Microbial retention and resistances in stormwater quality improvement devices

treating road runoff

Renato Liguori^{1,2}, Steffen H. Rommel¹, Johan Bengtsson-Palme^{3,4}, Brigitte

Helmreich¹, Christian Wurzbacher¹

Affiliations:

¹ Technical University of Munich, Chair of Urban Water Systems Engineering, Am Coulombwall 3, 85748 Garching, Germany

² Department of Science and Technology, Parthenope University of Naples, Centro direzionale Isola –C4, 80143, Napoli, Italy

³ Department of Infectious Diseases, Institute of Biomedicine, The Sahlgrenska Academy, University of Gothenburg, Guldhedsgatan 10A, SE-413 46, Gothenburg, Sweden

⁴ Centre for Antibiotic Resistance Research (CARE) at University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg, Sweden

Corresponding to: C. Wurzbacher (christian@wurzbacher.cc), R. Liguori (renato.liguori@uniparthenope.it)

Abstract

Current knowledge about the microbial communities that occur in urban road runoff is scarce. Road runoff of trafficked roads can be heavily polluted and is treated by stormwater quality improvement devices (SQIDs). However, microbes may influence the treatment process of these devices or could lead to stress resistant opportunistic microbial strains. In

this study, the microbial community in the influent, effluent and the filter materials for the removal of dissolved heavy metals of two different SQIDs were analyzed to determine the microbial load, retention, composition, and mobile resistance genes. Although the microbes were replaced by new taxa in the effluent, there was no major retention of microbial genera. Further, the bacterial abundance of the SQIDs effluent was relatively stable over time. The heavy metal content correlated with *intl1* and with microbial genera. The filter media itself was enriched with *Intl1* gene cassettes, carrying several heavy metal and multidrug resistance genes (e.g. *czrA*, *czcA*, *silP*, *mexW* and *mexI*), indicating that this is a hot spot for horizontal gene transfer. Overall, the results shed light on road runoff microbial communities, and pointed to distinct bacterial communities within the SQIDs, which subsequently influence the microbial community and the genes released with the treated water.

Keywords: pollution, traffic area runoff, microbial communities, heavy metals, stormwater treatment, manufactured treatment devices, sustainable urban drainage systems

1. INTRODUCTION

Industrialization and technological advancement have put an increasing burden on the environment by releasing large quantities of hazardous contaminants inflicting serious damage on the ecosystem. Traffic area runoff is widely recognized as a major transport vector of pollutants released in the urban environment, as it collects precipitation and snowmelt-related discharges of mostly impervious surfaces (e.g. sidewalks, parking lots, feeder streets, major roads, and highways). The majority of pollution caused by traffic area runoff originates from vehicle brake emissions, tire wear, lubricating oil and grease, pet waste and atmospheric deposition on the road surface (1–3). The chemical quality of traffic area runoff has been analyzed and indicated the presence of different contaminants including heavy metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), and other organics (4,5). Heavy metals in traffic area runoff continue to create serious global health concerns, as they persist in suspended particulate matter and have the ability to travel long distances through water-air-soil systems with subsequent risks to human health (6). The awareness of stormwater runoff pollution and increasing concern about its impacts on the environment, has led to the development of stormwater control measures (SCMs) for pollution control and contaminant retention from urban road runoff. One SCM to minimize the contaminant emissions to the environment is the usage of sustainable urban drainage systems (7,8). These include decentralized technical systems, referred as stormwater quality improvement devices (SQIDs) or manufactured treatment devices that treat stormwater runoff with a comparably low footprint, and are particularly suitable in dense urban environments (7). SCMs have historically been constructed for pollutants and nutrient reduction from different environments (9,10). Nevertheless, many studies on the impact of SCMs have also evaluated their function for removal of bacteria, in particular filter-based bioretention systems have shown fecal bacteria removal efficiencies between 50% and 70% with significant difference between inflow and outflow concentrations (11,12). Pathogenic

bacteria, viruses and protozoa can be found in runoff (13,14) and are transported to surface waters through sewer overflows, representing one of the major human health risks (15,16).

While the microbial load of sewer overflows has gained considerable attention, microbes of traffic area runoff in general are scarcely investigated with only few exceptions. Due to the heavy pollution and harsh conditions, traffic areas and their runoff can be classified as an extreme environment. Early research looked mainly at microbial communities found in sediments of infiltration basins (17), on the effect of de-icing salts (18,19), the biofilm of road gutters (20), or on the denitrification potential of road runoff receiving biofilters (21). More comprehensive analysis on the microbiology of road runoff are missing and most of the microbes and their community functioning in this polluted environment remain unknown, despite we can assume that they will be of relevance for the receiving water bodies (groundwater and surface waters) (22,23). Furthermore, understanding how antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) are distributed along road runoff treatment processes is important due to their potential public health risk. The location of ARGs on mobile genetic elements, such as integrons (i.e. *int1*, *sul1*) makes the horizontal transfer of antibiotic resistance possible and easy to achieve among bacteria with same or diverse origins. Previous studies assessed the presence of *Int1* in the genome of bacterial isolates from wastewater and drinking water treatment plants (24,25) showing a high possibility of horizontal gene transfer of ARGs within these systems. Therefore, an investigation of these microbial communities can provide insights into adaptations of microbial communities to factors such as pH, contaminants and heavy metals (26,27), and shed light on potential microbial risks.

This study is a pioneer study on the microbial community composition and its anthropogenic signatures in the form of class I integron gene cassettes (*int1*) of road runoff effluents and the filter materials of two SQIDs along a heavily trafficked urban road in Munich, Germany. We collected water samples for over seven months, and sampled the

filter media of the SQIDs. The aims of this study were to: (I) identify the major taxa of road runoff and treated effluent and (II) identify microbial risk factors associated with the mobile genetic element *intl1*. This establishes the basis for evaluating the microbial relevance in road runoff, its impact on receiving water bodies and how this impact may be modulated by current treatment systems.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Study site

In this study we monitored two different SQIDs (D1, D2, Figure S1) from a heavily trafficked road in Munich (Germany, 48°10'47"N 11°32'25"E) with an annual average daily traffic of 24,000 vehicles per day. Device D1 and D2 are pre-manufactured SQIDs (SediSubstrator XL 600/12, Fränkische Rohrwerke Gebr. Kirchner GmbH & Co. KG, Germany; Drainfix Clean 300, Hauraton GmbH & Co. KG, Germany). Both SQIDs were installed at the same time and drained road runoff from catchments in close proximity, which consequently showed the same runoff properties. The main difference between the devices were that D1 used a primary sedimentation stage and downstream media filtration stage using an iron-based filter medium with lignite addition and the filter medium was permanently submerged, while D2 used direct filtration with a carbonate containing sand, which ran dry after each rain event. After the treatment, the water was percolated into the groundwater. The catchment areas of the devices were 1660 m² for D1 and 165 m² for D2.

2.2 Sampling and characterization

Water samples before (n=21) and after SQID treatment (n=20) were withdrawn during a seven-month time frame starting from April to October 2019, in order to evaluate different

seasonal change (spring, n=19; summer, n=13; autumn, n=9). Three different types of water samples were collected based on the position of sampling: Influent (I): inflow of road runoff to the SQIDs; Effluent after sedimentation and adsorption (ESA): effluent of SQID D1; Effluent of Filtration (EF) filtrated water samples of the SQID D2. The samples were withdrawn volume proportionally using automatic samplers (WS 316, WaterSam, Balingen, Germany). Permanent flow measurement using electro-magnetic flow meters (Krohne Optiflux 2300 C or 1300 C, Krohne IFC 300 C, DN250 for D1, DN25 for D2) enabled the volume proportional sampling. Sampling was triggered, if flow exceeded for 1 min 0.4 L/(s·ha) and stopped if flow was below the threshold value for 15 min. Discrete samples (400 mL) were withdrawn after approximately 0.2 L/m² runoff volume each. The discrete samples of each sampling point and runoff event were merged in composite samples for further analysis. The number of discrete samples per sampling point and runoff event depended on the runoff volume and ranged from 2 to 62. The samples were kept in coolers at 4±1°C and transported to the lab within 60 h. Electric conductivity (EC) and pH of the samples were analyzed following the standard methods 2510 B and 4500-H⁺, respectively (28). Total concentrations of chromium (Cr), copper (Cu), nickel (Ni), lead (Pb) and zinc (Zn) were determined after aqua regia digestion according to EN ISO 15587-1:2002. Cd, Cu, Ni, and Pb were analyzed using ICP-MS (NexION 300D, Perkin Elmer, Waltham, USA). The other elements were analyzed using ICP-OES (DIN EN ISO 11885, Ultima II, Horiba Jobin Yvon, Kyoto, Japan). The limits of quantification (LOQs) were 1.0, 0.1, 0.4, 0.1, and 2.0 µg/L for Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn, respectively. Dissolved concentrations of Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn were analyzed for a subset of samples after filtration using syringe filter (0.45 µm, PES, VWR International, Darmstadt, Germany). The LOQs of the dissolved Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn concentrations were 2.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0, and 1.0, µg/L respectively.

