

Traffic, drugs, mental health, and disinfectants: changes in sewage sludge chemical signatures during a COVID-19 community lockdown

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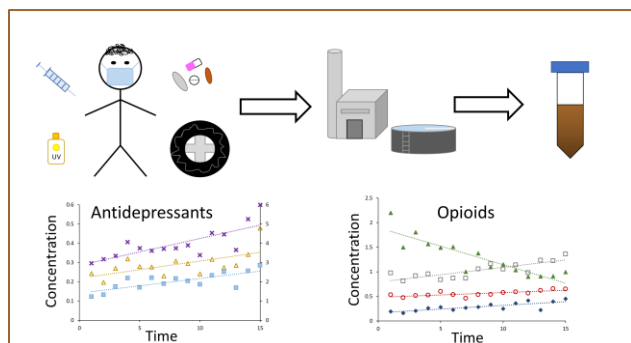
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Abstract: The COVID-19 pandemic has caused lifestyle changes for many people, and signs of those changes are present in sewage sludge. We analyzed primary sludge from a wastewater treatment plant in Connecticut, USA collected March 19 to June 30, 2020. This time period encompassed the first wave of the pandemic, initial statewide stay at home order, and first phase of reopening. We used liquid chromatography high resolution mass spectrometry and targeted and suspect screening strategies to identify contaminants. We found evidence of increasing opioid, cocaine, and antidepressant use, and upward trends in chemicals used in disinfectants and sunscreens. Benzotriazole, an anti-corrosion chemical associated with traffic pollution, decreased through the stay-at-home period, and increased during reopening. Hydroxychloroquine, a drug publicized for its potential to treat COVID-19, had elevated concentrations in the week following the implementation of the United States Emergency Use Authorization. Our results relate to nationwide reports of increased demand for fentanyl, antidepressants, and other medications, as well as increased drug overdose deaths during the pandemic. Though wastewater surveillance during the pandemic has largely focused on measuring SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentrations, chemical analysis can also show trends that are important for revealing the public and environmental health effects of the pandemic.

Key words: wastewater, COVID-19, high resolution mass spectrometry, suspect screening, pharmaceuticals and personal care products

Synopsis: Sewage sludge provides evidence of changes in illicit drug, pharmaceutical, and household chemical use during the COVID-19 pandemic.

35 TOC Art



36

37 Introduction

38 The COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically increased the practice of wastewater-based
39 epidemiology, with scientists and public health practitioners worldwide monitoring levels of SARS-CoV-
40 2 RNA in untreated wastewater (1). Measurements of SARS-CoV-2 in wastewater and sludge are associated
41 with daily case rates from testing and COVID-19 related hospitalizations, and can provide early information
42 about potential clusters and outbreaks of COVID-19 (2, 3). Historically, wastewater-based epidemiology
43 has focused primarily on chemical contaminants, which can provide information about the habits of the
44 population within the catchment area of a treatment plant. Chemical analysis of wastewater has been used
45 to track use of licit and illicit drugs and pharmaceuticals such as antidepressants, benzodiazepines, opioids
46 and asthma medications, as well as exposure to pesticides and plasticizers (4–6). Wastewater analysis can
47 be a highly efficient way to gather information about topics such as use of illegal drugs and psychoactive
48 medications, without identification of individual persons. Additionally, wastewater analysis has been used
49 to track antiviral and antibiotic use during influenza pandemics throughout the world (7–9).

50 The COVID-19 pandemic has affected many aspects of daily life beyond the direct effects of the
51 virus, and we hypothesized that these changes would be visible in the organic chemical signature of
52 wastewater. Our objectives were to characterize temporal variation of chemical contaminants in sewage
53 sludge during the COVID-19 outbreak and associated lockdown and to relate our findings to the health and
54 activities of local residents as well as broader global trends. We used both targeted and suspect screening
55 methods to cover a broad range of contaminants including common analytes such as pharmaceuticals and
56 illicit drugs (4), but also more unusual compounds for wastewater epidemiology studies such as
57 disinfectants, UV-filters, and pesticides. Previous studies evaluating chemical concentrations in wastewater
58 during the COVID-19 pandemic have focused on limited numbers of analytes – primarily licit and illicit
59 drugs (10–14). Additionally, to our knowledge, this study is the first to report trends in wastewater
60 concentrations for chemicals with direct significance to the COVID-19 pandemic including
61 hydroxychloroquine and disinfectants. Samples were taken at the East Shore Water Pollution Abatement

62 Facility, New Haven, CT USA, where SARS-CoV-2 concentrations and cased data have already been
 63 measured and published (2). Daily collection of primary sludge samples and analysis for SARS-CoV-2
 64 RNA began March 19, 2020 and has continued through 2020 (2).

65 Materials and Methods

66 Primary sludge samples were collected daily from March 19 to June 30, 2020 between 8 and 10 am
 67 at the East Shore Water Pollution Abatement Facility, New Haven, CT USA, as described in Peccia et al.,
 68 2020 (2). This treatment plant serves an estimated population of 200,000 in New Haven, Hamden, East
 69 Haven, and Woodbridge, CT, USA, and part of the service area contains combined sewers. Samples
 70 included both liquid and solid fractions (2 to 5% solids wt/wt) of sludge and were stored at -80°C until
 71 analysis. We analyzed daily samples from March 19 to April 15, and weekly composite samples from
 72 March 19 to June 30. Weekly sample extracts were further combined into 5-week composite samples, which
 73 were used for compound identification analysis only. **Figure 1** shows the sampling timeline relative to key
 74 dates for the pandemic and related shut down.

