient waste coming from other sources (e.g. hospitals).

248 **SUPPLEMENTAL DATA**

249 The concentrations of 93 different pharmaceuticals (including ten different antibiotics) were analysed in
250 the surface water and WWTP effluent samples and are presented in Supplemental Data, Table S1.

251 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

252 We thank the staff at Tekniska verken i Linköping AB, Linköping, for fruitful collaboration
253 and kind sample provision. This project was funded by the Swedish Research Council for Environment,
254 Agricultural Sciences and Spatial Planning (Formas, contract number 210-2006-2132) and the Foundation
255 for Strategic Environmental Research (MISTRA) (within the research project MISTRAPHARMA).

256 **REFERENCES**

- 257 1. Laxminarayan R, Duse A, Wattal C, Zaidi AK, Wertheim HF, Sumpradit N, Vlieghe E, Hara GL, Gould IM,
258 Goossens H, Greko C, So AD, Bigdeli M, Tomson G, Woodhouse W, Ombaka E, Peralta AQ, Qamar FN, Mir
259 F, Kariuki S, Bhutta ZA, Coates A, Bergstrom R, Wright GD, Brown ED, Cars O. 2013. Antibiotic resistance-
260 the need for global solutions. *Lancet Infect Dis* **13**:1057-1098.

- 261 2. Martínez JL. 2008. Antibiotics and antibiotic resistance genes in natural environments. *Science* **321**:365-
262 367.
- 263 3. Zhang XX, Zhang T, Fang HH. 2009. Antibiotic resistance genes in water environment. *Appl Microbiol*
264 *Biotechnol* **82**:397-414.
- 265 4. D'Costa VM, King CE, Kalan L, Morar M, Sung WW, Schwarz C, Froese D, Zazula G, Calmels F, Debruyne R,
266 Golding GB, Poinar HN, Wright GD. 2011. Antibiotic resistance is ancient. *Nature* **477**:457-461.
- 267 5. Kristiansson E, Fick J, Janzon A, Grabic R, Rutgersson C, Weijdegård B, Söderström H, Larsson DG. 2011
268 Pyrosequencing of antibiotic-contaminated river sediments reveals high levels of resistance and gene
269 transfer elements. *PLoS One* **6**:e17038.
- 270 6. Khan GA, Berglund B, Khan KM, Lindgren PE, Fick J. 2013. Occurrence and abundance of antibiotics and
271 resistance genes in rivers, canal and near drug formulation facilities—a study in Pakistan. *PLoS One*
272 **8**:e62712.
- 273 7. Martínez JL. 2009. The role of natural environments in the evolution of resistance traits in pathogenic
274 bacteria. *Proc Biol Sci* **276**:2521-2530.
- 275 8. Wright GD. 2010. Antibiotic resistance in the environment: a link to the clinic? *Curr Opin Microbiol* **13**:589-
276 594.
- 277 9. Baquero F, Martínez JL, Cantón R. 2008. Antibiotics and antibiotic resistance in water environments. *Curr*
278 *Opin Biotechnol* **19**:260-265.
- 279 10. Pruden, A. 2014. Balancing water sustainability and public health goals in the face of growing concerns
280 about antibiotic resistance. *Environ Sci Technol* **48**:5-14.
- 281 11. Segura PA, François M, Gagnon C, Sauvé S. 2009. Review of the occurrence of anti-infectives in
282 contaminated wastewaters and natural drinking waters. *Environ Health Perspect* **117**:675-684.
- 283 12. LaPara TM, Burch TR, McNamara PJ, Tan DT, Yan M, Eichmiller JJ. 2011. Tertiary-treated municipal
284 wastewater is a significant point source of antibiotic resistance genes into Duluth-Superior Harbor. *Environ*
285 *Sci Technol* **45**:9543-9549.
- 286 13. Fick J, Söderström H, Lindberg RH, Phan C, Tysklind M, Larsson DG. 2009. Contamination of surface,
287 ground, and drinking water from pharmaceutical production. *Environ Toxicol Chem* **28**:2522-2527.

