

Inactivation of antibiotic resistant bacteria and resistance genes by ozone: from laboratory experiments to full-scale wastewater treatment

Nadine Czekalski¹, Stefanie Imminger¹, Elisabeth Salhi¹, Marjan Veljkovic¹, Karolin Kleffell¹, David
Drissner⁴, Frederik Hammes¹, Helmut Bürgmann^{1*}, Urs von Gunten^{1,5,6*}

¹Eawag, Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology, Ueberlandstrasse 133, CH-8600
Dübendorf or Seestrasse 79, CH-6047 Kastanienbaum, Switzerland

⁴Agroscope, Institute for Food Sciences, CH-8820 Wädenswil, Switzerland

⁵Institute of Biogeochemistry and Pollutant Dynamics, ETH Zurich, CH-8092 Zurich, Switzerland

⁶School of Architecture, Civil and Environmental Engineering (ENAC), Ecole Polytechnique
Fédérale de Lausanne (EPFL), CH-1015, Lausanne, Switzerland

*Corresponding authors:

Helmut Bürgmann, phone: +41 58 765 2165, fax: +41 58 765 2168,

email: helmut.buergmann@eawag.ch

Urs von Gunten, phone: +41 58 765 5270, fax: + 41 58 765 5802, email: urs.vongunten@eawag.ch

Submitted to Environmental Science & Technology

Abstract

Ozone, a strong oxidant and disinfectant, seems ideal to cope with future challenges of water treatment, such as micropollutants, multiresistant bacteria (MRB) and even intracellular antibiotic resistance genes (ARG), but information on the latter is scarce. In ozonation experiments we simultaneously determined kinetics and dose-dependent inactivation of *E. coli* and its plasmid-encoded sulfonamide resistance gene *sulI* in different water matrixes. Effects in *E. coli* were compared to an autochthonous wastewater community. Furthermore, resistance elimination by ozonation and post-treatment were studied in full-scale at a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). Bacterial inactivation (cultivability, membrane damage) and degradation of *sulI* were investigated using plate counts, flow cytometry and quantitative real-time PCR. In experiments with *E. coli* and the more ozone tolerant wastewater community disruption of intracellular genes was observed at specific ozone doses feasible for full-scale application, but flocs seemed to interfere with this effect. At the WWTP, regrowth during post-ozonation treatment partly compensated inactivation of MRB, and intracellular *sulI* seemed unaffected by ozonation. Our findings indicate that ozone doses relevant for micropollutant abatement from wastewater do not eliminate intracellular ARG.

Keywords: antibiotic resistance genes, ozonation, wastewater, inactivation, kinetics, exposure

1. Introduction

Two of the major current and future challenges in wastewater treatment are micropollutants and multiresistant bacteria (MRB). Micropollutants (substances, including pharmaceuticals (antibiotics), personal care products, food additives, hormones, etc. which occur at $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ levels or lower in aquatic environments) can cause adverse ecological effects^{1,2} and may have implications for human health. Multiresistant pathogens have been rated as a global health threat³ and their antibiotic resistance genes (ARG) as emerging environmental contaminants.^{4,5} Particularly MRB and their (mobile) ARG are of concern for wastewater reuse (e.g., for irrigation of food crops)⁶ and for the potential to invade and expand the natural resistance background of receiving waters, which may be directly or indirectly used for drinking water production or irrigation.^{7,8} Conventional wastewater treatment is capable of strongly reducing the MRB load, but may also select for highly resistant phenotypes during biological activated sludge processes.^{9,10} Moreover, only insufficient removal of many micropollutants can be achieved in these processes.¹¹

Tertiary treatment for abatement of the micropollutant load from wastewater effluents is currently discussed in many industrialized countries. Switzerland is among the first to implement such treatments in full-scale and plans to upgrade about 100 out of 700 wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs).¹²⁻¹⁴ Powdered activated carbon (PAC) or ozonation are currently the two economically feasible options to achieve an abatement of micropollutants by $> 80\%$.^{15,16} Apart from its selective reaction with organic compounds, ozone is a strong disinfectant and already widely applied in drinking water treatment.^{17,18} Thus, abatement of MRB and (transferable) intracellular ARG under conditions optimized for micropollutant abatement could be an additional potential benefit to wastewater ozonation.

60 The primary cellular targets of ozone are nucleic acids, where damage can range from base lesions to
61 single and double strand breaks.¹⁸ Lesions can lead to more or less compromising point mutations,
62 whereas massive breakdown of DNA is lethal if not repaired.¹⁹⁻²² Many studies provide evidence that
63 also the cell envelope is affected during ozonation, probably even before severe DNA damage
64 occurs.²³⁻²⁵ Although not as pronounced as for micropollutant oxidation, the effectiveness of ozone
65 as a disinfectant varies significantly between differing types of bacteria, even on the strain level
66 (reviewed in^{17, 18}) and depends on various factors, such as growth stage,²⁶ cell envelope,²⁷ efficiency
67 of repair mechanisms,²⁸ and the type of viability-indicator used (e.g., culture-based vs. alternative
68 approaches). Matrix effects, e.g., concentration and type of dissolved organic material (DOM,
69 measured as DOC) or the presence of flocs or particles, reduce the stability of ozone or can shield
70 microorganisms from its effects, thereby decreasing the disinfection efficiency.²⁹⁻³²

71 Only very few kinetic inactivation studies using ozone exist for selected microbial species³² (and
72 studies reviewed in¹⁷). Moreover, so far a lag-phase for inactivation of the highly sensitive *E. coli*
73 could not be resolved, although this feature would be expected based on *E. coli*'s repair
74 mechanisms.^{22, 33, 34} Within a microbial wastewater community, ozonation may lead to full
75 inactivation of viable MRB and their ARG, but could also select for strains or mutants less sensitive
76 to ozone or other biocides including antibiotics,^{35, 36} or it might promote horizontal transfer of ARG
77 released from inactivated MRB to bacteria inhabiting the biological post-treatment and aquatic
78 ecosystems.^{23, 32}

79 To determine the behavior of MRB and their intracellular ARG during ozonation, we conducted
80 bench-scale experiments, representing differing stages of complexity. For measuring the direct
81 effects on bacterial cells and intracellular ARG, the first set of experiments was run in a synthetic
82 water, using *E. coli* J53 and its sulfonamide resistance gene *sulI* (co-located with the trimethoprim

resistance gene *dfrB2* on the conjugative broad-host range plasmid R388) as a controllable, well-studied model system. *sulI* was chosen as a surrogate for resistance against broad-spectrum antibiotics and because of its ubiquity in Swiss wastewaters and surface waters.^{7,8} The second set of ozonation experiments used the same model system, but took ozonation conditions relevant for micropollutant abatement and matrix effects (parametrized as DOC) into account by performing the experiments in 10- μ m-filtered natural secondary clarifier effluent (SE). In the third set of experiments we compared the results obtained with *E. coli* to an autochthonous wastewater community, and in addition studied also the effect of the presence or absence of flocs as an additional matrix effect. Bacterial inactivation at different cellular levels (cultivability, membrane damage and ARG-disruption) was studied as a function of differing ozone doses and inactivation kinetics were determined as a function of the ozone exposure.¹⁸ To verify the predictive potential of the laboratory experiments, Switzerland's first full-scale ozonation WWTP at Neugut near Zurich was sampled over the ozonation and biological post-treatment stages.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Chemicals, reagents and preparation of bacteria

Chemicals, reagents, corresponding commercial suppliers, the preparation of ozone stock solutions and of bacteria for experiments are specified in the supporting information (SI, I, II, III).

2.2 Batch experiments

Batch experiments were conducted in 40-mL glass vials, filled with 30 mL of bacterial suspensions according to set-ups and conditions summarized in Table 1. Ozone was transferred with a glass syringe (Hamilton, Switzerland) from the stock solution (see SI section II). Optimal mixing of ozone with bacteria was achieved by continuous stirring for 30 seconds. To determine the dose-dependent inactivation of bacteria and intracellular genes after complete ozone depletion and to preserve samples for downstream analyses, ozonated samples were stored in the fridge for > 30 minutes prior to analyses.

2.3 Inactivation kinetics determined by quench-flow experiments

The stability of ozone may vary significantly depending on the matrix, e.g., 1:10 diluted phosphate buffered saline (PBS, SI, I) vs. secondary clarifier effluent (SE), which influences the disinfection efficiency. Thus, applied ozone doses are not sufficient as a parameter for assessing the efficiency of inactivation of bacteria and intracellular ARG disruption. Instead we used the ozone exposure or CT , which takes the matrix derived ozone decay into account. The ozone exposure is the time integral of an ozone decay curve:³⁷

$$CT = \int [O_3] \delta t$$

To study fast kinetics of bacterial inactivation and ARG disruption, a quench-flow system (SFM400/Q, Bio-Logic SAS, France) was used in continuous mode (see SI IV and V for details and Table 1 for experimental set-ups).