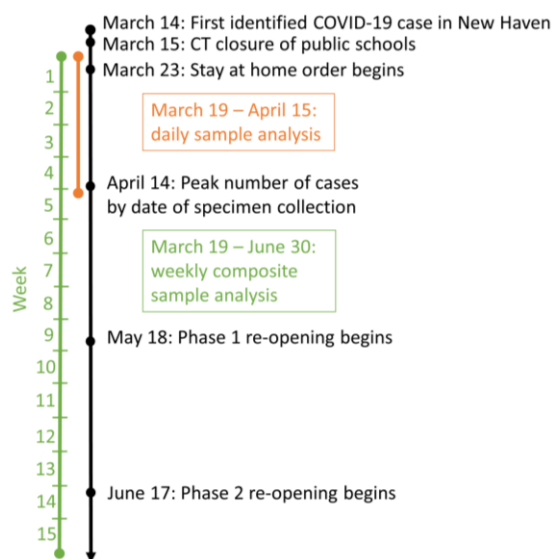


Figure 1. Timeline showing key pandemic related events and the timing of sample collection. We analyzed daily samples for four weeks during the initial increase in local COVID-19 cases. We analyzed weekly composite samples for a total of 15 weeks which covered the early stages of the pandemic and shut down as well as the initial stages of re-opening. All dates are within the year 2020.

75
 76 Our analytical approach was based on long-term in-house methods used on food samples and other
 77 matrices. Our goal was to detect a broad range of contaminants. As we did not know what chemicals were
 78 present prior to sample analysis, we opted for minimal sample processing to avoid removing any unknowns.

79 Briefly, liquid and solid fractions were separated via centrifugation. Solids were extracted with acetonitrile,
80 and equal amounts of the liquid fraction and acetonitrile extract were combined and filtered (method and
81 materials details and recovery information available in sections S.1.1, S.1.2, and S.2.1). This type of method
82 leads to complex sample matrix that requires high analytical sensitivity and selectivity, which are provided
83 by the chosen instrumentation.

84 Samples were analyzed using an Ultimate 3000 liquid chromatograph coupled with a Q-Exactive
85 mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) and positive electrospray ionization. Mobile phases were 0.1%
86 formic acid in water (A) and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile. We used an Agilent SB-C18 RRHD 1.8 μm ,
87 2.1 x 150 mm column and a 55-minute method with a gradient of 5% B to 95%B. Calibration points, blanks,
88 and daily, weekly, and 5-week composite samples were analyzed using an alternating full MS and all ion
89 fragmentation (AIF) method. Additionally, the 5-week composite samples were analyzed using data
90 dependent MS2 (ddMS2) analysis with an iterative inclusion approach, which has similar advantages to
91 previously reported intelligent acquisition methods (15, 16). Briefly, we used the full scan data to generate
92 inclusion lists including all features after blank filtering to ensure ddMS2 spectra were collected for each
93 peak in the three 5-week composite samples. Each 5-week composite was injected 10 or 11 times, each run
94 with a separate inclusion list for ddMS2 data collection. Additional instrument method and iterative
95 inclusion information is in sections S.1.2-3 and S.2.3.

96 We used three separate data processing methods to identify and (semi-)quantify compounds in the
97 samples. Full method descriptions, confidence levels for compound identification, and information on
98 accuracy and variability are provided in sections S.1.4-7, S.2.1, and S.2.4. First, we used a targeted approach
99 with TraceFinder software version 4.1 (Thermo Scientific) to conduct quantitative analysis based on
100 standards for 62 compounds (listed in Table S1). Analytes included a variety of toxins, pharmaceuticals
101 and illicit drugs known to be found in wastewater and/or sludge, and several compounds chosen for their
102 relevance to COVID-19 treatment and prevention. Concentrations in the sludge extracts were determined
103 based on a calibration curve that ranged from 0.1 ng/mL to 100 ng/mL. We used a separate method in

104 TraceFinder to screen our data using an in-house database of approximately 1800 compounds. The database
105 contains exact MS1 and MS2 masses and retention times for many compounds that have previously been
106 measured in house or by collaborators with the same (or very similar) instrument methods used in this
107 project. The database also contains MS1 and MS2 masses that are provided in the Thermo Scientific
108 EFS_HRAM database in TraceFinder (without retention times). Compound identifications using the
109 screening method were based on exact mass matches for MS1 and MS2 masses, isotope pattern matching,
110 and retention time matching where available. Only the Full MS/AIF data was used in the TraceFinder
111 methods. The third method used Compound Discoverer version 3.1 software (Thermo Scientific), and
112 identified compounds based on the ddMS2 data for the 5-week composite samples and spectral matches
113 with the mzCloud database. The full MS data for the daily and weekly samples was then screened for the
114 identified compounds. Peak areas were used for semi-quantitative trend analysis for the compounds
115 identified with Compound Discoverer and TraceFinder screening methods. Each identification was
116 assigned a confidence level based on available evidence. In the main text, identifications based on analytical
117 standards are referred to as “confirmed” while confident screening results (from TraceFinder and
118 Compound Discoverer) are “probable” and screening results where more ambiguity remains are listed as
119 “tentative” (17). More information, including detailed, software specific confidence levels for each
120 identification, is available in sections S.1.4-7, and section S.2.2.

121 Trends over time for each identified compound in daily and weekly samples were determined using
122 two types of analysis: linear regression and multigroup analysis. Multigroup statistical tests used were
123 determined based on the normality and homoscedasticity of each dataset. Trends listed as “increase” in
124 **Table 1** indicate a statistically significant positive linear regression ($p \leq 0.05$) or a multigroup analysis
125 where there were statistically significant differences between groups ($p \leq 0.05$) and an increase in average
126 compound levels in the sludge. Trends listed as “decrease” in **Table 1** indicate a statistically significant
127 negative linear regression ($p \leq 0.05$) or a multigroup analysis where there were statistically significant
128 differences between groups ($p \leq 0.05$) and a decrease in average compound levels in the sludge.