- 288 14. Mazel D. 2006. Integrons: agents of bacterial evolution. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **4**:608-620.
- 289 15. Wright MS, Baker-Austin C, Lindell AH, Stepanauskas R, Stokes HW, McArthur JV. 2008. Influence of
290 industrial contamination on mobile genetic elements: class 1 integron abundance and gene cassette
291 structure in aquatic bacterial communities. *ISME J* **2**:417-428.
- 292 16. Gaze WH, Zhang L, Abdousslam NA, Hawkey PM, Calvo-Bado L, Royle J, Brown H, Davis S, Kay P, Boxall AB,
293 Wellington EM. 2011. Impacts of anthropogenic activity on the ecology of class 1 integrons and integron-
294 associated genes in the environment. *ISME J* **5**:1253-1261.
- 295 17. Berglund B, Khan GA, Weisner SEB, Ehde PM, Fick J, Lindgren PE. 2014. Efficient removal of antibiotics in
296 surface-flow constructed wetlands, with no observed impact on antibiotic resistance genes. *Sci Tot Environ*
297 **476-477**:29-37.
- 298 18. Pei R, Kim SC, Carlson KH, Pruden A. 2006. Effect of river landscape on the sediment concentrations of
299 antibiotics and corresponding antibiotic resistance genes (ARG). *Water Res* **40**:2427-2435.
- 300 19. Marti E, Jofre J, Balcazar JL. 2013. Prevalence of antibiotic resistance genes and bacterial community
301 composition in a river influenced by a wastewater treatment plant. *PLoS One* **8**:e78906.
- 302 20. Rosewarne CP, Pettigrove V, Stokes HW, Parsons YM. 2010. Class 1 integrons in benthic bacterial
303 communities: abundance, association with Tn402-like transposition modules and evidence for coselection
304 with heavy-metal resistance. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol* **72**:35-46.
- 305 21. Gullberg E, Cao S, Berg OG, Ilbäck C, Sandegren L, Hughes D, Andersson DI. 2011. Selection of resistant
306 bacteria at very low antibiotic concentrations. *PLoS Pathog* **7**:e1002158.
- 307 22. Davison, J. 1999. Genetic exchange between bacteria in the environment. *Plasmid* **42**:73-91.
- 308 23. Mao D, Luo Y, Mathieu J, Wang Q, Feng L, Mu Q, Feng C, Alvarez PJ. 2014. Persistence of extracellular DNA
309 in river sediments facilitates antibiotic resistance gene propagation. *Environ Sci Technol* **48**:71-78.
- 310 24. Grabic R, Fick J, Lindberg RH, Fedorova G, Tysklind M. 2012. Multi-residue method for trace level
311 determination of pharmaceuticals in environmental samples using liquid chromatography coupled to triple
312 quadrupole mass spectrometry. *Talanta* **100**:183-195.