Table 1. Overview of set-ups and conditions applied in batch and quench-flow experiments (SE = secondary clarifier effluent from WWTP Neugut, n.c. = not conducted). All experiments were run at 22±2 °C, at pH 7.2 for 1:10 diluted phosphate buffered saline (PBS, see SI, I) or 7.8 for SE, respectively. 0.1 mM of *tert*-butanol was added to quench-flow experiments. SS: Suspended solids.

batch experiments								
Microorganism	Matrix	DOC [mg L ⁻¹]	SS [mg L ⁻¹]	NO ₂ ⁻ [mg L ⁻¹]	range of ozone doses [mg L ⁻¹] [g g DOC ⁻¹]		replicates	contact times [min]
<i>E. coli</i>	0.1 × PBS	-	-	-	0-0.2	-	2	> 30
<i>E. coli</i>	sterile 10-μm-filtered SE	4.27	-	0.008	0-7.35	0-1.72	2	> 30
SE bacteria	10-μm-filtered SE	5	-	0.005	0-3.31	0-0.66	2	> 30
SE bacteria	untreated SE	5	4.8	0.005	0-4.24	0-0.85	2	> 30
quench-flow experiments								
Microorganism	Matrix	DOC [mg L ⁻¹]	SS [mg L ⁻¹]	NO ₂ ⁻ [mg L ⁻¹]	initial ozone concentration [mg L ⁻¹] [g g DOC ⁻¹]		replicates	contact times [s]
<i>E. coli</i>	0.1 × PBS	-	-	-	0.2	-	2	0.104-5.050
<i>E. coli</i>	sterile 10-μm-filtered SE	4.9	-	0.018	2.2	0.45	1	0.006-2.222
SE bacteria	10-μm-filtered SE	4.34	-	0.018	2.5	0.57	2	0.006-2.222
SE bacteria	untreated SE	n.c.	2.4	0.018	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.

2.4 Sampling campaigns at a full-scale wastewater ozonation plant

Neugut (Dübendorf), Switzerland's first WWTP equipped with full-scale ozonation (refer to SI VI for further information), is treating municipal wastewater of 105000 inhabitant equivalents ((2-5)×10⁴ m³ d⁻¹). The applied ozone doses during sampling were 0.45-0.55 gO₃ g DOC⁻¹ (2.2-2.5 mg O₃ L⁻¹), which meets the Swiss guidelines for an abatement of the micropollutant load of 80 %.¹² Ozonated water is treated by sand filtration (SF, residence time = 20-30 min) for biological post-treatment (SI, Figure S1).³⁸ Three sampling campaigns were conducted, one in December 2014 and two in January 2015. Automated 24 h-integrated samples (4°C) were taken from SE and after SF. Grab samples were obtained from the 6th compartment of the ozone reactor (OR₁) and its effluent (OR₂) (SI, Figure S1), because 24 h-integrated samples were non-representative for bacterial

analyses due to regrowth on the formed assimilable organic carbon (AOC) during the sampling period (data not shown). Samples were kept at 4 °C and processed within 24 h.

2.5 Detection of membrane integrity (ICC) and DNA-stability (TCC) by flow cytometry

The loss of membrane integrity as a conservative indicator for cell death³⁹ and DNA damage in the form of strand breaks and single-stranded DNA, were monitored using flow cytometry (BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer, BD Biosciences, Belgium). For membrane intact cell counts (ICC) samples were stained with SYBR Green I (SGI) and propidium iodide (PI), while total cell counts (TCC) for DNA stability were solely stained with SGI, based on established procedures.⁴⁰⁻⁴⁴ Flow cytometric density plots were gated to distinguish intact bacterial cells from background signal and damaged cells, using the BD Accuri C6 software. To determine if flow cytometry can provide more highly resolved information on DNA degradation that might be missed by gated cell counts (TCC), changes in mean fluorescence intensity of SGI stained cells were analysed (Figure S2).

2.6 Plate counts of *E. coli* and wastewater bacteria

Cultivability is a conventional indicator for viability. However, it depends on the ability of bacteria to grow on artificial media. Plate counts of *E. coli* were conducted on LB agar supplemented with sulfamethoxazole and trimethoprim (see SI, III). Cultivable heterotrophic wastewater bacteria were grown on AQ dry plates (HyServe, Germany) according to the manufacturer's guidelines. Growth of fungi was suppressed by supplementing 25 µg mL⁻¹ of pimarin. Multiresistant wastewater bacteria were isolated on AQ-pimarin plates additionally supplemented with two combinations of medically relevant broad-spectrum antibiotics: sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim/tetracycline (76/4/16 µg mL⁻¹) and norfloxacin/ceftazidime (16/32 µg mL⁻¹). The concentrations

used conform to CLSI guidelines.⁴⁵ Refer to SI, III for sample treatment, growth conditions and SI, VII for identification of selected multiresistant wastewater isolates from SE, OR₁, OR₂ and SF (Figure S1) by MALDI-TOF.

2.7 Quantitative PCR

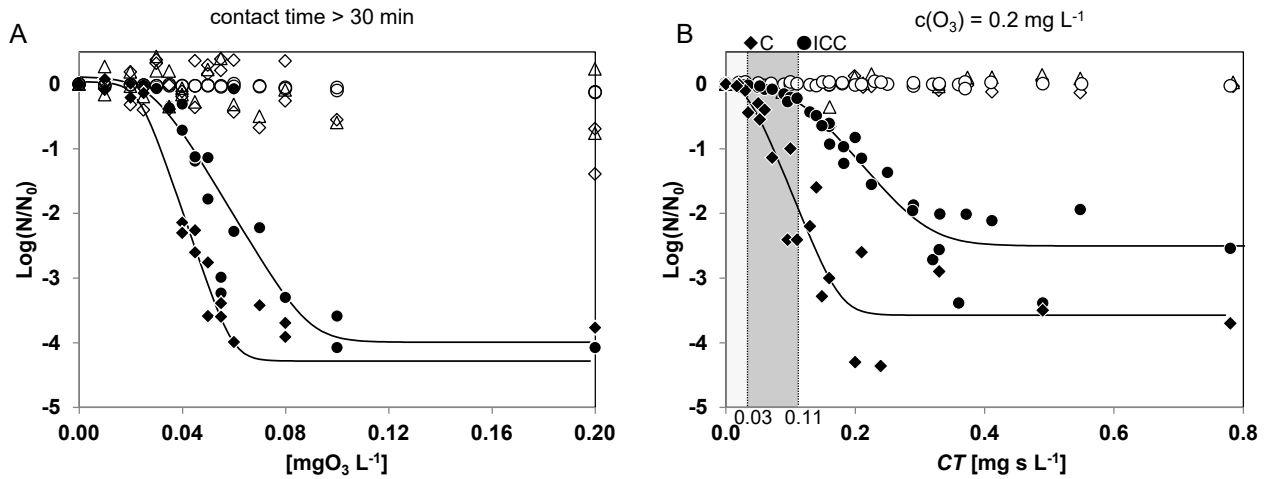
To detect ozone-induced gene disruption of ARG *sulI*, a new primer set (5'→3' GAC GGT GTT CGG CAT TCT / GAT CTA ACC CTC GGT CTC TGG), covering 827 bp of the 840 bp-sized gene, was developed (SI, VIII). Previously published primers (Bact349F/Bact806R) and probe (Bac516F) were used to quantify a 457 bp fragment of the 16S rRNA gene.⁴⁶ Refer to SI, VIII for detailed qPCR protocols, preparation of standards, data analysis and SI, IX for DNA-extraction.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Inactivation kinetics of *E. coli* and ARG *sulI* in 1:10 diluted PBS

In 1:10 diluted PBS, viability indicators (cultivability and ICC) of *E. coli* diminished about 4 log-units, whereas no severe DNA-damage was detected within the tested range of ozone concentrations (0-0.2 mg L⁻¹) by means of flow cytometric TCC, mean green fluorescence (measure of DNA stability) and gene copy numbers of *sulI* and 16S rRNA (Figures 1A, S2A). Our kinetic experiments confirmed these observations (Figure 1 B). Thus, even though heavy membrane damage and inactivation of *E. coli* occurred at low ozone doses and exposures (Tables 1 and S2), more than 0.2 mg L⁻¹ seem to be required for disruption or leakage of intracellular DNA and ARG. The latter supports the suggestion by Dodd,²³ that intracellular ARG are only affected after viability is lost. Although extremely sensitive towards ozone, *E. coli* is able to tolerate and repair ozone-induced damage at very low exposures.^{34, 47} However, previous studies could not provide kinetic evidence for

185 an initial lag-phase (CT_{lag}) neither for *E. coli*^{25, 48}, nor for, presumably slightly more resistant,
 186 bacterial communities inhabiting drinking water.⁴⁴



187

188 **Figure 1.** Inactivation of *E. coli* J53 (R388) and its intracellular ARG *sull* and 16S rRNA gene in 1:10 diluted PBS as a
 189 function of (A) varying ozone doses (ozone fully depleted) and (B) ozone exposures (kinetics) at an ozone dose of 0.2
 190 mgO₃ L⁻¹, pH 7.2, 22±2°C. 0.1 mM *tert*-butanol was added in experiment B for OH radical scavenging. ◆ Cultivability
 191 (C), ● membrane integrity (ICC), ○ DNA stability (TCC), ◇ *sull*, △ 16S rRNA. Black curves represent fitted
 192 inactivation models (GInaFiT, see SI, X). Vertical dotted lines in plot B indicate the CT_{lag} and beginning of log-linear
 193 decrease determined for C (light grey) and ICC (mid grey). Determined parameters for dose- and exposure-dependent
 194 inactivation kinetics are given in Tables 2 and S2, respectively.

