



Hydrogeochemical drivers of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in the Maipo River basin, Chile: The role of treated wastewater effluent

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ABSTRACT

Antimicrobial resistance remains an imminent and serious public health challenge. Wastewater presents an important reservoir for antimicrobial resistance evolution and transmission in the environment. Here, we investigated antimicrobial resistance and water quality markers in the Maipo River basin, Chile, in a ~120 km longitudinal study of predominantly surface water ($n = 13$) in Santiago Metropolitan Region. Pollution indicators (e.g. NO_3^- , dissolved organic carbon (DOC), tryptophan-like fluorescence, IS1247, 16S rRNA, *merA* and *crAss64*) increased from upstream to downstream in the Mapocho and Maipo rivers and particularly downstream from Santiago and/or following wastewater discharge. There was no detectable AMR in sampled groundwater ($n = 2$; 50–120 m) nearby to the wastewater treatment plant, plausibly because the sampled wells represent relatively evolved groundwater with longer residence times, compared to river water. Wastewater tracers (Tryp-like fluorescence, $\log(16S \text{ rRNA})$, DOC, *crAss64*, PO_4) indicated strong associations with IS1247 ($p < 0.01$), whilst DOC, PO_4 , and $\log(16S \text{ rRNA})$ were associated with *sul1* ($p = < 0.05$). Results suggest mobile genetic elements (MGEs) such as insertion sequences may be promoted by, or enriched in, treated wastewater. These findings improve our understanding of how treated wastewater affects downstream water quality in populated river basins.

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1. Introduction

Recent reports estimate that antimicrobial resistance (AMR) could be attributed to 1.9 million deaths in 2050 [1]. The rapid spread of AMR poses severe challenges for public health, agriculture, and the environment, particularly so in Latin America, where surveillance, transmission and remedial studies are currently sparse and/or inadequate, often due to limited resources and/or laboratory capabilities [2].

Pathogens with drug-resistant properties (i.e. AMR) are a

problematic occurrence for treating disease [3]. Environmental microbiomes are known to harbour a large diversity of genes that could plausibly contribute to the increase of drug-resistant bacteria [4]. Yet, there is a relative lack of research on the existence of AMR within environmental reservoirs and particularly the effects of anthropogenic activities on surface water and groundwater [5,6]. Whilst Karkman et al. (2019) and Yu et al. [7] propose that subinhibitory levels of antimicrobials result in minimal selection pressure for AMR genes, Andersson and Hughes [8,9] provide evidence to the contrary, highlighting the importance of increasing the evidence base around AMR in environmental reservoirs and its potential implications.

In addition to antimicrobials, some water quality parameters are thought to impact and/or contribute to AMR dissemination, such that antimicrobial concentrations and reported AMR often

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show disparities [10,11]. It is recognised that some metals (e.g. Zn and Cu), antibacterial biocides and micro/nanoplastics may co-select for AMR [12–16], whilst other (bio)geochemical factors (e.g. temperature, nutrients and pH) may increase AMR prevalence by mediating stress-induced horizontal gene transfer (HGT [17–21]).

Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) are often ineffective at completely removing AMR-bearing pathogens [10,22–28] and water/wastewater treatment processes, arguably, provide suitable conditions for AMR selection [6,29–31]. Wastewater is often considered a potential hotspot for AMR dissemination because of high diversities of chemical and microbial pollutants which may be conducive to HGT. Whilst WWTPs may reduce absolute concentrations of AMR genes [32], high AMR richness and a high prevalence of mobile genetic elements (MGEs) such as insertion sequences (ISs) have been found in wastewater effluents, compared to less human-impacted environments [30,33].

Tracking relationships between wastewater and AMR in freshwater environments provides an important focal point of research in the study of AMR dissemination. Tracers of wastewater, such as nutrients, organic carbon and tryptophan-like fluorescence [34] and their relationships to AMR prevalence have been investigated to a limited extent [11]. Recently, the use of human gut bacteriophage markers (e.g. *crAss64*) have been used for microbial source tracking (MST) to identify human-derived faecal pollution [35,36]. Since *crAss*-like phages are not linked to integrons, these may provide useful indicators of pollution-AMR relationships as they are less likely to be co-selected with AMR-related genes [37].