144 Filter material samples (> 500 g) were withdrawn from the SQIDs after approximately 2.75
years of operation, labeled FD1 for SQID D1 and FD2 for SQID D2. The surface layer (0-
146 5 cm) in flow direction of the filter materials, which commonly contain most of the
contaminants (29–31), was sampled using ethanol cleaned plastic spatulae and a stainless-
148 steel soil sampler. In addition, we took samples for the microbial community analysis in the
middle (5-10 cm) and deepest layer (10-15 cm) in the flow direction of the filter materials.
150 The content of Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn in the filter media were analyzed after inverse aqua
regia digestion adapted from DIN EN 13346:2001 with a HNO₃:HCl ratio of 3:1 using the
152 aforementioned ICP-MS and ICP-OES devices. The LOQs of Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Zn in the filter
media were 5.0, 5.0, 2.0, 10.0, and 1.0 mg/kg, respectively.

154

All analysis results for water and filter media samples below LOQ were substituted by the
156 respective LOQ value as a conservative estimate.

158 To assess the overall pollution level of the water samples, a water pollution index (WPI_{GFS})
was determined based on the German insignificance threshold values for evaluation of
160 locally restricted groundwater pollution (*Geringfügigkeitsschwellenwerte*, Table S1), which
are used to evaluate if a negative anthropogenic effect on groundwater quality is present,
162 following eq. 1. This method is adapted from Bartlett et al., 2012

$WPI_{GFS} = \sum \frac{[C_i] / C_{i,GFS}}{n}$	(1)
--	-----

164 where [C_i] is the concentration of the substance i present in the sample, C_{i,GFS} is the minor
threshold value of substance i, and n is the number of analyzed substances. The heavy
166 metals Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn were considered in this analysis.

2.3 DNA Extraction and 16S rRNA Gene Amplicon Sequencing

Water samples collected from the different devices were centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 minutes and the pellets were stored at -20 °C, while the filter media samples were directly stored at -20°C until DNA extraction. The DNA was extracted using the FastDNA Spin Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals, Solon, USA), following the manufacturers protocol. The DNA concentration of the individual extracts was quantified by using the dsDNA Broad Range Assay kit (DeNovix, Wilmington, USA), following the manufacturers protocol, then stored at -80 °C until sequencing. The 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing was performed at ZIEL using the primers 341F/806R targeting mainly bacteria (Institute for Food & Health at Technical University of Munich, Germany). All the data are generated using a MiSeq sequencer (Illumina technology, v3 chemistry) following the protocol of (34)

2.4 Data Analysis and Quality Control

All 16S rRNA gene amplicons were processed using the open-source bioinformatic pipeline DADA2 (version 1.14.1, Callahan et al., 2016) for R (version 3.6.0) (36). Demultiplexing and quality filtering were carried out in DADA2 using customized settings (truncLen=c(290,200), trimLeft = c(14,12), maxN=0, maxEE=c(2,6)) after the removal of the primers sequence. Error rates were subsequently estimated from a set of subsampled reads (1 million random reads), and chimeric sequences were identified and removed from the demultiplexed reads. The exact amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were taxonomically classified with a naïve Bayesian classifier using the Silva v. 138 training set (<https://benjjneb.github.io/dada2/training.html>, accessed August 2020). Negative controls, (i.e. Nuclease-free water) were included at every step of processing, from DNA extraction through the library preparation. A subset of control samples were sequenced in sequencing runs to verify that methodological errors did not impact results. Samples that shared dominant taxa with negative controls were removed from the dataset.

194

2.5 Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR)

196 A quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR) protocol was performed to quantify the
number of 16S rRNA and *int1* gene copies within samples. 16S rRNA gene was amplified
198 by 16S Forward 5'-GACTCCTACGGGAGGCWGCAG-3'; 16S Reverse: 5'-
GTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG-3' (37). *Int1* was amplified with the *int1* primers from (38).
200 The qPCR for 16S rRNA was carried out with a reaction mixture containing 10.5 µL GoTaq®
qPCR Master Mix (2X) (Promega, Madison, USA), 0.2 µM of each primer, 7.5 µL nuclease
202 free water and 1 µL of template for a total volume of 21 µL. The 16S rRNA qPCR program
consisted of 2 min at 95 °C, 40 cycles with 5 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 60 °C, while for *int1* the
204 program was 4 min at 95 °C, 40 cycles with 10 sec at 95 °C, 45 s at 64 °C. Both were
performed using the CFX96 thermocycler (BioRad, Hercules, USA). Calibration curves for
206 *int1* were obtained using serial dilutions of a purified PCR products (by NGSBeads,
Steinbrenner, Wiesenbach, Germany, following the manual) derived from wastewater.
208 Calibration curves for 16S rRNA were obtained by serial dilutions of a linearized plasmid
(pGEM-T easy, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) carrying a single amplicon variant. Specificity of
210 PCR reactions was checked by melt curves, and potential false positives were removed. All
samples were analyzed in technical duplicates to obtain final copy numbers per sample by
212 averaging.

214 2.6 *Int1* gene cassette sequencing

Genomic DNA from three effluent water and two filter material samples of the devices D1
216 and D2, was used for characterization of class 1 integron gene cassette arrays (*int1*). The
cassette arrays of Tn402-associated class 1 integrons were amplified using the primers
218 HS458 and HS459 (39). These primers target the integron recombination site, and the 3'
end of the cassette array, which normally terminates in the *qacEΔ/sul1* gene fusion.

220 Sequencing of HS458/459 PCR products can thus recover resistance determinants. The
library collection was carried out with the following cycling program: 94 °C for 3 min; 94 °C
222 for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 sec, 72 °C 1 min 30 s for 35 cycles and 72 °C for 5 min. Amplicons
were pooled and sequencing was performed using MinION (Oxford Nanopores
224 Technologies, Oxford, UK) using the LSK-109 library preparation according to the
manufacturers recommendations and a Flongle flow cell generating 622,526 reads with the
226 high accuracy basecalling mode (MinKnow version 19.10.1).

228 2.7 *Int1* gene analysis

MinION fastq reads were converted to FASTA format using pefcon (part of the PETKit,,
230 Bengtsson-Palme, 2012) and translated into all six reading frames using the EMBOSS
transeq tool (40), options “-trim -clean -frame 6”. Resistance genes were identified using
232 local Usearch (41) against the ResFinder (42), FARME (43) and BacMet experimentally
confirmed (44) databases with 70% identity threshold (options “-id 0.7 -blast6out out.blastp
234 -evaluate 0.001”). Prior to this search, the FARME database was filtered to contain only actual
antibiotic resistance protein sequence, following the protocol in (45). A similar approach was
236 taken to identify markers for mobile genetic elements, using the MGEDB as reference (46)
(usearch local options “-id 0.7 -blast6out out.blastp -strand both”). The six-frame translations
238 were also scanned against Pfam (47) using HMMER (using defined trusted thresholds, the
“--cut_tc” option). All annotations were added to a FARAO annotation database (48). Lists
240 of annotated integron regions were then produced by querying the FARAO database with
different criteria.

