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COVID-19 Hospital Admissions and Wastewater Data in Canada: A Statistical Analysis

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Research Article

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Hierarchical Bayesian regression	024
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1 Introduction	028
1 millioudeolon	029
The SARS-CoV-2 pandemic witnessed the adoption of wastewater-based surveillance	030
(WBS) by many jurisdictions worldwide, as early as the Spring of 2020 [1]. WBS	031
relies on the fact that some pathogens are shed in stools and/or urine by infected	032
individuals Monitoring the pathogen concentration in wastewater (typically using	033
quantitative polymerase chain reaction (α PCR) techniques) can provide a proxy of	034
prevalence in an entire community [2, 3] About four years after its large-scale debut	035
WBS is now deployed in many jurisdiction worldwide monitoring various pathogens	036
and substances of public-health concern [4]. This popularity stems in part by the	037
ability of WBS to sample entire communities (including asymptomatic infections) at	038
a relatively low cost and to quantify multiple pathogen targets (e.g. SAPS CoV 2)	039
Mage influence requirements are still sime measing) from a single sample [5, 6, 7, 9]	040
Mpox, initializa, respiratory syncytial virus, measies) from a single sample $[5, 0, 7, 6]$.	040
nowever, despite its coverage and nexionity, which does not provide a metric that	041
is directly interpretable for public nearth professionals. Indeed, sewer systems are	042
typically narsh and dynamic environments that can affect the pathogen concentration,	043
yielding measurements displaying a large variance and, potentially, a bias. Hence, to	044
support decision making, WBS needs to be translated into metrics that are directly	045

047 relevant to public health. During an epidemic, the burden level on hospitals – a critical component of most health systems – is an important metric. Multiple studies have 048 049 focused on understanding the link between wastewater signal and hospital admissions. Many of them done during the COVID-19 pandemic found a correlation between the 050 051concentration of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in wastewater and COVID-19 hospital admissions with varying lead times [9, 10, 11, 3]. In Canadian studies, the optimal lead time when 052053exploring correlations between SARS-CoV-2 concentration and hospital admissions 054varied between cities and between circulating variants. [12, 13, 14].

055Additionally, a number of studies have used various mathematical models to esti-056 mate the number of COVID-19 hospital admissions from SARS-CoV-2 wastewater 057concentration, using various linear models, such as multivariate, Poisson, mixedeffects, and generalized linear models [11, 15, 16, 17]. Other studies used more advanced 058059models that implement machine learning tools such as artifical neural networks and 060 random forest algorithms [18, 19, 20]. The lag between infection and hospital admission being at least five days on average [21], using WBS to anticipate the burden level 061 062 on hospitals can provide a key support for public health action.

063 Although these studies showed that WBS is often correlated to hospital admissions, 064 there are a number of challenges that can affect the relationship. The emergence of new 065SARS-CoV-2 lineages may impact the amount of viral load shed by infected individuals 066 into the sewer system and may affect the virulence of SARS-CoV-2, impacting the 067 rate of hospitalization in infected individuals [18, 12, 22]. It is still not clear how fecal shedding and disease virulence are related. In studies that predicted hospitalizations 068069 from SARS-CoV-2 concentration in wastewater, variants of concerns were often used 070 to split data into different time periods for analysis [12, 11, 13, 23]. Other studies 071 took a more direct approach in incorporating variants in their models, using them as 072 a fixed-effect [17], as a covariate [16], or as a time-varying intercept [14].

073 As new SARS-CoV-2 lineages continue to emerge, models that predict COVID-19 074hospital admissions from wastewater will require to account for a virulence that may be variant-dependant. In this study, we developed a model that estimated COVID-075076 19 hospital admissions from SARS-CoV-2 wastewater concentration in several cities 077 across Canada guided by the presence of variants in each respective community. This 078 model quantifies the severity of circulating SARS-CoV-2 variants by estimating the 079relationship between community prevalence (informed by wastewater) and acute infec-080 tions (informed by COVID-19 hospital admissions). It also allows the severity of new 081 lineages to be benchmarked to inform public health action.

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${}^{083}_{084}$ 2 Methods

⁰⁸⁵ 2.1 Data

087 The wastewater data is from the Public Health Agency of Canada wastewater surveil-088 lance program. In collaboration with provincial and regional organizations, wastewater 089 samples are collected from treatment plants across Canada. Once collected, sam-090 ples are shipped to the National Microbiology Laboratory in Winnipeg, Manitoba, 091 where qPCR is performed to measure the concentration of various pathogens such as 092 influenza, respiratory syncytial virus, and SARS-CoV-2. In most cities, samples are

collected twice a week; while samples collected at treatment plants in Winnipeg are093collected five times a week. We included in this study, SARS-CoV-2 wastewater con-094centration data from treatment plants in Vancouver, Edmonton, Regina, Winnipeg,095Toronto, Halifax, and St. John's. For comparison with weekly hospital admission096counts, we calculated the weekly mean SARS-CoV-2 concentrations at each treatment097plant.098

In cities with one treatment plant, we inferred that the weekly mean concentration represented SARS-CoV-2 levels for the entire city. To estimate a city-level 100 SARS-CoV-2 concentration in wastewater, (cities usually have multiple wastewater 101 treatment plants), we calculated a population-weighted mean concentration based on 102 the catchment population of each treatment plant. 103

