1 Title: Adsorption of respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus, SARS-CoV-2, and F+ 2 bacteriophage MS2 RNA onto wastewater solids from raw wastewater 3 4 Laura Roldan-Hernandez<sup>1</sup> and Alexandria B. Boehm<sup>1\*</sup> 5 6 Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering, School of Engineering and Doerr School of 7 Sustainability, Stanford University, 473 Via Ortega, Stanford, CA, USA 94305 8 9 \* Author to whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: aboehm@stanford.edu, Tel: 10 650-724-9128 11 12 Abstract 13 Despite the wide adoption of wastewater surveillance, more research is needed to understand 14 the fate and transport of viral genetic markers in wastewater. This information is essential for the

15 interpretation of wastewater surveillance data and the development of mechanistic models that 16 link wastewater measurements to the number of individuals shedding virus. In this study, we 17 examined the solid-liquid partitioning behavior of four viruses in wastewater: SARS-CoV-2. 18 respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and F+ coliphage/MS2. We used two 19 approaches to achieve this: we (1) conducted laboratory partitioning experiments using lab-20 grown viruses and (2) examined the distribution of endogenous viruses in wastewater. Partition 21 experiments were conducted at 4°C and 22°C; wastewater samples were spiked with varying 22 concentrations of each virus and stored for three hours to allow the system to equilibrate. Solids 23 and liquids were separated via centrifugation and viral RNA concentrations were quantified 24 using reverse-transcription-digital droplet PCR (RT-ddPCR). For the distribution experiment, 25 wastewater samples were collected from six wastewater treatment plants and processed 26 without spiking exogenous viruses; viral RNA concentrations were measured in wastewater

27	solids and liquid. Overall, RNA concentrations were higher in solids than the liquid fraction of
28	wastewater by approximately 3–4 orders of magnitude. Partition coefficients ( $K_F$ ) from laboratory
29	experiments were determined using the Freundlich model and ranged from 2,000–270,000 ml·g <sup>-</sup>
30	$^{1}$ across viruses and temperature conditions. Distribution coefficients (K_{d}) determined from
31	endogenous wastewater viruses were consistent with results from laboratory experiments.
32	Further research is needed to understand how virus and wastewater characteristics might
33	influence the partition of viral genetic markers in wastewater.
34	
35	Keywords: virus, partitioning, wastewater, RSV, rhinovirus, SARS-CoV-2, MS2, F+ coliphage
36	
37	Synopsis: We examined the solid-liquid partitioning behavior of SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and
38	F+coliphage/MS2 RNA in wastewater influent. Overall, partition/distribution coefficients were
39	similar across viruses and temperature conditions.
40	
40 41	Introduction
40 41 42	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic
40 41 42 43	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to
40 41 42 43 44	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic
40 41 42 43 44 45	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic markers of common respiratory diseases like influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV),
40 41 42 43 44 45 46	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic markers of common respiratory diseases like influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and human metapneumovirus (HMPV). <sup>1–5</sup> This information can be used by
40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic markers of common respiratory diseases like influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and human metapneumovirus (HMPV). <sup>1–5</sup> This information can be used by public health officials to monitor infection trends, complement clinical surveillance data, and
40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic markers of common respiratory diseases like influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and human metapneumovirus (HMPV). <sup>1–5</sup> This information can be used by public health officials to monitor infection trends, complement clinical surveillance data, and strengthen public health responses. <sup>6</sup> Despite the widespread adoption of wastewater
40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic markers of common respiratory diseases like influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and human metapneumovirus (HMPV). <sup>1–5</sup> This information can be used by public health officials to monitor infection trends, complement clinical surveillance data, and strengthen public health responses. <sup>6</sup> Despite the widespread adoption of wastewater surveillance, research is still needed to understand the fate and transport of viral genetic
40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50	Introduction Multiple countries are currently monitoring the spread of COVID-19 by measuring the genetic markers of SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater and primary settled solids (hereafter referred to as wastewater matrices). A few wastewater surveillance programs also monitor the genetic markers of common respiratory diseases like influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and human metapneumovirus (HMPV). <sup>1-6</sup> This information can be used by public health officials to monitor infection trends, complement clinical surveillance data, and strengthen public health responses. <sup>6</sup> Despite the widespread adoption of wastewater surveillance, research is still needed to understand the fate and transport of viral genetic markers in wastewater matrices. This information is essential for linking wastewater surveillance

- 51 data to the number of individuals in sewersheds shedding virus, and disease incidence and
- 52 prevalence. <sup>7–9</sup>

53

54 Viral adsorption can be influenced by the physical, chemical, and biological characteristics of 55 wastewater (e.g., temperature, pH, organic matter) and characteristics of viruses (e.g., virus 56 structure and size).<sup>10–13</sup> Previous studies suggest that viruses and their genetic markers tend to partition more favorably to the solid fraction of wastewater matrices than the liquid fraction.<sup>2,14–17</sup> 57 58 For example, Mercier et al.<sup>2</sup> studied the distribution of endogenous influenza A virus (IAV) in 59 wastewater influent and primary sludge and found that the majority of IAV RNA was in settled 60 solids compared to suspended solids (larger than 0.45 µm) and the liquid fraction of these matrices. Li et al.<sup>16</sup> also examined the distribution of endogenous SARS-CoV-2 RNA (N1, N2, 61 62 and E gene targets) in wastewater influent and found that the majority of viral genetic markers 63 were in the solid fraction of wastewater. A few studies have also reported higher concentrations 64 of viral genetic markers in primary sludge compared to paired wastewater influent samples. For instance. Wolfe et al.<sup>18</sup> found that IAV RNA concentrations were 1.000 times higher in primary 65 66 settled solids than wastewater influent on mass equivalent basis. Similar results have been reported for SARS-CoV-2, MPOX virus, and pepper mild mottle virus (PMMoV) RNA where viral 67 68 RNA concentrations were enriched by 3-4 orders of magnitude in primary settled solids compared to wastewater influent.<sup>14–16,19</sup> Yin et al.<sup>20</sup> summarized the solid-liquid distribution of 69 70 different strains of enteroviruses, hepatitis A, adenovirus, rotavirus, and bacteriophages in 71 wastewater and activated sludge and found that viral adsorption can vary greatly between 72 viruses and wastewater matrices. Still, in all cases, viruses tended to partition to wastewater 73 solids.

74

A few studies have also examined the equilibrium and kinetic adsorption of viruses and their genetic markers in wastewater matrices. For example, Ye et al.<sup>12</sup> studied the sorption kinetics of four infectious lab-grown human virus surrogates (MHV, \$6, MS2, and T3) in wastewater influent and found that enveloped viruses partitioned more to the solid fraction of wastewater

79 compared to non-enveloped viruses. A similar study was conducted by Yang et al.<sup>11</sup> but using 80 molecular methods (quantitative PCR) to quantify the concentrations of four lab-grown 81 surrogates (Phi6, MS2, T4, and Phix174) in activated sludge. Partition coefficients (converted 82 from log K<sub>F</sub>; also known as the Freundlich coefficient) were  $4.1 \times 10^6$ ,  $5.4 \times 10^5$ ,  $1.2 \times 10^5$ , and 8.5x10<sup>3</sup> mL·g<sup>-1</sup> for Phi6. MS2. T4. and Phix174 in sludge, respectively. Yin et al.<sup>20</sup> also measured 83 84 the sorption of human Adenovirus 40 (HAV40) in primary and secondary sludge and found that 85 the majority of HAV40 DNA was adsorbed into the solids fraction of these matrices. Partition coefficients (reported as  $K_p$  in the paper) were 3.7x10<sup>4</sup> mL·g<sup>-1</sup> and 4.0x10<sup>4</sup> mL·g<sup>-1</sup> in primary and 86 87 secondary sludge, respectively. Researchers have also examined the equilibrium and kinetic adsorption of SARS-CoV-2 RNA onto passive samplers designed for wastewater surveillance.<sup>21</sup> 88 89 90 In this study, we examined the partitioning behavior of four viruses in wastewater: SARS-CoV-2, 91 respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), and MS2/F+ coliphage. We achieve this 92 through laboratory partitioning experiments and through examination of the distribution of these 93 viruses in actual wastewater samples. SARS-CoV-2, RSV, and RV were chosen for the study 94 because their equilibrium partitioning and distribution in wastewater has not been previously 95 studied. MS2 was chosen because it is widely used as a surrogate for pathogenic respiratory 96 viruses in lab experiments. These viruses represent both enveloped (SARS-CoV-2 and RSV) 97 and non-enveloped (RV and MS2) viruses. Additionally, the human pathogenic viruses chosen 98 in this study are targets for wastewater-based epidemiology monitoring efforts. Understanding 99 the partitioning behavior of viral genetic markers could inform wastewater sampling strategies 100 and help optimize methods for processing wastewater and primary sludge samples. Partition 101 and distribution coefficients can also help inform complex mathematical models that aim to estimate or predict the number of positive cases in communities.<sup>22</sup> 102