129 Concentrations based on an external calibration curve were used for trend analysis where available (for a
130 portion of the “confirmed” compounds); peak area was used for all other trend analyses (for all other
131 compounds). Detailed statistical methods and results for trend determination are available in sections S.1.8
132 and S.2.2. **Table 1** also includes the relative standard deviation (RSD) of each compound concentration or
133 peak area (from replicate unspiked samples, $n \geq 3$) as an estimate of measurement error.

134 Ten additional standards were purchased and analyzed after data analysis took place in an effort to
135 improve annotation confidence for interesting results. We found that 9 of 10 compounds were correctly
136 identified (amitriptyline, citalopram, diphenhydramine, triclocarban, didecyldimethylammonium,
137 acetaminophen, benzotriazole, sertraline, and oxybenzone). Results for these compounds are reported as
138 “confirmed”, but trend analysis is based on peak area due to lack of quantitative standards run alongside
139 the samples. The misidentified compound is not included in our results. Detailed quality control and
140 methodological results are available in sections S.2.1, S.2.3, and S.2.4.

141 Results and Discussion

142 We identified chemicals in wastewater primary sludge and analysed their trends over time in daily
143 samples from March 19 to April 15, 2020, and weekly composite samples from March 19 to June 30, 2020.
144 Compound identifications were performed using both targeted and non-targeted strategies, and each
145 compound was assigned a confidence level. **Table 1** shows the full list of identified compounds, their uses,
146 their detection information, and the observed trends over time. Trends in identified compounds are
147 discussed categorically below.

148

Table 1: Compounds identified in daily and weekly sludge samples

	Compound	Use	Confidence Level	Trends		<i>m/z</i> measured ^a	Δ mass (ppm) ^{a,b}	Retention Time (min) ^a	RSD ^c
				Daily Samples (3/19/20-4/15/20)	Weekly Samples (3/19/20-6/30/20)				
COVID-19 drugs and disinfectants	Hydroxychloroquine	antiviral	Confirmed	increase ^d		336.1835	-0.72	6.17	9
	Azithromycin	antibiotic	Confirmed		decrease	749.5152	-0.74	12.58	5
	Acetaminophen	analgesic	Confirmed		increase	152.0706	-0.28	5.22	7
	Triclocarban	disinfectant	Confirmed	increase		314.9849	-1.34	32.98	35
	Didecyldimethylammonium	disinfectant	Confirmed			326.3778	-0.86	40.98	60
	Cetrimonium	disinfectant	Probable			284.3308	-1.18	38.56	46
	Dioctyldimethylammonium	disinfectant	Probable		increase	270.3154	-0.64	37.8	73
	Dodecyltrimethylammonium (A)	disinfectant	Tentative			228.2685	0.11	30.88	45
	Dodecyltrimethylammonium (B)	disinfectant	Tentative		increase	228.2686	0.15	27.32	15
Opioids and Drugs of Abuse	Fentanyl	opioid	Confirmed		increase	337.2273	-0.45	16.06	25
	Levorphanol	opioid	Confirmed	decrease	decrease	258.1853	0.03	10.2	19
	Methadone	opioid	Confirmed		increase	310.2164	-0.45	20.3	17
	Codeine	opioid	Confirmed			300.1594	-0.17	6.18	2
	Hydromorphone	opioid	Confirmed	-- ^e	increase	286.1439	0.53	4.05	9
	Oxycodone	opioid	Confirmed	-- ^e		316.1543	-0.22	7.07	5
	Tilidine	opioid	Probable			274.1791	-3.71	41.26	24
	Tramadol	opioid	Probable			264.1957	-0.32	10.18	11
	Cocaine	cocaine	Confirmed		increase	304.1542	-0.35	12.16	6
	Benzoyllecgonine	cocaine	Probable		increase	290.1386	-0.43	9.54	10
	Ecgonine methyl ester	cocaine	Probable		increase	200.1278	-1.38	2.30	28
	Anhydroecgonine	cocaine	Probable		decrease	168.1019	-0.25	7.08	20

	THC	cannabis	Probable		decrease	315.2315	-1.20	40.67	31
	Cannabidiol ^f	cannabis	Probable			315.2315	-1.2	36.81	27
	11-Hydroxy- δ (9)-THC	cannabis	Probable			331.2264	-1.11	33.25	13
	Nor-9-carboxy-9-THC	cannabis	Probable			345.2059	-0.45	33.53	22
	THC-A	cannabis	Tentative	increase	increase	359.2211	-1.70	42.66	27
	Methamphetamine	amphetamine	Confirmed			150.1277	-0.08	7.49	13
	TFMPP	party drug	Tentative		decrease	231.1106	1.01	2.00	46
Antidepressant and Antiseizure Drugs	Doxepin	antidepressant	Confirmed		increase	280.1696	-0.16	17.04	25
	Amitriptyline	antidepressant	Confirmed		increase	278.1903	-0.1	20.49	19
	Citalopram	antidepressant	Confirmed		increase	325.171	-0.31	17.4	17
	desmethyl-citalopram	antidepressant	Probable		increase	311.1553	-0.47	17	10
	Sertraline	antidepressant	Confirmed	increase		306.081	-0.3	21.47	10
	Trazadone	antidepressant	Probable			372.1584	-0.44	14.87	19
	Venlafaxine	antidepressant	Probable			278.2114	-0.15	14.28	18
	Clozapine	antipsychotic	Probable		increase	327.137	-0.26	14.3	22
	Carbamazepine	anticonvulsant	Probable			237.1022	-0.8	18.93	11
	Gabapentin	anticonvulsant	Probable			172.1331	-0.5	6.89	4
	Pregabalin	anticonvulsant	Tentative			160.133	-1.11	1.99	5
Pharmaceuticals - other	Propafenone	antiarrhythmic	Probable			342.2061	-0.8	34.23	23
	Trimethoprim	antibiotic	Probable			291.1450	-0.63	8.02	8
	Diphenhydramine	antihistamine	Confirmed		increase	256.1695	-0.43	17.04	19
	Fexofenadine	antihistamine	Probable			502.295	-0.36	20.53	12
	Raltegravir	antiviral	Probable			445.1629	-0.32	20.87	12
	Darunavir	antiviral	Probable			548.2424	-0.13	24.21	5
	Zalcitabine	antiviral	Tentative		decrease	212.1027	-0.130	2.02	8
	Losartan	ARB inhibitor	Confirmed	decrease	decrease	423.1693	-0.4	20.47	7
	Valsartan	ARB inhibitor	Probable			436.2341	-0.42	25.38	18