Critical gaps remain on longitudinal transport of AMR genes in rivers and streams following WWTP discharge [30]. Furthermore, studies on AMR prevalence and transmission in wastewater and receiving waters may be of particular interest to public health in regions where wastewater is used for irrigation (e.g. Santiago [6,38,39]). In Chile, whilst a National Action Plan against AMR has been developed, the role of WWTPs in AMR dissemination may be overlooked [40–42]. Thus, the aim of this pilot study was to quantify the influence of wastewater effluent on water resources of the River Maipo basin in Chile. This was achieved by quantifying selected water quality and (bio)geochemical parameters, including AMR, in i) surface water from upstream and downstream samples in the Maipo River basin ii) groundwater and iii) wastewater influent/effluent of WWTP. Additionally, this study aims to quantify associations between key AMR-related markers and wastewater tracers to estimate the potential effect of wastewater on AMR prevalence in surface waters in Chile.

2. Methods

2.1. Site description

The Maipo River basin in Chile spans 250 km from its meltwater source high in the Andes to the Pacific Ocean, south of the port of San Antonio (Fig. 1a). The Maipo River provides the major source of irrigation and drinking water to the Santiago Metropolitan Region, supplying a population of 7.4 million [43]. Municipal wastewater in Santiago is predominately treated at La Farfana wastewater treatment plant (WWTP; Fig. 1b), with a capacity of 8.8 m³/s ([44]). The confluence of the Mapocho and Maipo rivers lies southwest of the city, although mixing between the two rivers occurs prior to the confluence. For example, the SE-NW flowing Canal San Carlos diverts water from the Maipo River into the Mapocho River. The Maipo River basin hosts large reserves of copper-iron-molybdenum porphyry deposits [45], which may increase dissolved metal and SO₄²⁻ concentrations [46,47]. River

water sampling sites ($n = 11$) were selected to represent a broad range of influence from wastewater, whilst incorporating a suitable spatial coverage (distributed ~20 km apart) and accessibility of sites. The selection of groundwater sites ($n = 2$) was based on the availability of boreholes within the vicinity (~3 km) of the WWTP.

2.2. Surface water and groundwater sampling

River water ($n = 11$), groundwater ($n = 2$) and wastewater influent/effluent ($n = 2$) were sampled from the Maipo River drainage basin (Fig. 1) in August 2024. Near-bank river water samples were sampled from the Mapocho River ($n = 6$), the Maipo River ($n = 4$) and an upstream tributary (Estero El Sauce; $n = 1$). Groundwater samples ($n = 2$) were from private boreholes (50 m and 120 m depth) and were flushed prior to sampling, to remove standing water from the pipes.

Water samples for the analysis for major/minor elements and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were filtered (0.45 µm; Sartorius Minisart® regenerated cellulose) into glass bottles which were sealed with Parafilm M tape. Prior to fieldwork, unused glass bottles were bathed in 10 % nitric acid for 24 h, rinsed copiously with ultrapure water and then baked (450 °C). Except during transit, water samples were stored at 4 °C until analysis and/or further processing.

A handheld meter (Myron L® Ultrameter II™) was used to measure pH, electrical conductivity (EC) and oxidation reduction potential (ORP) in the field. The instrument was regularly three-point calibrated using standard solutions (HI-6031, Certipur® pH 4.01, 7.00 and 10.00).

Environmental DNA (eDNA) samples were collected in sterile 2 L high-density polyethylene bottles and transported to the University of Chile, prior to filtration. Filtration took place at the end of each sampling day with a method previously described in Wilson et al. [11]. Samples were filtered (250–500 mL; Millipore Express™ PLUS 0.22 µm) in triplicate; filter papers were stored at –20 °C until analysis. Samples were transported from Chile to the UK using a pre-chilled vacuum flask containing an icepack. For analysis of eDNA, filter papers were transported on dry ice from Manchester to Resistomap Oy, Helsinki, Finland, in December 2024.

2.3. Quantification of target gene sequences

2.3.1. DNA extraction

The DNA was extracted using the DNeasy PowerWater Kit (QIAGEN) at Resistomap Oy, according to the manufacturer's protocol. The final eluted volume of DNA was 50 µL. To ensure that the DNA extraction was satisfactory, the quality and quantity of the DNA was measured using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer and Qubit fluorometer, respectively.

2.3.2. High-throughput smartchip qPCR (HT-qPCR)

AMR genes, MGEs, taxonomic and pathogen markers were quantified using High-Throughput Smartchip qPCR (HT-qPCR) at Resistomap Oy. The SmartChip MultiSample Nanodispenser filled 5184 reaction wells with SmartChip TB Green Expression Master Mix, 20 nL of template DNA, 300 nM of forward and reverse primers, nuclease-free water and 1 % glycerol. The qPCR conditions included an initial denaturation step from 95 °C for 10 min, 40 cycles with denaturation at 95 °C for 15 s, annealing at 60 °C for 60 s. To verify the specificity of amplification, melt curve analysis was performed following the completion of the cycling, with an increase to 97 °C at 0.4 °C/step.