Anonymized and aggregated hospital admission data were retrieved from the Dis-104charge Abstract Database (DAD), a database from the Canadian Institute for Health 105Information (CIHI) containing administrative hospital data received directly from 106 inpatient facilities across Canada except Quebec [24]. Using this dataset, weekly counts 107of admitted patients with an ICD-10 code equal to U071 or U072 (indicating a diagno-108sis of COVID-19 infection) were retrieved up to March 31, 2024. Along with hospital 109admission data, the DAD captures the Forward Sortation Area codes (first three char-110 acters of postcodes in Canada) of admitted patients. CIHI provided us with weekly 111 hospitalization counts aggregated at the wastewater treatment plant level, and we 112subsequently aggregated the data at the city level for this study. 113

To account for variations in city and treatment plant size, hospital admission data 114 was normalized by taking weekly hospitalization counts and dividing by the sum of the 115 corresponding total wastewater catchment population and then multiplied by 100,000 116 to obtain the number of admissions per 100,000 persons. Wastewater concentration 117 data was not normalized to flow or any other biomarker. This was due to the fact that 118 flow data was not available for all treatment plants included in the study. 119

The SARS-CoV-2 variant lineage data is taken from sequencing done on clini-120cal samples collected from the COVID-19 National Genomics Database, a Canadian 121122genomics database managed by the Public Health Genomics and Computational and Operational Genomics divisions of the Public Health Agency of Canada, with data 123provided by provincial and territorial laboratories within the Canadian Public Health 124Laboratory Network. The lineage data used in this study contains anonymized counts 125of each variant aggregated weekly at the provincial level. Using these counts, variant 126127proportions were obtained, with a dominant variant determined by the variant with 128 the highest proportion in a week.

To account for multiple sublineages circulating within a given week, many sub-129lineages were merged into grouped variant lineage by their Pango lineage clade [25]. 130Using the CCT R package [26], we retrieved a list of lineages and their respective child 131132sublineages from the Pango Designation GitHub repository [27]. From this list, we were able to merge sublineages found in the observed weekly variant data. For exam-133ple, sublineages such as JN.1.1, JN.1.1.5, JN.1.1.6 were merged into JN.1 as they 134were reported be part of phylogenetic clade 24A. On the other hand, sublineages such 135as JN.1.11.1, LP.1, LP.1.2 were grouped into JN.1.11.1 as they were reported to 136be part of clade 24B. 137

139 2.2 Statistical models

We used a hierarchical model to estimate COVID-19 hospital admissions from the concentration of SARS-CoV-2 genes present in wastewater. In each province, the emergence of B.1.1.7 as the dominant variant ("Alpha" variant) marked the starting point in each of the data sources: wastewater concentration, hospital admissions, and variant data before the first date B.1.1.7 was declared dominant in provincial variant data were excluded from the analysis.

The hospital admission data we had access to was not linked to genetic sequencing. Hence, we could not associate unequivocally a COVID-19 hospitalization with a specific SARS-CoV-2 variant. We made the assumption that if a variant is observed more often than other variants during a time frame, hospital admissions observed during that time frame can be attributed to this "dominant" variant. Below, we define variant dominance based on a sustained high level of circulation.

Only variants identified as dominant were selected to be included in the statistical model. A variant was dominant if its abundance was larger than a threshold of 60%. Its period of dominance was defined by the start and end weeks for the interval of time where it sustained its abundance above that threshold. Moreover, dominant variants that did not exceed this threshold for 75% of the time within a minimum 8-week window were excluded from the model.

The hierarchical model performs a linear regression with three levels:

the top "universal" level, which estimates hospital admissions from wastewater
 concentration across all variants and geographical locations

the variant level which estimates hospital admissions from wastewater within each
 (dominant) variant period

the geographical location level which estimates hospital admissions from wastewater
 for each variant in each city

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The basic linear regression formula used in each level can simply be represented with the expression $H \sim mW + b$, where H represents the logarithm of hospital admissions, m represents the slope coefficient for the logarithm of wastewater concentration W, and b represents the intercept. At the universal level, the formula to estimate Hat time t is:

 $H(t) \sim mW(t) + b \tag{1}$

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174 At the variant level, the formula to estimate the log number of hospital admissions 175 H_v associated with variant v at time t is:

 $176 \\ 177$

$$H_v(t) \sim m_v W_v(t) + b_v \tag{2}$$

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 18^{2}

with $l = 1, ..., N_v$ where N_v is the number of geographical locations where variant v 185 was observed. 186

The observed data is at the variant and location level, hence the data directly 187 informs estimates for $m_{v,l}$ and $b_{v,l}$, which then inform – thanks to the hierarchical 188 structure – estimates for variant-level parameters m_v , b_v , and ultimately "universal" 189 parameters m, and b. A diagram illustrating the hierarchical relationship is shown in Figure 1. 191

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Fig. 1 Hierarchical diagram for the slope parameter m. The top level of the diagram represents the "universal" slope m of the linear regression linking any COVID-19 hospital admission with any SARS-CoV-2 variant. At the middle level, the parameter m_v represents the slope for variant v at any geographical location. At the bottom level, parameter $m_{v,\ell}$ represents the slope for variant v at the geographical location ℓ . Data may not be available for all geographical locations for a given variant, hence the number of locations having data for variant i can vary across variants and is noted N_i . Similar diagrams can be drawn for all other hierarchical parameters (e.g., the intercept b).