242

2.8 Statistical Analysis

244 Statistical analysis of the microbial community composition was performed by converting the
ASV table produced by DADA2 into phyloseq objects using the “phyloseq” package

(v.1.24.2) in R (v 3.6.0) (36,49). The microbial diversity indices were analyzed using the “vegan” and “betapart” package from CRAN (50,51). The Shannon index was used for the alpha diversity while ASV richness estimate was determined by rarefying the amplicon dataset to the smallest sample (3538). Kruskal-Wallis was used to test significant differences between experimental conditions. Differential abundance analysis of taxa to identify the removal/replacement of microbes before and after the SQIDs was performed by DESeq2 (v 1.29.5) (52). To gain insight about the overall microbial retention exerted by the SQIDs, we partitioned the β -diversity into two components: turnover (β -sim) and nestedness (β -ness) (51). Multivariate statistics were investigated with generalized linear models (GLMs) for multivariate abundance data using the mvabund package (53). Predictive models were fitted using “negative.binomial” family, often being appropriate for count data, with the mean–variance function tending to be quadratic rather than linear. Non-metric multi-dimensional Scaling (NMDS) was used to visualize the microbial community composition and how it aligned with different variables (heavy metals, *intl1*, sample type). The *intl1* data were further normalized by the 16S rRNA copy numbers. The qPCR data (16S rRNA, *intl1*) were log-transformed prior to statistical analysis. We used the BioEnv approach (54) to examine the best subset of environmental variables, correlating with community dissimilarities. In addition, to explore the correlation between microbial community’s relative abundance, heavy metals, and *intl1* gene abundances, Spearman correlations were calculated. To test if the heavy metal could predict the bacterial composition, we assessed the significance of the correlation using the “adonis2” function in vegan (55) (v 3.6.0). The relationship between heavy metals and *intl1* gene abundance we tested by a Spearman correlation.

268

2.9 Data availability

270 The sequence data (Microbial community and *intl1* amplicon data) is deposited at ENA (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>) under the accession number: PRJEB41986. The underlying

272 ASV and metadata table can be found in the Supplementary Material
(Water_Runoff_ASV_Table.csv, Water_Runoff_Metadata.csv, Sand_Filters_ASV_Table.csv
274 , Sand_Filters_Metadata.csv).

276 3. RESULTS

3.1 Physico-chemical properties of road runoff, effluent of the SQIDs and filter media

278 As already described for this site by Helmreich et al. (56), the concentrations of Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn as well as the pollution level (WPI_{GFS}) of the analyzed road runoff (influent, I) and effluent samples of the two SQIDs (ESA, EF) showed strong seasonal variation with higher values observed in spring (Table 1). The higher EC in the spring samples indicate the influence of de-icing salt (sodium chloride) applied on-site, which contribute significantly to the toxicity of road runoff (33). As a consequence of the neutral to slightly alkaline pH of the samples, heavy metals were predominantly found in the particulate phase in the influent of the SQIDs. The dissolved Pb concentrations were below LOQ, as were half of the dissolved Cr and Ni concentrations. Consequently, it was only possible to determine the dissolved fractions of Cu and Zn, which were in median 18 and 21%. The overall pollution level, as indicated by the WPI_{GFS} , of the SQID effluents was lowered with lowest total heavy metal contamination in EF. In ESA 18% of Cu and 38% of Zn were dissolved. In EF larger dissolved fractions were observed: 63% Cu and 40% Zn. In the filter material sample FD1 showed higher Ni contents than in FD2, but showed lower values for the residual metals, respectively.

294 3.2 Microbial parameters of road runoff and SQID systems

The investigated SQIDs were colonized by a diverse range of microbial taxa. About 7,538 unique amplicon sequence variants (ASV) were detected for water samples (I, ESA, EF) and 5,599 in filter material FD1 and FD2 (Table 2). The 16S copies as an approximation for

cell counts ranged in the order of 10^8 - 10^9 copies per ml water. The copy numbers in the filter material was in the range of 10^7 copies per gram material. The class I integron gene cassette *intl1* copy numbers had high numbers in both filter material and water samples. Neither strong seasonal effects nor differences between the filter materials in terms of 16S copies were detected.

3.3 Microbial taxa of road runoff

In both systems, the most prevalent phyla consisted of Proteobacteria, – mainly composed by Gammaproteobacteria and Alphaproteobacteria, followed by Actinobacteriota, and Bacteroidota (Fig.2A). The main difference between the two devices was an increased proportion of Campilobacteriota for D1 that had itself established in the intermediate ESA (7%). At the genus level many genera ranged below 2% relative abundance (Fig. 2B). Most of the dominant genera like *Massilia*, *Alkanindiges*, *Sphingomonas*, *Hymenobacter*, *Acidovorax* and *Arthrobacter* that were found in the influent were still present in ESA. The ESA water samples showed a dominance of *Pseudarcobacter* (8%). In contrast to the water samples, the filter media of the SQIDs were clearly distinct (with minor vertical changes between the filter horizons; Figure S2). For both filter media, the most prevalent phyla consisted of Gammaproteobacteria and Alphaproteobacteria, followed by Actinobacteriota, Bacteroidota, Acidobacteriota, Chloroflexi, Desulfobacterota and Firmicutes (Fig.2A). On the genus level, *Hydrogenophaga* and *Rhodoferrax* (4.7% and 4.1%, respectively) were the dominant taxa in FD1 column, while *Arenimonas* (3.4%) and *Sphingomonas* (2.8%) dominated FD2 (Fig. 2B)

320

3.4. Retention of microbes by SQIDs

By partitioning the β -diversity into loss of species (nestedness) and species turnover, we could confirm that we mainly see a turnover of taxa (as ASV) between influent and effluent

of D1 (turnover = 0.81, nestedness = 0.04) and D2 (turnover = 0.90, nestedness = 0.02), pointing to rather a replacement of species along the water's flow of the SQIDs, than a species loss along the environmental gradient (Overall nestedness = 0.03). Differential abundances of microbial genera pointed to few differentially enriched genera for D1 and D2 (Figure S3). In D1 few genera showed up, but a high enrichment of C39 (Rhodocyclaceae; log₂ fold change of 28.5) was observed. In D2, a stronger removal was detected with 15 different genera with up to 21.2 log₂ fold change. On the ASV level, we identified several potential microbial risk factors, i.e., taxa that are derived from animal host systems and may be relevant for human health and hygiene (e.g. *Erysipelothrix*, *Shigella*, *Escherichia*, Table S2). The majority of these taxa were mostly found at very low relative abundances in the road runoff (<0.08%). Among the potential bacterial pathogens, the genus *Pseudomonas* was dominant in all samples followed by *Corynebacterium* in the effluent ESA.

3.5 Factors that influence the microbial community composition

Multivariate statistics separates the two effluent water samples EF and ESA, and further point to single metals, pH, and *int1* as additional influencing factors (Figure 2, Table S3). Moreover, seasonal changes and heavy metals (as sum of Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb and Zn molarity), impacted the species composition of the effluent samples (GLM: LRT = 12395, LRT = 9350, p = 0.006 and p = 0.03, respectively).

3.6 The influence of heavy metals on microbial taxa

In order to gain more insight on the role of heavy metals, we preselected the most predictive metals using bioenv, which indicated an influence of Ni, Zn and Cu on the microbial community (adonis2 for the total model: R² = 0.28, p < 0.001). Likewise, the 16S normalized

intl1 abundance showed linear relationships with the heavy metals concentrations Ni, Pb, and Zn with higher explanatory power for Ni and Zn ($R^2 > 0.71$, $p < 0.001$; Figure 3). This was further explored by co-correlating the most abundant 50 genera with, heavy metals, and *intl1* (Figure 4). A total of seventeen genera showed positive correlations with the metal concentrations, with *Aquabacterium*, *Hydrogenophaga* and *Trichococcus* associated with almost all the measured metals. Three out of the five heavy metals (Ni, Pb and Zn) showed the highest positive association with the relative abundance of genera ($R^2 > 0.50$, $p < 0.05$). On the other hand, *Aeromonas*, *Aquicella*, *Legionella* and *Pseudomonas* were showing significantly negative correlations to heavy metals.