103

## 104 Materials and Methods

105 **Overview.** We conducted two sets of experiments to examine the partition and distribution. respectively, of SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and F+ coliphage in wastewater influent. The 106 107 characteristics of these viruses are shown in Table 1. The partitioning experiment was 108 conducted using lab-grown SARS-CoV-2, RSV-A, RV-B, and MS2. For these experiments, 109 wastewater influent samples were spiked with varying concentrations of each virus and 110 incubated at two different temperatures (4°C and 22°C) to allow the system to equilibrate. After 111 incubation, influent samples were centrifuged and decanted to obtain an aliquot from the liquid 112 and solid fractions. RNA was extracted from the aliguots and guantified using reverse-113 transcription-digital droplet PCR (RT-ddPCR). The distribution experiment examined the 114 distribution of endogenous SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and F+ coliphage in actual wastewater 115 samples. Influent samples were collected from six wastewater plants and processed using the 116 previously described method, but without spiking with viral surrogates. The following sections 117 provide a detailed description of the experiments. Reporting of methods follows EMMI guidelines<sup>23</sup> (Figure S1 provides EMMI checklist and details). 118 119

120 Wastewater sample collection. The partitioning experiment was conducted using two influent 121 samples from the Palo Alto Regional Water Quality Control Plant (PA). The plant serves 122 approximately 215.000 people and treats an annual average daily flow of 19.8 million gallons 123 per day (MGD). Total suspended solids (TSS) and pH levels range from 220-360 mg/L and 124 7.5–7.8, respectively. We collected approximately two liters of a 24-hour influent composite 125 sample on September 20, 2022 for the 4°C experiment and on October 28, 2022 for the 22°C 126 experiment. Samples were collected in 10% HCl acid-washed plastic containers, stored at the 127 respective experimental temperatures, and spiked with a mixture of lab-grown SAR-CoV-2, 128 RSV-A, RV-B, and MS2 within 24 hours of sample collection (see detailed methods below) for 129 experiments.

130 Virus purification and spike cocktails. Heat-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 (Isolate: USA-131 WA1/2020; catalog no. 0810587CFHI), RSV-A (catalog no. 0810040ACF), and RV-B (catalog 132 no. 0810284CF) were purchased from ZeptoMetrix (Buffalo, New York). The manufacturer 133 inactivates SARS-CoV-2 by heating the virus at 60°C for 1 hour. RSV-A and RV-B are viable 134 viruses suspended in cell culture fluids. Escherichia coli phage MS2 (DMS no. 13767) was 135 purchased from the DSMZ German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures. Viruses 136 were purified to remove viral culture fluid using Amicon® Ultra-0.5 ml centrifugal filters (100 kDa 137 MWCO; Millipore UFC5100) following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 0.5 ml of virus 138 stock, as received from the vendor, was added to individual centrifugal filters and centrifuged at 139 14,000xg for 5 min. The filters were immediately flipped and centrifuged at 1,000xg for 2 140 minutes to recover the retentate. A series of dilutions were prepared using autoclaved 141 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Fisher BioReagents, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) to achieve a viral genome concentration of approximately 1x10<sup>3</sup>, 1x10<sup>4</sup>, 1x10<sup>5</sup>, 1x10<sup>6</sup>, and 1x10<sup>7</sup> cp/ul PBS. 142 143 A total of five spike cocktails were prepared by mixing equal volumes of purified heat-inactivated 144 SARS-CoV-2, RSV-A, RV-B, and MS2 stock. The final concentrations of the five stock cocktails ranged from approximately  $1 \times 10^3 - 1 \times 10^7$  cp/µl PBS ( $10^3$ ,  $10^4$ ,  $10^5$ ,  $10^6$ ,  $10^7$ ) for each virus. 145

146 **Preanalytical processing.** Wastewater samples were thoroughly mixed by inverting 3–4 times 147 and aliquoted into eighteen 50 ml centrifuge tubes (hereafter, referred to as subsamples). Five 148 sets of three subsamples were then spiked with one of the five different concentrations of spiked cocktails to achieve a final concentration of approximately 10<sup>3</sup>, 10<sup>4</sup>, 10<sup>5</sup>, 10<sup>6</sup>, or 10<sup>7</sup> cp/ml for 149 150 each virus. Three additional subsamples were reserved to measure the background 151 concentration of endogenous SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and F+ coliphage RNA. After spiking, 152 subsamples were stored at 4°C or 22°C, depending on the experiment, and gently mixed (~20 153 rpm) using a tube roller (Globe Scientific, GSCI-GTR-AVS) for approximately three hours to 154 allow the system to equilibrate. The time needed to reach equilibrium (< 3 hours) was

155 determined based on a preliminary experiment (see Figure S2 and S3) and it is consistent with other virus adsorption studies conducted in wastewater.<sup>11,12</sup> After three hours, subsamples were 156 157 centrifuged at 24,500xg for 20 minutes at the temperatures of the experiments. This process 158 removes solid particles with hydrodynamic radii greater than 0.3 µm in diameter.<sup>24</sup> 200 µl of the 159 supernatant was transferred to a 2 ml collection tube and spiked with 5  $\mu$ l of bovine coronavirus 160 vaccine (BCoV; Zoetis, CALF-GUARD®; Parsippany-Troy Hills, NJ) as an extraction recovery 161 control. The BCoV vaccine comes lyophilized and was resuspended in 3 mL of molecular-grade 162 water. These aliquots represent the liquid fraction of the wastewater sample.

163 The remaining supernatant was decanted and the pellet represents dewatered solids. A portion 164 of the dewatered solids was reserved to calculate the dry weight. Dewatered solids were 165 weighed before and after drying at 105°C for 24 hours. To collect solids for viral analysis, 166 approximately 0.1 g of dewatered solids were collected from the bottom of the centrifuge tube 167 and aliquoted into 2 ml microcentrifuge tubes using a disposable spatula (Fisher Scientific, 168 catalog no. 50-476-569). Dewatered solids were resuspended in BCoV-spiked DNA/RNA shield 169 (Zymo Research, catalog no. R1100-250) at a concentration of approximately 75 mg/ml; this 170 concentration of solids in the buffer has been shown to alleviate downstream RT-ddPCR inhibition.<sup>25</sup> Spiked DNA/RNA shield was pre-prepared using 1.5 µl of BCoV per ml of DNA/RNA 171 172 shield. Three to five grinding balls (OPS DIAGNOSTICS, GBSS 156-5000-01) were added to a 173 2 ml microcentrifuge tube and the mixture was homogenized at 4 m/s for 1 minute using the MP 174 Bio Fastprep-24TM (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA). The homogenized aliguots were then 175 centrifuged for 5 min at 5.250 x g and 200 µl of the supernatant was transferred to a 2 ml 176 collection tube. This aliquot contains viral targets from the solid fraction of the wastewater 177 sample. Liquid and solid aliquots were stored at 4°C overnight and the nucleic acids were 178 extracted from them the next day.