207The hierarchical model was implemented in R using the nimble package (version 2081.2.1) [28, 29] and parameter estimation was done with the Hamiltonian Monte Carlo 209Markov Chain (MCMC) algorithm using the R package nimbleHMC (version 0.2.3). To 210test the validity of our implementation, synthetic data was simulated using predefined 211values for m and b at each hierarchical level, and the same number of variants and 212locations as found in the observation dataset. This created a dataframe containing 213simulated values of $H_{v,l}$ and $W_{v,l}$ for nine hypothetical variants and seven hypothetical 214geographical locations. Results of this preliminary check are shown in Appendix A and 215indicated no apparent concerns regarding the model implementation as the inference 216successfully estimated the parameter values used for the simulated data. 217

When running the inference on the real data, the MCMC algorithm was iterated 500,000 times with 250,000 iterations used as "burn-in", and executed on 4 chains. 219

In addition to the Hamiltonian MCMC algorithm, a naive linear regression was conducted to estimate the slope for each variant at each location. This served as an addictional check of the MCMC inference (inferred slopes from the naive linear model shouldn't be disproportionaly different).

3 Results

3.1 Study population

Wastewater concentration and hospital admission data was collected from seven cities, 229 representing a total community population of approximately 9.7 million, or 26% of 230

the Canadian population [30]. Community populations were derived from the catchment sizes of individual wastewater treatment sites, ranging from 42,981 to 1,447,246
persons.

Figure 2 shows the data used by the hierarchical model. In this figure, hospital admissions are plotted against observed wastewater concentration across various variant periods in the seven cities included in the study. As data was not available for all geographical locations for a given variant, some of the subplots of the figure are blank.



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Fig. 2 Log-transformed COVID-19 hospital admissions and SARS-CoV-2 concentration in wastewater data used by the hierarchical model. Each subplot represents a variant at a given geographic
location. Some locations have empty variant plots as no dominant variant was identified for inclusion.
The X-axis represents weekly averaged wastewater concentration, measured in gene copies per mL
(cp/mL). Y-axis represents weekly averaged hospital admissions measured in admissions per 100,000
persons.

The start and end dates determined for each variant at each geographic location277are shown in Table B2. The date ranges represent the maximum period where the
dominant period met the criteria specified in the methods, and there was sufficient278wastewater and hospital admissions data to conduct a regression.280

3.2 Hierarchical model

The Hamiltonian MCMC algorithm was run with 500,000 iterations on four chains, with the first 250,000 iterations used as a "burn-in", to estimate the values of model parameters m and b at each hierarchical level. To test if the MCMC algorithm had converged sufficiently, a Gelman-Rubin diagnostic was conducted to test the convergence of the universal and variant level parameters across the four chains. Figure E6 shows that most parameters had a potential scale reduction factor (PSRF) below 1.001.

The mean estimates for slope and intercept at the universal level (on the log scale) were inferred to be 0.353 and 0.471 respectively. Table 1 shows the estimates of m and b at the universal and variant levels.

Table 1 Inferred slope (m) and intercept (b) estimates from the Hamiltionian MCMC algorithm at the universal and variant levels. Algorithm was executed across 4 chains using 500,000 iterations and 250,000 iterations used as "burn-in". Values in brackets represent the 95% credible interval.

Variant	slope m	intercept b
B.1.1.7	$0.406 \ [0.262; \ 0.669]$	0.502 [-0.343; 1.353]
B.1.617.2	$0.327 \ [0.219; \ 0.425]$	-0.163 $[-0.71; 0.396]$
BA.1	$0.351 \ [0.252; \ 0.457]$	0.315 [-0.235; 0.853]
BA.2	0.38 $[0.256; 0.551]$	0.458 [-0.264; 1.159]
BA.5	$0.31 \ [0.138; \ 0.432]$	1.035 [0.299; 1.826]
BQ.1	$0.344 \ [0.187; \ 0.492]$	$0.783 \ [0.096; \ 1.561]$
XBB.1.5	0.327 [0.153; 0.465]	0.536 [-0.182; 1.335]
EG.5.1	0.355 [0.181; 0.546]	0.579 [-0.358; 1.635]
JN.1	$0.371 \ [0.25; \ 0.533]$	-0.07 $[-0.81; 0.571]$
Universal	0.353 [0.257; 0.459]	0.471 [0; 0.99]

To represent the results of the log-regressions in a more straightforward epidemiological way, we show the hospital admissions estimates given viral concentration in wastewater (not log transformed, but as they would be directly observed) in Figure 3. The hospital admissions values were calculated using the formula $h = e^b \times w^m$ where $h = \log(H)$ and $w = \log(W)$. The values for m and b were sampled from their posterior distributions and the colored area in Figure 3 illustrates different quantiles intervals (from light to dark, see figure caption for details).