195

196 In Figure 1B kinetic evidence for an initial disinfection delay during the treatment of *E. coli* with
 197 ozone is presented. The fitted model (SI, X)⁴⁹ predicted a CT_{lag} of 0.03 (±0.03) mg s L⁻¹ for
 198 cultivability (contact time = 210 ms) and a CT_{lag} of 0.11 (±0.02) mg s L⁻¹ for membrane integrity
 199 (contact time = 620 ms) for an ozone dose of 0.2 mg L⁻¹ (Figure 1B). Thereafter, cultivability
 200 decreased faster ($k_C = 58 (\pm 12)$ L mg⁻¹ s⁻¹) than membrane integrity ($k_{ICC} = 29 (\pm 5)$ L mg⁻¹ s⁻¹). The
 201 determined k_C is about 2.3 times lower and the required CT for 2-log inactivation (0.12 mg s L⁻¹) is
 202 3.3 times higher than previously reported^{25, 48} (Table 2). The observed differences are reasonable for
 203 kinetic measurements considering the differing *E. coli* strains, cell densities, or vegetative stages.^{26, 50}
 204 A delayed decrease in ICC compared to cultivability (Figure 1) supports the hypothesis that other
 205 cellular constituents, such as proteins or DNA are affected^{20-22, 28, 54-56} before severe membrane

damage occurs. However, we cannot rule out that cultivation overestimated the lethal effect of ozone, as cells may switch to a viable but non-culturable state.⁵¹ Hence, the actual cause of ozone-induced cell death may still be destruction of the cell envelope, as suggested previously,^{24, 25, 30, 51-53} but cannot clearly be determined in our study.

3.2 Inactivation kinetics of *E. coli* and ARG *sulI* in sterile wastewater

Exposing *E. coli* J53 to increasing ozone doses in sterile 10µm-filtered SE lead to a simultaneous decrease of cultivability and membrane integrity, when exceeding a specific ozone dose of 0.16 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ (0.67 mgO₃ L⁻¹, Figure 2A, Tables S2 and S3). This finding contrasts the experiments in PBS described above and results of a similar study in SE using wild-type (WT) *E. coli* K-12 MG1655.⁵² The presence of membrane-destabilizing agents (e.g., surfactants) in the SE sample could have contributed to the observed effect. The threshold ozone dose to affect flow cytometric TCC (1.31 mgO₃ L⁻¹ or 0.31 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹) and mean green fluorescence (Figure S2B) was more than a factor of 2 higher than for viability indicators. At the TCC-specific threshold ozone dose, inactivation of *E. coli* cells was already nearly completed. Gene copy numbers of *sulI* and 16S rRNA genes had yet slightly higher threshold ozone doses than TCC (1.46 and 1.63 mgO₃ L⁻¹, respectively or 0.34 and 0.38 gO₃ g DOC⁻¹). 2-log abatement of TCC and *sulI* gene copies was achieved at 1.6-1.7 mgO₃ L⁻¹ or 0.38-0.40 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹. As specific ozone doses of ~0.55 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ are applied at WWTP Neugut for micropollutant abatement, our data from this set of experiments predict that intracellular ARG should be destroyed at the full-scale.

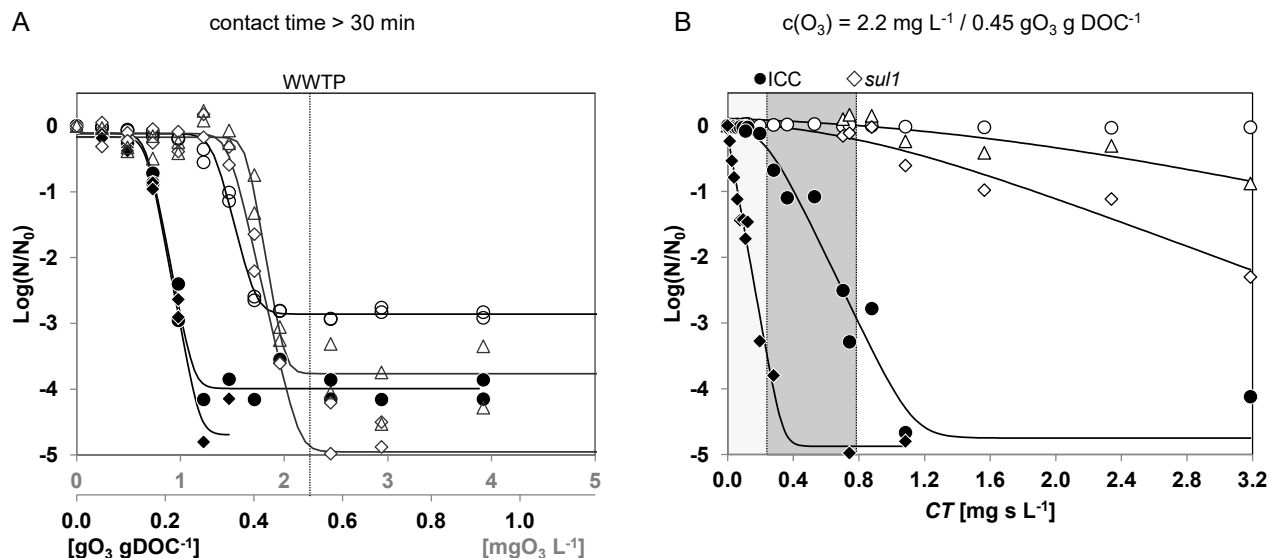


Figure 2. Inactivation of *E. coli* J53 (R388) and its intracellular ARG *sul1* and 16S rRNA gene in sterile SE as a function of (A) differing ozone doses (ozone fully depleted) and (B) ozone exposures (kinetics), pH 7.8-8.0, $22 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. ♦ Cultivability (C), ● membrane integrity (ICC), ○ DNA stability (TCC), ◇ *sul1*, △ 16S rRNA. Black curves represent fitted inactivation models (GInaFiT, see SI X). Straight dashed lines indicate typical ozonation conditions for wastewaters (A) and the CT_{lag} and beginning of log-linear decrease (B) determined for ICC (light grey) and *sul1* (mid grey). Determined parameters for dose- and exposure-dependent inactivation are given in Tables 2, S2 and S3, respectively.

Figure 2B shows that the inactivation of *E. coli* as a function of the ozone exposure in sterile SE resulted in a delayed decrease of ICC compared to cultivability, thus confirming the results from experiments in 1:10 diluted PBS and previous studies with *E. coli* WT in SE.⁵² Already the lowest contact time (6 ms, (specific) ozone dose = $0.45 \text{ gO}_3 \text{ gDOC}^{-1}$ or $2.2 \text{ mgO}_3 \text{ L}^{-1}$) resulted in an ozone exposure (0.13 mg s L^{-1}), which affected cultivability of *E. coli*. However, for ICC a CT_{lag} of 0.22 mg s L^{-1} was determined (contact time = 20 ms), which is twice as high as the CT_{lag} determined in 1:10 diluted PBS (Table 2). Moreover, inactivation rate constants for cultivability ($k_c = 32 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and membrane integrity ($k_{\text{ICC}} = 12 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) in SE were a factor of 2 and 3 lower than in 1:10 diluted PBS, respectively. Hence, our data indicate that the same ozone exposure in SE is less effective for reducing cultivability and ICC than in 1:10 diluted PBS.