179 **RNA extraction.** RNA was extracted from the solid and liquid aliquots using the Qiagen AllPrep 180 PowerViral DNA/RNA kit and further purified using the Zymo OneStep PCR inhibitor removal 181 columns (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA) following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA extracts 182 were aliguoted into 1.5 ml DNA LoBind tubes, stored at -80°C for less than two weeks, and 183 thawed once (1 freeze-thaw cycle) before quantification. Nuclease-free water and BCoV-spiked 184 DNA/RNA shield were used as negative and positive extraction controls, respectively. These 185 controls were carried through the extraction process with one set of positive and negative 186 controls per extraction batch (~15 solid or liquid aliquots/batch of extraction).

187 **RNA Quantification.** SARS-CoV-2 and RSV were quantified using a duplex assay described in Hughes et al.<sup>26</sup> and RV, MS2, and BCoV were quantified using singleplex assays from previous 188 studies.<sup>1,15,27</sup> Primers and probes were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT, San 189 190 Diego, CA) and are provided in Table S1. Using NCBI Blast, we determined that the MS2 assay 191 will detect, in addition to MS2, the following sequenced and deposited strains of genotype group 192 1 (GI) F+ RNA coliphages: JP501, M12, DL16, DL52, and DL54 which could potentially be 193 present in wastewater. There could be additional unsequenced/undeposited endogenous 194 wastewater F+ RNA coliphages that are also detectable using this assay. Therefore, detections 195 with the MS2 in wastewater will be referred to as F+ coliphage, hereafter.

196 All viral targets were quantified using the One-Step RT-ddPCR Advanced Kit for Probes (Bio-197 Rad 1863021). For the RT-ddPCR, 20 µl of a 22 µl reaction mix was prepared for each well. 198 The reaction consisted of 5.5 µl of template RNA, 5.5 µl of Supermix, 2.2 µl of 200 U/µl Reverse 199 Transcriptase (RT), 1.1 µl of 300 mM dithiothreitol (DDT), 4.4 µl of nuclease-free water, and 3.3 200 ul of primer and probe mixture with a final concentration of 900 nM and 250 nM, respectively. 201 RNA extracts were processed undiluted and in duplicate (two technical replicates). Nuclease-202 free water and viral RNA extracts for each target were used as negative and positive PCR 203 controls, respectively, and each run in three wells per plate. Positive controls were extracted

204 from the SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and MS2 purified stocks; which are the same virus stocks 205 used to prepare the spike cocktails. Droplets were generated using the AutoDG Automated 206 Droplet Generator (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and amplified using the C1000 Touch™ Thermal 207 Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Thermal cycling conditions for each RT-ddPCR assay are 208 shown in Table S2. After amplification, droplets were analyzed using the QX200 droplet reader 209 and the Quantasoft Analysis Pro Software. Wells with less than 10,000 droplets were excluded 210 and technical PCR replicates (wells) were merged before performing the dimensional analysis. 211 Merged wells needed to have at least three positive droplets to be considered positive The 212 estimated lower measurement limit for solids and liquid aliquots were 3,500 cp/g and 0.7 cp/ml, 213 respectively.

214 **Distribution of endogenous viruses in wastewater.** The second experiment examined the 215 distribution of endogenous SAR-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and F+ coliphage between liquid and solid 216 fractions in wastewater samples. Influent samples (~1 L of a 24-hour composite sample) were 217 collected from six wastewater treatment plants on November 18, 2022. Samples were stored at 218 4°C and processed within 24 hours. These plants are part of an ongoing wastewater 219 surveillance program and include the following: Oceanside Water Pollution Control Plant (OS), 220 Southeast Water Pollution Control Plant (SE), Silicon Valley Clean Water Wastewater 221 Treatment Plant (SV), Sunnyvale Water Pollution Control Plant (SU), San Jose-Santa Clara 222 Regional Wastewater Facility (SJ), and South County Regional Wastewater Treatment Plant 223 (GI). The location, estimated population served, annual daily average flow, pH, and TSS for 224 each plant can be found in Table S3. Figure S4 provides a map of the sewershed (area served) 225 for each wastewater treatment plant.

226 Wastewater samples were thoroughly mixed, poured into 50 ml centrifuge tubes, and

227 processed. Three subsamples were prepared for each wastewater treatment plant, for a total of

228 18 subsamples. Solid and liquid aliquots were obtained from the wastewater samples and

nucleic acids were extracted. Viral targets were quantified from the aliquots using the methodsdescribed above for the partitioning experiments.

#### 231 Dimensional analysis, adsorption models, and statistical analysis. SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV,

and MS2/F+ coliphage RNA concentrations were expressed in units of copies per gram dry

- 233 weight solids (cp/g) or per ml liquid (cp/ml) for the solid and liquid fractions of wastewater,
- respectively, using dimensional analysis. BCoV recovery, used as an extraction and inhibition
- 235 control, was calculated for the solid and liquid fractions as follows:

236 
$$BCoV recovery (\%) = \frac{number of gene copies in solids OR liquid fraction}{number of gene copies spiked DNA/RNA shield OR liquid fraction} \times 100$$
(1)

237 For the partition experiment using lab-grown viruses, 36 RNA concentrations (solids: N=18 and 238 liquids: N=18) were obtained for each virus and isotherm experiment (4°C and 22°C). These 239 concentrations represent triplicate measurements for six different initial conditions: one 240 unspiked and five different spiked concentrations of viruses. For each virus and temperature 241 condition, average viral RNA concentrations (solids: N=6 and liquids: N=6) and standard 242 deviations were calculated across triplicate subsamples. To calculate the recovery of spiked 243 viruses, we first subtracted the background concentrations of viral genetic markers from liquid 244 and solid fractions of spiked subsamples and estimated the total RNA recovery in spiked 245 subsample as follows:

246 
$$RNA \ recovery \ (\%) = \frac{conc.in \ solids \ \times mass \ of \ solids + \ conc.in \ liquid \ \times volume \ in \ liquid \ sample}{total \ number \ of \ gene \ copies \ spiked \ into \ sample} \times 100$$

247

Partition experiment viral RNA concentrations in the solid and liquid fractions of wastewater
were fit to Linear, Langmuir, and Freundlich isotherm models. These models have been used in
previous virus partitioning studies<sup>11,14,20,21</sup> and describe a multi-layer (Freundlich) or monolayer
(Langmuir) adsorption process. A linear model is generally used when the coverage ratio of

(2)

adsorption sites is minimal.<sup>28</sup> The Linear, Freundlich, and Langmuir isotherm parameters were 252 253 determined for each virus and temperature condition. The average relative error (ARE) was 254 calculated for each model and compared to identify the model with the best fit. The Freundlich 255 model produced the smallest ARE overall and therefore is discussed in the main paper (see 256 Table S4 for results of other models). The nonlinear and linear forms of the Freundlich model 257 are described as follows:

(3)

$$q_e = K_F C_e^{\ n} \tag{3}$$

$$logq_e = log K_F + n \log C_e \quad (4)$$

260

261 where g<sub>e</sub> is the equilibrium concentration of viral genomes in solids (cp/g), C<sub>e</sub> is the equilibrium 262 concentration of viral genomes in the liquid fraction of wastewater, K<sub>F</sub> is the Freundlich constant, 263 and n is the adsorption intensity. A higher n indicates a stronger interaction between the 264 absorbent (i.e., wastewater solids) and the adsorbate (i.e., spiked viruses). We determined the 265 Freundlich isotherm parameters,  $\log K_F$  (y-intercept) and n (slope), using a linear regression 266 model (Im function) in R. Standard errors (SE) were also obtained from the linear regression 267 model in R (summary function). Finally, we compared  $K_F$  obtained for the viruses under different 268 temperature conditions by examining whether their values and standard deviations overlapped. 269

270 For the distribution experiment (examining endogenous viruses in wastewater samples), six 271 RNA concentrations (solids: N=3 and liquids: N=3) were obtained for each virus and wastewater 272 treatment plant. Only a few liquid fractions resulted in non-detects (ND). NDs were substituted 273 with half of the lower measurement limit (0.35 cp/ml for concentrations measured in liquid 274 fractions). The average concentration and standard deviation for each virus were calculated 275 using data from the three replicate subsamples. The distribution coefficient was calculated as 276 the ratio of average viral genome concentrations detected in the solid and liquid fractions of

