



Measurement Report: Effects on viability, culturability, and cells fragmentation of two bioaerosol generators during aerosolization of *E. coli* bacteria

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Abstract

Bioaerosol is a significant element of Particulate Matter (PM) and comprises various components, with bacterial species ranking as some of the most important. Reliable and consistent bioaerosol generators are essential for the investigation of bioaerosol in laboratory environments. Aerosol generators are utilized to evaluate the performance of bioaerosol collectors, explore the transport and deposition of biological particles, and study the health impacts and exposure to airborne microorganisms. The main goal of the bacteria experiments is to have an aerosol generator able to aerosolize the maximum number of viable and culturable cells at elevated particle concentrations. This study performs a comparative investigation of two bioaerosol generators: the Sparging Liquid Aerosol Generator (SLAG) by CH Technologies and the 1520 Flow Focusing Monodisperse Aerosol Generator (FMAG) by TSI. The analysis concentrated on the vitality, culturability, fragmentation, and nebulization efficiency of *E. coli* cells. The results indicated increased fragmentation using the SLAG nebulizer, and the size distribution varied according to the concentration of the injection fluid for FMAG. Both nebulizers imposed significant stress on bacteria during nebulization, halving their viability. Ultimately, the nebulization efficiency of FMAG is twenty times higher than that of SLAG.

Introduction

Bioaerosols, also referred to as primary biological aerosol particles (PBAPs), constitute airborne biological particles or materials of biological origin suspended in a gaseous medium (Després et al., 2012). PBAPs can impact human health and well-being, though their specific effects remain unclear. The study of these particles has evolved into a multidisciplinary field, combining expertise from physical, biological, and medical sciences. The scientific community maintains a strong interest in



32 bioaerosols due to their profound implications for human health, climate, and various atmospheric
 33 processes (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016).

34 An important component of bioaerosols is bacteria (Burrows et al., 2009). Bacteria are found
 35 ubiquitously in the atmosphere and play roles in atmospheric processes like cloud formation (Delort et
 36 al., 2010), and can also pose risks to human health, including causing respiratory illnesses and allergies
 37 (Bolashikov and Melikov, 2009).

38 Investigating bioaerosols and, in particular, bacteria, in real-world environments is challenging due to
 39 the absence of standardized sampling techniques, the biological intricacy and variability of bioaerosols,
 40 difficulties in analyzing low concentrations, the complexity of establishing the relationship between
 41 exposure and health outcomes, and the swift alterations in bioaerosol properties induced by
 42 environmental factors (Blais-Lecours et al., 2015; Mainelis, 2020; Mbareche et al., 2017).

43 The atmospheric simulation chambers (ASCs) enable the examination of bioaerosols by allowing for
 44 precise control and observation of atmospheric conditions, thus facilitating the analysis of bioaerosol
 45 behavior and interactions in ways not possible in complex, uncontrolled real-world environments. The
 46 ASC enables researchers to manipulate variables, including temperature, humidity, and gaseous
 47 pollutant concentrations, to examine their impacts on the viability and atmospheric behavior of
 48 bioaerosols, offering more precise and controlled experimental conditions compared to the
 49 unpredictable characteristics of the natural atmosphere (Brotto et al., 2015; Massabò et al., 2018;
 50 Vernocchi et al., 2023).

51 Recent years have seen the execution of research involving nebulized microbes in ASCs. A study
 52 assessed the disinfection efficiency of Weakly Acidic Hypochlorous Water (WAHW) in an atmospheric
 53 simulation chamber against four specific model bacteria (Norkaew et al., 2024). The impact of nitrogen
 54 oxides and light on the viability of three distinct bacterial species was examined in a separate study
 55 (Gatta et al., 2025).

56 Previously, these investigations commenced by nebulizing bacteria using aerosol generators whose
 57 principal aim was to maximize the quantity of viable and culturable cells aerosolized. The initial process
 58 of aerosolization, the nebulization, will impart device-dependent mechanical stress, such as physical
 59 shear and wall impaction, resulting from operation of the pressurized system (Stone and Johnson,
 60 2002).

61 The aerosol generators stress bacteria, and the mechanisms of cellular damage among different
 62 nebulizers primarily vary based on their operating principles and how they interact with microorganisms.
 63 Bioaerosol generators, in general, exert mechanical stress on bacteria during aerosolization, which can
 64 lead to cell membrane rupture and the release of genomic DNA (Danelli et al., 2021; Fahimipour et al.,
 65 2018; Liu et al., 2023; Zhen et al., 2014).



66 The goal of this study was to compare the performance of two aerosol generators in terms of
 67 nebulization efficiency, size distribution, bacterial fragmentation, and the stresses produced on
 68 bacteria during nebulization, including viability and culturability loss.
 69 The experiments were conducted within a small-scale aerosol test chamber in stainless steel. This
 70 device represents an optimal compromise between a full-scale chamber, as ChAMBRé (Chamber for
 71 Aerosol Modelling and Bio-aerosol Research) (Massabò et al., 2018) and a benchtop setup, specifically
 72 designed to investigate bacterial viability within a constrained volume. Functioning as an intermediate
 73 simulation chamber, this system significantly facilitates the manipulation of aerosol generators,
 74 mechanical equipment, and bacterial suspension. These tests provide a controlled environment for the
 75 systematic evaluation of nebulizer performance parameters, specifically including nebulization rate
 76 and particle size, thereby facilitating the selection of optimal devices for applications such as
 77 developing methods to control biohazardous aerosols, which reached a crescendo during the COVID-
 78 19 pandemic, or in general laboratory experiments (Kasler et al., 2025).