313

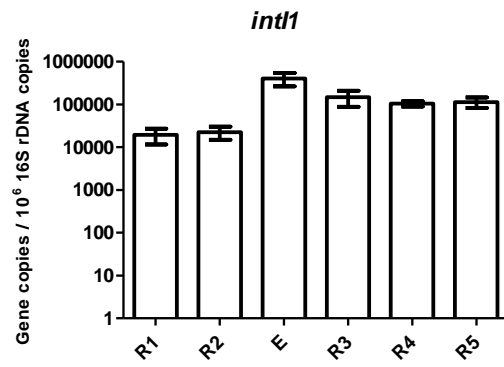
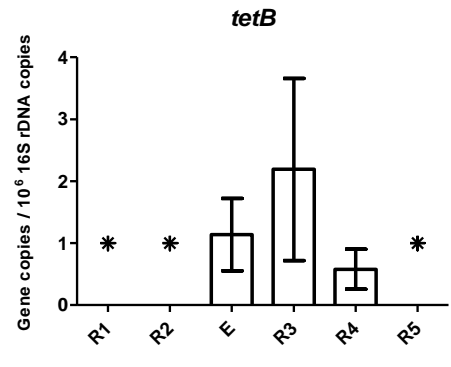
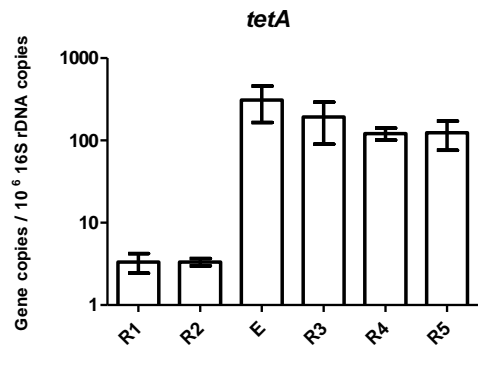
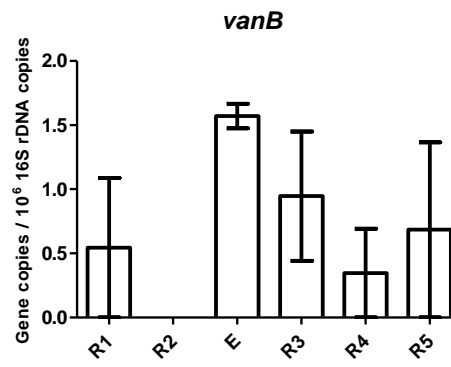
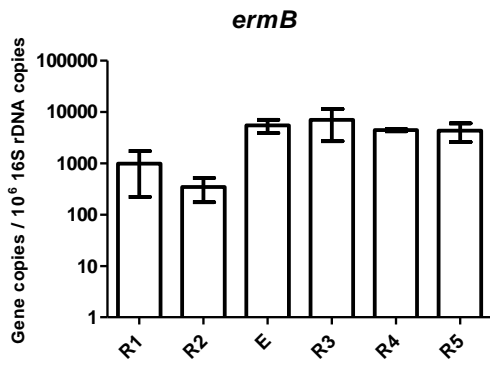
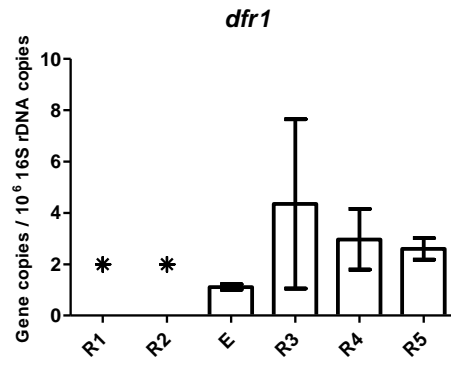
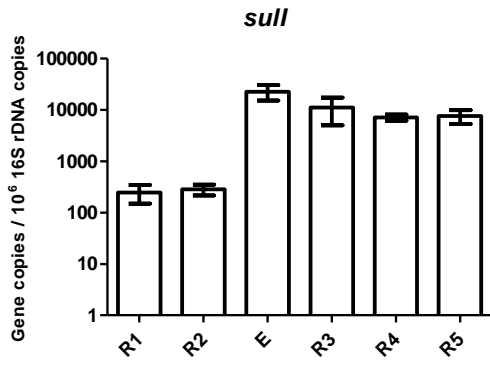
314

315 Figure 1. Antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) were measured from collected sediments from Stångån River. Sites R1
316 and R2 are upstream, and sites R3, R4 and R5 are downstream of the wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). 'E'
317 sampling location denotes the wastewater effluent. Presented values are means over three months. Error bars
318 denote the standard error of the mean. Note that linearity and magnitude of the scales differ between the graphs.
319 '*' denotes; detected, below quantification limit.

320

321 Figure 2. Antibiotics were quantified from collected water samples from Stångån River. Sites R1 and R2 are
322 upstream, and sites R3, R4 and R5 are downstream of the wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). 'E' sampling
323 location denotes the wastewater effluent. CIP: ciprofloxacin, CLA: clarithromycin, CLI: clindamycin, TRI:
324 trimethoprim.