3.7 The role of *intl1* in facilitating heavy metal resistances

Eleven genera were also co-correlating with *intl1* (*C39*, *Dechloromonas*, *Ferribacterium*, *Flavobacterium*, *Hydrogenophaga*, *Limnohabitans*, *Polynucleobacter*, *Pseudarcobacter*, *Trichococcus* and *Zoogloea*, $R^2 > 0.45$, $p < 0.05$). To further test these potential linkages of *intl1* and heavy metal resistance, we sequenced parts of the genes that were carried by the class 1 integrons in the systems. In total, 296 of the 622,526 reads from the integrons (0.05%) contained 98 different resistance genes. Of these, 82 were metal or biocide resistance genes (BacMet), 7 were clinically relevant antibiotic resistance genes (ResFinder) and 11 were antibiotic resistance genes previously only encountered in functional metagenomics studies (FARME). The most common antibiotic resistance genes were aminoglycoside resistance genes *aadA5* (found on 6 integron sequences) and *aadA4* (3 sequences), and fluoroquinolone efflux pump *oqxB* (4 sequences). Four other genes (*aac(3)-Ia*, *aac(3)-Ib*, *msr(D)* and *vat(E)*) were found only once. Most of the identified genes were involved in metal resistance, most commonly to heavy metals such as Pb, Cd and Zn (Figure 5). Cu and Ag resistance genes constituted around 13% of the identified genes, while antibiotic resistance genes accounted for 8.6% of the identified genes in total. Biocide

resistance genes made up approximately one-third of the identified resistance genes. The most commonly encountered resistance genes (> 6 occurrences) were the metal resistance genes *czrA*, *czcA* and *silP*, the biocide resistance gene *qacE*, and the efflux pumps *mexW* and *mexI* that also facilitate multidrug resistance (Table S4).

4. DISCUSSION

The results revealed that SQIDs not only retain heavy metals from road runoff, but also change the microbial community composition, alter the microbial load, and influence the mobile genetic elements. The overall analysis of the road runoff and the SQID samples indicated a predominance of Gammaproteobacteria, Actinobacteriota and Bacteroidota in the water and the respective filters media. These findings are consistent with previous reports, where these phyla have been identified in stormwater runoff as anthropogenic or erosion signatures (57–59). Similarly, the taxa that occurred in the SQID filter materials, like Desulfobacterota, Chloroflexi and Acidobacteriota, were all previously observed in an infiltration basin collecting highway runoff (17). Acidobacteriota are mainly found in low pH environments (60) tolerating various pollutants such as PCBs, petroleum compounds (61,62) and heavy metals (63). Only few taxa with pathogenic potential were present at low levels, and SQIDs are not designed for microbial retention, but their occurrence in the road runoffs warrants further investigation, in particular when the water treatment selects for mobile genetic elements and when the receiving waters are considered as critical resource.

4.1 Influence of heavy metals on the microbial community

Heavy metals with high concentrations in waters or soils show toxic effects to almost all microbes by affecting metabolic functions such as protein synthesis (64,65), thus leading to variations in microbial biomass and diversity (66). Several studies have shown how Cu, Zn, Pb and other heavy metals severely inhibited microbial biomass and could cause a reduction

of microbial α -diversity (67). The most common conclusion is that only high concentrations
 402 can significantly decrease bacterial biomass, whereas mid-low concentrations of heavy
 metals can increase microbial biomass and stimulate microbial growth (68,69). Our pH and
 404 metal measurements indicated that large fractions of the heavy metals are not readily
 bioavailable, nevertheless particulate-bound heavy metals are considered partly
 406 bioavailable (70). Anoxic conditions in particular may favor metal reduction as a source of
 energy, which generally leads to the release of metal ions into the water (e.g., Teiri et al.,
 408 2016). The prevalence of Desulfobacterota, which are responsible for sulfate reduction
 processes in stormwater retentions ponds (72), together with Chloroflexi that constitute a
 410 substantial proportion of the activated sludge community in wastewater treatment plants
 (73), point to anoxic processes that may occur in the SQID systems.

4.2. Heavy metal resistances are linked to *int1*

414 Ni and Zn, that showed an influence on the microbial community composition are known
 to induce different resistance mechanisms in bacterial metabolism (74–76). In this context,
 416 one interesting case was *Arcobacter* (and *Pseudoarcobacter*; Pérez-Cataluña et al., 2018),
 which was abundant in water and filter material. *Arcobacter* is known to form biofilms in
 418 various pipe surfaces, such as stainless steel, Cu, and plastic, colonizing water distribution
 systems (78,79). In our case, *Pseudoarcobacter* mainly correlating to Ni and Zn also, showed
 420 a strong correlation with *int1* gene abundance, thus suggesting the selection for bacterial
 resistance in *Pseudoarcobacter*. Both, metal and antibiotic resistance are commonly carried
 422 on mobile genetic elements. Integrons, in particular, have been recognized as marker for
 anthropogenic pollution (80). Prior research from different heavy metal polluted scenarios
 424 showed the development of resistances due to horizontal gene transfer (81,82), and there
 have been signs of co-selection of several resistant genes linked to clinically relevant
 426 antibiotic resistance (83). For example, resistance to As, Mn, Co, Cu, Ag, Zn, Ciprofloxacin,

β - lactams, chloramphenicol and tetracycline is achieved by reduction in membrane permeability (84,85). Similarly Cu, Co, Zn, Cd, tetracycline, chloramphenicol and β - lactams resistance is achieved through rapid efflux of metal or antibiotic (86,87). Therefore, heavy metals have potential to represent extended selection pressure for development of antibiotic resistance in microorganisms (88), and the transfer of these resistant bacteria in the environment may pose potential risks to human health (89).

4.3. Stormwater quality improvement devices as hot spots for horizontal gene transfer

The *int1* gene cassette analysis highlighted the presence of heavy metal resistances in these microbial communities, and the abundance of *int1* in the filter media, compared to the influent, suggests a strong selection pressure that aligns with a significant rate of horizontal gene transfer taking place in the systems. The amount of bacteria carrying class 1 integrons is consistent with data reported in polluted water systems like WWTPs (90). However, while previous research, normally described high removal rates of bacteria carrying class 1 integrons (55%) after treatment process (90), consistent with our findings, few studies has reported an increase in the abundance of the *int1* gene during the wastewater treatment (91,92). The variation of results observed among studies may be attributed to several factors such as selected resistant bacterial taxa, the climat and population conditions, occurrence of rain events before sampling as well as organic loading, pH and temperature. Horizontal gene transfer plays an important role in the evolution, diversity and recombination of multi-drug resistant strains (93,94). The class 1 integron has been associated with the presence of metal resistance genes (MRGs) and antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) (95,96). Our data suggests that SQIDs could be a high-risk environment for resistance development, similar to other hotspots, like manure, sewage and municipal solid waste (97–99). Furthermore, the presence of different resistance genes (e.g. *czrA*, *czcA* and *silP*), including the high proportion of multidrug resistance genes (e.g. *mexW*, (100,101)) as well as the strong

positive correlations to heavy metals, suggest that integrons contribute to the spread of MRGs and ARGs within road runoff drainage systems. While no typical antibiotic treatment related resistance genes (*sul1*, *ampC*, etc.) were identified, they may be present on other mobile genetic elements not targeted in this study.

4.4. Limitations and future directions

This study provides a first deeper description of road runoff microbial communities and contributes to our understanding of their potential environmental impact on the receiving water bodies. As a pioneer study, our study design was limited to two SQIDs and we could only monitor three seasons. Thus, we could not investigate if there are further effects by e.g. higher amounts of de-icing salts in winter, which potentially enhance mobility and bioavailability of the present heavy metals (33,102,103). Furthermore, we did not consider other systems such as infiltration basins or sand filters, and it remains an open question if our results are transferable to other road runoff drainage systems. However, it is obvious that runoff from a highly trafficked urban road carries a high microbial load with dominant signs of anthropogenic pollution. This comes with a relatively high risk related to the cycling of resistance genes and thus microbial risk mitigation practices should be considered in the future. Recently, it has become clear that microbes are critically linked to our changing environment, and that they have to be included in future policies (104). Future studies are therefore encouraged to assess the risks of discharge of microbes and their resistance genes from SQIDs and other SCMs into receiving environments.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank Heidrun Mayrhofer and Hubert Moosrainer for technical assistance. RL acknowledges the International PhD Programme “Environment, Resources and Sustainable Development” scholarship (#Parthenope University of Naples), monitoring of

the SQIDs by BH and SR was funded by the Bavarian Environment Agency (AZ: 67-0270-96505/2016 and AZ: 67-0270-25598/2019). JBP was supported by the Sahlgrenska Academy at the University of Gothenburg, the Swedish Research Council (VR; grant 2019-00299) under the frame of JPI AMR (EMBARK; JPIAMR2019-109), and the Centre for Antibiotic Resistance Research at the University of Gothenburg (CARE). CW was financially supported by TUM Junior Fellowship and the DFG project (WU 890/2-1). We would like to thank Dr. Klaus Neuhaus of the ZIEL Core Facility Microbiome, Technical University of Munich, Freising, Germany, for sequencing.