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81 Material and Method

82

83 Bacteria strain

84 For this study, the Gram-negative bacteria *Escherichia coli* (ATCC® 25922™, Thermo Scientific™ Culti-
 85 Loops™) were chosen as the bacterial species. These bacteria, with a typical size of around 2 µm, are
 86 usually utilized in bioaerosol research, having been proposed as a standard test bacterium (Lee and
 87 Kim, 2003; Ruiz and Silhavy, 2022). The *E. coli* suspension for nebulization was prepared by cultivating
 88 the bacterial strain in tryptic soy broth (TSB) and incubating it in a shaker incubator (SKI 4 ARGOLAB) at
 89 37 °C. The growth curve was consistently monitored by measuring the absorbance at $\lambda = 600$ nm using
 90 a spectrophotometer (Shimadzu 1900) until it reached the stationary phase (approximately 1 – overnight
 91 bacteria culture (ON)) corresponding to about 10^9 cells ml⁻¹. This approach is a common method for
 92 estimating cell culture concentration (Mira et al., 2022). At this stage, 20 ml of the bacterial suspension
 93 was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 minutes, and then the pellet was resuspended in 20 ml of sterile
 94 distilled water (MQ). The total bacterial cell concentration was quantified using an automated cell
 95 counter (QUANTOM Tx™, Logos Biosystems, QTx). Cell enumeration was performed following staining
 96 with Syto 9 fluorescent dye, and the quantification was achieved through automated acquisition and
 97 analysis of multiple fluorescence images of the stained cells (Gatta et al., 2025). The viable cells were



measured instead by staining the bacteria with LIVE/DEAD BacLight Bacterial Viability Kits (Molecular Probes by Thermo Fisher Scientific™) and capturing fluorescence images using an optical fluorescence microscope (BX43F EVIDENT Europe GmbH). The entire procedure is reported in Gatta et al. 2025. Culturable cells were quantified by enumerating colony-forming units (CFUs) on agar plates. Four Petri dishes were prepared using two distinct dilution levels, with two replicate plates for each dilution. The CFUs were averaged to ascertain the bacterial concentration in the solution, including its statistical uncertainty (standard error of the weighted mean).

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Experimental setup

Figure 1 illustrates the schematic diagram of the experimental setup. The experiments were conducted in a stainless-steel chamber with a volume of approximately 20 litres. Bacterial solution was aerosolized utilizing one of the two aerosol generators evaluated in this study: the Sparging Liquid Aerosol Generator (SLAG, CH Technologies) (Mainelis et al., 2005) and the Flow Focusing Monodisperse Aerosol Generator 1520 (FMAG, TSI) (Duan et al., 2016). The size distribution of the bacterial aerosolization was characterized using the Optical Particle Sizer (OPS) 3330 (TSI) in the optical diameter range of 0.3 to 10 μm , and the WIBS-NEO (Droplet Measurement Technologies®) in the range 0.55 $\div$ 10 μm . The aerosolized bacteria were collected with a BioSampler impinger (SKC Inc.) with a 20 ml cup using sterile distilled water as collection fluid. Each sample was collected at the BioSampler nominal flow rate of 12.5 l min⁻¹. During the experiment, the nebulization and collection processes were performed simultaneously. At the end of each experiment, the chamber was evacuated by a vacuum pump and subsequently purged with clean air passed through an additional HEPA filter. This cleaning protocol guaranteed that there was no contamination during experiments, as corroborated by the OPS and WIBS readings at the beginning of each experiment (the total and fluorescence particle number at the beginning of all experiments was roughly zero particles cm⁻³). An external connection with a HEPA filter was also installed to maintain the ambient pressure inside the chamber during the bacteria nebulization from the aerosol generator and the collection through the impinger.