	Atenolol acid	beta-blocker	Probable			268.1542	0.6	7.79	5
	Carvedilol	beta-blocker	Probable			407.1963	-0.5	19.19	17
	Labetalol	beta-blocker	Probable			329.1858	-0.4	14.33	23
	Metoprolol	beta-blocker	Probable			268.1906	-0.33	11.55	50
	Propranolol	beta-blocker	Probable			260.1645	-0.08	15.69	44
	Verapamil	blood pressure	Probable			455.2902	-0.48	20.6	22
	Warfarin	blood thinner	Probable			309.1120	-0.42	24.72	22
	Metformin	diabetes	Tentative			130.1086	-0.76	1.83	7
	Raloxifene	estrogen regulator	Probable			474.1733	-0.1	17.41	51
	Cinchophen	gout	Probable		increase	250.086	-0.89	42.24	18
	Cyclobenzaprine	muscle relaxant	Probable			276.1746	-0.16	19.76	22
	Tolycaine	pain - injection	Probable		decrease	279.1702	-0.52	13.02	28
	Pramocaine	pain - topical	Probable		increase	294.2063	-0.2	18.77	18
	Edaravone	stroke and ALS	Probable	decrease	decrease	175.0865	-0.25	10.59	40
	Berberine	supplement	Confirmed			336.1229	-0.44	16.17	20
	Piracetam	supplement	Tentative			143.0814	-1.03	1.90	12
	Betanechol	urinary retention	Tentative	decrease	decrease	161.1283	-0.72	1.71	7
Personal Care Products	Oxybenzone	UV-filter	Confirmed	decrease	increase	229.0859	0.06	29.96	16
	Avobenzone	UV-filter	Probable		increase	311.1636	-1.92	41.52	28
	Octocrylene	UV-filter	Probable		increase	362.2111	-1.01	42.25	18
	Galaxolidone	fragrance	Tentative			273.1847	-0.79	35.95	15
	Nicotine	tobacco	Probable			163.1228	-1.36	2.16	11
	Caffeine	stimulant	Probable		increase	195.0876	0.16	7.81	5
Other chemicals	Benzotriazole	anti-corrosion	Confirmed	decrease	increase	120.0559	2.08	9.51	5
	Levamisole	veterinary drug	Probable			205.0793	-0.66	7.48	44
	Iprnidazole	veterinary drug	Tentative	decrease	decrease	170.0922	-1.08	1.71	4
	Imazalil	pesticide	Probable	increase	decrease	297.0555	-0.26	18.67	10

Piperonyl-butoxide	pesticide	Probable	decrease		356.2427	-1.35	35.60	24
Dinotefuran-metabolite-UF	pesticide	Tentative	-- ^e		159.1126	-1.33	1.83	10
Nithiazine	pesticide	Tentative		decrease	161.0377	-1.28	1.90	22

^a Detailed description provided in section S.2.1

^b Difference from theoretical m/z

^c Relative standard deviation of concentration or peak area for replicate extractions of an unspiked sample (n=3 or n=6)

^d Elevated in week 3 only

^e Multidirectional changes in multivariate analysis

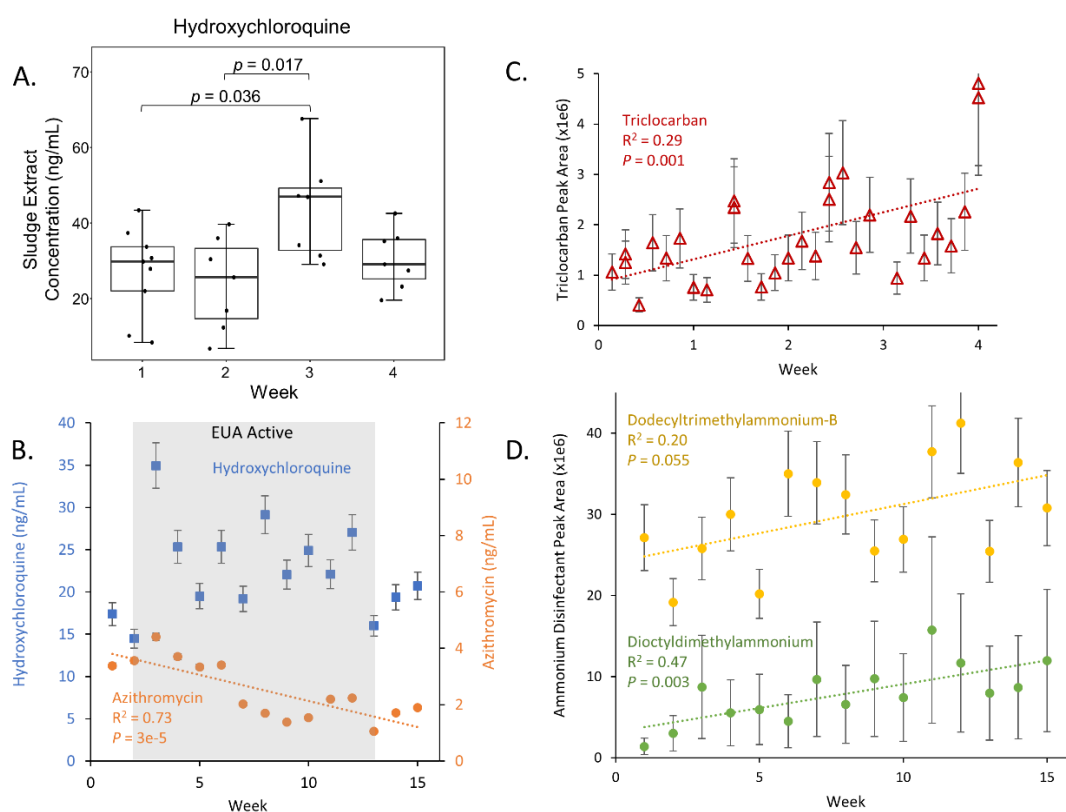
^f In daily (but not weekly) solvent blanks at high levels