Fig. 3 Estimated SARS-CoV-2 hospital admissions per viral concentration of wastewater. Hospital admissions is measured per 100,000 persons. Different colours represent hospital admissions at different quantiles of the credible interval of the sampled posterior distribution of m and b, with darker colours representing the upper range of the credible interval. The lightest region represents the 2.5%-10% quantile, then the following regions indicate 10%-25%, 25%-50%, 50%-75%, 75%-90%, and 90%-97.5% for the darkest colour. Open circles represents an hypothetical new variant wave that could be categorized as a high-severity variant, whereas crosses represent another hypothetical low-severity new variant.

349 3.3 Sensitivity analyses and comparison to a simple linear regression

To test the robustness of our inference using the Hamiltonian MCMC algorithm, a number of sensitivity analyses were conducted to assess the impact of changing the dominance definition. The results of this sensitivity analysis are shown in Appendix D. Overall, the estimated slopes and intercepts at the universal and variant levels are comparable to what was found.

A naive linear regression was conducted to estimate, independently, the slope and intercept for each variant/location pair. Its results are shown in Appendix E and the differences with the Bayesian hierarchical model are as expected (estimates at the variant/location level from the hierarchical model are "pulled" to the universal level whereas estimates from the independent linear regressions are more scattered).

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³⁶³ 4 Discussion

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365 Despite many advantages of WBS, translating viral concentrations measured in 366 wastewater into practical clinical outcomes (e.g., number of infections, hospitaliza-367 tions) remains a challenge because of various factors, including environmental and 368 in-sewer dynamics.

Our study, using data from seven large urban centres representing 26% of the 369 Canadian population, inferred the relationship across locations and variants that cir-370 culated between late 2020 and March 2024, drawing information from multiple variants 371 at different geographic locations. Looking forward in time, our study can also pro-372 vide an expected range of COVID-19 hospital admissions for a given SARS-CoV-2 373 concentration level in wastewater and virulence of emerging variants. Indeed, esti-374 mates of the hierarchical parameters provide watermarks of severity levels for any 375 future (re)emerging SARS-CoV-2 variants. The estimates of the "universal" regres-376 sion parameters (slope m and intercept b) have a joint distribution from which we 377 can extract confidence intervals to flag an unusually high virulence that would war-378 rant informing local public authorities. For example, as a new variant emerges, data 379from wastewater and clinical surveillance can be overlayed on Figure 3 to categorize 380 its population-level clinical severity by comparing the number of hospital admissions 381 to wastewater concentrations, a proxy for the community-wide prevalence because it 382 includes asymptomatic and mild infections. The open circles in Figure 3 indicate a 383 hypothetical high-severity new variant (paired data would be obtained every week 384from the clinical and wastewater surveillance), whereas the crosses on the same figure 385 show another hypothetical lower-severity variant. As future waves caused by new vari-386ants unfold, we can feed that data to the hierarchical model in order to determine 387 updated levels for the severity categories for the next wave. This is a novel approach to 388 inferring virulence of a SARS-CoV-2 variant as it gauges its virulence using wastewa-389 390 ter surveillance that includes asymptomatic and mild infections, as opposed to relying solely on clinical information (*i.e.*, test positivity rates, hospital admissions). 391

392 Values of the regression intercept (parameter b) to infer hospital admissions represent the "baseline" hospitalization level for COVID-19 in a given location, that is, 393 the number of hospital admissions when no SARS-CoV-2 transmission is apparently 394circulating. We found that the values of the intercept vary at both the variant and 395 geographic level (Table 1). This is not surprising for two reasons. Firstly, delivery of 396 397 healthcare in Canada is managed by provincial or territorial authorities, meaning that each province or territory has its own health care infrastructure and resource use. 398While the model estimates COVID-19 hospital admissions per capita to account for 399 differences in population between locations, the varying number of available beds per 400 capita and admission policies between provinces and territories would explain differing 401 baseline levels. Secondly, as the hierarchical model does not draw data from variants 402 equally between geographic locations (due to restrictions in variant dominance for the 403404 inclusion criteria), the weight of each location varies between variants depending on how much data is drawn (if any, at all) for each variant. 405

In this study we selected B.1.1.7 as our starting variant in the model. Commonly known as the "Alpha" variant, B.1.1.7 was one of the first publicized variants of concern that emerged in late 2020 across many countries [31]. Although other SARS-CoV-2 lineages were present in sample data prior its emergence, variants of concern became more clearly defined and classified after the presence of B.1.1.7 in sequencing data. 400 401 402 403 403 404 409 410 411

In this study, there were variants that did not meet the inclusion criteria in several geographic locations, while some variants met the inclusion criteria in virtually 413

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all locations. These differences could suggest varying levels of variant invasion in the 415community. Variants such as B.1.617.2 (commonly known as Delta) and BA.1 (com-416 417monly known as the first Omicron variant) were well known variants of concern, and were included at all locations in our model. While increasing genetic diversity may 418419have contributed to later variants not being included at all locations, there were still newer variants (such as BQ.1 and JN.1) that were included in most locations. In these 420two examples, they were included in all locations except St. John's. Given that St. 421422John's variant data comes from the least populous province in our model in which the 423fewest samples were collected, it can still be inferred that these variants still had a 424high level of invasion in the community.