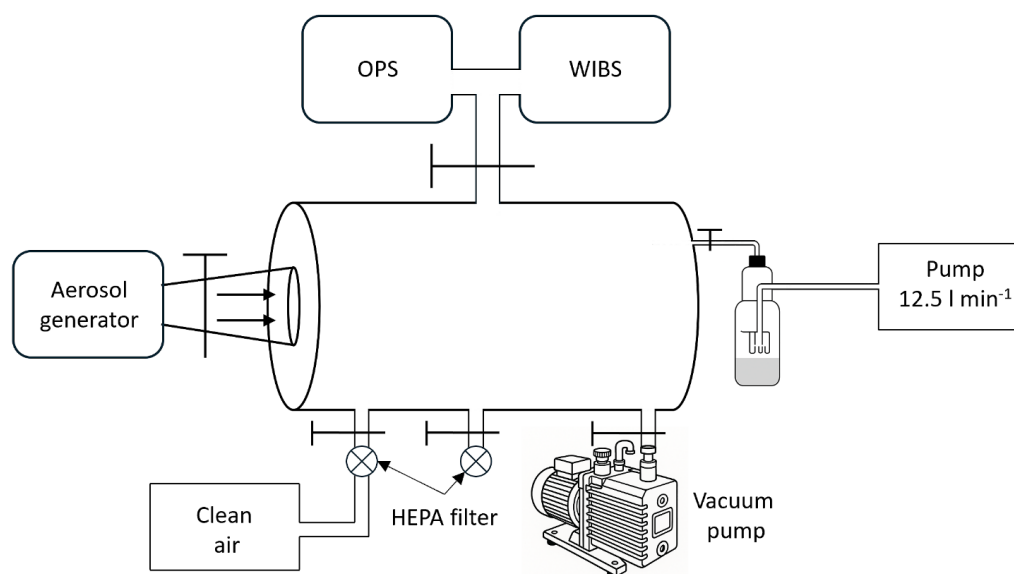


Figure 1: Experimental setup used to aerosolize *E. coli* with SLAG or FMAG nebulizer (aerosol generator). The particle counter (OPS and WIBS), the cleaning system (clean air and vacuum pump with HEPA filters), and the liquid impinger used to collect the bacteria solution nebulized are also reported.

Aerosol generator parameters and experimental settings

This study evaluated two aerosol generators: the SLAG and the FMAG. The SLAG (Mainelis et al., 2005) employs a bubbling process that simulates the natural occurrence of bubble bursting to produce particles. The liquid is dispensed with a syringe driver onto a 0.75" diameter porous disk with a nominal pore size of 2 μm . The air is forced from beneath the disk, creating numerous jets. The air jets disintegrate the liquid film into droplets that transport particles, and the smaller droplets eventually exit the device at a designated flow rate. The larger droplets revert to a reservoir and are not reintroduced into circulation.

The FMAG 1520 employs the aerodynamic flow-focusing effect to precisely regulate the diameter of a liquid jet, facilitating the generation of monodisperse droplets ranging from 17 to 90 μm in diameter, which are then dried with a dry dilution airflow (DF) to yield particles measuring between 0.8 and 12 μm in diameter (Duan et al., 2016). During the standard operation, a syringe driver pumps the liquid into the droplet generator; the generated liquid stream exits a 100 μm diameter nozzle and is elongated into a significantly thinner filament by the converging gas flow (FF). The resultant thin liquid jet subsequently disintegrates into uniformly sized droplets upon traversing a vibrating (v) ceramic aerosol production head. This modest shear stress typically allows biological cells to maintain viability, even following dispersion into uniform particles.



The aerosol generator parameters selected for our experiments are reported in Table 1: the SLAG settings, used for nebulizing *E. coli*, were identical to those employed in our prior experiments (Abd El et al., 2024; Agarwal et al., 2024; Gatta et al., 2025; Vernocchi et al., 2023). The duration of the nebulizing process with SLAG and the collecting process with the impinger of each experiment was 20 minutes. For the FMAG, we tested two conditions with the same dilution air flow and flow focusing pressure (to maintain the same pressure inside and outside the chamber during the experiment) but varying the vibration frequencies. The duration of the nebulizing process with FMAG and the collecting process with the impinger of each experiment was 30 minutes. The nebulization durations were selected to ensure that the bacterial count in the impinger collection liquid was above the minimum detection limit of the QTx and the fluorescence microscope (10^6 # ml⁻¹). For each setting of SLAG and FMAG, three replicated experiments with different *E. coli* strains were performed. All experiments were performed at a temperature of (22 ± 1) °C and a relative humidity of (49 ± 1) %.

Table 1: SLAG and FMAG parameters setting of each experiment.

SLAG settings					
	Air flow (l·min ⁻¹)		Liquid feed rate (ml·min ⁻¹)		Nebulized solution (ml)
EXP_S	3.5		0.4		8
FMAG settings					
	FF (psi)	DF (l·min ⁻¹)	v (Khz)	Liquid feed rate (ml·h ⁻¹)	Nebulized solution (ml)
EXP_F1	2.40	14.5	0	4	2
EXP_F2	2.40	14.5	200	4	2

Liquid impinger analysis

Upon completion of the experiment, the liquid in the impinger was examined to determine the total, viable, and culturable cell counts. The method employed to assess these three parameters was identical to that utilized for characterizing the nebulized bacterial solution.