The selection of 36 target sequences was based on i) AMR-

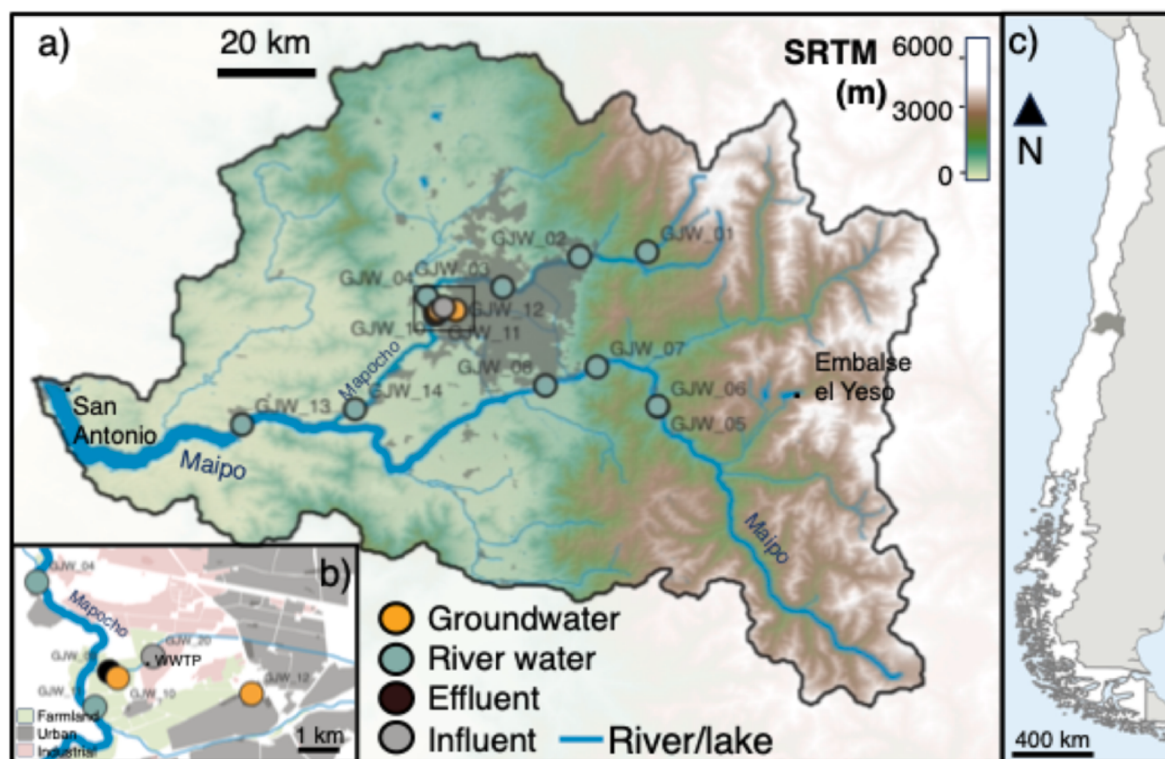


Fig. 1. River water ($n = 11$), groundwater ($n = 2$) and wastewater influent ($n = 1$) and effluent ($n = 1$) was sampled to understand longitudinal changes in AMR-related water quality in a) the Maipo River drainage basin as delineated (black border) using the HydroBASINS dataset [48], b) the area surrounding La Farfana wastewater treatment plant (WWTP), noting the coordinates of site GJW_12 have been rounded for confidentiality and c) Santiago Metropolitan Region, Chile. Elevation was derived from the NASA Shuttle Radar Topography Mission [49]. Land use and water features were obtained from OpenStreetMap under an Open Database License [50].