425While other studies have examined the virulence of variants when predicting hospi-426tal admissions from SARS-CoV-2 wastewater concentration, this study provides new 427findings. Firstly, this study examines variants beyond the first and second waves of 428 Omicron observed in late 2021 and early 2022 by classifying the virulence of BA.1, 429BA.2, and the subsequent lineages that emerged after up to JN.1 observed in early 4302024. Previous studies have either captured up to the first Omicron wave [11, 16], or BA.2 [12, 13], or have classified data after the first Omicron wave as "post-Omicron" 431432[23]. Secondly, the use of a hierarchical model generates a global range of SARS-CoV-2 virulence across different variants, allowing the virulence of emerging variants to be 433benchmarked. Although the World Health Organization has declared it to no longer 434 435be an international public health emergency since May 2023 [32], COVID-19 continues to be a public health issue with new mutations and waning of immunity giving 436437rise to waves of COVID-19 hospitalizations. Using the hierarchical model in this study 438can allow researchers to classify the virulence of a new variant and help public health 439officials prepare hospital resources use accordingly.

440In our study, we found that B.1.1.7 had a higher slope value (m) compared to 441 B.1.617.2, suggesting higher virulence. This is contrary to previous studies, which have 442shown that mutations in its spike protein have led B.1.617.2 to be more transmissive 443and virulent than B.1.1.7 [33, 34]. Possible explanations for this discrepancy include 444 the limited number of geographic locations for B.1.1.7 included in the model contributing a the wider uncertainty in the estimates for the slope m, and the introduction 445of vaccination campaigns in many Canadian cities during the B.1.617.2 period [12] 446 447that may have confounded the relationship between SARS-CoV-2 wastewater concen-448tration and hospital admissions. Conversely, waning immunity from vaccination is a 449 possible explanation as to why BA.1 and BA.2 had higher slope values than B.1.617.2 450despite other studies showing higher virulence for B.1.617.2 [35, 36]. When examining 451newer Omicron variants to earlier lineages, we found that BA.5 had a lower viru-452lence than BA.1 and BA.2. While studies in other countries found similar virulence 453between these variants [37, 38], a Canadian study found a higher risk of hospitaliza-454tion in patients infected with BA.5 [39]. While BQ.1 had a slightly lower regression 455slope than BA.1 and BA.2, its slope was higher than BA.5. This is somewhat in line 456with existing literature that suggests that BQ.1 exhibits higher escape neutralisation 457than BA.5, but also higher escape neutralisation than BA.1 and BA.2 [40, 41]. JN.1 458had a slightly higher regression slope than XBB.1.5, which was higher than EG.5.1. 459This is contrary to result found in previous studies [42, 43]. A possible explanation 460

could be that increased transmissibility and immune escape [44] allowed more data461for JN.1 to be included than EG.5.1 and XBB.1.5, giving a more reliable estimate of462its virulence. Decreased vaccine effectiveness against JN.1 may have also confounded463JN.1's virulence estimate [45, 46].464

Although this study develops a well-defined model to estimate COVID-19 hospital admissions from viral wastewater concentration, there are a number of limitations.

It is unclear if differences in fecal shedding dynamics had played a role in the 467 differences in slopes (m) and intercepts (b) estimates between the variants. We inter-468pret the slopes of each variant as an indication of virulence at the whole population 469level (*i.e.*, accounting for asymptomatic/mild infections). Variants with higher slopes 470suggest higher virulence, meaning that an infected individual is more likely to have 471a severe infection (and hence be hospitalized) than with variants associated with a 472lower regression slope. This interpretation assumes that the rate of fecal shedding, the 473 amount of viral SARS-CoV-2 RNA that an individual sheds through their stool during 474 their infection, remains similar across different variants. Research on fecal shedding 475dynamics between variants is limited, but could provide an alternate interpretation to 476varying slopes found in this model. 477

This study used a restrictive inclusion criteria when selecting data in the model. 478This was done to best ascertain hospital admissions to circulating variants. In the 479absence of genomic sequencing of admitted patients, ascertaining SARS-CoV-2 hos-480pital admissions to variants can be difficult, particularly during periods of competing 481 dominance. To define the time windows of each variant at each location, we examined 482 clinical sample counts collected at the provincial level that corresponded to each city in 483484 the study. Sample counts varied between provinces. Larger provinces, such as Ontario 485 and British Columbia, reported on average 765 and 1114 weekly samples respectively. 486Smaller provinces, such as Nova Scotia and Newfoundland and Labrador, reported on average 45 and 21 samples weekly. During the development of the model, the Shan-487non Index [47] was first attempted to establish variant dominance but as genetic drift 488increased over time (particularly after the emergence of BA.1), it became difficult to 489define variant periods. As such, a minimum threshold of 60% was selected to best 490491ascertain hospital admissions to a particular variant in a community without being too restrictive in our variant data windows. But, lacking access to hospital admissions 492 linked to genomic analysis, our identification of dominant variants, which relies on 493dominance for a sustained period of time, may be erroneous. 494

Although hospital admissions were normalized by population, wastewater concen-
tration was not normalized by flow. This was in part due to the fact that not all cities495included in the study had flow data available. Preliminary analyses had shown that
flow-normalization of the cities with available flow data did not substantially impact
the outcome of this study.495

The model used in this study did not take take into consideration vaccination 500 coverage. In many studies, vaccination has shown to be effective in reducing COVID-19 501 hospital admissions [48, 49, 50]. In Canada, SARS-CoV-2 vaccination coverage varied 502 during the course of the COVID-19 pandemic. In 2021, following the rollout of SARS-CoV-2 vaccines, vaccination coverage was 80% [51]. By July 2024, however, only 3.9% 504 of Canadians met COVID-19 vaccination recommendations at that time, which was to 505

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507 receive a number of XBB.1.5 vaccine (the latest vaccine at the time) doses depending 508 on their age group [52]. Varying vaccination coverage between different time periods 509 may have confounded the impact of variants on SARS-CoV-2 hospital admissions 510 and possibly on fecal shedding given that vaccination may reduce the viral load of 511 an infectious person [53], and that vaccine effectiveness may vary between variants 512 [54, 46].