Results and discussion

Viability and culturability of *E. coli* in sterile distilled water

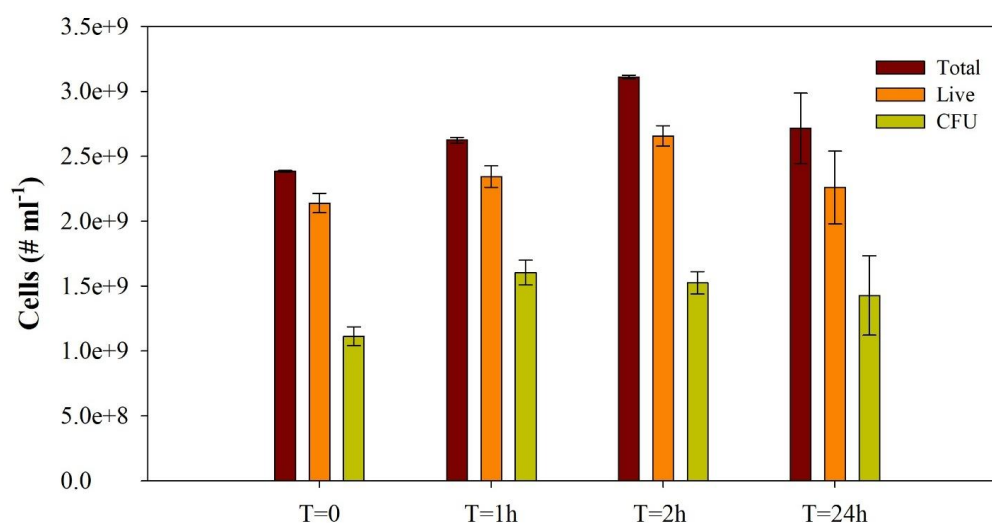


168

169 In these experiments, the *E. coli* bacteria were washed and resuspended in MQ, following a different
170 approach used in our previous research, where the bacteria were resuspended in physiological solution
171 (0.9% NaCl) (Abd El et al., 2024; Agarwal et al., 2024; Gatta et al., 2025; Vernocchi et al., 2023). The
172 physiological solution is ordinarily used for bacterial preparations and suspensions instead of deionized
173 or MQ water because it provides an isotonic environment essential for maintaining bacterial viability
174 and cellular integrity (Omotoyinbo and Omotoyinbo, 2016). However, the resuspension in MQ
175 eliminates the background signal produced by NaCl particles on the particle counter. It is shown that *E.*
176 *coli* in sterile distilled/deionized water at room temperature can survive for at least 8 days, even though
177 the viable population count decreases rapidly due to osmotic stress and the lack of nutrients (Aung et
178 al., 2016). The reason is that the bacteria cells exposed to distilled water experience hypotonic stress
179 owing to the absence of solutes in the external environment, resulting in an influx of water that may
180 cause cell enlargement, rupture (osmotic lysis), and subsequent mortality (Wood, 2015) For this
181 reason, we measured the CFU, live, and total *E. coli* bacteria at different time intervals, starting from the
182 resuspension of the bacteria in MQ, to determine how much MQ stresses the *E. coli*. The results are
183 reported in Fig. 2; T=0 represents the *E. coli* data immediately after the bacteria were resuspended in
184 MQ. The results showed that the total and live cell numbers increased over time, reaching approximately
185 $3 \cdot 10^9$ and $2.5 \cdot 10^9$, respectively, within 2 hours. The CFUs number increased in 1 hour and then the
186 number stabilized at a value around $1.5 \cdot 10^9$. The results indicated that *E. coli*, resuspended in MQ, is not
187 stressed during the short time required to run a chamber experiment (less than one hour). The potential
188 loss of bacterial viability and culturability, as measured in the impinger liquid, can be attributed to the
189 nebulization stress induced by nebulizers.



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191

192 Figure 2: Total, live, CFU of *E. coli* (# ml⁻¹) after the bacteria resuspension in MQ (T=0) and after 1, 2, and 24 hours.

193

194 Size distribution of nebulized *E. coli* and impinger results

195 Figure 3 shows the normalized size distributions of *E. coli* nebulized with FMAG and SLAG. The data in
 196 each graph represent the average and standard deviation calculated on the three experiments
 197 performed at each nebulizer setting, as detailed in Table 1. The size distribution of FMAG nebulization,
 198 assessed using WIBS and OPS, exhibits similarity across the two experimental conditions. Specifically,
 199 for EXP_F1, the mean and standard deviation of the Gaussian curve were (2.8 ± 0.6) μm for WIBS and
 200 (2.6 ± 0.5) μm for OPS. In F2, the values were (2.9 ± 0.6) μm for WIBS and (2.8 ± 0.6) μm for OPS. The
 201 variable-frequency vibration of the FMAG aerosol generation head does not significantly affect the size
 202 distribution of *E. coli* aerosols, although it influences the reproducibility of the results across
 203 independent experiments over each setting; in fact, the standard deviation of the data in each size bin
 204 of the experiments conducted at zero vibration frequency exceeds that of the experiments at a
 205 frequency of 200 kHz. This outcome is expected as the frequency of the vibrating ceramic facilitates the
 206 disintegration of the thin liquid jet into minute water droplets (Duan et al., 2016) harboring *E. coli*. The
 207 size distribution of the SLAG aerosolization exhibited different characteristics: specifically, the OPS data
 208 (fig.4) indicated a peak at the midpoint bin of 0.35 μm and another around 1 μm. The initial peak could
 209 be linked to the fragmentation caused by the stress from the aerosolization process, which likely
 210 originated from damaged bacteria (Park et al., 2009). When considering particles smaller than 0.5 μm
 211 as fragments, this fragmentation accounts for approximately 40% of the total nebulized particles. The