277	wastewater influent; $K_d = C_s/C_w$ ; errors were determined by propagating errors on the numerator
278	and denominator. We tested the null hypothesis that $K_d$ were the same for endogenous viruses
279	using a Kruskal-Wallis test; $p$ <0.05 was used to assess statistical significance. Statistical
280	analysis was performed in R (version 4.1.2). Finally, we compared the partition coefficients ( $K_F$ )
281	for spiked viruses at $4^{\circ}$ C and $22^{\circ}$ C to the distribution coefficients (K <sub>d</sub> ) for endogenous viruses in
282	wastewater for each virus to determine if $K_{\text{F}}$ and $K_{\text{d}}$ values and errors overlapped. We also
283	summarized the results from previous experiments measuring the concentration of viral genetic
284	markers in wastewater matrices to see if our results were consistent with previously reported $K_{\mbox{\scriptsize F}}$
285	and $K_d$ values (see Table 4).
286	
287	Results
288	Extraction and PCR controls
289	Positive and negative extraction and PCR controls were positive and negative, respectively.
290	BCoV was used as a process recovery and gross inhibition control. BCoV recoveries were
291	similar between the solid and liquid fractions of wastewater. Solids and liquid aliquots had a
292	median BCoV recovery of 0.40 and 0.35, respectively. Viral genome concentrations were not
293	adjusted by recovery given the complexities associated with estimating recovery using
294	surrogate viruses <sup>29</sup> and given that the recoveries were similar. The total recovery of spiked
295	SARS-CoV-2, RSV-A, RV-B, and MS2 RNA was approximately 35%, 45%, 22%, and 33%,
206	
296	respectively. These recoveries are similar to those of BCoV. Although inhibition can vary
296 297	respectively. These recoveries are similar to those of BCoV. Although inhibition can vary between assays, our previous work has determined there is minimal inhibition with the pre-
296 297 298	respectively. These recoveries are similar to those of BCoV. Although inhibition can vary between assays, our previous work has determined there is minimal inhibition with the pre- analytical and analytical workflow, <sup>25</sup> and the similar and high detection of BCoV and spiked
298 297 298 299	respectively. These recoveries are similar to those of BCoV. Although inhibition can vary between assays, our previous work has determined there is minimal inhibition with the pre- analytical and analytical workflow, <sup>25</sup> and the similar and high detection of BCoV and spiked viruses indicates inhibition is minimal.

301 Partitioning of lab-grown viruses in wastewater influent. Endogenous SARS-CoV-2, RSV,
 302 RV, and MS2/F+ coliphage RNA were detected in the liquid and solid fractions of wastewater

influent samples from PA (Table S5). Concentrations of endogenous virus make up 22%–95%
of viral RNA in subsamples spiked with the lowest concentration of virus cocktail, but otherwise
represent a negligible percentage of the RNA in subsamples spiked with a higher concentration
of virus cocktail.

307

308 At equilibrium, the results from the partitioning experiments showed that RNA concentrations of 309 spiked viruses were higher in solids than the liquid fraction of wastewater influent on a mass 310 equivalent basis, by approximately 3–4 orders of magnitude. In the 4°C and 22°C isotherm 311 experiments,  $q_e$  ranged from  $1.3 \times 10^4$ – $5.6 \times 10^7$  cp/g for SARS-CoV-2,  $4.2 \times 10^3$ – $1.9 \times 10^8$  cp/g for 312 RSV,  $2.3 \times 10^4$  –  $1.3 \times 10^7$  cp/g for RV, and  $4.1 \times 10^3$  –  $3.2 \times 10^7$  cp/g for MS2. In the liquid fraction, C<sub>e</sub> 313 concentrations ranged from 0.1–1.3x10<sup>3</sup> cp/ml for SARS-CoV-2, 0.2–4.5x10<sup>2</sup> cp/ml for RSV, 314  $1.6-4.8 \times 10^4$  cp/ml for RV, and  $0.8-4.3 \times 10^4$  cp/ml for MS2. The reported ranges represent 315 measurements across spiking conditions and the two experimental temperatures.

316

317 Viral RNA concentrations (qe and Ce, see Figure 1) were fit to a Linear, Freundlich, and 318 Langmuir model. The Freundlich isotherm models produced the lowest ARE compared to the 319 other models based on the calculated partition coefficient (see Table S4 for results of Linear and 320 Langmuir models). Table 3 shows the Freundlich isotherm parameters ( $K_F$  and n) for each virus 321 and temperature condition. In the 4°C experiment, K<sub>F</sub> and n ranged from 1.8x10<sup>3</sup>–3.2x10<sup>3</sup> ml o<sup>1</sup> 322 and 0.66–1.24, respectively. Similar results were obtained in the 22°C experiments except for 323 the partition coefficient of SARS-CoV-2. In the 22°C experiment, K<sub>F</sub> and n ranged from 2.0x10<sup>3</sup>-324 2.7x10<sup>5</sup> ml·g<sup>-1</sup> and 0.64–1.32, respectively. The partition coefficient of SARS-CoV-2 in the 22°C 325 experiment was significantly higher (approximately one order of magnitude) compared to other 326 viruses and temperature conditions. However, partition coefficients were not different across 327 other viruses and temperatures (see Figure S5).

328

330	Distribution of endogenous viruses in wastewater influent. In the wastewater of six
331	wastewater treatment plants, we observed results similar to those obtained in the laboratory
332	partitioning experiment. Viral RNA concentrations were higher in solids than the liquid fraction of
333	wastewater, by approximately 3–4 orders of magnitude (see Figure 1). Across six wastewater
334	treatment plants, $C_s$ ranged from $1.6 \times 10^3 - 1.5 \times 10^3$ cp/g (median = $3.2 \times 10^3$ cp/g) for SARS-CoV-
335	2, $9.1 \times 10^2$ -3.7x10 <sup>3</sup> cp/g (median = 1.7x10 <sup>3</sup> cp/g) for RSV, $2.1 \times 10^3$ -1.4x10 <sup>4</sup> cp/g (median =
336	6.0×10 <sup>3</sup> cp/g) for RV, and 4.9x10 <sup>2</sup> –6.1x10 <sup>3</sup> cp/g (median = $1.1x10^3$ cp/g) for F+ coliphage. C <sub>L</sub>
337	ranged from 0.4–1.1 cp/ml (median = 0.4 cp/ml) for SARS-CoV-2, 0.4–2.7 cp/ml (median = 0.8
338	cp/ml) for RV, and 0.4–1.3 cp/ml (median = 0.7 cp/ml) for F+ coliphage. For RSV, C <sub>L</sub> were ND
339	across wastewater treatment plants; NDs were replaced with half of the lower measurable limit
340	(0.35 cp/ml for viral concentrations in liquid fractions) to calculate the distribution coefficient ( $K_d$ ).
341	
342	$K_d$ was calculated as the ratio of $C_s/C_L.$ Across wastewater treatment plants, $K_d$ ranged from
343	3.5x10 <sup>3</sup> –1.2x10 <sup>4</sup> ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = 5.0x10 <sup>3</sup> ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, 5.0x10 <sup>2</sup> –2.0x10 <sup>3</sup> ml·g <sup>-1</sup>
343 344	$3.5 \times 10^{3} - 1.2 \times 10^{4} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ (median = $5.0 \times 10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0 \times 10^{2} - 2.0 \times 10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ (median = $1.3 \times 10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ) for RSV, $2.1 \times 10^{3} - 1.6 \times 10^{4} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ (median = $7.6 \times 10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ) for RV, and
343 344 345	$3.5x10^{3}-1.2x10^{4} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ (median = } 5.0x10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{) for SARS-CoV-2}, 5.0x10^{2}-2.0x10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ (median = } 1.3x10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{) for RSV}, 2.1x10^{3}-1.6x10^{4} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ (median = } 7.6x10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{) for RV}, \text{ and } 4.9x10^{2}-7.4x10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ (median = } 1.2x10^{3} \text{ ml} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4)}. Overall, RV$
343 344 345 346	$3.5x10^{3}-1.2x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^{2}-2.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^{3}-1.6x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^{2}-7.4x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note
343 344 345 346 347	$3.5x10^{3}-1.2x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^{2}-2.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^{3}-1.6x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^{2}-7.4x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note that K <sub>d</sub> for RSV could be higher, but we were only able to estimate a lower bound for Kd since
343 344 345 346 347 348	$3.5x10^{3}-1.2x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^{2}-2.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^{3}-1.6x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^{2}-7.4x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note that K <sub>d</sub> for RSV could be higher, but we were only able to estimate a lower bound for Kd since the measurement in liquid was ND. RV K <sub>d</sub> was statistically higher from RSV and F+ coliphage
343 344 345 346 347 348 349	$3.5x10^{3}-1.2x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^{2}-2.0x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^{3}-1.6x10^{4}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^{2}-7.4x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^{3}$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note that K <sub>d</sub> for RSV could be higher, but we were only able to estimate a lower bound for Kd since the measurement in liquid was ND. RV K <sub>d</sub> was statistically higher from RSV and F+ coliphage K <sub>d</sub> (Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's post hoc test, both <i>p</i> <0.05).
343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350	$3.5x10^3-1.2x10^4$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^2-2.0x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^3-1.6x10^4$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^2-7.4x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note that K <sub>d</sub> for RSV could be higher, but we were only able to estimate a lower bound for Kd since the measurement in liquid was ND. RV K <sub>d</sub> was statistically higher from RSV and F+ coliphage K <sub>d</sub> (Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's post hoc test, both $p$ <0.05).
343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350 351	$3.5x10^3$ – $1.2x10^4$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^2$ – $2.0x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^3$ – $1.6x10^4$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^2$ – $7.4x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note that K <sub>d</sub> for RSV could be higher, but we were only able to estimate a lower bound for Kd since the measurement in liquid was ND. RV K <sub>d</sub> was statistically higher from RSV and F+ coliphage K <sub>d</sub> (Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's post hoc test, both <i>p</i> < $0.05$ ).
<ul> <li>343</li> <li>344</li> <li>345</li> <li>346</li> <li>347</li> <li>348</li> <li>349</li> <li>350</li> <li>351</li> <li>352</li> </ul>	$3.5x10^3$ – $1.2x10^4$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $5.0x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for SARS-CoV-2, $5.0x10^2$ – $2.0x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.3x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RSV, $2.1x10^3$ – $1.6x10^4$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $7.6x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for RV, and $4.9x10^2$ – $7.4x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> (median = $1.2x10^3$ ml·g <sup>-1</sup> ) for F+ coliphage (see Table 4). Overall, RV had the largest solid-liquid distribution, followed by SARS-CoV-2, F+ coliphage, and RSV. Note that K <sub>d</sub> for RSV could be higher, but we were only able to estimate a lower bound for Kd since the measurement in liquid was ND. RV K <sub>d</sub> was statistically higher from RSV and F+ coliphage K <sub>d</sub> (Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's post hoc test, both $p$ <0.05).