Table 2. Summary of kinetic parameters determined during ozonation experiments with *E. coli* J53 (R388) in differing water matrices and in natural wastewater bacteria for various measurements of cellular damage. pH(PBS) = 7.4, pH(SE) = 7.8-8.0

Measured feature	Medium /bacteria	Reference	Ozone exposure [mg s L ⁻¹] for inactivation of			
			CT_{lag} [mg s L ⁻¹]	k^a [L mg ⁻¹ s ⁻¹]	2-log	4-log
Cultivability	PBS / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	0.03 (± 0.03)	58 (±12)	0.12	-
	PBS / <i>E. coli</i>	26, 47	n.d.	130-138	0.04	0.07
	SE / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	n.d.	32 (±2)	0.13	0.28
	SE / SE bacteria	this study	n.d.	$k_1 = 9 (\pm 2)$ $k_2 = 0 (\pm 1)$	-	-
	SE / fecal coliforms/enterococci	57	n.d.	$k_1 = 133$ $k_2 = 15 / 3^b$	0.22 ^c 1.07 ^c	0.53 ^c 2.46 ^c
Membrane integrity (ICC)	PBS / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	0.11 (± 0.02)	29 (±5)	0.28	-
	SE / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	0.22 (±0.08)	12 (±2)	0.61	1.01
	SE/ SE bacteria	this study	n.d.	$k_1 = 21 (\pm 3)$ $k_2 = 1 (\pm 0)$	3.52	11.03
DNA damage (TCC)	PBS / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	> 0.78	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	SE / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	> 3.19	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	SE / SE bacteria	this study	> 2.70	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Gene damage (qPCR <i>sul1</i>)	PBS / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	> 0.78	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	SE / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	0.76 (±0.49)	2 (±0)	2.98	5.15
	SE / SE bacteria	this study	1.03 (±0.10)	6 (±1)	1.74	2.50
Gene damage (qPCR 16S)	PBS / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	> 0.78	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	SE / <i>E. coli</i>	this study	1.43 (±1.05)	1 (±0.6)	5.50	9.35
	SE / SE bacteria	this study	1.14 (±0.19) ^d	5 (±2) ^d	2.09 ^d	3.12 ^d

n.d.= not detected, - = not predicted by model

^a In case of SE-bacteria biphasic inactivation kinetics were determined with inactivation rate constant k_1 in the first fast inactivation phase and k_2 in the second slow inactivation phase.

^b In reference ⁵³ the first value of k_2 refers to fecal coliforms / the second value of k_2 refers to enterococci

^c Estimated inactivation by GInaFit (SI X) using k- and p-values given in⁵³.

^d Given parameters are uncertain, although selected by the model, from the data itself, the end of the lag-phase is not quite obvious

The reasons for the lower k -values in SE compared to the buffered solution remain open. We can only speculate that interactions of the matrix with *E. coli* may be involved, e.g. effects on membrane stability or activation of oxidative stress response systems. The higher pH of SE (7.8) compared to PBS (7.2) can be excluded as the main driver for this effect because the ozone inactivation rate constants for bacteria or bacterial spores are independent of the pH.^{25, 54} Nevertheless, these results caution against the transfer of kinetic information on bacteria derived in buffered solutions to real wastewater effluents, a practice that is applicable for micropollutants.⁵⁵

In contrast to 4-log inactivation of cell viability at 0.28 mg s L⁻¹ (cultivability) and 1.01 mg s L⁻¹ (ICC), TCC did not decrease over the applied exposure range. Intracellular *sulI* copy numbers started to decrease at much higher ozone exposures ($CT_{lag} = 0.76$ mg s L⁻¹) and the rate of abatement was lower than for viability indicators, with second order rate constants of 2 L mg⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Table 2). The fitted model for abatement of 16S rRNA gene copy numbers predicted values for CT_{lag} and k (Table 2). However, from the data the beginning of the log-linear decrease is not quite obvious. 2-log inactivation of *sulI* was only achieved for an ozone exposure of 2.98 mg s L⁻¹. The corresponding contact time of 2.0 s and specific ozone dose of 0.27 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ is lower than typical ozonation conditions applied in WWTPs for micropollutant abatement. Thus, based on these laboratory experiments, 2-log abatement of intracellular ARG *sulI* of *E. coli* in SE seems feasible under full-scale conditions.

3.3 Inactivation of native bacteria and intracellular ARG *sulI* from secondary effluent

Dose-dependent inactivation

A major goal of our experiments was to investigate whether disruption of intracellular ARG present in an autochthonous microbial consortium of SE can be achieved under realistic conditions for

281 micropollutant abatement. Compared to *E. coli*, we expected the majority of these bacteria to be
 282 more ozone-tolerant and thus likely to require higher (specific) ozone doses and exposures to cause
 283 intracellular ARG damage.⁵³ Indeed, ozone doses twice as high as for *E. coli* were necessary to affect
 284 cultivability, ICC and TCC of wastewater bacteria (compare Tables S2 and S3). The lack of
 285 cultivability of most wastewater bacteria is illustrated in Figure 3A by plotting^{56, 57} plate count, ICC
 286 and TCC results as log (N) instead of log (N/N₀). Following similar trends, total cultivable
 287 heterotrophs were close to zero at the highest specific ozone dose of 0.66 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹, whereas more
 288 than 10⁴ bacteria survived according to ICC. 2-log abatement of both viability indicators occurred at
 289 specific ozone doses similar to those applied at WWTP Neugut (0.5 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹) and bacteria with
 290 multiple resistance against norfloxacin/ceftazidime (N/C) and sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim/
 291 tetracycline (S/T/T) were not detectable at specific ozone doses > 0.33 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹. Hence, though
 292 inactivation of autochthonous wastewater bacteria in SE requires higher specific ozone doses than
 293 *E. coli*, a considerable reduction may still be achieved during ozonation as implemented at WWTP
 294 Neugut.

295 Based on TCC, intracellular DNA damage occurred only when specific ozone doses exceeded 0.56
 296 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹, with a 2-log decrease predicted at 0.74 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹. However, intracellular copy
 297 numbers of the 16S rRNA gene started to decrease already at 0.38 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ and were abated by
 298 2-log units at 0.53 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹. Mean green fluorescence data suggest beginning DNA damage at
 299 even lower O₃ doses (Figure S2C). The behavior of *sulI* was difficult to model for wastewater
 300 bacteria, as qPCR results beyond 0.4 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ were below the LOD. Based on the obtained
 301 Crossing point (Cp)-values we may estimate that copy numbers of this ARG start to decrease at 0.43
 302 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ and are abated by 2-log units at 0.49 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹. Thus, in contrast to experiments with
 303 *E. coli* where TCC, mean fluorescence data and qPCR measurements showed congruent trends, we

obtained somewhat more divergent results for these parameters with the complex wastewater bacterial community. We may speculate that small-scale damage affecting the availability of primer-binding and in case of the 16S rRNA fragment also TaqMan probe-binding sites or strand breaks, occurred more frequently prior to extensive DNA damage observed by TCC in the experiment with wastewater bacteria.

Effect of flocs on inactivation

Wastewater flocs, particles or zooplankton as well as formation of microbial biofilms might have a protective effect on bacteria.^{30, 31, 38, 53} Simulations on the diffusion of ozone into various particles in differing wastewater matrixes indicated that ozone can only penetrate 12 μm into particles for ozone doses $< 3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, if the ozone demand is not exceeded.⁵⁸ As indicated by shaded symbols in Figure 3A, the total heterotrophic plate counts did not decrease as pronounced in presence of flocs compared to when flocs were absent (10 μm filtered SE). Moreover, viable total and MRB were detected, albeit at low levels, even at the highest specific ozone dose ($0.85 \text{ gO}_3 \text{ gDOC}^{-1}$). Flow cytometric data (ICC and TCC) did not show this effect as only suspended bacteria can be measured as single cells, excluding cells associated with flocs (if not dispersed prior to measurement, which was not the case). qPCR analysis of *sulI* and 16S rRNA genes in the presence of flocs do not clearly indicate a linear relationship between ozone dose and intracellular gene disruption. A maximum decrease of 0.8- (16S rRNA) and 1.4-log units (*sulI*) was detected at specific ozone doses of 0.6 and $0.5 \text{ gO}_3 \text{ gDOC}^{-1}$, respectively. The observed differences in qPCR and plate count data suggest that flocs greater than 10 μm can shield wastewater bacteria and their ARG from inactivation, even for specific ozone doses $> 0.8 \text{ gO}_3 \text{ gDOC}^{-1}$. A recent study by Pak et al.³² also reported decreased

disinfection efficiency of ozone on *E. coli* K-12 and its plasmid pB10 with increasing concentrations of suspended solids. Thus, these observations likely have implications for full-scale ozonation.