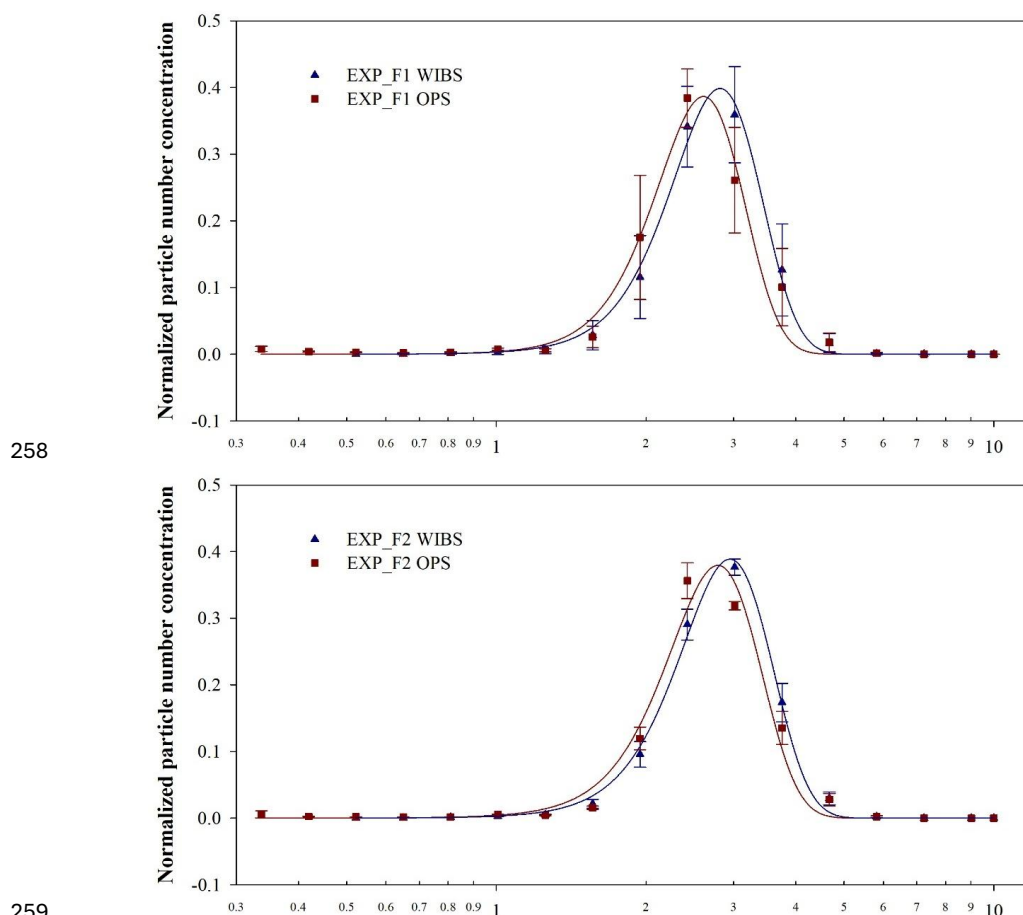


WIBS and OPS data, normalized over the same diameter range, exhibited a similar trend, with the WIBS peak slightly shifted, centered around $0.8 \mu\text{m}$ (fig.5). The peak is higher compared to the OPS peak. When comparing the size distribution of the two nebulizers, it becomes clear that fragmentation is absent in the FMAG experiments, suggesting that FMAG nebulization applies less stress on biological cells. It is worth noting that the size distribution obtained with FMAG and SLAG nebulizers differed: subtracting the fragmentation window, the SLAG experiments exhibited an *E. coli* peak around $0.8 - 0.9 \mu\text{m}$, analogous to previous research (Zhen et al., 2014), but FMAG demonstrated a value around three times greater (around $3 \mu\text{m}$). The larger particle diameter, achieved with FMAG, may be associated with the concentration of bacteria in the injection solution. When the bacterial concentration is high, during the nebulization process, the bacteria tend to aggregate, resulting in droplets that do not contain a single bacterium. The results corroborated this observation: the WIBS size distribution of *E. coli*, nebulized by FMAG utilizing an ON concentration of 1:100 (ON in MQ, diluted by a factor of 100), using the settings 2, has a peak approximately at $0.8 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 6), similar to the SLAG nebulization.