related clinical priorities in Latin America [1], ii) the WHO Bacterial Priority List (2024), iii) comparison to results obtained in prior studies of the authors (e.g. Wilson et al. [11]), iv) representation of a broad range of AMR, MGEs and related resistance markers and v) based on advice from Resistomap, including the 96-Genes Panel for One Health list [51]. The target gene assay was optimised to maximise the chance of gene detection (noting that a range of gene abundances would be expected across the sample set), using information from a global surface water database, provided by Resistomap. The 36 targeted genes were: *bla*_{TEM}, *bla*_{SHV}, *bla*_{CTX-M}, *int1*, *IS1247*, *tnpA*, *IS26*, *IncP oriT*, *Tn5403*, *vanA*, *vanB*, *sul1*, *folP*, *merA*, *mcr-1*, *acrB*, *mdtA*, *tetM*, *tetW*, *tetA*, *aadA*, *rmtB*, *crAss64*, *qnrS2*, *qnrB*, *catIII*, *ermB*, *Bacteroides* spp., *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Escherichia coli* uidA, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus* spp., *Enterococcus* spp. and 16S rRNA. To normalise the abundance of genes to an estimation of the total bacteria population, genes were reported relative to 16S rRNA gene abundance – subsequently referred to in this manuscript as gene prevalence.

2.3.3. Data processing

Examination of melt curves and qPCR efficiency was used to ensure high quality data. Amplicons with unspecific melt curves and/or yielding multiple peaks were considered to be false positives and were discarded from the analysis. Only values smaller or equal to the threshold cycle ($C_T = 27$) were considered acceptable for detection [52,53]. Additionally, reactions with qPCR efficiency outside the range 1.7 – 2.3, as calculated from the standard curve, were excluded from the analysis. Furthermore, if the technical replicate ($n = 3$) standard deviation exceeded 0.5, the replicate with the largest deviation was discarded. If three technical

replicates remained following this step, a replicate with an efficiency furthest from 1.9 to 2.1 was excluded from the analysis. For each sample tested, the mean C_T ($n = 2$ or 3) of technical replicates was used to calculate ΔC_T values. If genes were detected in only one of the three technical replicates, the results were excluded. The $2^{-\Delta C_T}$ method ($\Delta C_T = C_{T, \text{Target}} - C_{T, 16S \text{ rRNA}}$) was used to calculate relative gene abundance, in relation to the 16S rRNA gene [54].

2.4. Geochemical quantification

2.4.1. Major and trace inorganic analytes

Geochemical analysis was undertaken at the Manchester Analytical Geochemistry Unit (MAGU) facility at The University of Manchester. Analytes SO_4^{2-} , PO_4 , NO_3^- , NO_2^- , Cl^- , Br^- were quantified with a Dionex ICS-5000 Ion Chromatography (IC) System with Dionex IonPac AS18 columns. Analytes Cr, Pb, Mn, Cu, Zn and As were analysed with mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Agilent 7500cx). To ensure analytes remained dissolved in solution prior to nebulisation, ICP samples were acidified to 2% HNO_3 (Aristar®, VWR Chemicals BDH®, UK). Multi-element Certified Reference Materials (CRMs; ICM1-500, LGC6020, LGC6026 and LGC6027; LGC Standards, UK) were used to verify the accuracy of the results. For the purpose of calculating of the Cl/Br molar ratio, in instances of non-detects in Br, the concentration of Br was set at half of the Hubaux-Vos detection limit ($\text{LoD} = 0.0243 \text{ mg/L}$).

2.4.2. DOC quantification

DOC was quantified with a Shimadzu® Total Organic Carbon Analyser (TOC-VCN; ASI-V autosampler) using the *TC-TIC* method; CRM QC1388 (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) was used to verify the

accuracy of the results.

2.4.3. Excitation-emission matrix (EEM) fluorescence spectroscopy

To establish the characteristics of the quantified DOC, excitation-emission matrix (EEM) fluorescence spectroscopy was utilised. As an indicator for wastewater-derived contamination, tryptophan-like (Tryp-like) fluorescence [55] was quantified using a Varian Cary Eclipse fluorescence spectrophotometer at the British Geological Survey, Wallingford. Data was processed using an R script adapted from Lapworth and Kinniburgh [56]. Methods for fluorescence spectroscopy including absorbance correction have been published previously [57,58].

2.5. Statistical analysis

All statistics and data analysis was undertaken in R (4.3.2) in the RStudio (2024.12.0 + 467) environment [59]. The ComplexHeatmap package in R [59,60] was used for heatmap analysis on normalised and centred values. Euclidean hierarchical clustering was used to identify similarity between variables and individual samples [60,61]. A Wilcoxon signed-rank statistic was computed for paired comparisons of non-parametric nature, as tested by the Shapiro-Wilk test, reported as “ $V = V\text{-statistic}$, $p = p\text{-value}$ ”, where the V -statistic is the sum of the positive signed ranks. Confidence intervals were reported at $p = 0.05$.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Data quality