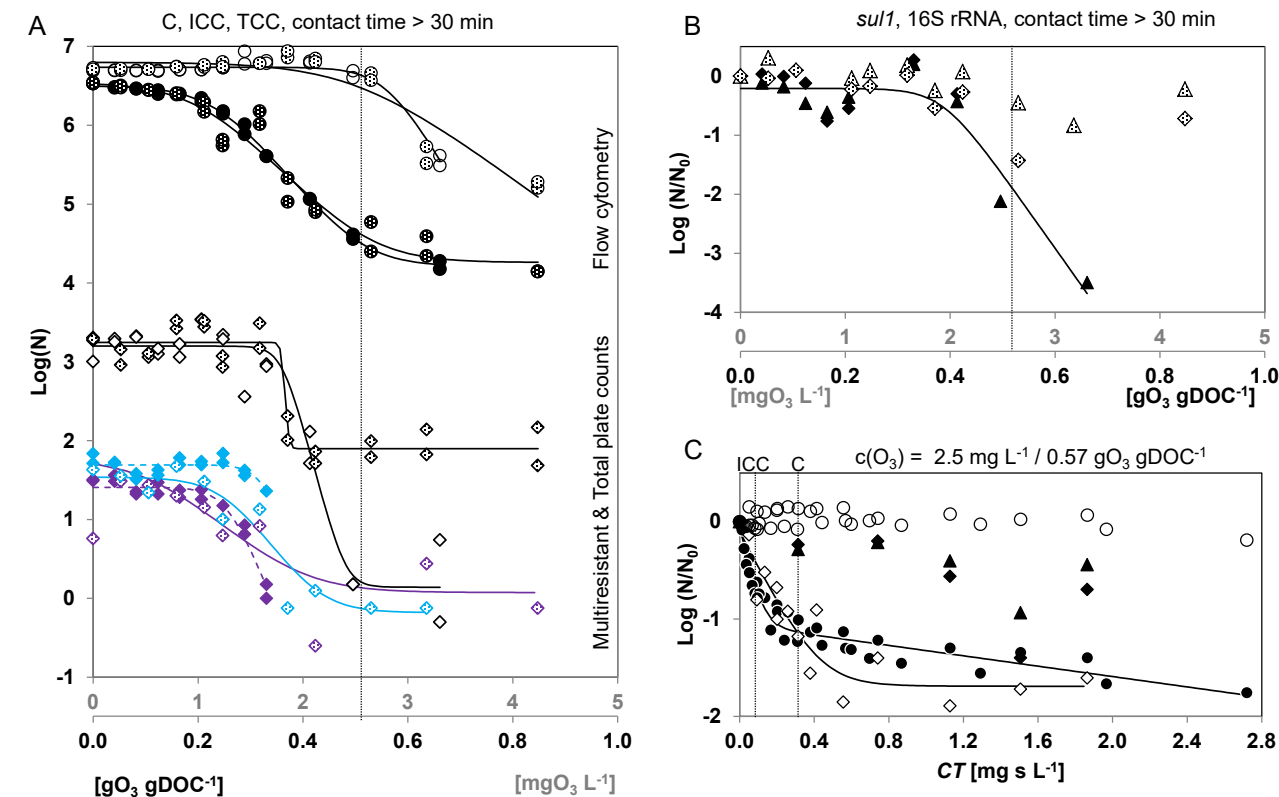


Figure 3. Inactivation of autochthonous wastewater bacteria and intracellular genes for (A + B) differing ozone doses (ozone fully depleted) and (C) exposures in 10µm filtered SE (solid or empty symbols) or in presence of flocs (unfiltered wastewater, shaded symbols). ◆ Cultivability (C) of total (black), norfloxacin/ceftazidime (violet) and sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim/tetracycline (turquoise)-resistant heterotrophs, ● membrane integrity (ICC), ○ DNA stability (TCC), ◇ *sul1*, △ 16S rRNA. Black curves represent fitted inactivation models (GInaFiT, see SI X). Dotted vertical straight lines indicate typical WWTP effluent ozonation conditions (panels A + B) and in (C) mark the end of the initial fast inactivation phase for ICC and C. pH 7.8-8.0

Inactivation kinetics of wastewater bacteria and intracellular genes

The kinetics of the inactivation of the heterogeneous wastewater community and intracellular ARG were measured in 10 µm filtered SE for a specific ozone dose of 0.57 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ (2.47 mgO₃ L⁻¹), which is representative for micropollutant abatement. The resulting inactivation curves for cultivability and ICC (Figure 3C) suggest an incomplete or multiphasic inactivation scenario.

Initially (up to $CT = 0.14$ (ICC) or 0.31 mg s L^{-1} (cultivability)), the most sensitive bacteria (~ 1 -log unit) are rapidly inactivated with an inactivation rate constant k_1 ($21 (\pm 2.8)$ and $9 (\pm 2.4) \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for ICC and cultivability, respectively). The majority of the wastewater bacteria is more resistant and inactivated much slower (ICC with $k_2 = 0.6 (\pm 0.1) \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) or even reached a plateau (cultivability) where no further inactivation was observed under the experimental conditions of this study. The determined k -values of the mixed wastewater community are considerably smaller than those determined previously in a wastewater ozonation pilot-plant for fecal indicators ($k_1 = 133 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ mg}^{-1}$ and $k_2 = 15$ or $3 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ mg}^{-1}$ for fecal coliforms or enterococci).⁵³ This confirms that most wastewater bacteria are more ozone tolerant than fecal indicators, which has also recently been stressed by a study of Alexander et al., who identified enterococci as the most ozone-sensitive and pseudomonads among the most ozone-resistant wastewater species.³⁵ According to the model fitted to ICC data, an ozone exposure of 3.52 mg s L^{-1} would yield a 2-log reduction of the initial wastewater community, which is about 6 times the exposure needed for the same ICC reduction with *E. coli*. Nevertheless, the corresponding specific ozone dose ($0.25 \text{ gO}_3 \text{ gDOC}^{-1}$) and contact time ($< 3\text{s}$) suggest that a considerable abatement of MRB in full-scale is feasible. Based on TCC, no severe DNA-damage was observed up to the highest ozone exposure (2.7 mg s L^{-1}). The kinetics of intracellular ARG *sull* and 16S rRNA gene disruption in SE bacteria are difficult to estimate (Figure 3C). Particularly due to a fluctuation of the last two data points (1.4-log units reduction, followed by 0.7-log units increase for *sull*) it is not clear, whether or not the initial lag-phase for intracellular gene disruption is exceeded at an ozone exposure of 1.0 mg s L^{-1} . The maximum measured abatements of *sull* and 16S rRNA genes were 1.4- and 0.9-log units, respectively, at an ozone exposure of 1.5 mg s L^{-1} .

3.4 Abatement of MRB and ARG during full-scale ozonation and post-treatment

Effect of full-scale ozonation of secondary effluent on abatement of MRB and ARG

Ozonation of SE at WWTP Neugut with a specific ozone dose of 0.55 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹ resulted in 1.4-1.6-log abatement of the total and multiresistant cultivable bacteria (Figure 4A (total, S/T/T, N/C)) and membrane integrity (ICC, Figure 4B) in the effluent of the ozone reactor (OR₂) (SI, Figure S1). An overview on identified MRB surviving ozonation is given in SI, XI. The results for plate counts are in good agreement with the laboratory experiments, for which total and MRB were abated by 1.4-1.8-log units for the same specific ozone dose in presence of flocs (Figure 3A). Similar levels of abatement (1.0-1.1-log units) were reported previously for (antibiotic resistant) *E. coli* and enterococci in pilot studies with specific ozone doses of 0.73 and 0.9 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹.^{35, 36} However, these studies also reported selection for antibiotic resistant species and ARG after ozonation.^{35, 36} No selective effects were observed during our campaigns (SI, XII). The abatement of ICC at the WWTP was 0.5-log units lower compared to observations in laboratory experiments (Figure 3A and Table S2 and S3). In contrast to viability indicators, intracellular DNA and ARG were not effectively reduced during full-scale ozonation. Figures 4B and 4C show that TCC and 16S rRNA gene copies only decreased by 0.5-log units, which is again in agreement with laboratory experiments in presence of flocs (Figures 3A and B). In addition, *sulI* gene copies remained nearly unchanged compared to SE (- 0.1-log units, Figure 4C), suggesting negligible disruption or leakage (SI, XIII). Comparably low levels of reduction were reported previously for intracellular imipenem resistance gene *blaVIM* in a pilot-study, even with 10-µm filtered SE at a specific ozone dose of 0.9 gO₃ gDOC⁻¹. However other ARG (*vanA*, *ampC*, *ermB*) were abated more efficiently (0.3-2 log units), highlighting that different ARG are affected to various extents.³⁵ In laboratory experiments, the observed relationship between increasing specific ozone doses and the disruption of intracellular genes in the presence of

389 flocs was not conclusive. Moreover, increasing concentrations of suspended solids were recently
390 reported to decrease the effect of ozone on a transferable ARG-plasmid.³² Hence, even though a
391 decrease of *sull* gene copies of up to 1.4-log units had been measured in presence of flocs (Figure
392 3B), the low abatement of intracellular *sull* in full-scale is not completely unexpected. However, our
393 flow cytometric and PCR based methods may underestimate DNA damage, as ozone is a potent
394 mutagen,^{18, 19, 24, 59} and we did not assess sequence changes or transferability³² of the genes. It should
395 be kept in mind, that the biocidal conditions exerted by ozonation of wastewater, may contribute to
396 mutagenesis⁶⁰ and selection of antibiotic resistant and more ozone-tolerant bacterial species in the
397 long term.^{32, 35, 36}

398 In summary our results indicate that typical conditions for full-scale ozonation are suitable to
399 inactivate 1-2 log units of viable resistant bacteria without a measurable effect on the abundance of
400 intracellular ARG.