Table 2 presents the results of total *E. coli* bacteria obtained from the MQ collected by the impinger post-nebulization, detailing the ratio of viable cells and CFU relative to total counts (Live/Tot and CFU/Tot, respectively). Figure 7 shows the average and standard deviation of nebulization efficiency (NE) throughout duplicated tests with the two nebulizers. The NE is defined as the ratio of the total bacteria collected in the impinger MQ to the total bacteria in the injection solution, divided by the volume of nebulized solution (2 ml for FMAG and 8 ml for SLAG). Because the total and live cells collected with the impinger were less than the minimum detection limit of QTx and the fluorescence microscope, respectively (10^6 # cm^{-3}), the ON:100 data are not reported. For the FMAG, the two distinct settings yielded comparable Live/Tot and CFU/Tot ratios. Specifically, for the Exp_F1 settings, the average and standard deviation of Live/Tot and CFU/Tot across the three experiments were $(43 \pm 4) \%$ and $(19 \pm 4) \%$, respectively. In contrast, for the Exp_F2 settings, the average and standard deviation of Live/Tot and CFU/Tot over the three experiments were $(40 \pm 3) \%$ and $(21 \pm 2) \%$. The SLAG exhibited comparable outcomes for the Live/Tot ratio, yet a higher CFU/Tot ratio: the mean and standard deviation of Live/Tot and CFU/Tot across the three experiments were $(41 \pm 5) \%$ and $(33 \pm 7) \%$, respectively. The data obtained from the impinger's collected liquid can be compared with the data from the injection solution. The average and standard deviation of the *E. coli* Live/Tot and CFU/Tot ratios in the injection fluid across the nine studies were $(89 \pm 5) \%$ and $(50 \pm 17) \%$, respectively. Both nebulizers diminished the Live/Tot ratio by approximately a factor of 2. In contrast, the CFU/Tot for FMAG in both settings decreased by roughly a factor of 2.5, while the values for SLAG of the injection solution and MQ in the impinger were comparable within the error. Both nebulizers exerted strong stress on the aerosolized *E. coli*, halving the number of live bacteria collected in impingers. Finally, it is important to note how the nebulization efficiency is different between the 2 settings of FMAG and SLAG. In particular, the average and standard



247 deviation of NE were $(0.13 \pm 0.03) \%$, $(0.21 \pm 0.06) \%$, and $(0.008 \pm 0.002) \%$, for FMAG Exp_F1, Exp_F2,
 248 and SLAG, respectively. While the NE is similar for both FMAG conditions, the SLAG NE showed a value
 249 of about 20 times less than the FMAG NE. The absolute value of NE can be influenced by the geometry
 250 of the experimental chamber, in particular, the wall losses (Gatta et al., 2025); even so, it is evident that
 251 the FMAG can nebulize bacteria more efficiently than SLAG. This may be attributed to the mechanical
 252 stress incurred during the nebulization process and to the distinct nebulization techniques employed
 253 by the two nebulizers. As previously demonstrated, the SLAG nebulization produced high fragmentation,
 254 reducing the total cells collected in the impinger liquid. In addition, the liquid feed rate of FMAG is very
 255 slow (4 ml h^{-1}), and all the liquid dispensed in the droplet generator is nebulized. In contrast, the
 256 nebulization design of the SLAG system (in which small liquid droplets fall onto a porous septum)
 257 generates larger droplets that return to the reservoir rather than being nebulized.



260 Figure 3: Normalized size distribution of *E. coli* nebulized using FMAG settings 1 (a) and settings 2 (b) with WIBS and OPS.

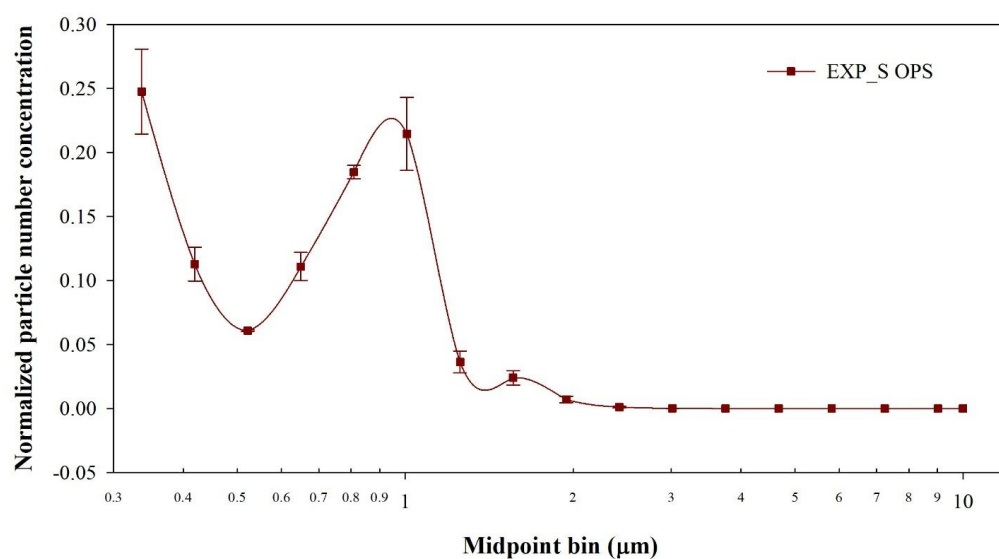


Figure 4: Normalized size distribution of *E. coli* nebulized using SLAG with OPS.