513 This study did not take into consideration precipitation and degredation in the 514 sewer system that may lead to potential losses of viral wastewater concentration [55, 515 56]. Future studies should take into account the viral fate of SARS-CoV-2 in the sewer 516 system.

517Despite its limitations, the hierarchical model used in this study provides a statisti-518cal framework for inferring COVID-19 hospitalizations from SARS-CoV-2 wastewater 519concentration. Unlike a simple independent linear regression, a hierarchical model can 520draw information from multiple sources with varying amounts of data to generate a 521weighted estimate of an outcome of interest. While a simple linear regression can pro-522vide estimates of variant virulence at a particular location for a specific variant, our 523hierarchical model provides a weighted estimate of a variant's virulence across all loca-524tions and past variants. That weighted estimate can then be used to provide, for an emerging variant, an estimate of SARS-CoV-2 virulence at the whole population level 525526and categorize its severity level (Figure 3).

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${528\atop529}$ 5 Conclusion

530 This study provides a modelling framework to assess the relationship between COVID-531 19 hospital admissions and SARS-CoV-2 wastewater concentration across different 532 variants and large urban centres in Canada. The statistical inference can be used to 533 analyze the virulence of past SARS-CoV-2 variants and also to categorize the virulence 534 of emerging variants to support public health action.

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6 Declarations	553
6.1 Ethics approval and consent to participate	554 555
Because the data used was publicly available through a mechanism set out by legisla- tion or regulation and is protected by law, this study did not require a research ethics review in accordance to article 2.2(a) of the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans [57].	556 557 558 559 560
6.2 Consent for publication	$561 \\ 562$
Not applicable.	$563 \\ 564$
6.3 Availability of data and materials	565
The wastewater data is publicly available on the Public Health Agency of Canada web- site https://health-infobase.canada.ca/wastewater/. We are not authorized to share the hospital admission data, however, for the sake of allowing others to easily repli- cate our work, we provide perturbed synthetic hospital admission data that have the same characteristics as the real data set. The computer code for the statistical model is available at https://github.com/phac-nml-phrsd/hosp-ww-covid-canada.	566 567 568 569 570 571 572
6.4 Competing interests	$573 \\ 574$
None	575
None.	576
6.5 Funding	577 578
None.	579
	580
6.6 Authors' contributions	581
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1059 Appendix APreliminary check of hierarchical1060model using synthetic data

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1062 To check our implementation of the hierarchical model in the programming lan-1063 guage R, we simulated data with the same hierarchical structure as expected by the 1064 model. Briefly, we chose a value for the universal slope and intercept for the log-linear 1065 relationship between wastewater concentration and hospital admissions, then draw 1066 variant-level intercept and slopes from distributions centred on these (chosen) univer-1067 sal values and finally drew again intercepts and slopes at the location/variant level 1068 (see Methods section in the main text). Table A1 shows the values taken to generate 1069 the simulated data. We chose the number of hypothetical variants and geographical 1070 locations to be the same as the real data set we used, that is seven variants and 1071 nine locations. For each location/variant pair, we imposed the total number of data 1072 points to be sampled from integers between 6 and 24. The simulated data is shown in 1073 Figure A1.

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Table A1 Parameter values for simulated data

Parameter	Value	Description
m	1.0	universal slope
b	1.1	universal intercept
σ_M	0.5	standard deviation of mu, when drawin at variant level
σ_B	0.6	standard deviation of beta, when drawin at variant level
σ_m	1.0	standard deviation of M, when drawin at variant location/le
σ_b	1.1	standard deviation of B, when drawin at variant location/lev
σ	30	standard deviation for the drawn paired data points

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We ran the same inference model as for the real data in the main analysis, that is 1087 using a Hamiltonian MCMC algorithm in the R package Nimble with 500,000 itera-1088 tions with 250,000 used as burn-in on four chains. The posterior distributions for the 1089 universal and variant-level parameters are shown in Figure A2. For most of the param-1090 eters, the 95% credible interval includes the "true" value of the parameter used to 1091 simulate the data (red vertical line, Figure A2), suggesting there is no major problem 1092 with the model implementation.

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Fig. A1 Simulated data used to check the implementation of the hierarchical model in R.

Start and end dates of variant periods Appendix B in each geographic location

Table B2 shows the start and end dates of variant periods in geographic location used in the our model. Due to the inclusion criteria specified in the methods, the number of locations with a defined start and end date may vary for each variant.



1185 Fig. A2 Posterior distribution for the inference of the universal-level (top panels) and variant-level
1186 (lower panels) intercept and slope on simulated data. The vertical red line indicates the value of the parameter used to simulate the data (hence the "true" value that must be inferred). The black open circle shows the mean of the posterior distribution and the black horizontal segment its 95% credible
1188 interval.