355 This is the first batch experiment examining the solid-liquid partitioning of SARS-CoV-2. RSV. 356 and RV in wastewater and the first experiment to examine the distribution of endogenous RSV 357 and RV in this matrix. Overall, higher concentrations of viral RNA were observed in solids 358 compared to the liquid fraction of wastewater, for all viruses and temperature conditions; viral 359 RNA concentrations were higher in solids by 3–4 orders of magnitude on a mass equivalent 360 basis. Partition and distribution coefficients were also similar across viruses and temperature 361 conditions, with K<sub>F</sub> and K<sub>d</sub> ranging from 490 ml·g<sup>-1</sup>–270,000 ml·g<sup>-1</sup>. Our results are consistent 362 with previously reported partition/distribution coefficients for viral genetic markers in wastewater. For example, Li et al.<sup>16</sup> measured the distribution of endogenous SARS-CoV-2 RNA (N1, N2, 363 364 and E genes) in wastewater samples and found higher concentrations of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in 365 solids compared to the liquid fraction; K<sub>d</sub> (reported in their paper as the solid-liquid concentration ratio) ranged from 4,000–20,000 ml g<sup>-1</sup>. Kim et al.<sup>30</sup> also studied the distribution of endogenous 366 367 SARS-CoV-2 RNA (S and N genes) in wastewater samples from two K-12 schools and 368 observed similar results; viral RNA concentrations were higher in solids by three orders of 369 magnitude and  $K_d$  (reported in their paper as the concentration ratio in solid to liquid samples) 370 were 8,600 ml·g<sup>-1</sup> and 16,000 ml·g<sup>-1</sup> for SARS-CoV-2 N and S genes, respectively. We observed 371 similar partitioning behavior for SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and MS2 RNA in our study; except for 372 the partition of SARS-CoV-2 RNA at 22°C, which was higher (by approximately one order of 373 magnitude) compared to other viruses and temperature conditions.

374

There are very limited studies in the literature on the effects of temperature on virus adsorption to particles. One study examined how temperature may influence the isotherm and kinetic adsorption process of viral genetic markers in wastewater solids: Yang et al.<sup>11</sup> examined the kinetic adsorption of Phi6, MS2, T4, and Phix174 RNA in primary sludge at two temperature conditions (4°C and 25°C). They found that the rate of virus adsorption increased with increasing temperature (i.e., the time needed to reach equilibrium was reduced). Other studies

381 have examined how temperature affects viral adsorption to clays. Syngouna et al. examined the 382 isotherm and kinetic adsorption of infectious MS2 and  $\Phi$ X174 in clay particles at 4°C and 25°C, and found results similar to Yang et al.<sup>31</sup> However, Bellou et al.<sup>32</sup> measured the adsorption of 383 384 MS2,  $\Phi$ X174, and hAdV RNA on clay particles at 4°C and 25°C and found that adsorption 385 increased with decreasing temperature for hAdV, but decreased with decreasing temperature 386 for MS2 and ΦX174. In our isotherm (equilibrium) experiments, wastewater temperature did not 387 seem to have an impact on the adsorption of viral genetic markers, except for the case of 388 SARS-CoV-2. For SARS-CoV-2, a higher partition coefficient was observed at 22°C than at 4°C. 389 The equivocal results described here suggest additional work is needed to better understand 390 how temperature affects viral adsorption.

391

392 Limited previous research suggests that the presence of a lipid envelope outside the viral 393 protein capsid of a virus may impact the solid-liquid partitioning of viruses and viral genetic markers in wastewater. For example, Ye et al.<sup>12</sup> measured the adsorption of infectious MHV,  $\phi$ 6, 394 395 MS2, and T3 in wastewater samples and found that enveloped viruses (MHV and  $\phi 6$ ) were 396 more strongly associated with solids than nonenveloped viruses (MS2 and T3). Similar results 397 were reported in the study by Yang et al.,<sup>11</sup> where they examined the solid-liquid partitioning 398 behavior of Phi6, MS2, T4, and Phix174 RNA in primary sludge samples; researchers found that 399 the majority of viral genetic markers were in the solid fraction of primary sludge. K<sub>F</sub> ranged from 400 8,500–4,100,000 ml·g<sup>-1</sup> for Phi6, MS2, T4, and Phix174 RNA. In our study, we observed that the 401 partition and distribution behavior across enveloped (SARS-CoV-2 and RSV) and nonenveloped 402 (RV and F+coliphage/MS2) viruses were the same. Our results were also similar across the 403 partition and distribution experiments, which suggest that lab-grown viruses and endogenous 404 viruses for SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and F+coliphage/MS2 RNA may exhibit similar solid-liquid 405 partitioning behavior in wastewater.

406

407 A few mechanistic-, statistical- and epidemiological-based models have been recently proposed 408 to estimate the number of infected individuals within a sewershed. For example, Soller et al.<sup>33</sup> 409 developed a mechanistic model that estimates the fraction of a sewershed population actively 410 infected with SARS-CoV-2. Wolfe et al.<sup>34</sup> also developed a mass balance model that links SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentrations in solids to the number of individuals shedding SAR-CoV-2 411 412 RNA in stool within the sewershed. These models can potentially be applied to other viruses of 413 interest however, a key parameter of these mechanistic models is the solid-liquid partitioning 414 coefficient of viral genetic markers in wastewater solids. Limited information is available on viral-415 specific partitioning data, limiting the application of these models and the interpretation of 416 wastewater surveillance data. Our results presented here fill a knowledge gap by providing 417 information on virus partitioning that can be used in these modeling applications.