325



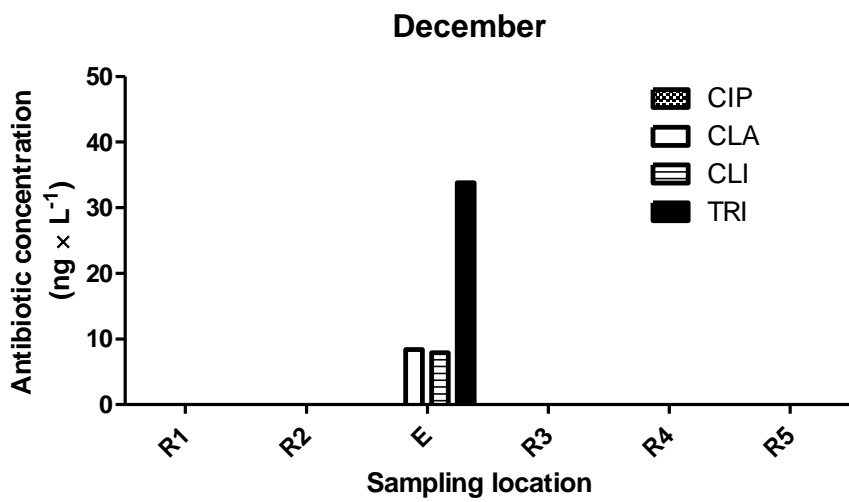
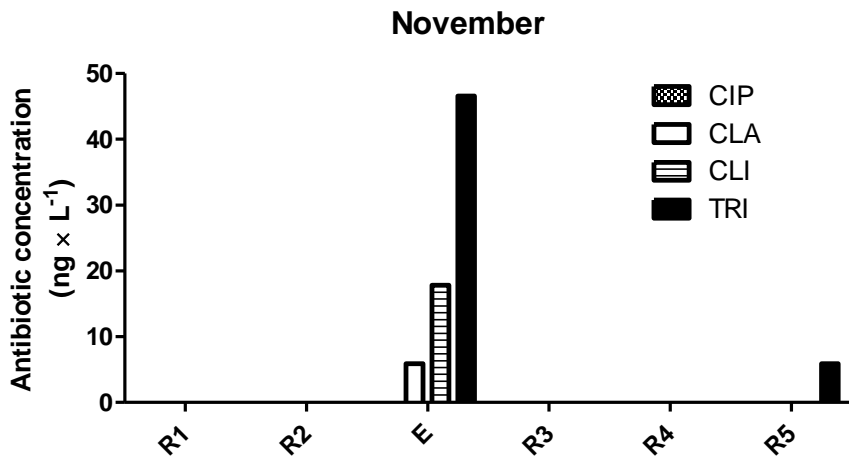
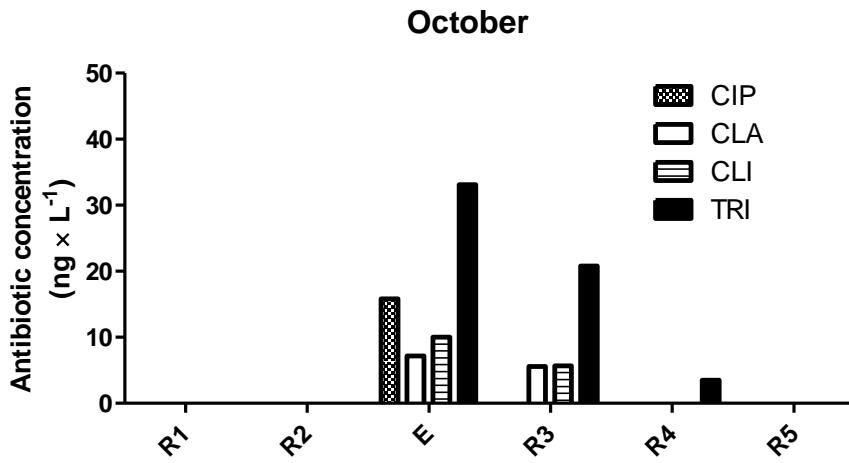


Table S1. The abundance of 93 different pharmaceuticals were analysed as described in Grabic et al. [24], in the water phase of the samples from the surface water (R1-R5) and WWTP effluent (E). Concentrations are given in ng/L. ‘-’ denotes that the concentration of the given pharmaceutical was below the limit of quantification.