The CRM bias for DOC was 1.8 % (QC1388). The mean CRM bias for Cl^- , Br^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} and PO_4 was 7.7 %, 6.7 %, 2.2 %, 10.7 % and 6.0 % (LGC6020 and VHGC1M1), whilst the repeat analytical error

($n = 3$) was 0.4 %, 18.6 %, 2.8 %, 1.1 % and 0.1 %, respectively. The CRM bias for Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn and As was 14.3 %, 20.4 %, 12.0 %, 10.4 % and 11.9 % (CRM6026 and CRM6027) whilst the repeat analytical error ($n = 3$) was 5.4 %, 27.4 %, 3.6 %, 33.3 % and 5.2 %, respectively. The repeat error for HT-qPCR relative abundance was as follows: *int11* (19.6 %), *tnpA* (23.2 %), *vanA* (15.7 %), *sul1* (6.5 %), *IS1247* (15.2 %) and *crAss64* (7.6 %).

3.2. Surface water and groundwater characteristics

Physicochemical, organic and AMR parameters were measured in water samples in the Maipo River basin. Water characteristics of river samples were as follows: pH 7.1 – 8.5; 127 – 1580 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ EC; 6.3 – 14.3 $^\circ\text{C}$; 0 – 5.1 mg/L DOC; 2 – 23 mg/L NO_3^- and 5 – 323 mg/L SO_4^{2-} (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 1). High EC, compared to previous studies in the Maipo basin, may be explained by strong interactions with evaporites, carbonates, andesites and granodiorites coupled with drought conditions at the time of sampling [62]. Groundwater ($n = 2$) was oxidised (230 – 460 mV ORP), brackish (1230 – 1880 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ EC) and low in DOC (0 – 0.4 mg/L). High NO_3^- (50 – 66 mg/L) was consistent with previous observations in Santiago Metropolitan Region groundwater [63].

3.3. Water parameters displayed prominent change from upstream to downstream

Selected water parameters were characterised to understand longitudinal hydrogeochemical changes in the Maipo River basin. The Maipo and Mapocho displayed distinct water characteristics – headwaters of the Mapocho were characterised by lower Cl/Br , EC, SO_4^{2-} , compared to headwaters of the Maipo (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 1). High Mn, Cu and Zn concentrations were detected upstream in the Mapocho and at site GJW_01 in