418

419 Understanding the fate and transport of viral genetic markers could inform wastewater sampling 420 strategies and help optimize methods for processing wastewater and primary sludge samples. For example, a study by Kim et al<sup>14</sup> showed that methods for processing influent and settled 421 422 solids have comparable sensitivity. However, settled solids might be a more advantageous 423 medium in sewersheds that have a low level of active infections because it requires less sample 424 volume compared to influent methods. Our results also suggest that viral genetic markers might 425 have similar partition/distribution coefficients across wastewater treatment plants. The results 426 from our experiments might be applicable to other wastewater treatment plants that do not have 427 local partition data available. Further research should be conducted to examine the solid-liquid 428 partitioning of other viruses of interest for WBE efforts and evaluate how solid characteristics 429 (e.g. particle size and biological/ chemical composition) might influence their partitioning 430 behavior in wastewater.

431

Environmental Implications. This study fills an important knowledge gap on the partitioning of 432 433 respiratory viruses in wastewater and indicates that they partition preferentially to the solids. 434 This information is useful in wastewater-based epidemiology applications (both sampling and 435 modeling) but is also useful for informing wastewater treatment unit processes. These findings 436 add to a growing body of evidence that the solids in wastewater (defined as material generally 437 larger than 0.3 µm in hydrodynamic diameter) is enriched with infectious disease targets like 438 viral RNA relative to the liquid phase on a mass-equivalent basis. (Note that intact bacteria and 439 fungi, given their sizes, automatically fall into this size class.) There has been some confusion 440 among researchers and practitioners in interpreting this statement. A volume of raw wastewater contains a small mass of solids (typically on the order of  $10^2 \text{ mg/L}$ ), so it can be true that most of 441 442 the infectious disease target (mass or number) in that volume is in the liquid phase, and that the 443 concentration of the infection disease target is enriched orders of magnitude in the solid relative 444 to the liquid phase. The fact that infectious disease targets are enriched in the solid phase 445 indicates that sample efforts that enrich for solids and choose the solids as a measurement 446 matrix will improve the sensitivity of measurement approaches. 447

Acknowledgments. This research was performed on the ancestral and unceded lands of the
Muwekma Ohlone people. We pay our respects to them and their Elders, past and present, and
are grateful for the opportunity to live and work here.

### 451

## 452 References

- 453 (1) Boehm, A. B.; Hughes, B.; Doung, D.; Chan-Herur, V.; Buchman, A.; Wolfe, M. K.; White, B.
  454 J. Wastewater Surveillance of Human Influenza, Metapneumovirus, Parainfluenza,
- 455 *Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV), Rhinovirus, and Seasonal Coronaviruses during the* 456 *COVID-19 Pandemic*; preprint; Infectious Diseases (except HIV/AIDS), 2022.
- 457 https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.09.22.22280218.
- 458 (2) Mercier, E.; D'Aoust, P. M.; Thakali, O.; Hegazy, N.; Jia, J.-J.; Zhang, Z.; Eid, W.; Plaza459 Diaz, J.; Kabir, M. P.; Fang, W.; Cowan, A.; Stephenson, S. E.; Pisharody, L.; MacKenzie,
  460 A. E.; Graber, T. E.; Wan, S.; Delatolla, R. Municipal and Neighbourhood Level Wastewater
  461 Surveillance and Subtyping of an Influenza Virus Outbreak. *Sci Rep* 2022, *12* (1), 15777.
  462 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-20076-z.
- 463 (3) Ahmed, W.; Bivins, A.; Stephens, M.; Metcalfe, S.; Smith, W. J. M.; Sirikanchana, K.;
  464 Kitajima, M.; Simpson, S. L. Occurrence of Multiple Respiratory Viruses in Wastewater in
  465 Queensland, Australia: Potential for Community Disease Surveillance. *Science of The Total*466 *Environment* 2023, *864*, 161023. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.161023.
- 467 (4) Rector, A.; Bloemen, M.; Thijssen, M.; Pussig, B.; Beuselinck, K.; Van Ranst, M.; Wollants,
  468 E. *Epidemiological Surveillance of Respiratory Pathogens in Wastewater in Belgium*;
  469 preprint; Epidemiology, 2022. https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.10.24.22281437.
- 470 (5) Dumke, R.; Geissler, M.; Skupin, A.; Helm, B.; Mayer, R.; Schubert, S.; Oertel, R.; Renner,
  471 B.; Dalpke, A. H. Simultaneous Detection of SARS-CoV-2 and Influenza Virus in
  472 Wastewater of Two Cities in Southeastern Germany, January to May 2022. *IJERPH* 2022,
  473 19 (20), 13374. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph192013374.
- (6) Kirby, A. E.; Walters, M. S.; Jennings, W. C.; Fugitt, R.; LaCross, N.; Mattioli, M.; Marsh, Z.
  A.; Roberts, V. A.; Mercante, J. W.; Yoder, J.; Hill, V. R. Using Wastewater Surveillance
  Data to Support the COVID-19 Response United States, 2020–2021. *MMWR Morb. Mortal. Wkly. Rep.* 2021, 70 (36), 1242–1244. https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7036a2.
- (7) Xagoraraki, I. Can We Predict Viral Outbreaks Using Wastewater Surveillance? *J. Environ. Eng.* 2020, *146* (11), 01820003. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)EE.1943-7870.0001831.
- (8) Xagoraraki, I.; O'Brien, E. Wastewater-Based Epidemiology for Early Detection of Viral
  Outbreaks. In *Women in Water Quality*; O'Bannon, D. J., Ed.; Women in Engineering and
  Science; Springer International Publishing: Cham, 2020; pp 75–97.
  https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-17819-2 5.
- 484 (9) Kitajima, M.; Ahmed, W.; Bibby, K.; Carducci, A.; Gerba, C. P.; Hamilton, K. A.; Haramoto,
  485 E.; Rose, J. B. SARS-CoV-2 in Wastewater: State of the Knowledge and Research Needs.
  486 Science of The Total Environment 2020, 739, 139076.
  487 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139076.
- 488 (10) Jin, Y.; Flury, M. Fate and Transport of Viruses in Porous Media. In *Advances in* 489 *Agronomy*; Elsevier, 2002; Vol. 77, pp 39–102. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065 490 2113(02)77013-2.
- 491 (11) Yang, W.; Cai, C.; Dai, X. Interactions between Virus Surrogates and Sewage Sludge
  492 Vary by Viral Analyte: Recovery, Persistence, and Sorption. *Water Research* 2022, 210,
  493 117995. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2021.117995.
- 494 (12) Ye, Y.; Ellenberg, R. M.; Graham, K. E.; Wigginton, K. R. Survivability, Partitioning, and
  495 Recovery of Enveloped Viruses in Untreated Municipal Wastewater. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*496 2016, *50* (10), 5077–5085. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.6b00876.
- 497 (13) Armanious, A.; Aeppli, M.; Jacak, R.; Refardt, D.; Sigstam, T.; Kohn, T.; Sander, M.
  498 Viruses at Solid–Water Interfaces: A Systematic Assessment of Interactions Driving
  499 Adsorption. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2016**, *50* (2), 732–743.
- 499 Adsorption. Environ. Sci. Technol. **2016**, 50 (2), 732– 500 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b04644.