150 COVID-19 drugs and disinfectants.

151 In the early days of the pandemic the drug combination of hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin
152 received consideration as a potential treatment for COVID-19. The US FDA issued an emergency use
153 authorization (EUA) on March 28, 2020 (week 2 of our data), which remained in effect until June 15, 2020
154 (week 13) (18). As shown in **Figure 2a**, hydroxychloroquine concentrations increased in daily sludge
155 samples in the third week of our study. While an overall hydroxychloroquine trend was not observed during
156 the time that weekly samples were collected, a clear increase in concentration occurs in week 3 (**Figure**
157 **2b**). Hydroxychloroquine has an elimination half-life in the human body of approximately 22 days for oral
158 doses and over 40 days for intravenous doses (19, 20), thus the increase in sludge concentrations is not as
159 immediate or drastic as it would be for a drug with a shorter half-life. Our data indicates that the EUA and
160 the large amount of publicity generated around hydroxychloroquine had significant impact on the amount
161 used in the New Haven area, which includes two major hospitals. Hydroxychloroquine is normally used to
162 treat malaria, lupus and rheumatoid arthritis (20), which are unlikely to have changed during the pandemic.
163 Azithromycin concentrations decreased over the study period (weekly samples, **Figure 2b**). Azithromycin
164 is only sometimes used in combination with hydroxychloroquine (21) and is more frequently used to treat
165 bacterial respiratory infections which typically decline in the spring (22). Acetaminophen, which can be
166 used to treat COVID-19 symptoms such as fever and headache, had limited availability during the
167 pandemic, likely due to increased demand (23). Correspondingly, acetaminophen sludge concentrations
168 increased in our weekly sample analysis (**Table 1**, Table S8).

169 Disinfectant use for cleaning both hands and surfaces has grown during the pandemic (24). Previous
170 studies have shown pandemic related increases in concentrations of quaternary ammonium disinfectants in
171 household dust (25), and higher risk of health effects due to increased exposure (26). Levels of two
172 quaternary ammonium disinfectant chemicals increased in sludge during the overall study period (weekly
173 samples, **Figure 1d**, Table S8). Triclocarban, an antibacterial compound used in consumer and medical
174 grade handwashes increased in concentration in our daily sampling period (**Figure 1c**). Triclocarban was

175 previously banned in medical grade hand washes (2017) and rubs and consumer hand washes (2016) for its
 176 endocrine disruption potential and other negative health effects (27–29). However, the most recent ruling
 177 against triclocarban (regarding consumer antiseptic rubs) took place in 2019, with an effective date of April
 178 13, 2020 (30). Thus, it is likely that triclocarban products use had not yet been fully phased out during our
 179 study period. Additionally, the pandemic is likely to have prompted increased use of soaps and hand
 180 sanitizers that were previously stored. We identified an additional 3 disinfectant compounds for which
 181 there were no trends detected during the study period (**Table 1**).



182

Figure 2. Trends for COVID-19 related drugs and disinfectants detected in daily and weekly primary sewage sludge samples. (A) boxplot showing a significant increase in hydroxychloroquine concentrations in week 3 samples based on daily sample concentrations (ANOVA with Tukey’s HSD post-hoc analysis). (B) Scatter plot showing hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin concentrations in weekly composite samples. (C) Scatter plot showing increasing triclocarban levels in daily sludge samples. (D) Scatterplot showing data for two quaternary ammonium disinfectants in weekly composite sludge samples. Though $p > 0.05$ for dodecyltrimethylammonium-B, our multi group analysis showed a significant trend (Table S8). All scatterplot error bars show the RSD for each compound, calculated from one set of replicate samples.

183 Opioids and drugs of abuse

184 The ongoing epidemic of opioid abuse across the US has included the State of Connecticut (31).
185 Additionally, there are pandemic-related increases in legal use of opioids; in April of 2020, the U.S. Drug
186 Enforcement Agency authorized increased production quotas for fentanyl, morphine, hydromorphone,
187 codeine to meet COVID-19 treatment needs, as well as for methadone, to ensure addiction treatment
188 centers are adequately supplied (32). Sludge concentrations of fentanyl, methadone, and hydromorphone
189 increased during our study period (weekly samples, **Figure 3a**). Fentanyl and methadone are commonly
190 used both legally and illegally. Hydromorphone is itself a drug, but it is also a metabolite of morphine,
191 codeine, and other opioids, thus its increasing levels are an indication of overall increase in opioid
192 concentrations (33). Levorphanol, an opioid used for pain management and as a preoperative drug (34),
193 decreased in both daily and weekly sludge samples (**Figure 3a, Table 1**). This decrease is potentially due
194 to the reduction in elective procedures during the study period (35). We did not observe trends over time
195 for an additional four opioids (**Table 1**). We note that our method was not capable of measuring heroin at
196 these low concentrations (section S.2.1).