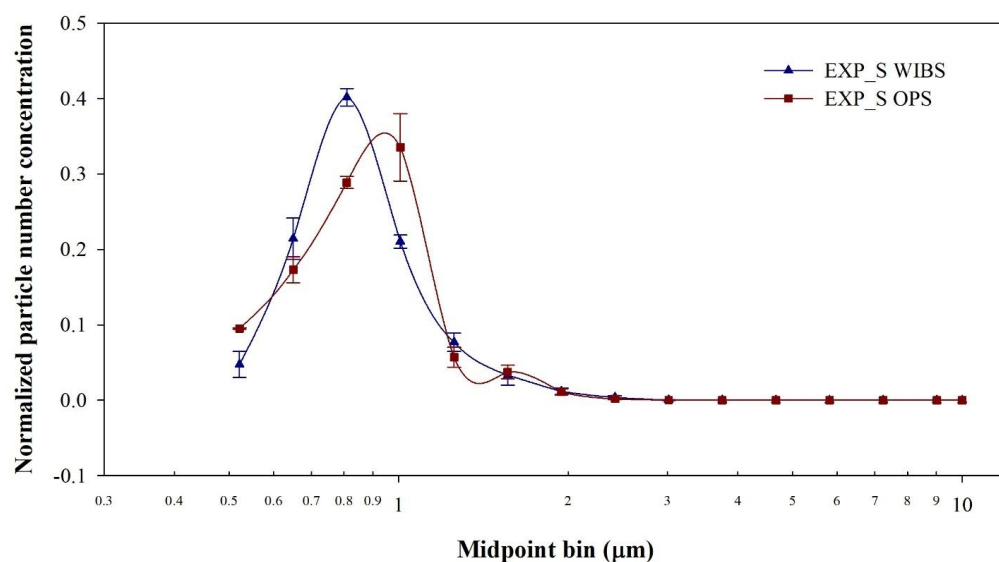


Figure 5: Normalized size distribution of *E. coli* nebulized using SLAG with WIBS and OPS. The data are normalized over the same diameter range, excluding the fragmentation region (OPS region less than 0.5 μm).

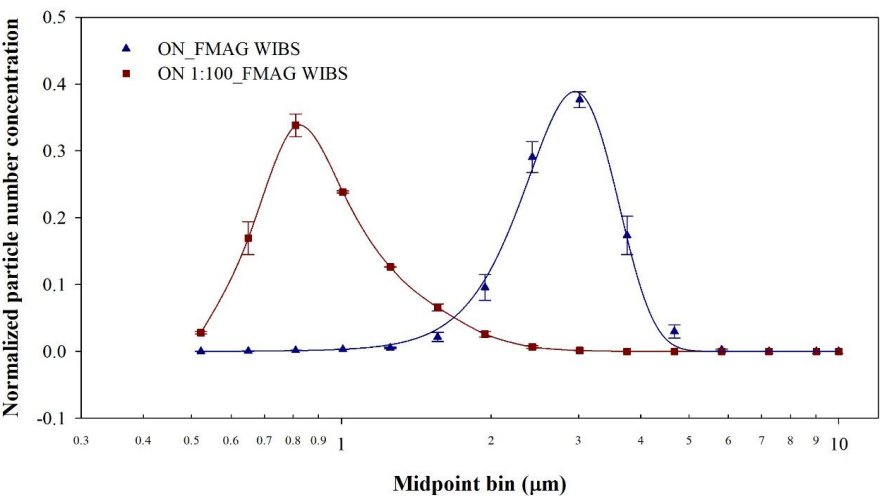


Figure 6: Normalized size distribution of *E. coli* (ON in MQ in blu and ON 1:100 in MQ in red) aerosolized with FMAG nebulizer using settings F2.

Table 2: Total *E. coli* concentration in the injection solution and in the MQ collected with the impinger over different nebulizer settings and experiments. The ratio between live and total, CFU and total bacteria in the liquid impinger is reported. Finally, the average and standard deviation of Live/Tot and CFU/Tot of each nebulizer and settings are reported.

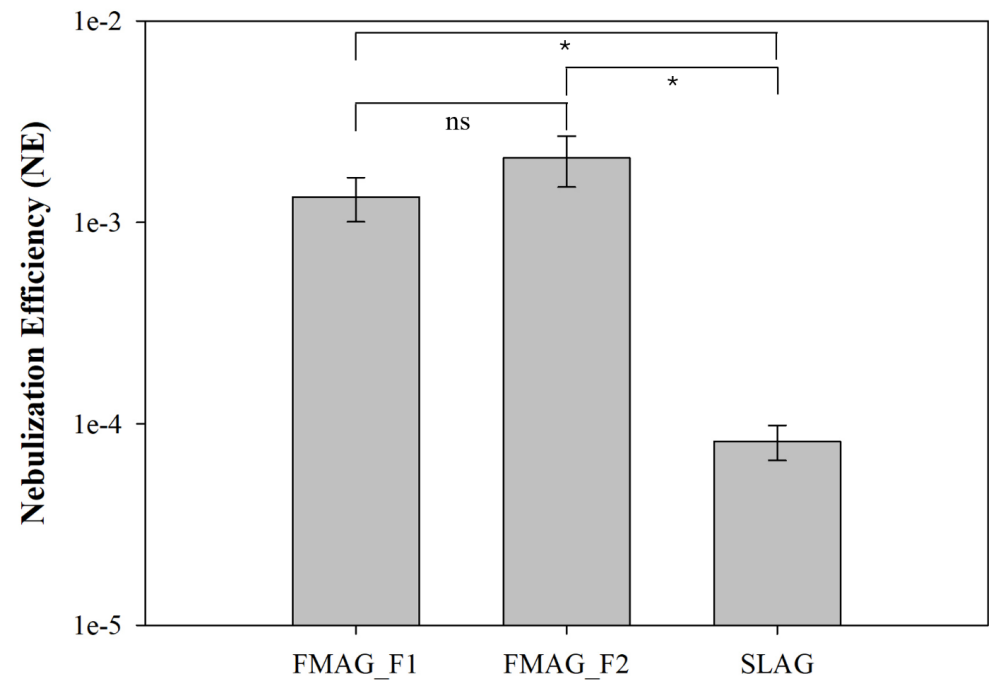
FMAG Settings F1				
Injection Total cells (# ml ⁻¹)		Impinger Total cells (# ml ⁻¹)		Live/Tot
				Impinger
				CFU/Tot
				Impinger
EXP1	(2.34 ± 0.04) · 10 ⁹	(4.8 ± 0.5) · 10 ⁶	(39 ± 3) %	(16 ± 2) %
EXP2	(4.6 ± 0.5) · 10 ⁹	(1.55 ± 0.01) · 10 ⁷	(44 ± 2) %	(17 ± 1) %
EXP3	(4.6 ± 0.5) · 10 ⁹	(1.18 ± 0.06) · 10 ⁷	(46 ± 2) %	(23 ± 1) %
Average ± Std.Dev			(43 ± 4) %	(19 ± 4) %
FMAG Settings F2				
Injection Total cells (# ml ⁻¹)		Impinger Total cells (# ml ⁻¹)		Live/Tot
				Impinger
				CFU/Tot
				Impinger
EXP1	(2.6 ± 0.2) · 10 ⁹	(8.4 ± 0.1) · 10 ⁶	(41 ± 1) %	(19 ± 2) %
EXP2	(2.45 ± 0.01) · 10 ⁹	(1.4 ± 0.5) · 10 ⁷	(37 ± 2) %	(23 ± 9) %
EXP3	(2.45 ± 0.01) · 10 ⁹	(9.1 ± 0.2) · 10 ⁶	(43 ± 2) %	(20 ± 2) %
Average ± Std.Dev			(40 ± 3) %	(21 ± 2) %
SLAG settings				