- 501 (14) Kim, S.; Kennedy, L.; Wolfe, M.; Criddle, C.; Duong, D.; Topol, A.; White, B. J.; Kantor,
  502 R.; Nelson, K.; Steele, J.; Langlois, K.; Griffith, J.; Zimmer-Faust, A.; McLellan, S.;
  503 Schussman, M.; Armmerman, M.; Wigginton, K.; Bakker, K.; Boehm, A. SARS-CoV-2 RNA
  504 Is Enriched by Orders of Magnitude in Solid Relative to Liquid Wastewater at Publicly
  505 Owned Treatment Works; preprint; Infectious Diseases (except HIV/AIDS), 2021.
  506 https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.11.10.21266138.
- (15) Graham, K. E.; Loeb, S. K.; Wolfe, M. K.; Catoe, D.; Sinnott-Armstrong, N.; Kim, S.;
  Yamahara, K. M.; Sassoubre, L. M.; Mendoza Grijalva, L. M.; Roldan-Hernandez, L.;
  Langenfeld, K.; Wigginton, K. R.; Boehm, A. B. SARS-CoV-2 RNA in Wastewater Settled
  Solids Is Associated with COVID-19 Cases in a Large Urban Sewershed. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2021, *55* (1), 488–498. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.0c06191.
- 512 (16) Li, B.; Di, D. Y. W.; Saingam, P.; Jeon, M. K.; Yan, T. Fine-Scale Temporal Dynamics of
  513 SARS-CoV-2 RNA Abundance in Wastewater during A COVID-19 Lockdown. *Water*514 *Research* 2021, 197, 117093. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2021.117093.
- 515 (17) Kitamura, K.; Sadamasu, K.; Muramatsu, M.; Yoshida, H. Efficient Detection of SARS516 CoV-2 RNA in the Solid Fraction of Wastewater. *Science of The Total Environment* 2021,
  517 763, 144587. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.144587.
- (18) Wolfe, M. K.; Duong, D.; Bakker, K. M.; Ammerman, M.; Mortenson, L.; Hughes, B.;
  Martin, E. T.; White, B. J.; Boehm, A. B.; Wigginton, K. R. *Wastewater-Based Detection of an Influenza Outbreak*; preprint; Public and Global Health, 2022.
  https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.02.15.22271027.
- (19) Wolfe, M. K.; Yu, A. T.; Duong, D.; Rane, M. S.; Hughes, B.; Chan-Herur, V.; Donnelly,
  M.; Chai, S.; White, B. J.; Vugia, D. J.; Boehm, A. B. Use of Wastewater for Mpox Outbreak
  Surveillance in California. *N Engl J Med* **2023**, *388* (6), 570–572.
  https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2213882.
- 526 (20) Yin, Z.; Voice, T. C.; Tarabara, V. V.; Xagoraraki, I. Sorption of Human Adenovirus to
   527 Wastewater Solids. *J. Environ. Eng.* 2018, *144* (11), 06018008.
   528 https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)EE.1943-7870.0001463.
- (21) Hayes, E. K.; Sweeney, C. L.; Fuller, M.; Erjavec, G. B.; Stoddart, A. K.; Gagnon, G. A.
  Operational Constraints of Detecting SARS-CoV-2 on Passive Samplers Using
  Electronegative Filters: A Kinetic and Equilibrium Analysis. ACS EST Water 2022,
  acsestwater.1c00441. https://doi.org/10.1021/acsestwater.1c00441.
- 533 (22) Shah, S.; Gwee, S. X. W.; Ng, J. Q. X.; Lau, N.; Koh, J.; Pang, J. Wastewater
  534 Surveillance to Infer COVID-19 Transmission: A Systematic Review. Science of The Total
  535 Environment 2022, 804, 150060. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.150060.
- 536 (23) Borchardt, M. A.; Boehm, A. B.; Salit, M.; Spencer, S. K.; Wigginton, K. R.; Noble, R. T.
  537 The Environmental Microbiology Minimum Information (EMMI) Guidelines: QPCR and
  538 DPCR Quality and Reporting for Environmental Microbiology. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2021,
  539 acs.est.1c01767. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.1c01767.
- 540 (24) Hejkal, T. W.; Wellings, F. M.; Lewis, A. L.; LaRock, P. A. Distribution of Viruses
  541 Associated with Particles in Waste Water. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **1981**, *41* (3), 628–634.
  542 https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.41.3.628-634.1981.
- 543 (25) Huisman, J. S.; Scire, J.; Caduff, L.; Fernandez-Cassi, X.; Ganesanandamoorthy, P.;
  544 Kull, A.; Scheidegger, A.; Stachler, E.; Boehm, A. B.; Hughes, B.; Knudson, A.; Topol, A.;
  545 Wigginton, K. R.; Wolfe, M. K.; Kohn, T.; Ort, C.; Stadler, T.; Julian, T. R. Wastewater546 Based Estimation of the Effective Reproductive Number of SARS-CoV-2. *Environ Health*547 *Perspect* 2022, *130* (5), 057011. https://doi.org/10.1289/EHP10050.
- 548 (26) Hughes, B.; Duong, D.; White, B. J.; Wigginton, K. R.; Chan, E. M. G.; Wolfe, M. K.;
  549 Boehm, A. B. *Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV) RNA in Wastewater Settled Solids Reflects*550 *RSV Clinical Positivity Rates*; preprint; Infectious Diseases (except HIV/AIDS), 2021.
  551 https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.12.01.21267014.

- 552 (27) Standard Operating Procedures for Interlaboratory and Methods Assessment of the 553 SARS-CoV-2 Genetic Signal in Wastewater.
- (28) Kalam, S.; Abu-Khamsin, S. A.; Kamal, M. S.; Patil, S. Surfactant Adsorption Isotherms:
  A Review. ACS Omega 2021, 6 (48), 32342–32348.
- 556 https://doi.org/10.1021/acsomega.1c04661.
- (29) Kantor, R. S.; Nelson, K. L.; Greenwald, H. D.; Kennedy, L. C. Challenges in Measuring
  the Recovery of SARS-CoV-2 from Wastewater. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2021, 55 (6), 3514–
  3519. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.0c08210.
- (30) Kim, S.; Boehm, A. B. Wastewater Monitoring of SARS-CoV-2 RNA at K-12 Schools:
  Comparison to Pooled Clinical Testing Data. *PeerJ* 2023, *11*, e15079.
  https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.15079.
- 563 (31) Syngouna, V. I.; Chrysikopoulos, C. V. Interaction between Viruses and Clays in Static
  564 and Dynamic Batch Systems. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2010, 44 (12), 4539–4544.
  565 https://doi.org/10.1021/es100107a.
- (32) Bellou, M. I.; Syngouna, V. I.; Tselepi, M. A.; Kokkinos, P. A.; Paparrodopoulos, S. C.;
  Vantarakis, A.; Chrysikopoulos, C. V. Interaction of Human Adenoviruses and Coliphages
  with Kaolinite and Bentonite. *Science of The Total Environment* 2015, *517*, 86–95.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.02.036.
- (33) Soller, J.; Jennings, W.; Schoen, M.; Boehm, A.; Wigginton, K.; Gonzalez, R.; Graham,
  K. E.; McBride, G.; Kirby, A.; Mattioli, M. Modeling Infection from SARS-CoV-2 Wastewater
  Concentrations: Promise, Limitations, and Future Directions. *Journal of Water and Health* **2022**, 20 (8), 1197–1211. https://doi.org/10.2166/wh.2022.094.
- (34) Wolfe, M. K.; Archana, A.; Catoe, D.; Coffman, M. M.; Dorevich, S.; Graham, K. E.; Kim,
  S.; Grijalva, L. M.; Roldan-Hernandez, L.; Silverman, A. I.; Sinnott-Armstrong, N.; Vugia, D.
  J.; Yu, A. T.; Zambrana, W.; Wigginton, K. R.; Boehm, A. B. Scaling of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in
  Settled Solids from Multiple Wastewater Treatment Plants to Compare Incidence Rates of
  Laboratory-Confirmed COVID-19 in Their Sewersheds. *Environ. Sci. Technol. Lett.* 2021, 8
  (5), 398–404. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.estlett.1c00184.
- (35) Montiel-Garcia, D.; Santoyo-Rivera, N.; Ho, P.; Carrillo-Tripp, M.; Iii, C. L. B.; Johnson, J.
  E.; Reddy, V. S. VIPERdb v3.0: A Structure-Based Data Analytics Platform for Viral
  Capsids. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2021, 49 (D1), D809–D816.
  https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkaa1096.
- (36) Kim, S.; Kennedy, L. C.; Wolfe, M. K.; Criddle, C. S.; Duong, D. H.; Topol, A.; White, B. J.; Kantor, R. S.; Nelson, K. L.; Steele, J. A.; Langlois, K.; Griffith, J. F.; Zimmer-Faust, A. G.; McLellan, S. L.; Schussman, M. K.; Ammerman, M.; Wigginton, K. R.; Bakker, K. M.; Boehm, A. B. SARS-CoV-2 RNA Is Enriched by Orders of Magnitude in Primary Settled Solids Relative to Liquid Wastewater at Publicly Owned Treatment Works. *Environ. Sci.: Water Res. Technol.* 2022, *8* (4), 757–770. https://doi.org/10.1039/D1EW00826A.
- 590 (37) Wolfe, M. K.; Duong, D.; Bakker, K. M.; Ammerman, M.; Mortenson, L.; Hughes, B.; Arts,
- P.; Lauring, A. S.; Fitzsimmons, W. J.; Bendall, E.; Hwang, C. E.; Martin, E. T.; White, B. J.;
  Boehm, A. B.; Wigginton, K. R. Wastewater-Based Detection of Two Influenza Outbreaks. *Environ. Sci. Technol. Lett.* **2022**, 9 (8), 687–692.
- 594 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.estlett.2c00350.
- 595