401

402 *Effect of biological post-treatment by sand filtration on MRB and ARG in ozonated effluent*

403 During ozonation, potentially toxic oxidation by-products such as *N,N*-nitrosodimethylamine
404 (NDMA) or bromate^{37, 38} and considerable concentrations of biodegradable or assimilable organic
405 carbon (BDOC / AOC) may be formed. BDOC/AOC and in part NDMA are typically removed in a
406 biological post-treatment following ozonation.³⁸ At WWTP Neugut, ozonated effluent is treated by a
407 biological sand filter (SF). This allows bacterial populations to regrow in the partially disinfected
408 water.³⁸ The analyses of the SF effluent show that not only intact cell counts (ICC) and total
409 heterotrophic cultivable bacteria recover by 1.2-log units, but that also MRB increase significantly
410 (0.8-log units, $p < 0.05$ for N/C- and 1-log unit, $p < 0.001$ for S/T/T-resistant bacteria, Figures 4A and
411 4B). Thus, the abatement of resistant SE-bacteria achieved during the ozonation step seems to be

partly neutralized by the biological post-treatment, resulting in only 0.8- (N/C) and 0.5- (S/T/T) log units abatement ($p < 0.001$ for both types). TCC, which were only slightly reduced during ozonation remained unchanged after SF. However, ARG *sull* and 16S rRNA genes increased by 0.4- and 0.7- log units, thus their concentration is even slightly (but not significantly) elevated compared to SE. Recent pilot-studies, comparing the effect of differing post-treatments (including SF, granular activated carbon and expanded clay) on viable resistant bacteria or bacterial and antibiotic resistance gene markers did not report such an effect.^{35, 36} However, in agreement with our observations on the isolates we obtained and identified (SI, XII), these studies also report that differing species are affected to various extents by ozonation and biological post-treatment.^{35, 36} It should be noted that the SF at WWTP Neugut treated conventionally purified SE for 18 years before the ozonation step was implemented. Hence, the observed increase in MRB and ARG following SF may potentially be related to the previously established microbial community, which was selected during biological treatment (see SI XII) and experienced elevated micropollutant exposure, potentially including selective effects of sub-lethal antibiotic concentrations.⁶¹⁻⁶⁶

Practical implications

As indicated by ozonation experiments, implementing a removal step for flocs $> 10 \mu\text{m}$ from SE prior to ozonation could lead to more efficient MRB abatement and intracellular ARG disruption. The latter may also be achieved by applying higher specific ozone doses ($> 0.55 \text{ gO}_3 \text{ gDOC}^{-1}$). As some ARG seem more resistant to ozonation than others,³⁵ they could be considered as target genes for monitoring in ozonation practice. The related benefits of applying higher ozone doses on ARG may be offset by elevated formation of toxic ozonation by-products, such as bromate or nitrosamines. Such trade-offs should be evaluated individually for WWTPs, which plan to implement an ozonation

435 step.⁶⁷ Finally, an ultrafiltration following SF could be implemented to prevent discharge of regrown
436 MRB and their ARG to the aquatic environment. Perhaps, other filter types such as granulated
437 activated carbon (c.f.^{35, 36}), or exchanging the filter material with sand not previously exposed to
438 micropollutants or wastewater bacteria, thus eliminating a resident microbial community with
439 already high prevalence of resistance, may be considered.

440 Before additional costly measures at WWTPs as those discussed above can be justified in front of
441 policy makers and stakeholders, more profound research on the environmental effects of the
442 continuous discharge of MRB and ARG from WWTPs is needed and risk assessment addressing the
443 human health impacts needs to be developed.⁶⁸

444

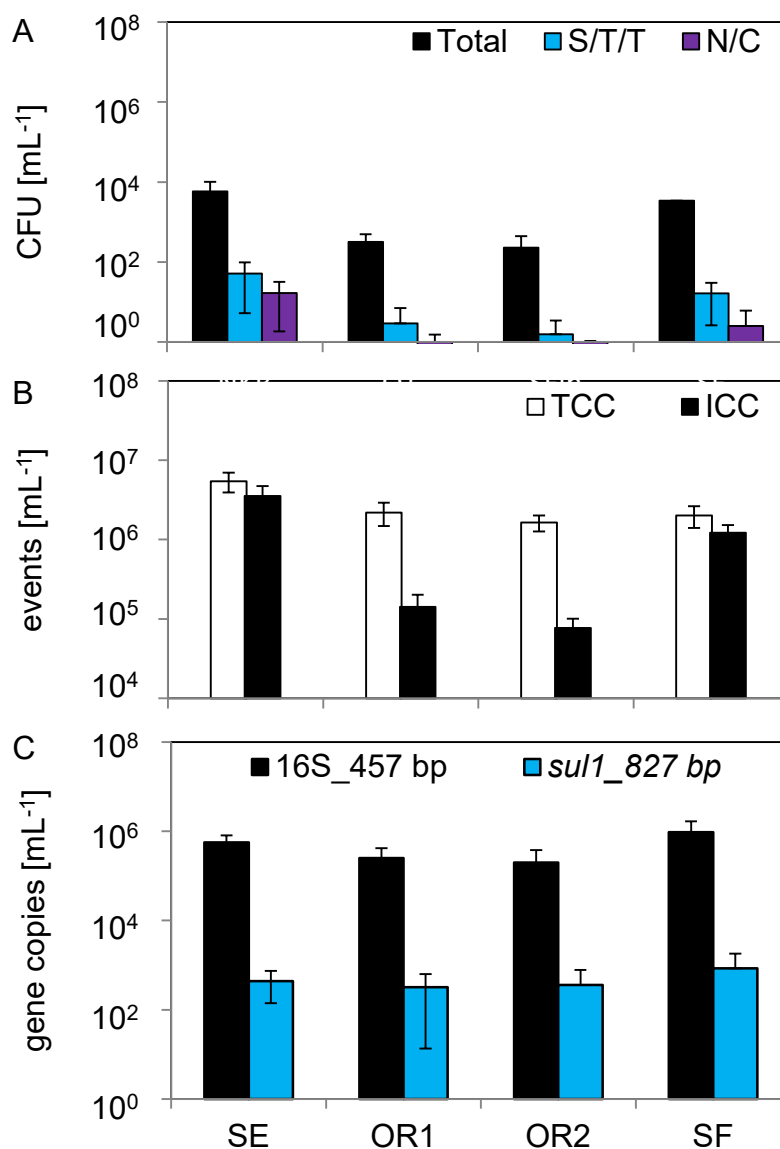


Figure 4. Effects of the full-scale ozonation at WWTP Neugut on various bacterial parameters. SE: secondary clarifier effluent; OR1, OR2: Sampling in and after the ozone reactor (SI, Figure S1), respectively; SF: after biological sand filtration. (A): Inactivation of total viable («Total») bacteria and bacteria multiresistant to sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim/tetracycline (S/T/T) or norfloxacin/ceftazidime (N/C), (B) membrane integrity (ICC) and DNA stability (TCC) and (C) *sul1* and 16S rRNA gene fragments. pH 7.8-8.0.

452 **Supporting Information Available**

453 For additional material and data 23 pages including 5 Tables and 4 Figures are available. This
454 information is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

455

456 **Acknowledgements**

457 This study was supported by the Swiss Federal Offices for the Environment FOEN L361-1927.
458 We would like to thank Hansruedi Siegrist, Marc Böhler, Julian Fleiner and Anita Widmer from the
459 engineering department of Eawag and Max Schachtler from WWTP Neugut for involving us in
460 evaluating the performance of the WWTP, substantial help during sampling campaigns and helpful
461 advice. We thank Karin Beck and Jan Siegentaler for help with molecular analyses, Pascal Gisler for
462 assistance in MALDI-TOF analyses, Franziska Rölli and Romina Sigrist for DOC measurements.