6. COMPETING INTERESTS

M.Sc. Liguori, Dr. Wurzbacher, and Dr. Bengtsson-Palme declare no competing interests. M.Sc. Rommel and Dr. Helmreich informed the Bavarian Environment Agency, as well as the SQID companies FRÄNKISCHE Rohrwerke and Hauraton on the content of this article prior to submission.

7. REFERENCES

1. Adachi K, Tainosho Y. Characterization of heavy metal particles embedded in tire dust. *Environ Int.* 2004;
2. Ball JE, Jenks R, Aubourg D. An assessment of the availability of pollutant constituents on road surfaces. *Sci Total Environ.* 1998;
3. Legret M, Pagotto C. Evaluation of pollutant loadings in the runoff waters from a major rural highway. In: *Science of the Total Environment.* 1999.
4. Eriksson E, Baun A, Mikkelsen PS, Ledin A. Chemical hazard identification and assessment tool for evaluation of stormwater priority pollutants. *Water Sci Technol.* 2005;
5. Huber M, Welker A, Helmreich B. Critical review of heavy metal pollution of traffic area runoff:

Occurrence, influencing factors, and partitioning. Science of the Total Environment. 2016.

- 502 6. Markiewicz A, Björklund K, Eriksson E, Kalmykova Y, Strömvall AM, Siopi A. Emissions of organic
pollutants from traffic and roads: Priority pollutants selection and substance flow analysis. Sci Total
504 Environ. 2017;
7. Dierkes C, Lucke T, Helmreich B. General technical approvals for decentralised sustainable urban
506 drainage systems (SUDS)-the current situation in Germany. Sustain. 2015;
8. Lucke T, Nichols P, Shaver E, Lenhart J, Welker A, Huber M. Pathways for the Evaluation of
508 Stormwater Quality Improvement Devices – the Experience of Six Countries. Clean - Soil, Air, Water.
2017.
- 510 9. Huber M, Welker A, Dierschke M, Drewes JE, Helmreich B. A novel test method to determine the
filter material service life of decentralized systems treating runoff from traffic areas. J Environ
512 Manage. 2016;
10. Hilliges R, Schriewer A, Helmreich B. A three-stage treatment system for highly polluted urban road
514 runoff. J Environ Manage. 2013;
11. Hathaway JM, Hunt WF, Jadlocki S. Indicator bacteria removal in storm-water best management
516 practices in charlotte, north carolina. J Environ Eng. 2009;
12. Pennington SR, Kaplowitz MD, Witter SG. Reexamining best management practices for improving
518 water quality in urban watersheds. J Am Water Resour Assoc. 2003;
13. Ahmed W, Hamilton K, Toze S, Cook S, Page D. A review on microbial contaminants in stormwater
520 runoff and outfalls: Potential health risks and mitigation strategies. Science of the Total
Environment. 2019.
- 522 14. Pandey PK, Kass PH, Soupier ML, Biswas S, Singh VP. Contamination of water resources by pathogenic
bacteria. AMB Express. 2014;
- 524 15. Page D, Dillon P, Toze S, Bixio D, Genthe B, Jiménez Cisneros BE, et al. Valuing the subsurface

pathogen treatment barrier in water recycling via aquifers for drinking supplies. *Water Res.* 2010;

- 526 16. Ma Y, Egodawatta P, McGree J, Liu A, Goonetilleke A. Human health risk assessment of heavy metals
in urban stormwater. *Sci Total Environ.* 2016;
- 528 17. Rotaru C, Woodard TL, Choi S, Nevin KP. Spatial Heterogeneity of Bacterial Communities in
Sediments from an Infiltration Basin Receiving Highway Runoff. *Microb Ecol.* 2012;
- 530 18. Ostendorf DW, Palmer RN, Hinlein ES. Seasonally varying highway de-icing agent contamination in a
groundwater plume from an infiltration basin. *Hydrol Res.* 2009;
- 532 19. Ostendorf DW, Rotaru C, Hinlein ES. Steady Groundwater Transport of Highway Deicing Agent
Constituents from an Infiltration Basin. *J Irrig Drain Eng.* 2008;
- 534 20. Hervé V, Lopez PJ. Analysis of interdomain taxonomic patterns in urban street mats. *Environ
Microbiol.* 2020;
- 536 21. Luo Y, Yue X, Duan Y, Zhou A, Gao Y, Zhang X. A bilayer media bioretention system for enhanced
nitrogen removal from road runoff. *Sci Total Environ.* 2020;
- 538 22. Lee S, Suits M, Wituszynski D, Winston R, Martin J, Lee J. Residential urban stormwater runoff: A
comprehensive profile of microbiome and antibiotic resistance. *Sci Total Environ.* 2020;
- 540 23. Scharping RJ, Garey JR. Relationship between aquifer biofilms and unattached microbial indicators
of urban groundwater contamination. *Mol Ecol.* 2020;
- 542 24. Allen HK, Donato J, Wang HH, Cloud-Hansen KA, Davies J, Handelsman J. Call of the wild: antibiotic
resistance genes in natural environments. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2010 Apr;8(4):251–9.
- 544 25. Lu J, Tian Z, Yu J, Yang M, Zhang Y. Distribution and Abundance of Antibiotic Resistance Genes in
Sand Settling Reservoirs and Drinking Water Treatment Plants across the Yellow River, China. Vol.
546 10, *Water* . 2018.
26. Kaevska M, Videnska P, Sedlar K, Slana I. Seasonal changes in microbial community composition in
548 river water studied using 454-pyrosequencing. *Springerplus.* 2016;

27. Liao H, Chapman SJ, Li Y, Yao H. Dynamics of microbial biomass and community composition after
550 short-term water status change in Chinese paddy soils. Environ Sci Pollut Res. 2018;
28. Bruno L. Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater , 23rd Edition. Journal of
552 Chemical Information and Modeling. 2017.
29. Hatt BE, Fletcher TD, Deletic A. Hydraulic and pollutant removal performance of fine media
554 stormwater filtration systems. Environ Sci Technol. 2008;
30. Muthanna TM, Viklander M, Blecken G, Thorolfsson ST. Snowmelt pollutant removal in bioretention
556 areas. Water Res. 2007;
31. Al-Ameri M, Hatt B, Le Coustumer S, Fletcher T, Payne E, Deletic A. Accumulation of heavy metals in
558 stormwater bioretention media: A field study of temporal and spatial variation. J Hydrol. 2018;
32. Dieter HH, Frank D, Gühr R, Konietzka R, Moll B, Stockerl R, et al. Ableitung von
560 Geringfügigkeitsschwellenwerten für das Grundwasser -- Aktualisierte und überarbeitete Fassung.
Lawa [Internet]. 2016;28. Available from: www.lawa.de
- 562 33. Bartlett AJ, Rochfort Q, Brown LR, Marsalek J. Causes of toxicity to *Hyalella azteca* in a stormwater
management facility receiving highway runoff and snowmelt. Part II: Salts, nutrients, and water
564 quality. Sci Total Environ. 2012;
34. Reitmeier S, Kiessling S, Neuhaus K, Haller D. Comparing Circadian Rhythmicity in the Human Gut
566 Microbiome. STAR Protoc [Internet]. 2020;1(3):100148. Available from:
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2666166720301350>
- 568 35. Callahan BJ, McMurdie PJ, Rosen MJ, Han AW, Johnson AJA, Holmes SP. DADA2: High-resolution
sample inference from Illumina amplicon data. Nat Methods. 2016;
- 570 36. R Development Core Team R. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R
Foundation for Statistical Computing. 2011.
- 572 37. Jaric M, Segal J, Silva-Herzog E, Schnepfer L, Mathee K, Narasimhan G. Better primer design for

metagenomics applications by increasing taxonomic distinguishability. In: BMC Proceedings. 2013.