# 597 Table 1: Characteristics of SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and MS2<sup>35</sup>

Virus	Family/Genus	Genome Type	Structure	Shape	Genome Size (kb)	Virion Size (nm)
SARS-CoV-2	Coronaviridae	+ ssRNA	enveloped	spherical	30	50 –140
RSV	Pneumoviridae	- ssRNA	enveloped	spherical	15	150 –250
Rhinovirus	Picornavirus	+ ssRNA	nonenveloped	icosahedral	7	15 – 30
MS2	Leviviridae	+ ssRNA	nonenveloped	icosahedral	3.6	23 – 28

604Table 2: Isotherm parameters ( $K_F$  and n) and average relative error (ARE) of Freundlich605models for the adsorption of SARS-CoV-2, RSV-A, RV-B, and MS2 in wastewater at 4°C606and 22°C; SE, LE, and UE are the standard error, the lower SE bound, and the upper SE607bound as reported by Im function in R, respectively. n and ARE are dimensionless.

Lab-grown Virus Temperatur KF n ± SE ARE  $(LE-UE) (ml \cdot g^{-1})$ viruses structure e (°C) 18,000 (4,100-4  $0.81 \pm 0.07$ 0.40 41,000) SARS-CoV-2 Enveloped 270,000 22  $0.64 \pm 0.09$ 0.91 (74,000-630,000)32,000 (2,000-4  $1.24 \pm 0.02$ 0.25 67,000) **RSV-A** Enveloped 19,200 22  $1.32 \pm 0.21$ 1.18 (10,000-60,000)13,000 (1,500-4  $0.84 \pm 0.03$ 0.15 28,000) RV-B Nonenveloped 8.900 22  $0.74 \pm 0.07$ 0.39 (2,400-21,000)18,000 (7,400-4  $0.66 \pm 0.09$ 0.64 49,000) MS2 Nonenveloped 2,000 22  $0.70 \pm 0.08$ 0.78 (760-5,200)

608

609

- 611 Table 3: Distribution coefficient (K<sub>d</sub> =C<sub>s</sub>/C<sub>w</sub>) of endogenous SARS-CoV-2, RSV, RV, and F+
- 612 coliphage RNA in wastewater influent; SD is the standard deviation across triplicate

### 613 subsamples

Wastewater	K <sub>d</sub> ± SD (ml⋅g <sup>-1</sup> )					
treatment plant	SARS-CoV-2	RSV	RV	F+ coliphage		
Gilroy	3,500 ± 820	1,300 ± 650	7,200 ± 1,400	490 ± 380		
San Jose	11,000 ± 6,200	2,000 ± 760	16,000 ± 4,100	2,800 ± 1800		
Sunnyvale	12,000 ± 7,600	1,800 ± 460	8,000 ± 4,800	950 ± 710		
SVCW	5,600 ± 4,300	1,300 ± 450	11,000 ± 7,200	7,400 ± 6,300		
SEP	4,400 ± 1,400	500 ± 320	2,100 ± 1,400	1,200 ± 760		
OSP	3,000 ± 2,500	700 ± 470	2,800 ± 1,000	1,300 ± 470		

615	Table 4: Results from previous experiments measuring the concentration of viral genetic
616	markers in the solid and liquid fractions of wastewater matrices.

Study	Study Virus		Sample processing	K <sub>F</sub> or K <sub>d</sub> (ml⋅g⁻¹)
Graham et al. 2021 <sup>15</sup> SARS-CoV-2		Paired wastewater influent and primary sludge samples	Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation. The supernatant from influent samples was further processed using PEG precipitation method. Viral concentrations (N1 and N2) were measured using RT-ddPCR.	K <sub>d</sub> : 350–3,100 Calculated/reported as the solid-influent concentration ratio.
Li et al. 2021 <sup>16</sup>	Li et al. SARS-CoV-2 Wastewater 2021 <sup>16</sup>		Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation. Liquids were further processed using PEG precipitation method. Viral concentrations (N1, N2, and E gene) were measured using qPCR.	K <sub>d</sub> : 4,000–20,000 Calculated/reported as the solid-liquid concentration ratio.
Kim et al. 2022 <sup>36</sup>	SARS-CoV-2	Paired wastewater influent and primary sludge samples	Solid and liquid fractions were separated using different processing techniques. Viral concentrations (N1 and N2) were measured using RT-ddPCR.	$K_F$ : 1,000–100,000 Calculated using the Freundlich model; solid to influent ratio.
Kim et al. 2023 <sup>30</sup>	Kim et al.       SARS-CoV-2       Wastewater collected from sewer network         2023 <sup>30</sup> SARS-CoV-2       Wastewater collected from sewer network		Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation. Liquids were further processed using a 0.45 µm pore size filter. Viral concentrations (N and S gene) were measured using RT- ddPCR.	K <sub>d</sub> : 8,600, 16,000 Calculated/reported as the solid-liquid concentration ratio
Wolfe et al. 2022 <sup>37</sup>	Influenza A	Paired wastewater influent and primary sludge samples	Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation. The supernatant from influent samples was further processed using PEG	K <sub>d</sub> : 1,000 Calculated/reported as the solid-influent concentration ratio.

			precipitation method. Viral concentrations (N1 and N2) were measured using RT-ddPCR.	
Mercier et al. 2022 <sup>2</sup>	Influenza A	Wastewater and primary sludge samples	Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation and filtration using a 0.45 µm pore size filter. Viral concentrations were measured in settled solids, suspended solids, and liquid fractions (supernatant) using RT-qPCR.	Authors only reported the percent of viral RNA adsorbed onto wastewater solids, K <sub>d</sub> was not reported
Wolfe et al. 2023 <sup>19</sup>	Мрох	Paired wastewater influent and primary sludge samples	Influent samples were processed using an affinity-based capture method with magnetic hydrogel Nanotrap Particles with Enhancement Reagent 1. Primary sludge samples were centrifuged to obtain solids. Viral concentrations were measured using RT- ddPCR.	K <sub>d</sub> : 1,000 Calculated/reported as the solid-influent concentration ratio.
Yin et al. 2018 <sup>20</sup>	Adenovirus	Primary and secondary sludge	Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation. Viral concentrations were measured in the liquid fraction (supernatant) using qPCR. Viral concentrations in solids were estimated using a mass balance equation.	K <sub>F</sub> : 37,000, 40,000 Calculated using the Freundlich model.
Yang et al. 2022 <sup>11</sup>	MS2, Phi6, Phix174, T4	Primary sludge	Solid and liquid fractions were separated by centrifugation and filtration using a 0.22 µm pore size filter. Viral concentrations were measured using qPCR.	$K_{F}$ : 4.1x10 <sup>6</sup> , 5.4x10 <sup>5</sup> , 1.2x10 <sup>5</sup> , and 8.5 x10 <sup>3</sup> for Phi6, MS2, T4, and Phix174, respectively.



619 620

Figure 1:  $q_e$  and  $C_e$  from partition experiments at 4°C (circles) and 22°C (triangles) and  $C_s$ 

and C<sub>L</sub> from distribution experiment at 4°C (squares, with black edges). Lines represent 621 the Freundlich isotherm model and error bars represent the standard deviation across

622

623 triplicate subsamples.