463

464

5. References

1. Sumpter, J. P.; Johnson, A. C., 10th Anniversary Perspective: Reflections on endocrine disruption in the aquatic environment: from known knowns to unknown unknowns (and many things in between). *J. Environ. Monit.* **2008**, *10*, (12), 1476-1485; DOI 10.1039/b815741n.
2. Schwarzenbach, R. P.; Escher, B. I.; Fenner, K.; Hofstetter, T. B.; Johnson, C. A.; von Gunten, U.; Wehrli, B., The challenge of micropollutants in aquatic systems. *Science* **2006**, *313*, (5790), 1072-1077; DOI 10.1126/science.1127291.
3. *Antimicrobial resistance: global report on surveillance 2014*; WHO World Health Organisation: Geneva, April 2014;
http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/112642/1/9789241564748_eng.pdf?ua=1.
4. Berendonk, T. U.; Manaia, C. M.; Merlin, C.; Fatta-Kassinos, D.; Cytryn, E.; Walsh, F.; Burgmann, H.; Sorum, H.; Norstrom, M.; Pons, M.-N.; Kreuzinger, N.; Huovinen, P.; Stefani, S.; Schwartz, T.; Kisand, V.; Baquero, F.; Martinez, J. L., Tackling antibiotic resistance: the environmental framework. *Nat Rev Micro* **2015**, *13*, (5), 310-317; DOI 10.1038/nrmicro3439.
5. Pruden, A.; Pei, R.; Storteboom, H.; Carlson, K. H., Antibiotic resistance genes as emerging contaminants: Studies in Northern Colorado. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2006**, *40*, (23), 7445-7450; DOI 10.1021/es060413l.
6. Gatica, J.; Cytryn, E., Impact of treated wastewater irrigation on antibiotic resistance in the soil microbiome. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* **2013**, *20*, (6), 3529-3538; DOI 10.1007/s11356-013-1505-4.
7. Czekalski, N.; Sigdel, R.; Birtel, J.; Matthews, B.; Bürgmann, H., Does human activity impact the natural antibiotic resistance background? Abundance of antibiotic resistance genes in 21 Swiss lakes. *Environ. Int.* **2015**, *81*, 45-55; DOI 10.1016/j.envint.2015.04.005.
8. Czekalski, N.; Gascon Diez, E.; Bürgmann, H., Wastewater as a point source of antibiotic-resistance genes in the sediment of a freshwater lake. *ISME J* **2014**, *8*; DOI 10.1038/ismej.2014.8.
9. Rizzo, L.; Manaia, C.; Merlin, C.; Schwartz, T.; Dagot, C.; Ploy, M. C.; Michael, I.; Fatta-Kassinos, D., Urban wastewater treatment plants as hotspots for antibiotic resistant bacteria and genes spread into the environment: A review. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2013**, *447*, (0), 345-360; DOI 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.01.032.
10. Czekalski, N.; Berthold, T.; Caucci, S.; Egli, A.; Bürgmann, H., Increased levels of multiresistant bacteria and resistance genes after wastewater treatment and their dissemination into Lake Geneva, Switzerland. *Front. Microbio.* **2012**, *3*; DOI 10.3389/fmicb.2012.00106.
11. Ternes, T.; Joss, A., *Human Pharmaceuticals, Hormones and Fragrances The challenge of micropollutants in urban water management* IWA Publishing: London, 2007;
12. Gewässerschutzverordnung (GschV) vom 28. Oktober 1998 (Stand am 2. Februar 2016). SR 814.201, 2016; <https://www.admin.ch/opc/de/classified-compilation/19983281/201602020000/814.201.pdf>
13. Waters protection Ordinance (WPO) <https://www.admin.ch/opc/en/classified-compilation/19983281/index.html>. (26.09.2016), The Swiss Federal Council
14. Eggen, R. I. L.; Hollender, J.; Joss, A.; Scharer, M.; Stamm, C., Reducing the discharge of micropollutants in the aquatic environment: The benefits of upgrading wastewater treatment plants. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2014**, *48*, (14), 7683-7689; DOI 10.1021/es500907n.
15. Gerrity, D.; Gamage, S.; Jones, D.; Korshin, G. V.; Lee, Y.; Pisarenko, A.; Trenholm, R. A.; von Gunten, U.; Wert, E. C.; Snyder, S. A., Development of surrogate correlation models to predict

509 trace organic contaminant oxidation and microbial inactivation during ozonation. *Water Res.* **2012**,
510 46, (19), 6257-6272; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2012.08.037.

511 16. Lee, Y.; Gerrity, D.; Lee, M.; Bogeat, A. E.; Salhi, E.; Gamage, S.; Trenholm, R. A.; Wert, E.
512 C.; Snyder, S. A.; von Gunten, U., Prediction of micropollutant elimination during ozonation of
513 municipal wastewater effluents: Use of kinetic and water specific information. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*
514 **2013**, 47, (11), 5872-5881; DOI 10.1021/es400781r.

515 17. von Gunten, U., Ozonation of drinking water: Part II. Disinfection and by-product formation
516 in presence of bromide, iodide or chlorine. *Water Res.* **2003**, 37, (7), 1469-1487; DOI
517 10.1016/S0043-1354(02)00458-X.

518 18. von Sonntag, C.; von Gunten, U., *Chemistry of ozone in water and wastewater treatment*
519 *From Basic Principles to Applications*. IWA Publishing: London, 2012;

520 19. Hamelin, C.; Chung, Y. S., Optimal conditions for mutagenesis by ozone in *Escherichia coli*
521 K12. *Mutat. Res.-Fundam. Mol. Mech. Mutag.* **1974**, 24, (3), 271-279; DOI 10.1016/0027-
522 5107(74)90175-4.

523 20. Ishizaki, K.; Sawadaishi, K.; Miura, K.; Shinriki, N., Effect of ozone on plasmid DNA of
524 *Escherichia coli* in situ. *Water Res.* **1987**, 21, (7), 823-827; DOI 10.1016/0043-1354(87)90158-8.

525 21. Hamelin, C.; Sarhan, F.; Chung, Y. S., Induction of deoxyribonucleic acid degradation in
526 *Escherichia coli* by ozone. *Experientia* **1978**, 34, (12), 1578-1579; DOI 10.1007/bf02034684.

527 22. Hamelin, C.; Sarhan, F.; Chung, Y. S., Ozone induced DNA degradation in different DNA
528 polymerase I mutants of *Escherichia coli* K12. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **1977**, 77, (1), 220-
529 224; DOI 10.1016/S0006-291X(77)80185-X

530 23. Dodd, M. C., Potential impacts of disinfection processes on elimination and deactivation of
531 antibiotic resistance genes during water and wastewater treatment. *J. Environ. Monit.* **2012**; DOI
532 10.1039/c2em00006g.

533 24. Scott, D. B. M.; Leshner, E. C., Effect of ozone on survival and permeability of *Escherichia*
534 *coli*. *J. Bacteriol.* **1963**, 85, (3), 567-576; DOI 10.1002/path.1700850242.

535 25. Hunt, N. K.; Mariñas, B. J., Inactivation of *Escherichia coli* with ozone: chemical and
536 inactivation kinetics. *Water Res.* **1999**, 33, (11), 2633-2641; DOI 10.1016/S0043-1354(99)00115-3.

537 26. Casolari, A., Microbial Death. In *Physiological Models in Microbiology*, Bazin, M. J.;
538 Prosser, J. I., Eds. CRC Press: Boca raton, FL, 1988; Vol. II, pp 1-44.

539 27. Broadwater, W. T.; Hoehn, R. C.; King, P. H., Sensitivity of three selected bacterial species
540 to ozone. *Appl. Microbiol.* **1973**, 26, (3), 391-393.

541 28. Patil, S.; Valdramidis, V. P.; Karatzas, K. A. G.; Cullen, P. J.; Bourke, P., Assessing the
542 microbial oxidative stress mechanism of ozone treatment through the responses of *Escherichia coli*
543 mutants. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **2011**, 111, (1), 136-144; DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2672.2011.05021.x.

544 29. Xu, P.; Janex, M.-L.; Savoye, P.; Cockx, A.; Lazarova, V., Wastewater disinfection by ozone:
545 main parameters for process design. *Water Res.* **2002**, 36, (4), 1043-1055; DOI 10.1016/S0043-
546 1354(01)00298-6.

547 30. Patil, S.; Bourke, P.; Frias, J. M.; Tiwari, B. K.; Cullen, P. J., Inactivation of *Escherichia coli*
548 in orange juice using ozone. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2009**, 10, (4), 551-557; DOI
549 10.1016/j.ifset.2009.05.011.

550 31. Tang, K. W.; Dziallas, C.; Grossart, H.-P., Zooplankton and aggregates as refuge for aquatic
551 bacteria: protection from UV, heat and ozone stresses used for water treatment. *Environ. Microbiol.*
552 **2011**, 13, (2), 378-390; DOI 10.1111/j.1462-2920.2010.02335.x.

553 32. Pak, G.; Salcedo, D. E.; Lee, H.; Oh, J.; Maeng, S. K.; Song, K. G.; Hong, S. W.; Kim, H.-C.;
554 Chandran, K.; Kim, S., Comparison of antibiotic resistance removal efficiencies using ozone

disinfection under different pH and suspended solids and humic substance concentrations. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2016**, *50*, (14), 7590-7600; DOI 10.1021/acs.est.6b01340.

33. Hamelin, C.; Sup Chung, Y., Repair of ozone-induced DNA lesions in *Escherichia coli* B cells. *Mutat. Res.-Fundam. Mol. Mech. Mutag.* **1989**, *214*, (2), 253-255; DOI 10.1016/0027-5107(89)90169-3.

34. Jiménez-Arribas, G.; Léautaud, V.; Amáble-Cuevas, C. F., Regulatory locus *soxRS* partially protects *Escherichia coli* against ozone. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **2001**, *195*, (2), 175-177; DOI 10.1111/j.1574-6968.2001.tb10517.x.

35. Alexander, J.; Knopp, G.; Dotsch, A.; Wieland, A.; Schwartz, T., Ozone treatment of conditioned wastewater selects antibiotic resistance genes, opportunistic bacteria, and induce strong population shifts. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2016**, *559*, 103-112; DOI 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.03.154.