- 574 38. Barraud O, Baclet MC, Denis F, Ploy MC. Quantitative multiplex real-time PCR for detecting class 1, 2
and 3 integrons. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2010;
- 576 39. Holmes AJ, Holley MP, Mahon A, Nield B, Gillings M, Stokes HW. Recombination activity of a
distinctive integron-gene cassette system associated with Pseudomonas stutzeri populations in soil.
578 J Bacteriol. 2003;
40. Rice P, Longden L, Bleasby A. EMBOSS: The European Molecular Biology Open Software Suite.
580 Trends in Genetics. 2000.
41. Edgar RC. Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST. Bioinformatics. 2010;
- 582 42. Zankari E, Hasman H, Cosentino S, Vestergaard M, Rasmussen S, Lund O, et al. Identification of
acquired antimicrobial resistance genes. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2012;
- 584 43. Wallace JC, Port JA, Smith MN, Faustman EM. FARME DB: A functional antibiotic resistance element
database. Database. 2017;
- 586 44. Pal C, Bengtsson-Palme J, Rensing C, Kristiansson E, Larsson DGJ. BacMet: Antibacterial biocide and
metal resistance genes database. Nucleic Acids Research. 2014.
- 588 45. Bengtsson-Palme J. The diversity of uncharacterized antibiotic resistance genes can be predicted
from known gene variants-but not always. Microbiome. 2018;
- 590 46. Pärnänen K, Karkman A, Hultman J, Lyra C, Bengtsson-Palme J, Larsson DGJ, et al. Maternal gut and
breast milk microbiota affect infant gut antibiotic resistome and mobile genetic elements. Nat
592 Commun. 2018;
47. El-Gebali S, Mistry J, Bateman A, Eddy SR, Luciani A, Potter SC, et al. The Pfam protein families
594 database in 2019. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;
48. Hammarén R, Pal C, Bengtsson-Palme J. FARAo: The flexible all-round annotation organizer.
596 Bioinformatics. 2016;

49. McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. Phyloseq: An R Package for Reproducible Interactive Analysis and Graphics
598 of Microbiome Census Data. PLoS One. 2013;
50. Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Kindt R, Legendre P, Minchin PR, O'Hara RB. Package vegan. R Packag ver.
600 2013;
51. Baselga A, Orme CDL. Betapart: An R package for the study of beta diversity. Methods Ecol Evol.
602 2012;
52. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data
604 with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014;
53. Wang Y, Naumann U, Wright ST, Warton DI. Mvabund- an R package for model-based analysis of
606 multivariate abundance data. Methods Ecol Evol. 2012;
54. Clarke KR, Ainsworth M. A method of linking multivariate community structure to environmental
608 variables. Mar Ecol Prog Ser. 1993;
55. Anderson MJ. A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance. Austral Ecol.
610 2001;
56. Helmreich B, Hilliges R, Schriewer A, Horn H. Runoff pollutants of a highly trafficked urban road -
612 Correlation analysis and seasonal influences. Chemosphere. 2010;
57. Leung HD, Chen G, Sharma K. Effect of detached/re-suspended solids from sewer sediment on the
614 sewage phase bacterial activity. Water Sci Technol a J Int Assoc Water Pollut Res. 2005;52(3):147–
52.
- 616 58. Shanks OC, Newton RJ, Kelty CA, Huse SM, Sogin ML, McLellan SL. Comparison of the microbial
community structures of untreated wastewaters from different geographic locales. Appl Environ
618 Microbiol. 2013;
59. McLellan SL, Fisher JC, Newton RJ. The microbiome of urban waters. International Microbiology.
620 2015.

60. Lauber CL, Hamady M, Knight R, Fierer N. Pyrosequencing-based assessment of soil pH as a predictor
622 of soil bacterial community structure at the continental scale. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2009;
61. Abed RMM, Safi NMD, Köster J, De Beer D, El-Nahhal Y, Rullkötter J, et al. Microbial diversity of a
624 heavily polluted microbial mat and its community changes following degradation of petroleum
compounds. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2002;
62. Sánchez-Peinado M del M, González-López J, Martínez-Toledo MV, Pozo C, Rodelas B. Influence of
626 linear alkylbenzene sulfonate (LAS) on the structure of Alphaproteobacteria, Actinobacteria, and
628 Acidobacteria communities in a soil microcosm. *Environ Sci Pollut Res.* 2010;
63. Gremion F, Chatzinotas A, Harms H. Comparative 16S rDNA and 16S rRNA sequence analysis
630 indicates that Actinobacteria might be a dominant part of the metabolically active bacteria in heavy
metal-contaminated bulk and rhizosphere soil. *Environ Microbiol.* 2003;
64. Tang J, Zhang J, Ren L, Zhou Y, Gao J, Luo L, et al. Diagnosis of soil contamination using
632 microbiological indices: A review on heavy metal pollution. *Journal of Environmental Management.*
634 2019.
65. Kandeler E, Tschirko D, Bruce KD, Stemmer M, Hobbs PJ, Bardgett RD, et al. Structure and function
636 of the soil microbial community in microhabitats of a heavy metal polluted soil. *Biol Fertil Soils.*
2000;
66. Kaurin A, Cernilogar Z, Lestan D. Revitalisation of metal-contaminated, EDTA-washed soil by addition
638 of unpolluted soil, compost and biochar: Effects on soil enzyme activity, microbial community
640 composition and abundance. *Chemosphere.* 2018;
67. Kandeler E, Kampichler C, Horak O. Influence of heavy metals on the functional diversity of soil
642 microbial communities. *Biol Fertil Soils.* 1996;
68. Fließbach A, Sarig S, Steinberger Y. Effects of water pulses and climatic conditions on microbial
644 biomass kinetics and microbial activity in a yermosol of the central negev. *Arid Soil Res Rehabil.*
1994;

- 646 69. Chander K, Brookes PC, Harding SA. Microbial biomass dynamics following addition of metal-enriched sewage sludges to a sandy loam. *Soil Biol Biochem.* 1995;
- 648 70. Zhang J, Hua P, Krebs P. The build-up dynamic and chemical fractionation of Cu, Zn and Cd in road-deposited sediment. *Sci Total Environ.* 2015;
- 650 71. Teiri H, Rezaei M, Nazmara S, Hajizadeh Y. Sulphate reduction and zinc precipitation from wastewater by sulphate-reducing bacteria in an anaerobic moving-liquid/static-bed bioreactor. *Desalin Water Treat [Internet].* 2016 Nov 13;57(53):25617–26. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/19443994.2016.1153983>
- 652 72. D'Aoust PM, Pick FR, Wang R, Poulain A, Rennie C, Chen L, et al. Sulfide production kinetics and model of Stormwater retention ponds. *Water Sci Technol.* 2018;
- 654 73. Zhang B, Xu X, Zhu L. Structure and function of the microbial consortia of activated sludge in typical municipal wastewater treatment plants in winter. *Sci Rep.* 2017;
- 656 74. Schmidt T, Schlegel HG. Nickel and cobalt resistance of various bacteria isolated from soil and highly polluted domestic and industrial wastes. *FEMS Microbiol Lett.* 1989;
- 658 75. Alboghobeish H, Tahmourespour A, Doudi M. The study of Nickel Resistant Bacteria (NiRB) isolated from wastewaters polluted with different industrial sources. *J Environ Heal Sci Eng.* 2014;
- 660 76. Nies DH. Resistance to cadmium, cobalt, zinc, and nickel in microbes. *Plasmid.* 1992;
- 662 77. Pérez-Cataluña A, Salas-Massó N, Diéguez AL, Balboa S, Lema A, Romalde JL, et al. Revisiting the taxonomy of the genus *Arcobacter*: Getting order from the chaos. *Front Microbiol.* 2018;
- 664 78. Assanta MA, Roy D, Lemay MJ, Montpetit D. Attachment of *Arcobacter butzleri*, a new waterborne pathogen, to water distribution pipe surfaces. *J Food Prot.* 2002;
- 666 79. Cervenka L, Kristlova J, Peskova I, Vytrasova J, Pejchalova M, Brozkova I. Persistence of *Arcobacter butzleri* CCUG 30484 on plastic, stainless steel and glass surfaces. *Brazilian J Microbiol.* 2008;
- 668 80. Gillings MR, Gaze WH, Pruden A, Smalla K, Tiedje JM, Zhu YG. Using the class 1 integron-integrase

670 gene as a proxy for anthropogenic pollution. ISME J. 2015;

81. Rehman A, Anjum MS. Multiple metal tolerance and biosorption of cadmium by *Candida tropicalis*

672 isolated from industrial effluents: Glutathione as detoxifying agent. In: Environmental Monitoring and Assessment. 2011.