¹¹⁹⁰ Appendix C Detailed results of hierarchical model

1192 Here, we present more detailed outputs of the Hamiltonian MCMC algorithm after 1193 it ran on the Canadian data sets. As a reminder, for each of the four chains, 500,000 1194 iterations were run of which 250,000 were used as burn-in. The model was implemented 1195 in the programming language R and used the packages nimble version 1.2.1 and 1196 nimbleHMC version 0.2.3.

The plots below show the traces of the chains, the Gelman-Rubin statistics and the 1197posterior density distributions for all the parameters at the universal and variant levels. 1198For convenience of the computer implementation, the name of the parameters were 1199 slightly changed compared to the notation in the main text. The universal intercept 1200 and slope are displayed in the figures of this section as beta (b in Equation 1 of the 1201 main text) and mu (m in Equation 1 of the main text), respectively. The intercepts 1202 and slopes at the variant level are shown as B_XYZ (b_v as per Equation 2 in the main 1203 text for variant XYZ) and M_XYZ (m_v as per Equation 2 in the main text for variant 1204XYZ). Moreover, the variance (σ in the main text) is shown as sigma in this section. 1205

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C.1 Trace plots

A visual inspection of the trace plots in Figure C3 shows a satisfactory mixing of the chains.



Fig. C3 Posterior trace plots for every parameters. The HMCMC algorithm was run on 4 chains with 500,000 iterations each, including 250,000 used as burn-in.

C.2 Gelman-Rubin convergence statistic

The Gelman-Rubin statistic was below 1.002 for most parameters (Figure C4), confirming a sufficient number of MCMC iterations were performed to reach convergence. 1242



1262 Fig. C4 Gelman-Rubin statistics. The HMCMC algorithm was run on 4 chains with 500,000 itera 1263 tions each, including 250,000 used as burn-in. Points represent mean estimates and the segment the maximum values.
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$^{1265}_{1266}$ C.3 Posterior distributions

1267 In Figure C5, we show the posterior distributions for the universal- and variant-level 1268 parameters inferred.

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1335 Appendix DSensitivity analysis of Hamiltonian1336MCMC execution

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1338 Here, we present the results of our sensitivity analysis to assess the impact of changing 1339 the definition of variant dominance on the results of the Hamiltonian MCMC algo-1340 rithm. To recall, we defined variant dominance by setting the minimum circulation 1341 abundance threshold of 60%. This threshold was required to be met for at least 75% 1342 within a minimum 8 week data window.

1343 In this sensitivity analysis, the following changes were made to the variant 1344 dominance definition:

1345 1346 • Changing the abundance threshold \pm 15%, providing alternate thresholds of 45% 1347 and 75%.

• Changing the data window ± 2 weeks, providing alternate windows of 6 and 10 weeks.

1350 • Changing the percentage of weeks required to meet the abundance threshold within 1351 the window \pm 20%, providing alternate percentages of 55% and 95%.

1352 We used the inferred slope (m) and intercept (b) estimates at the universal level 1353 to examine the impact of changing the variant dominance definition. In total, 27 1354 distinct Hamiltonian MCMC executions were conducted, including an execution that 1355 uses the data that matches the reference dominance definition. Given the number of 1356 executions, only 100,000 iterations were run on 4 chains with a burn-in of 50,000. The 1357 sensitivity analysis was implemented in the programming language R and used the 1358 packages nimble version 1.2.1 and nimbleHMC version 0.2.3.

1359 Table D3 illustrates that slope and intercept estimates are comparable across 1360 different variant dominance definitions.

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Appendix E Naive linear regression and its comparison to the Hamiltonian MCMC output

In addition to the hierarchical model, we performed naive linear regression of the log number of hospital admissions and log SARS-CoV-2 wastewater concentrations, independently on each geographic location/variant pair. Despite being two different modelling frameworks, the estimates of the regression intercepts and slopes should not be very different (the hierarchical model is expected to pull variant-level estimates towards the universal-level ones). The comparison of the estimates is shown in E6.



Fig. E6 Comparison of intercepts and slopes obtained from the hierarchical model for each variant with naive linear regression conducted for variants at each geographic location. Red vertical bars represent the HMCMC mean estimates with its respective 95% credible interval. Black circles represent mean estimates from the linear regression for each location, with black vertical lines representing total uncertainty. Size of circles represent the number of data points included.

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 Table B2
 Start and end dates of each variant period used in the model at each location. Start and end dates were derived based on the criteria defined in the methods.