197 Concentrations of cocaine and two of its metabolites (ecgonine methyl ester and benzoylecgonine)
198 also increased in the weekly samples (**Figure 3b, Table S8**). Anhydroecgonine, a metabolite specific for
199 crack cocaine (36), decreased in the weekly samples, suggesting the possibility of a shift in local cocaine
200 use patterns (**Figure 3b**). We saw no trends for methamphetamine, though the party drug TFMPP decreased
201 during the study period (**Table 1, Table S8**). Cannabis related compounds did not show a consistent trend.
202 Interestingly THC-A, the non-psychoactive precursor to THC found in raw plant material increased,
203 whereas THC (transformed from THC-A by decarboxylation during heating above 105°C for example in
204 cooking or smoking) decreased across the study period (**Table 1, Table S8**).

205 The pandemic has increased risk factors for the development of substance abuse disorders and
206 overdoses, such as isolation and economic distress. High COVID-19 related worry has been shown as a
207 predictor of beginning substance use during the pandemic (37), and increasing numbers of overdoses have

208 been reported nationwide (38). An increase in the amount of emergency responses necessary for opioid
 209 overdoses has occurred in some locations (39). Locally, there were 36 fatal overdoses during the study
 210 period in the towns/cities served by the East Shore Water Pollution Abatement Facility in New Haven (New
 211 Haven, East Haven, Woodbridge, and Hamden) (40). Thirty-two of these overdoses involved opioids,
 212 including 28 where fentanyl was detected. Cocaine was involved in 17 of the overdose deaths. Most cases
 213 included multiple drugs (40). Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic has caused many changes in
 214 treatments for both pain and substance abuse disorders, which usually depend heavily on in-person
 215 interactions and carefully controlled access to medications. New systems for opioid distribution and
 216 telemedicine appointments have been developed but there is continued concern over their effectiveness
 217 (41–43).

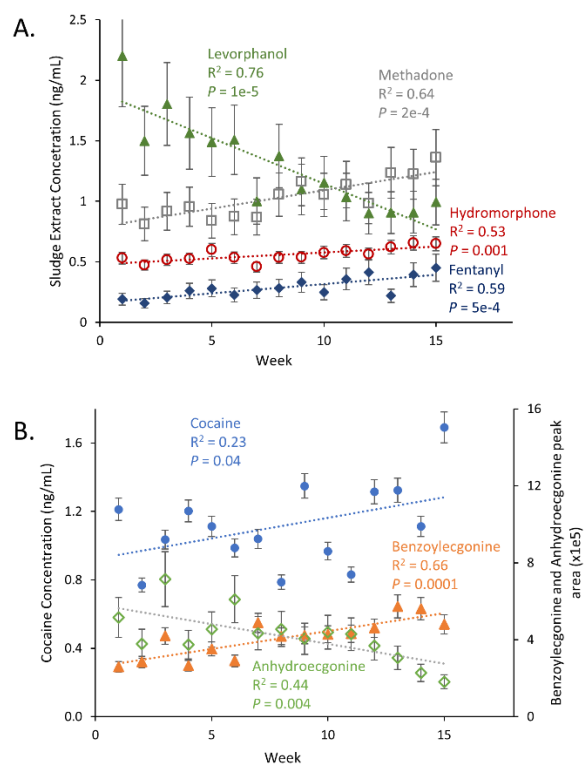


Figure 3. Trends for opioids and cocaine related compounds detected in weekly composite primary sewage sludge samples. (A) Scatter plot showing opioid concentrations. (B) Scatter plot showing levels of cocaine and cocaine metabolites. All scatterplot error bars show the RSD for each compound, calculated from one set of replicate samples.

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219 Antidepressants and other medications

220 Many people have struggled with mental health challenges during the COVID-19 pandemic and
 221 incidence of depression has increased in the US during the pandemic (44). Additionally, there is evidence

222 that people with psychiatric disorders are at increased risk for COVID-19 infection (45), and that COVID-
 223 19 infection is associated with new diagnoses of psychiatric illnesses (46). Increased demand for the
 224 antidepressant drug sertraline has caused shortages throughout the U.S. (47, 48). Sertraline levels increased
 225 in our analysis of daily sludge samples (**Figure 4a**). In our weekly sample analysis, the levels of three
 226 additional antidepressants (citalopram, amitriptyline, and doxepin), one antidepressant metabolite
 227 (desmethylcitalopram), and the antipsychotic drug clozapine increased (**Figure 4b, Table 1, Table S8**). No
 228 trend was observed for an additional 3 antidepressants and 3 anticonvulsant drugs (**Table 1, Table S8**).