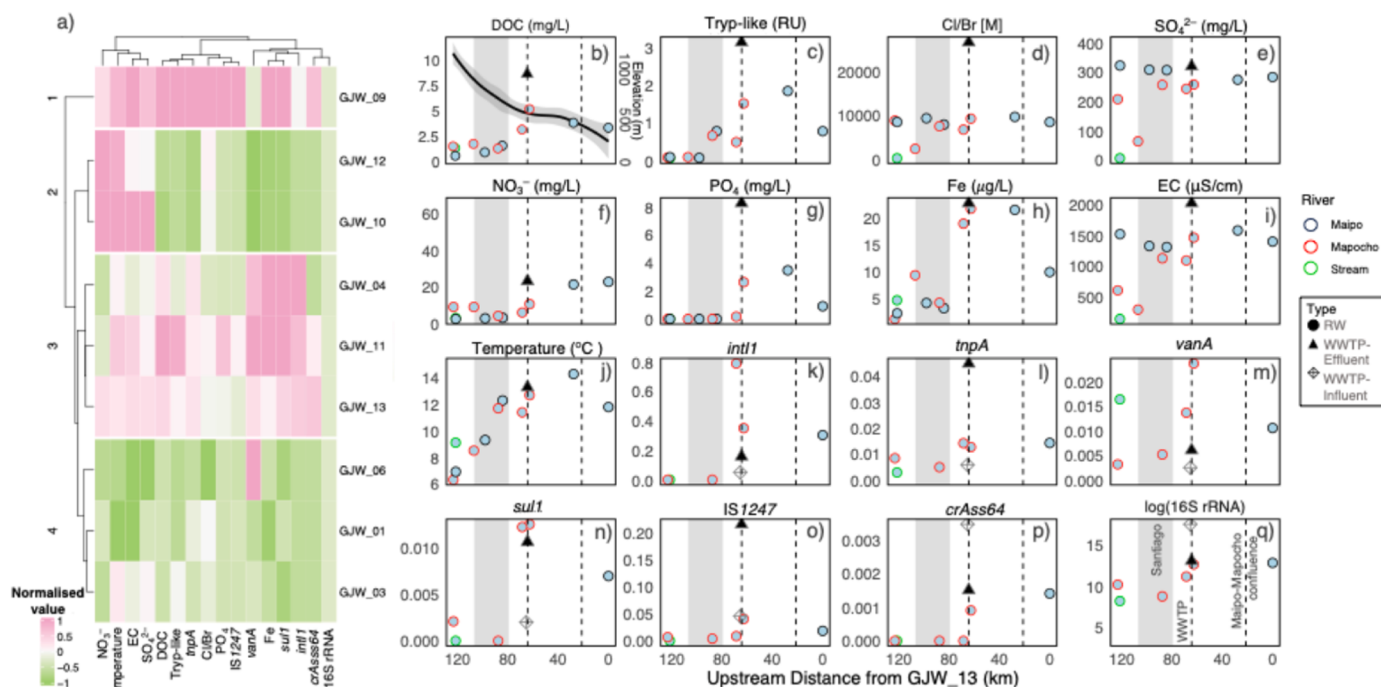


Fig. 2. Characteristics of water in the Maipo River basin; a) heatmap analysis of normalised and centred parameters reveals water quality was similar amongst four groups: 1 – WWTP effluent, 2 – groundwater, 3 – urban-influenced river water and 4 – pre-urban-influenced river water, b–q) longitudinal trends in water quality, whereby upstream distance refers to distance from site GJW_13 (Fig. 1). An elevation profile is shown in plot b (SRTM, 2013). Gene prevalence reported relative to 16S rRNA, whilst 16S rRNA is reported in copies/mL. Santiago Metropolitan Region is represented by the grey box; WWTP discharge is shown by the dashed line in the centre of the sub-plots and the confluence of the Maipo and Mapocho rivers is shown by the dashed line on the right.

particular – 1174 µg/L, 549 µg/L, 437 µg/L, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 1c–e), which was consistent with previous regional characterisation studies [47]. Otherwise, most indicators of pollution (e.g. NO_3^- , DOC, Tryp-like, IS1247, 16S rRNA, *merA* and *crAss64*) increased from upstream to downstream in the Mapocho and Maipo rivers and particularly downstream from Santiago and/or post-WWTP discharge. The longitudinal gradients observed in EC, SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- likely reflect a combination of natural hydro-geochemical evolution and anthropogenic inputs along the basin. Upstream waters draining the Andean catchment interact with volcanic and carbonate lithologies, which may partly explain elevated SO_4^{2-} and EC in the Maipo headwaters [62,64]. Further downstream, increases in DOC, NO_3^- and microbial markers coincide with urban influence and wastewater discharge from Santiago. These patterns are consistent with progressive mixing between relatively dilute mountain waters and increasingly anthropogenically influenced river water along the basin.

Spearman rank testing yielded no significant correlation with any AMR gene and downstream distance ($p < 0.05$), noting that the limited sample number impeded statistical testing. Whilst several genes (e.g. *vanB*) were detected upstream from Santiago and in fact *folP* was highest in Mapocho headwaters (Supplementary Fig. 1n), others (e.g. *merA*, *acrB*, *tetM*, *tetW*, *tetA*) were not detected prior to the Santiago Metropolitan Region. Interestingly, Andersson et al. [65] detected *tetM* and *tetA* in both agricultural and urban stretches of the Maipo Basin. The detection of IS26 and *IncP_oriT* occurred only after human settlement but before the influence of WWTP discharge – suggesting that WWTP effluent was not the

sole driver of MGE occurrence in the Maipo basin.

Whilst the abundance of 16S rRNA in the untreated wastewater (4.3×10^7 copies/mL) was two orders of magnitude higher than the effluent (4.9×10^5 copies/mL), in contrast, the prevalence of AMR genes in the treated effluent was significantly higher (by a factor of 3.6 ± 1.4) compared to WWTP influent ($V = 256$, $p = 0.01$, $n\text{-paired} = 27$). Whilst this presents important preliminary findings that are consistent with elsewhere in Chilean rivers [23], it does not necessarily provide evidence for WWTP-induced selection, noting i) statistical limitations of such a small sample number and ii) prominent longitudinal changes to bacteria and phage communities in the Maipo River [65], as this will likely affect MGE and/or AMR prevalence [7].