Pharmaceuticals which were below the limit of quantification in all sampling points are omitted from the table.

These are: alfuzosin, alprazolam, amiodarone, amitriptyline, atorvastatin, atracurium, azelastine, biperiden, bromocriptine, buprenorphine, bupropion, chlorpromazine, chlorprothixene, cilazapril, citalopram, clemastine, clomipramine, clonazepam, clotrimazol, cyproheptadine, desloratidin, dicycloverine, dihydroergotamine, diphenhydramine, donepezil, duloxetine, eprosartan, fenofibrate, fentanyl, finasteride, flunitrazepam, fluoxetine, flupentixol, fluphenazine, flutamide, glibenclamide, glimepiride, haloperidol, hydroxyzine, ketoconazole, levomepromazine, loperamide, maprotiline, meclozine, memantine, mianserin, miconazole, nefazodone, norfloxacin, ofloxacin, orphenadrine, oxytetracycline, paracetamol, paroxetine, perphenazine, pizotifen, promethazine, ranitidine, repaglinide, rosuvastatin, roxithromycine, sertraline, sulfamethoxazole, tamoxifen, telmisartan, terbutaline, tetracycline, trihexyphenidyl, verapamil, zolpidem.

		Oct	Oct	Oct	Oct	Oct	Oct	Nov	Nov	Nov	Nov	Nov	Nov	Dec	Dec	Dec	Dec	Dec	Dec
		R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	E	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	E	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	E
(ng/L)	LOQ ^a																		
Atenolol	15	-	-	195.6	22.3	19.9	255.3	-	-	-	-	27.1	314.9	-	-	-	-	-	268.2
Bisoprolol	3	-	-	4.4	-	-	6.5	-	-	-	-	-	9.5	-	-	-	-	-	4.9
Budesonide	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Carbamazepin	8	-	-	77.8	9.1	-	93.3	-	-	-	-	12.0	124.2	-	-	-	-	-	83.8
Ciprofloxacin	10	-	-	-	-	-	15.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clarithromycine	3	-	-	5.6	-	-	7.2	-	-	-	-	-	5.9	-	-	-	-	-	8.4
Clindamycine	3	-	-	5.7	-	-	10.0	-	-	-	-	-	17.8	-	-	-	-	-	7.9
Codeine	15	-	-	41.3	-	-	53.3	-	-	-	-	-	68.4	-	-	-	-	-	45.6
Diclofenac	10	-	-	26.0	-	-	40.4	-	-	-	-	-	47.7	-	-	-	-	-	30.1
Diltiazem	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fexofenadine	10	-	-	15.7	-	-	11.1	-	-	-	-	-	16.6	-	-	-	-	-	13.7
Flecainide	2	-	-	15.0	2.4	1.9	23.2	-	-	-	-	2.3	36.1	-	-	-	-	-	26.9
Fluconazole	8	-	-	93.6	-	-	139.6	-	-	-	-	-	118.6	-	-	-	-	-	100.8
Irbesartan	3	-	-	7.4	-	-	8.8	-	-	-	-	-	12.1	-	-	-	-	-	9.7
Metoprolol	15	-	-	116.8	16.7	-	154.5	-	-	-	-	22.7	204.0	-	-	-	-	-	134.4
Mirtazapine	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Naloxone	2	-	-	10.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.7	6.9	-	-	-	-
Oxazepam	10	-	-	11.6	-	-	14.2	-	-	-	-	-	17.9	-	-	-	-	-	13.3
Risperidone	4	6.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sotalol	15	-	-	32.7	-	-	44.7	-	-	-	-	-	53.4	-	-	-	-	-	39.4
Tramadol	15	-	-	84.4	-	-	112.1	-	-	-	-	-	140.6	-	-	-	-	-	96.8
Trimethoprim	3	-	-	20.8	3.5	-	33.1	-	-	-	-	5.9	46.6	-	-	-	-	-	33.8
Venlafaxine	20	-	-	21.7	-	-	34.7	-	-	-	-	-	50.2	-	-	-	-	-	24.6

^a 'LOQ' denotes limit of quantification