	Injection Total cells (# ml ⁻¹)	Impinger Total cells (# ml ⁻¹)	Live/Tot Impinger	CFU/Tot Impinger
EXP1	(3.0 ± 0.1) · 10 ⁹	(1.9 ± 0.1) · 10 ⁶	(43 ± 12) %	(39 ± 2) %
EXP2	(3.0 ± 0.1) · 10 ⁹	(2.4 ± 0.3) · 10 ⁶	(36 ± 12) %	(35 ± 5) %
EXP3	(4.3 ± 0.4) · 10 ⁹	(2.5 ± 0.6) · 10 ⁶	(45 ± 6) %	(25 ± 6) %
Average ± Std.Dev			(41 ± 5) %	(33 ± 7) %

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277



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279 Figure 7: average and standard deviation of nebulization efficiency of FMAG, in configurations F1 and F2, and SLAG. The P-
280 value of the Student t-test was calculated for each experiment. “ns.” stands for “not significant”, * p < 0.05.

281 Conclusion

282 The experimental results indicated that the MQ did not induce stress in the *E. coli* for the duration
283 required to complete the nebulization experiments. The viability and CFU of *E. coli* resuspended in MQ
284 were relatively stable and did not decline within 24 hours following the MQ resuspension of the bacteria.
285 The two FMAG settings yielded identical bacterial size distributions, suggesting that FMAG frequency



286 did not affect size distribution but solely impacted experimental repeatability. The size distribution of
287 FMAG was associated with the bacterial concentration in the injection solution. Utilizing the identical
288 FMAG setup, the nebulization of MQ with ON *E. coli*, diluted by a factor of 100, resulted in a shift of the
289 size distribution peak from roughly 2.8 μm to 0.8 μm . This indicates that with an ON MQ injection liquid
290 (total bacterial concentration $> 10^9 \text{ \#ml}^{-1}$), the bacteria probably tend to cluster, leading to droplets
291 devoid of individual bacteria. The SLAG nebulizer generated a significant concentration of fragments:
292 using a setting previously employed in our earlier tests (Agarwal et al., 2024; Gatta et al., 2025;
293 Vernocchi et al., 2023), the fragmentation rate is roughly 40% of the total nebulized particles. Both
294 nebulizers induced stress throughout the nebulization process, resulting in a twofold reduction in the
295 viability of the bacteria collected in the impinger. Finally, the FMAG had a nebulization efficiency
296 approximately 20 times greater than that of the SLAG.
297 This study represents a first step in investigating the viability of bacteria during aerosolization using two
298 different devices in aerosol generators. Our findings indicated that bacterial viability is significantly
299 influenced by nebulization procedures, and nebulization efficiency varies among different nebulizers.
300 Our work aims to be a focal point for reflection, investigating the use of these techniques to understand
301 natural aerobiological phenomena.

302

303 Competing interests

304 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

305 Author contributions

306 EG and FM thought up the study and performed the experiments. MB wrote the software to analyze the
307 WBS data. FM and EG performed all data analysis, with contributions from DM and PP. FP helped with
308 the development of the stainless-steel chamber. EG and FM wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed
309 and commented on the manuscript.

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Data availability

The dataset for this paper can be accessed at DOI: 10.17632/j962hdhc96.1 (Mazzei 2025)

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