3.4. Wastewater tracers indicated strong associations with IS1247 and modest association with *sul1*

As a mediator of AMR gene mobilisation, IS1247 was measured and compared to six indicators of wastewater contamination (Fig. 3). The relationship between bulk microbial proxies, particularly Tryp-like fluorescence and log(16S rRNA) with IS1247 ($r_s = 0.83$ and 0.96 ; $p < 0.01$, respectively) suggests that higher density of microorganisms promotes cell-to-cell contact and thus the probability of genetic exchange via HGT [4]. As there was correlation between IS1247 and other wastewater indicators (Fig. 3; $p < 0.05$), co-variance may be influenced by numerous factors that favour HGT and IS prevalence [33,66], including antibiotics [8,9] and metals [67,68], though noting the significant

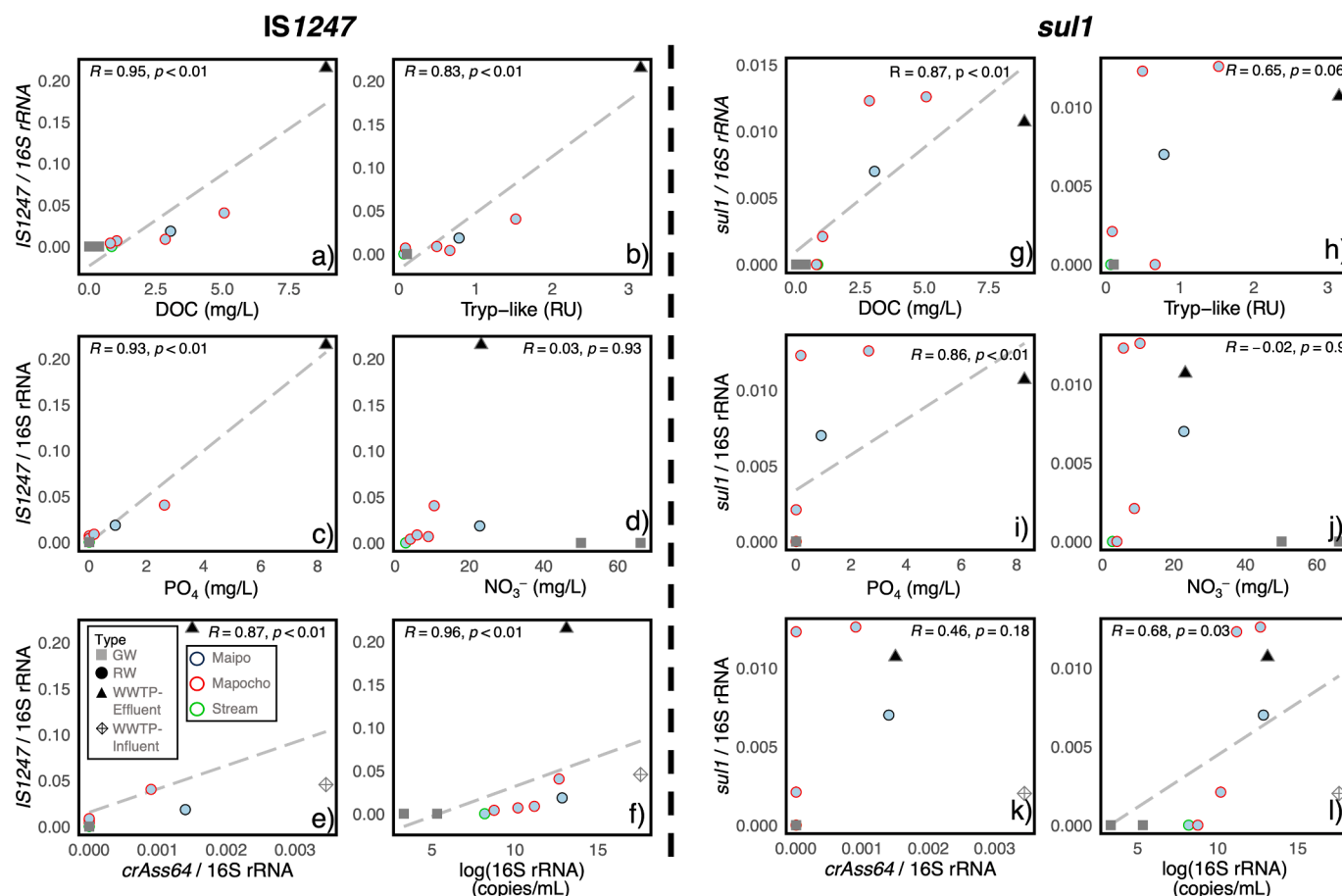


Fig. 3. Wastewater indicators DOC, Tryp-like, PO_4 , NO_3^- , *crAss64* and log(16S rRNA) were compared to a–f) IS1247 and g–l) *sul1* in the Maipo River basin. Spearman rank coefficient (r_s) with corresponding p -value is displayed.

downstream temperature gradient may also influence microbial activity in the Maipo Basin (Fig. 2j [69]).