674 82. Zafar S, Aqil F, Ahmad I. Metal tolerance and biosorption potential of filamentous fungi isolated from metal contaminated agricultural soil. Bioresour Technol. 2007;

676 83. Pal C, Bengtsson-Palme J, Kristiansson E, Larsson DGJ. Co-occurrence of resistance genes to antibiotics, biocides and metals reveals novel insights into their co-selection potential. BMC

678 Genomics. 2015;

84. Silver S, Phung LT. Bacterial heavy metal resistance: New surprises. Annual Review of Microbiology. 1996.

680

85. Ruiz N, Montero T, Hernandez-Borrell J, Viñas M. The role of *Serratia marcescens* porins in antibiotic resistance. Microb Drug Resist. 2003;

682

86. Nies DH. Efflux-mediated heavy metal resistance in prokaryotes. FEMS Microbiology Reviews. 2003.

684 87. Levy SB. Active efflux, a common mechanism for biocide and antibiotic resistance. In: Journal of Applied Microbiology Symposium Supplement. 2002.

686 88. Stepanauskas R, Glenn TC, Jagoe CH, Tuckfield RC, Lindell AH, McArthur J V. Elevated microbial tolerance to metals and antibiotics in metal-contaminated industrial environments. Environ Sci

688 Technol. 2005;

89. Bengtsson-Palme J, Kristiansson E, Larsson DGJ. Environmental factors influencing the development and spread of antibiotic resistance. FEMS Microbiology Reviews. 2018.

690

90. Paiva MC, Ávila MP, Reis MP, Costa PS, Nardi RMD, Nascimento AMA. The Microbiota and Abundance of the Class 1 Integron-Integrase Gene in Tropical Sewage Treatment Plant Influent and

692 Activated Sludge. PLoS One [Internet]. 2015 Jun 26;10(6):e0131532. Available from:

694 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0131532>

91. Stalder T, Barraud O, Jové T, Casellas M, Gaschet M, Dagot C, et al. Quantitative and qualitative
696 impact of hospital effluent on dissemination of the integron pool. ISME J [Internet]. 2014;8(4):768–
77. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2013.189>

698 92. LaPara TM, Burch TR, McNamara PJ, Tan DT, Yan M, Eichmiller JJ. Tertiary-treated municipal
wastewater is a significant point source of antibiotic resistance genes into Duluth-Superior Harbor.
700 Environ Sci Technol. 2011 Nov;45(22):9543–9.

93. Nakamura Y, Itoh T, Matsuda H, Gojobori T. Biased biological functions of horizontally-transferred
702 genes in prokaryotic genomes. Nat Genet. 2004;

94. Thomas CM, Nielsen KM. Mechanisms of, and barriers to, horizontal gene transfer between
704 bacteria. Nature Reviews Microbiology. 2005.

95. Li LG, Xia Y, Zhang T. Co-occurrence of antibiotic and metal resistance genes revealed in complete
706 genome collection. ISME J. 2017;

96. Stokes HW, Hall RM. A novel family of potentially mobile DNA elements encoding site-specific gene-
708 integration functions: integrons. Mol Microbiol. 1989;

97. He LY, Liu YS, Su HC, Zhao JL, Liu SS, Chen J, et al. Dissemination of antibiotic resistance genes in
710 representative broiler feedlots environments: Identification of indicator ARGs and correlations with
environmental variables. Environ Sci Technol. 2014;

712 98. Su JQ, Wei B, Ou-Yang WY, Huang FY, Zhao Y, Xu HJ, et al. Antibiotic Resistome and Its Association
with Bacterial Communities during Sewage Sludge Composting. Environ Sci Technol. 2015;

714 99. Wang P, Wu D, You X, Li W, Xie B. Distribution of antibiotics, metals and antibiotic resistance genes
during landfilling process in major municipal solid waste landfills. Environ Pollut. 2019;

716 100. Nikaido H. Multidrug resistance in bacteria. Annual Review of Biochemistry. 2009.

101. Chakraborty AK. Multi-Drug Resistant Genes in Bacteria and 21st Century Problems Associated with

- 718 Antibiotic Therapy. Biotechnol An Indian J. 2016;
102. Schuler MS, Relyea RA. A Review of the Combined Threats of Road Salts and Heavy Metals to
720 Freshwater Systems. BioScience. 2018.
103. Acosta JA, Jansen B, Kalbitz K, Faz A, Martínez-Martínez S. Salinity increases mobility of heavy metals
722 in soils. Chemosphere. 2011;
104. Cavicchioli R, Ripple WJ, Timmis KN, Azam F, Bakken LR, Baylis M, et al. Scientists' warning to
724 humanity: microorganisms and climate change. Nature Reviews Microbiology. 2019.

Tables

Table 1. Chemical analysis of the water and filter media samples, reported as median (25%–75%); total concentrations of Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn are presented. EC: electric conductivity, and WPI_{GFS}: water pollution index. The WPI_{GFS} was added to summarize the contamination level of the samples. I: Influent; ESA: Effluent of device D1; FD1: Filter material of D1; FD2: filter material of D2; EF: Effluent of device D2.

	Variable	Category	Sample size	pH (-)	EC (µS/cm)	Cr (µg/L)	Cu (µg/L)	Ni (µg/L)	Pb (µg/L)	Zn (µg/L)	WPI _{GFS} (-)	
Water	Sampling position	I	21	7.7 (7.5-7.9)	85.9 (73.2–120)	7.6 (1.3–23.6) ^b	56.2 (44.0–102)	5.9 (3.2–8.6)	4. (2.0–9.7)	150 (98.1–300)	3.6 (2.6–8.3)	
		ESA	12	7.6 (7.5-7.7)	176 (127–278)	8.2 (1.0–11.0) ^b	47.9 (25.2–77.8)	5.5 (3.9–6.8)	2.9 (1.3–6.4)	134 (87–216)	3.2 (1.6–6.7)	
		EF	8	7.7 (7.7-7.8)	168 (129–174)	3.8 (1.0–6.5) ^b	40.1 (23.2–44.6)	2.8 (2.0–3.3)	1.2 (0.5–2.2)	45.3 (33.9–61.9)	2.1 (1.6–2.6)	
	Season (influent, I)	Spring	9	7.7 (7.5–7.8)	120 (112–140)	14.8 (1.0–28.0) ^b	99.4 (44.0–144)	7.9 (3.2–10.8)	6.7 (1.8–12.3)	335 (98.1–424)	7.0 (2.6–10.9)	
		Summer	7	7.9 (7.4–8.1)	79.2 (70.0–99.7)	7.6 (3.7–20.9) ^b	56.2 (52.2–85.8)	4.6 (3.8–6.1)	4.5 (3.4–8.6)	150 (145–234)	3.6 (3.2–6.8)	
		Autumn	5	7.5 (7.4–7.7)	73.2 (58.6–74.8)	5.3 (1.2–19.3) ^b	52.2 (20.3–102)	6.6 (2.5–8.6)	4.0 (1.8–7.5)	122 (63.0–209)	3.5 (1.4–7.8)	
	Season (effluent, ESA and EF)	Spring	10	7.7 (7.6–7.8)	204 (150–374)	6.6 (1.0–9.0) ^b	41.2 (24.6–88.5)	4.1 (2.3–5.7)	2.5 (1.1–5.3)	101 (68.4–228)	2.9 (1.5–6.0)	
		Summer	6	7.8 (7.6–7.9)	153 (106–176)	5.2 (1.1–9.8) ^b	43.5 (31.4–49.1)	3.1 (2.7–4.5)	1.9 (1.2–2.7)	66.1 (40.7–109)	2.3 (2.0–2.8)	
		Autumn	4	7.4 (7.2–7.6)	155 (119–176)	3.5 (1.0–6.6) ^b	33.4 (19.5–49.7)	5.0 (3.4–6.8)	1.7 (1.2–2.8)	74.1 (54.6–105)	2.1 (1.4–3.1)	
							Cr ^a (mg/kg)	Cu ^a (mg/kg)	Ni ^a (mg/kg)	Pb ^a (mg/kg)	Zn ^a (mg/kg)	
	Filter media	FD1	2				7.5 ^b	32.9	42.0	<10	274	
FD2		2				22.4	41.1	11.7	<10	333		

^a mean of duplicate, ^b contains value below limit of quantification (LOQ), which was substituted by the value of the LOQ

Table 2. Water and filter media samples characteristics and statistical analysis for the different samples. I: Influent; ESA: Effluent of device D1; FD1: Filter material of D1; FD2: filter material of D2; EF: Effluent of device D2.