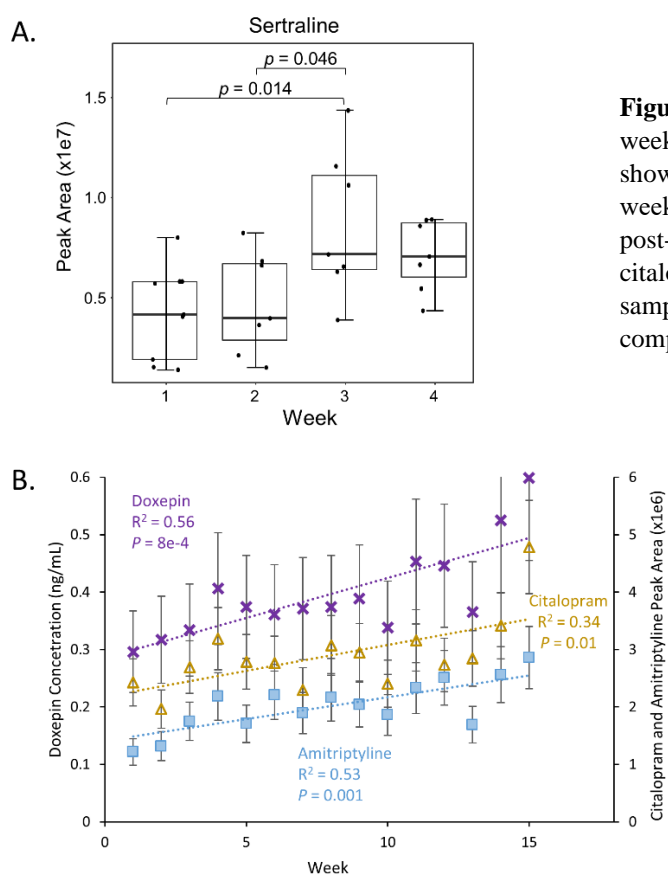


Figure 4. Trends for antidepressants detected in daily and weekly primary sewage sludge samples. (A) Boxplot showing a significant increase in sertraline during the 4 weeks of daily sampling (ANOVA with Tukey's HSD post-hoc analysis). (B) Scatter plot showing doxepin, citalopram, and amitriptyline levels in weekly composite samples. Scatterplot error bars show the RSD for each compound, calculated from one set of replicate samples.

229

230 We also observed various trends for other pharmaceuticals identified in our analysis (**Table 1,**
 231 **Table S8, Figures S3-S5**). Some of these trends are likely related to pandemic-induced changes in
 232 behaviour, while others are not. For example, tolycaine, a local anaesthetic used in dental injections (49),
 233 decreased in the sludge samples, which corresponds to a decrease in dental appointments during the

234 shutdown (50). Pramocaine, a mild anaesthetic used in over-the-counter creams (51), had increasing levels
235 in sludge which is more likely due to seasonal changes in exposure to insect bites and poison ivy than to
236 pandemic related changes. Diphenhydramine, an allergy medication, also increased during the study period
237 (**Table 1**, Table S8).

238 Personal care product ingredients and other chemicals

239 We found that benzotriazole, a corrosion inhibitor frequently used on cars and a known contaminant
240 in road dust (52), had trends in sludge that corresponded to the shut down and phase one reopening that
241 occurred during our study period (**Figure 5a**). There was a decrease in the daily and weekly composite
242 sample concentrations at the beginning of the study period, and then an increase in weekly composite
243 sample levels starting in the weeks before Phase 1 reopening. We hypothesize that the benzotriazole trends
244 are due to changes in the amount of traffic. Doucette et al., found that traffic in Connecticut decreased 43%
245 during the stay-at-home order that began in the first week of our study period (53), and air pollutants related
246 to traffic decreased during stay-at-home orders in other locations (54, 55). With fewer cars on the road, less
247 benzotriazole washes off cars onto the road, and thus less is dissolved the in the runoff water that enters the
248 combined sewer system. Benzotriazole is also used on aircrafts as a de-icer and corrosion inhibitor (56).
249 There is one small airport in the study area that, like many other airports, experienced decreased traffic
250 during the stay-at-home order. Benzotriazole is also used in household dishwasher detergents, which is
251 likely a smaller source to combined sewer wastewater systems.

252 All the UV-filter compounds detected increased in the weekly composite samples (**Figure 5b**).
253 This trend is likely due to the increase in sunscreen use that corresponds to the seasonal change that occurs
254 in Connecticut between March and June. A slight decrease in oxybenzone levels was observed in the daily
255 samples and the first weekly samples which may be reflective of decreased cosmetic usage during the stay
256 at home order while there was still wintery weather. We suspect that the other trends we found in this
257 category were not affected by the pandemic or stay at home order (**Table 1**, Table S8).

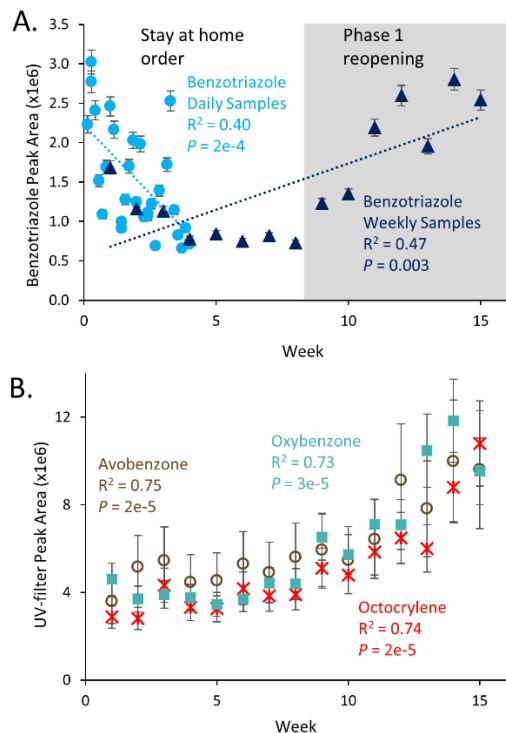


Figure 5. Trends for additional chemicals detected in daily and weekly primary sewage sludge samples. (A) Scatterplot showing benzotriazole levels in daily and weekly samples. (B) Scatter plot showing UV-filter levels in weekly composite samples. Scatterplot error bars show the RSD for each compound, calculated from one set of replicate samples ($n = 6$).