Whilst IS1247 demonstrated a correlation with *crAss64* prevalence ($r_s = 0.87$), the relationship was weaker than say PO_4 and DOC ($r_s = 0.93$ and 0.95 , respectively), suggesting that human-derived faecal pollution could explain a large proportion of IS occurrence [36], with plausibly another input (e.g. agricultural run-off [18,65]), perhaps through *in-situ* selective pressure [8,66]. Given the absence of high IS1247 in groundwater elevated in NO_3^- , this may indicate that nutrients (or at least NO_3^-) do(es) not solely initiate *in-situ* promotion of HGT as suggested in Taihu Lake, China [21].

Similarly, wastewater tracers were tested for co-variance with *sul1*, an AMR gene often located on class 1 integrons [70]. Spearman rank testing revealed statistical correlation with DOC, PO_4 , and $\log(16\text{S rRNA})$; $r_s = 0.87$, 0.86 and 0.68 , respectively), but not to *crAss64* prevalence, Tryp-like fluorescence nor NO_3^- ($r_s = 0.46$, 0.65 and -0.02 , respectively; Fig. 3). Whilst genes *sul1* and IS1247 were correlated ($r_s = 0.77$; $p = 0.01$), stronger association between IS1247 and wastewater tracers suggests that IS prevalence may be particularly influenced by contaminants/conditions present in wastewater, even compared to highly co-selected AMR genes [33].

3.5. No AMR detectable in groundwater around WWTPs

Whilst high NO_3^- in groundwater near to the WWTP was suggestive of surface-derived contamination (Fig. 3d), AMR revealed a contrasting pattern. Although 16S rRNA was detected in both groundwater samples $2.7 \times 10^1 - 2.0 \times 10^2$ copies/mL, AMR genes MGEs nor taxonomic genes were detected in groundwater (50–120 m depth). Whilst a small sample size ($n = 2$) was utilised, both sampling points were located downgradient from the Santiago Metropolitan Region and nearby to the WWTP, reflecting a high likelihood of urban-derived contamination. Given the proximity to potential contaminants and noting that numerous AMR genes in agricultural soils were detected nearby in the Aconcagua Valley, Valparaíso [71], it is surprising that AMR genes were below detection limits. The absence of detectable AMR genes in groundwater may reflect a combination of factors including dilution, sorption, microbial competition and limited connectivity between surface water and deeper aquifers. It is perhaps most likely that the sampled wells represent relatively evolved groundwater with longer residence times, compared to river water, which may reduce the likelihood of detecting recently introduced microbial markers.

4. Conclusions

Longitudinal trends in Maipo River basin water quality and AMR were investigated. Generally, wastewater and AMR-related indicators increased from Andean headwaters to Santiago. Headwaters of the Mapocho were relatively enriched in Mn, Cu, Zn and *folP* prevalence, whilst Maipo headwaters were higher in SO_4^{2-} and EC. Wastewater tracers (Tryp-like fluorescence, $\log(16\text{S rRNA})$, DOC, *crAss64*, PO_4) indicated strong associations with IS1247 ($p < 0.01$), whilst DOC, PO_4 , and $\log(16\text{S rRNA})$; $p = 0 - 0.05$) were associated with *sul1*. These observations suggest that wastewater discharge may be associated with increased prevalence of AMR-related markers in downstream river water. However, given the limited sample number and potential co-variation with other environmental factors, the data cannot distinguish between direct selection within wastewater systems and downstream enrichment linked to broader anthropogenic pressures. Without indication of the species diversity of the samples, along with increased

statistical robustness, it is not possible to determine whether AMR prevalence was controlled *in-situ* by sublethal selective agents or any other process. There were no detectable AMR genes in groundwater around the WWTP, suggesting that exposure to AMR-related health risks in sampled groundwater was low, noting a small sample number. This study warrants further investigation, including with respect to temporal variation, but nevertheless presents important findings on how treated wastewater affects downstream water quality in populated river basins.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

George J.L. Wilson: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Ismael Casado:** Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Daren C. Goody:** Funding acquisition, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Linda Daniele:** Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Laura A. Richards:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Data availability statement

The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are not publicly available for data confidentiality reasons but may be available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Ethics approval

The authors declare that this study does not involve animals.

Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies

The authors declare that they did not use generative AI and/or AI-assisted technologies in the manuscript preparation process.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emcon.2026.100723>.

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