Variable	Category	Sample size	ASV richness	Shannon index	16S (copies x ml)	Intl1 (copies x ml)
Water	<i>I</i>	21	2601	4.92±0.3	1.75 x 10 ⁹ ± 1.57	2.04 x 10 ⁴ ± 5.11
	<i>Sampling position</i>					
	<i>ESA</i>	12	1927	4.72±0.6	2.73 x 10 ⁹ ± 2.73	6.43 x 10 ⁴ ± 10.0
	<i>EF</i>	8	2259	5.32±0.4	7.44 x 10 ⁸ ± 10.0	5.01 x 10 ³ ± 9.96
	<i>Spring</i>	9	1280	4.8±0.4	2.31 x 10 ⁹ ± 2.01	3.73 x 10 ⁴ ± 7.57
	<i>Season (influent, I)</i>					
	<i>Summer</i>	7	1469	5.1±0.2	1.11 x 10 ⁹ ± 0.72	1.11 x 10 ⁴ ± 1.57
	<i>Autumn</i>	5	905	4.7±0.4	1.62 x 10 ⁹ ± 1.4	2.59 x 10 ³ ± 2.03
	<i>Spring</i>	10	2305	4.93±0.6	3.00 x 10 ⁹ ± 2.95	3.08 x 10 ⁴ ± 3.22
	<i>Season (effluent, ESA and EF)</i>					
	<i>Summer</i>	6	2293	5.23±0.6	5.92 x 10 ⁸ ± 5.34	1.04 x 10 ⁴ ± 1.91
	<i>Autumn</i>	4	1113	4.68±0.6	1.30 x 10 ⁹ ± 1.29	1.10 x 10 ⁵ ± 1.75
Variable	Category	Sample size	ASV richness	Shannon index	16S (copies x g)	Intl1 (copies x g)
Filter material	<i>FD1</i>	3	848	5.3±0.03	2.72 x 10 ⁷ ± 1.22	2.62 x 10 ⁷ ± 0.67
	<i>FD2</i>	3	1486	6.1±0.1	2.58 x 10 ⁷ ± 2.59	2.67 x 10 ⁶ ± 1.95

Table 3. Kruskal-Wallis test employed to identify statistical differences in bacterial richness (ASV), diversity (Shannon), 16S and *Int1* gene copies along the two SQIDs water treatment. P-value significance codes: < 0.001 ***; < 0.01 **; < 0.05 *. n.a. (not applicable).

	n	Shannon		16S log(16S gene copies/mL)		<i>Int1</i> log(int1 copies/mL)	
		Chi-squared	increased in	Chi-squared	increased in	Chi-squared	Increased in
D1 Influent vs effluent	24	1.76	n.a.	0.65	n.a.	3.88*	Effluent (+2.01)
D2 Influent vs effluent	17	4.28*	Effluent (+1.09)	3	n.a.	0.85	n.a.

Figures

Figure 1. Distribution bar plot of the relative abundance of bacterial groups at Phylum (A) and Genus (B) level in untreated and treated road runoff and SQIDs' filter media. For better representation only taxa with relative abundance > 2% are displayed. I: Influent, ES: effluent of sedimentation, SA: effluent of sedimentation and adsorption, EF: effluent of filtration; FD1: filter material of D1; FD2: filter material of D2 (D1 and D2 as depicted in Figure 1.)

Figure 2. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of SQIDs effluents community data (n=20) and environmental factors. ESA: effluent of sedimentation and adsorption, EF: effluent of filtration. The correlation between species and environmental variables are indicated by a perpendicular projection of the species arrow-tips onto the line overlaying the environmental variable arrow.

Figure 3. Spearman correlations between biomass normalized *intl1* and heavy metals in SQIDs effluent water samples (n=20, nickel (A), zinc (B), lead (C)).

Figure 4. Heat map of Spearman correlation analysis between relative abundance of water effluents (n = 20) bacterial community and content of heavy metals at Genus level. Colors depict individual negative and positive correlations.

Figure 5. Distribution of different types of resistance genes in the class I integron gene cassette sequences

Supplementary data

Table S1. Insignificance threshold values for groundwater specified by the Länderarbeitsgemeinschaft Wasser (LAWA) in µg/L, which were used to calculate the water pollution index (WPI_{GFS})

Cr	Cu	Ni	Pb	Zn
3.4	5.4	7.0	1.2	60.0

Table S2. List of potential pathogenic taxa identified in road runoff and effluent of stormwater quality improvement devices. ESA: effluent of sedimentation and adsorption, EF: effluent of filtration. All the values are reported as percentages.

Genus	Influent	ESA	EF
Aeromonas	0.07	0.08	0.58
Burkholderia-Caballeronia-Paraburkholderia	0.01	0.03	0.10
Clostridium_sensu_stricto_1	0.08	0.03	0.01
Corynebacterium	0.03	0.16	0.05
Cryptosporangium	-	0.005	-
Enterobacter	0.004	0.001	-
Erysipelothrix	0.015	0.04	-
Enterococcus	-	-	0.006
Escherichia/Shigella	0.001	-	-
Legionella	0.03	0.08	1.91
Mycobacterium	0.04	0.06	0.04
Pseudomonas	2.04	0.47	8.64
Serratia	0.01	0.007	0.009
Staphylococcus	-	-	0.05
Yersinia	0.001	0.003	0.02

Table S3. Results from PERMANOVA analysis to test the effects of environmental parameters on microbial community composition treated runoff by the two SQIDs (effluents, n=20). p-value significance codes: < 0.001 ‘***’; < 0.01 ‘**’; < 0.05 ‘*’, 0.05 “.”.

Parameter		PERMANOVA	
		R ²	p-value
pH	20	0.09	0.01**
Intl1	20	0.08	0.03*
Cu	20	0.07	0.05.
Ni	20	0.11	0.0009***
Zn	20	0.09	0.003**

Table S4. Resistance genes encountered on at least six of the sequenced integrons

Gene	# integron sequences	Function	Database
<i>czrA</i>	24	Zn and Cd resistance regulator	BacMet
<i>qacE</i>	20	Quaternary ammonium compound-resistance (exporter)	BacMet
<i>czcA</i>	20	Cd, Zn and Co resistance (exporter)	BacMet
<i>mexW</i>	14	Biocide exporter	BacMet
<i>silP</i>	13	Ag efflux system periplasmic chaperone	BacMet
<i>arsB</i>	10	As Sb exporter	BacMet
<i>vexB</i>	9	Multidrug efflux transporter (biocide resistance)	BacMet
<i>merA</i>	7	Hg reductase enzyme	BacMet
<i>acrB</i>	7	Multidrug efflux protein (substrates include biocides as well as the antibiotics ampicillin and chloramphenicol)	BacMet
<i>vexH</i>	6	Multidrug efflux protein (including antibiotics ampicillin and novobiocin)	BacMet
<i>recG</i>	6	DNA repair protein, involved in Cr, Te and Se resistance	BacMet
<i>nia</i>	6	Cation transport ARPase, involved in Fe and Ni resistance	BacMet
<i>adeE</i>	6	Multidrug efflux transporter (biocide resistance)	BacMet
<i>aadA5</i>	6	aminoglycoside nucleotidyltransferase	ResFinder

Figure S1. Structure and treatment processes of the monitored SQIDs. Name of the two SQIDs are shown in green (D1 and D2), main processes are showed in gray boxes, effluents classification are in blue boxes. ESA: Effluent of Sedimentation and Adsorption, EF: Effluent of Filtration. The arrows depict the flow of the water.

Figure S2. Distribution bar plot of the relative abundance of bacteria community at Phylum (A) and Genus (B) level along different depth layers of filter media samples. Surface (0-5 cm), Medium (5-10 cm), Deep (10-15 cm). For the best representation only taxa with relative abundance > 2% are displayed.

Figure S3. Differential abundance analysis of bacterial relative abundance in D1 (A) and in D2 (B) effluents (n=20) compared to those of the influent. Core taxa with statistically significant difference ($\log_2FC > \pm 2$; adjusted p-value < 0.05) are displayed in the plot. The different colours depict bacterial phyla. Red arrow indicate taxa present in the influent, black arrow show taxa in the effluents.