258

259 Broader relevance, limitations, and future directions

260 Though our results are specific to the New Haven, CT area, many of the trends that we found are
 261 more broadly relevant. We observed increased concentrations for medications whose demand increased
 262 during the pandemic (47) and increasing trends for illegal drugs that align with the increasing number of
 263 overdoses nationwide (38). Wastewater monitoring can be a way to monitor drug usage during this time
 264 when other monitoring strategies have been disrupted by the pandemic (57, 58). Moreover, if wastewater
 265 trends can be associated with public health monitoring data, wastewater-based information can play an
 266 important role in providing real-time estimates or early warnings of a variety of infectious and non-
 267 infectious disease. We note that our results on drugs of abuse differ from those reported by wastewater
 268 monitoring programs in Europe, where there has been an overall decrease in illicit drug use (10).
 269 Specifically, a study in Austria found decreased use of cocaine, amphetamine, and MDMA during the initial
 270 COVID-19 lockdown, which were partially compensated for by increased methamphetamine use (13).
 271 They saw no changes in cannabis or methadone related compounds relative to other years (13).
 272 Additionally, wastewater monitoring and drug use surveys in Australia have revealed record low levels of

273 fentanyl and oxycodone, but regional increases in cocaine, heroin, methamphetamine, and cannabis (11).
274 The differing trends may be related to differences in pandemic severity and local political responses, but
275 are also reflective of existing trends from before COVID-19; the opioid crisis that is prominent throughout
276 the US has not affected Australia nor Europe to the same extent (10, 11). Trends we observed for
277 pharmaceuticals are more similar to those reported by the Austrian study; though there is some variation
278 individual compound results, both studies show consistent levels of long term medications such as beta-
279 blockers and anticonvulsants and lowered levels of short term medications such as analgesics and
280 pharmaceuticals (13).

281 In addition to human health related trends, our results also reveal trends in chemical releases that
282 may affect the environment. Though our samples did not undergo the complete wastewater treatment
283 process, many of the compounds we detected are not fully removed by standard treatment trains (59–61)
284 and are released with the effluent water or sewage sludge. We detected endocrine disrupting compounds
285 including triclocarban, oxybenzone, and sertraline that can have negative impacts on marine organisms and
286 cycle back to humans via consumption of local seafood (62, 63). Much concern has been expressed about
287 the potential ecological impacts of increased pharmaceutical loads in wastewater, particularly in developing
288 areas where wastewater treatment is limited and access to antibiotic and antiviral medications is not
289 controlled by prescriptions (64–67). Spread of resistance to antibiotic and antiviral medications is also a
290 potential concern (64, 67).

291 While our analytical method was designed to include a wide range of chemicals, the scope of any
292 analysis is inherently limited. We intentionally included both liquid and solid portions of primary sludge to
293 measure both hydrophilic and hydrophobic chemicals. However, this prohibited the exact quantification of
294 chemicals in either phase. We therefore are not able to use our data to back calculate per capita consumption
295 as has been done in other wastewater studies (4, 12, 13). Additionally, we designed our sample preparation
296 method for the relatively small volume of sample available from corresponding research on levels of SARS-
297 CoV-2 RNA in primary sludge; we could not use solid phase extraction to preconcentrate the liquid portion

298 of our samples, as is common in wastewater studies (59, 60). This likely caused a decrease in the number
299 of liquid phase contaminants we detected. Additionally, our unique method makes our quantitative results
300 difficult to relate to other studies, though trends over time can still be compared. We note that our analytical
301 methods were highly effective, and our sample collection and preparation method was simple, fast, and did
302 not require specialized supplies. Sewage sludge is a well-mixed, concentrated source that does not require
303 complex sampling equipment. Though we collected data over a relatively long period of time in 2020, our
304 sampling campaign did not begin until the pandemic was underway; therefore, we cannot directly compare
305 our results to those from previous years. The data presented in this manuscript represents only a small
306 fraction of what was collected using our high-resolution mass spectrometry methods. We plan to conduct
307 further investigation of chemicals in the sludge that were not easily identifiable using our databases and
308 investigate chemical correlations with measured levels of SARS-CoV-2, as in Wang et al., 2020 who
309 reported statistical relationships between a variety of chemical features and virus RNA levels (12).

310 Overall, the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic and the related shut down had a significant
311 influence on the chemical fingerprint of primary sludge in New Haven, CT. We found upwards trends in
312 hydroxychloroquine and disinfectant concentrations in sludge, reflecting increased use during the initial
313 wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. We also saw increases in drugs of abuse and antidepressants, and
314 seasonal changes for chemicals such as UV-filters that are used in sunscreens. Importantly, we found that
315 benzotriazole concentrations showed different trends during and after the local stay at home order, a key
316 indication that benzotriazole can be used as a marker for the influence of traffic on wastewater and sludge
317 in combined sewer systems. Overall, our findings relate strongly to trends in public and environmental
318 health worldwide and show specific trends that may not have been picked up in other types of analysis.
319 Sewage sludge surveillance is a promising strategy to monitor a variety human behavioural changes during
320 the pandemic that have public health consequences.

321 Supporting Information

322 Supporting information is available for this manuscript that includes: information on materials and
323 analytical standards; detailed sample preparation, instrumental analysis, data analysis, and statistical
324 methods; QA/QC results for method performance; detailed confidence annotations and statistical results;
325 results specific to iterative inclusion functionality and compound annotation accuracy.

326 Data sharing plans

327 This manuscript and associated SI has been uploaded to the pre-print server ChemRxiv
328 (<https://doi.org/10.26434/chemrxiv.13562525.v1>). The .RAW instrument data files used in this study
329 are available as a dataset on MassIVE (<ftp://MSV000086676@massive.ucsd.edu>) along with the full peak
330 list produced in our Compound Discoverer analysis and the filtered peak list that includes only the
331 compounds listed in this manuscript. Additional files including all TraceFinder data, the internal database
332 used for suspect screening, and the R scripts used for statistical analysis are available from the authors upon
333 request.

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