36. Lüddecke, F.; Heß, S.; Gallert, C.; Winter, J.; Güde, H.; Löffler, H., Removal of total and antibiotic resistant bacteria in advanced wastewater treatment by ozonation in combination with different filtering techniques. *Water Res.* **2015**, *69*, 243-251; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2014.11.018.

37. von Gunten, U.; Hoigne, J., Bromate formation during ozonation of bromide-containing waters: Interaction of ozone and hydroxyl radical reactions. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **1994**, *28*, (7), 1234-1242; DOI 10.1021/es00056a009.

38. Zimmermann, S. G.; Wittenwiler, M.; Hollender, J.; Krauss, M.; Ort, C.; Siegrist, H.; von Gunten, U., Kinetic assessment and modeling of an ozonation step for full-scale municipal wastewater treatment: Micropollutant oxidation, by-product formation and disinfection. *Water Res.* **2011**, *45*, (2), 605-617; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2010.07.080.

39. Berney, M.; Weilenmann, H. U.; Egli, T., Flow-cytometric study of vital cellular functions in *Escherichia coli* during solar disinfection (SODIS). *Microbiol-Sgm* **2006**, *152*, 1719-1729; DOI 10.1099/mic.0.28617-0.

40. Bunthof, C. J.; van den Braak, S.; Breeuwer, P.; Rombouts, F. M.; Abee, T., Rapid fluorescence assessment of the viability of stressed *Lactococcus lactis*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1999**, *65*, (8), 3681-3689.

41. Berney, M.; Vital, M.; Hülshoff, I.; Weilenmann, H.-U.; Egli, T.; Hammes, F., Rapid, cultivation-independent assessment of microbial viability in drinking water. *Water Res.* **2008**, *42*, (14), 4010-4018; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2008.07.017.

42. Berney, M.; Hammes, F.; Bosshard, F.; Weilenmann, H.-U.; Egli, T., Assessment and interpretation of bacterial viability by using the LIVE/DEAD BacLight Kit in combination with Flow Cytometry. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **2007**, *73*, (10), 3283-3290; DOI 10.1128/aem.02750-06.

43. Hammes, F.; Berney, M.; Wang, Y.; Vital, M.; Köster, O.; Egli, T., Flow-cytometric total bacterial cell counts as a descriptive microbiological parameter for drinking water treatment processes. *Water Res.* **2008**, *42*, (1-2), 269-277; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2007.07.009.

44. Ramseier, M. K.; von Gunten, U.; Freihofer, P.; Hammes, F., Kinetics of membrane damage to high (HNA) and low (LNA) nucleic acid bacterial clusters in drinking water by ozone, chlorine, chlorine dioxide, monochloramine, ferrate(VI), and permanganate. *Water Res.* **2011**, *45*, (3), 1490-1500; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2010.11.016.

45. CLSI, Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing; twenty-third informational supplement. In *CLSI document M100-S23*, Clinical and laboratory Standards Institute: Wayne, PA, 2013.

46. Takai, K.; Horikoshi, K., Rapid detection and quantification of members of the archaeal community by quantitative PCR using fluorogenic probes. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **2000**, *66*, (11), 5066-5072; DOI 10.1128/aem.66.11.5066-5072.2000.

47. Poliquin, L.; Hamelin, C.; Chung, Y. S., Isolement et caractérisation de mutants sensibles ou résistant à l'ozone chez *Escherichia coli* B. *Can. J. Genet. Cytol.* **1982**, *24*, (5), 593-600; DOI 10.1139/g82-063.
48. Hunt, N. K.; Mariñas, B. J., Kinetics of *Escherichia coli* inactivation with ozone. *Water Res.* **1997**, *31*, (6), 1355-1362; DOI 10.1016/S0043-1354(96)00394-6.
49. Geeraerd, A. H.; Herremans, C. H.; Van Impe, J. F., Structural model requirements to describe microbial inactivation during a mild heat treatment. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **2000**, *59*, (3), 185-209; DOI 10.1016/S0168-1605(00)00362-7.
50. Bazin, M. J.; Prosser, J. I., *Physiological models in microbiology*. CRC Press: 1988;
51. Arana, I.; Santorum, P.; Muela, A.; Barcina, I., Chlorination and ozonation of waste-water: comparative analysis of efficacy through the effect on *Escherichia coli* membranes. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **1999**, *86*, (5), 883-883; DOI 10.1046/j.1365-2672.1999.00772.x.
52. Lee, Y.; Imminger, S.; Czekalski, N.; von Gunten, U.; Hammes, F., Inactivation efficiency of *Escherichia coli* and autochthonous bacteria during ozonation of municipal wastewater effluents quantified with flow cytometry and adenosine tri-phosphate analyses. *Water Res.* **2016**, *101*, 617-627; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2016.05.089.
53. Janex, M. L.; Savoye, P.; Roustan, M.; Do-Quang, Z.; Laine, J. M.; Lazarova, V., Wastewater disinfection by ozone: influence of water quality and kinetics modeling. *Ozone Sci. Eng.* **2000**, *22*, (2), 113-121; DOI 10.1080/01919510008547215.
54. Driedger, A.; Staub, E.; Pinkernell, U.; Marinas, B.; Koster, W.; Von Gunten, U., Inactivation of *Bacillus subtilis* spores and formation of bromate during ozonation. *Water Res.* **2001**, *35*, (12), 2950-2960; DOI 10.1016/S0043-1354(00)00577-7.
55. Lee, Y.; Kovalova, L.; McArdell, C. S.; von Gunten, U., Prediction of micropollutant elimination during ozonation of a hospital wastewater effluent. *Water Res.* **2014**, *64*, 134-148; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2014.06.027.
56. Amann, R. I.; Ludwig, W.; Schleifer, K. H., Phylogenetic identification and in-situ detection of individual microbial-cells without cultivation. *Microbiol. Rev.* **1995**, *59*, (1), 143-169.
57. Oliver, J. D., The viable but nonculturable state in bacteria. *J. Microbiol.* **2005**, *43*, 93-100.
58. Dietrich, J. P.; Loge, F. J.; Ginn, T. R.; Başağaoğlu, H., Inactivation of particle-associated microorganisms in wastewater disinfection: Modeling of ozone and chlorine reactive diffusive transport in polydispersed suspensions. *Water Res.* **2007**, *41*, (10), 2189-2201; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2007.01.038.
59. Davis, I. The survival and mutability of *Escherichia coli* in aqueous solutions of ozone. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, 1959.
60. Foster, P. L., Stress-induced mutagenesis in bacteria. *Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol. Biol.* **2007**, *42*, (5), 373-397; DOI 10.1080/10409230701648494.
61. *Substanzen zur Überprüfung des Reinigungseffekts weitergehender Abwasserbehandlungsverfahren, Fachbericht im Auftrag des Bundesamts für Umwelt BAFU*; Eawag: Dübendorf, 2014;
62. Andersson, D. I.; Hughes, D., Microbiological effects of sublethal levels of antibiotics. *Nat Rev Micro* **2014**, *12*, (7), 465-478; DOI 10.1038/nrmicro3270.
63. Chow, L.; Waldron, L.; Gillings, M., Potential impacts of aquatic pollutants: Sub-clinical antibiotic concentrations induce genome changes and promote antibiotic resistance. *Front. Microbio.* **2015**, *6*; DOI 10.3389/fmicb.2015.00803.

64. Gullberg, E.; Cao, S.; Berg, O. G.; Ilbäck, C.; Sandegren, L.; Hughes, D.; Andersson, D. I., Selection of resistant bacteria at very low antibiotic concentrations. *PLoS Path.* **2011**, *7*, (7), e1002158; DOI 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002158.
65. Jutkina, J.; Rutgersson, C.; Flach, C.-F.; Joakim Larsson, D. G., An assay for determining minimal concentrations of antibiotics that drive horizontal transfer of resistance. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2016**, *548–549*, 131-138; DOI 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.01.044.
66. Kim, S.; Yun, Z. W.; Ha, U. H.; Lee, S.; Park, H.; Kwon, E. E.; Cho, Y.; Choung, S.; Oh, J.; Medriano, C. A.; Chandran, K., Transfer of antibiotic resistance plasmids in pure and activated sludge cultures in the presence of environmentally representative micro-contaminant concentrations. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2014**, *468*, 813-820; DOI 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.08.100.
67. Wildhaber, Y. S.; Mestankova, H.; Scharer, M.; Schirmer, K.; Salhi, E.; von Gunten, U., Novel test procedure to evaluate the treatability of wastewater with ozone. *Water Res.* **2015**, *75*, 324-335; DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2015.02.030.
68. Huijbers, P. M. C.; Blaak, H.; de Jong, M. C. M.; Graat, E. A. M.; Vandenbroucke-Grauls, C. M. J. E.; Husman, A. M. D., Role of the Environment in the Transmission of Antimicrobial Resistance to Humans: A Review. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2015**, *49*, (20), 11993-12004; DOI 10.1021/acs.est.5b02566.