1432	on the criteria	i defined in (the methods.		
1433	City	Province	Variant	Start	End
1434	Edmonton	AB	B.1.617.2	2021-07-11	2021-12-05
1/35	Edmonton	AB	BA.1	2021-12-12	2022-02-27
1400	Edmonton	AB	BA.2	2022-03-20	2022-05-01
1436	Edmonton	AB	BA.5	2022-07-03	2022-10-23
1437	Edmonton	AB	BQ.1	2022 - 11 - 27	2023-02-05
1438	Edmonton	AB	JN.1	2024-01-07	2024-03-31
1439	Halifax	NS	B.1.1.7	2021-04-18	2021-05-23
1440	Halifax	NS	B.1.617.2	2021-06-27	2021-11-28
1440	Halifax	NS	BA.1	2021-12-05	2022-03-13
1441	Halifax	NS	BA.2	2022-04-03	2022-05-29
1442	Halifax	NS	BA.5	2022-07-17	2022-11-27
1443	Halifax	NS NC	BQ.1	2023-01-01	2023-02-12
1444	Danina	IN 5	JN.1 D 1 1 7	2024-01-21	2024-03-31
1444	Regina	SK	B.1.1.i D.1.617.9	2021-04-18	2021-00-30
1445	Rogina	SK	B.1.017.2 BA 1	2021-07-04	2021-12-12
1446	Rogina	SK	BA 2	2021-12-19	2022-05-00
1447	Regina	SK	BA 5	2022-03-21	2022-00-08
1448	Regina	SK	BO 1	2022-07-03	2022-10-25
1440	Regina	SK	XBB 1.5	2022-11-20	2023-01-23
1449	Regina	SK	JN.1	2024-01-07	2024-03-31
1450	St. John's	NL	B.1.617.2	2021-05-16	2021-11-21
1451	St. John's	NL	BA.1	2021-12-12	2022-03-27
1452	Toronto	ON	B.1.617.2	2021-06-20	2021-12-05
1453	Toronto	ON	BA.1	2021-12-19	2022-03-06
1454	Toronto	ON	BA.2	2022-03-20	2022-05-15
1404	Toronto	ON	BA.5	2022-07-03	2022-11-06
1455	Toronto	ON	BQ.1	2022-12-11	2023-01-15
1456	Toronto	ON	XBB.1.5	2023-03-05	2023-04-30
1457	Toronto	ON	JN.1	2024-01-07	2024-03-31
1/158	Vancouver	BC	B.1.617.2	2021-07-18	2021 - 12 - 05
1450	Vancouver	BC	BA.1	2021-12-19	2022-02-20
1459	Vancouver	BC	BA.5	2022-07-10	2022-10-30
1460	Vancouver	BC	BQ.1	2022-12-11	2023-01-22
1461	Vancouver	BC	XBB.1.5	2023-03-12	2023-04-30
1462	Vancouver	BC	JN.I	2024-01-07	2024-03-31
1469	Winnipeg	MB	B.1.617.2	2021-06-20	2021-12-05
1403	Winnipeg	MB	BA.1 DA 9	2021-12-12	2022-03-13
1464	Winnipeg	MD		2022-03-27	2022-00-22
1465	Winnipeg	MB	DA.0 BO 1	2022-07-03	2022-10-23
1466	Winnipeg	MB	XBB 1 5	2022-11-20	2023-01-29
1467	Winnipeg	MB	EG 5 1	2023-02-20	2023-03-20
1468	Winnipeg	MB	JN.1	2024-01-14	2024-03-31
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Table D3 Results of the sensitivity analysis of Hamiltonian MCMC execution. Inferred slope (m) and intercept (b) estimates from the Hamiltonian MCMC algorithm at the universal and variant levels were estimated using different variant dominance definitions. Reference refers to the primary dominance definition used in the main model with threshold of 60%, window of 8 weeks, and 75% of window weeks above threshold. Algorithm was executed across 4 chains using 100,000 iterations and 50,000 iterations used as "burn-in". Values in brackets represent the 95% credible interval.

Threshold (%)	Window (weeks)	% above	slope m	intercept b
Reference	Reference	Reference	$0.354 \ [0.257; \ 0.459]$	0.466 [-0.004; 0.988]
Reference	Reference	+20	0.343 [0.232; 0.461]	0.53 [0.002; 1.154]
Reference	Reference	-20	0.339 [0.249; 0.434]	0.515 [0.063; 1.017]
Reference	+2	Reference	0.351 [0.251; 0.464]	0.483 [-0.035; 1.062]
Reference	+2	+20	0.333 [0.212; 0.464]	0.606 [-0.002; 1.302]
Reference	+2	-20	0.353 [0.264; 0.451]	$0.461 \ [0.001; \ 0.955]$
Reference	-2	Reference	0.353 [0.257; 0.458]	0.469 [0.002; 0.988]
Reference	-2	+20	$0.356 \ [0.258; \ 0.466]$	$0.464 \ [-0.002; \ 0.981]$
Reference	-2	-20	0.341 [0.249; 0.441]	0.488 [0.026; 0.995]
+15	Reference	Reference	$0.313 \ [0.202; \ 0.443]$	0.636 [0.081; 1.253]
+15	Reference	+20	0.297 [0.165; 0.447]	0.599 [-0.019; 1.285]
+15	Reference	-20	$0.307 \ [0.196; \ 0.435]$	0.688 [0.135; 1.306]
+15	+2	Reference	$0.312 \ [0.19; \ 0.454]$	0.533 $[-0.056; 1.184]$
+15	+2	+20	0.28 $[0.115; 0.472]$	0.656 [-0.061; 1.472]
+15	+2	-20	0.306 [0.195; 0.432]	0.655 [0.104; 1.274]
+15	-2	Reference	0.315 [0.206; 0.443]	0.672 [0.121; 1.291]
+15	-2	+20	$0.291 \ [0.171; \ 0.426]$	$0.604 \ [0.042; \ 1.237]$
+15	-2	-20	$0.309 \ [0.199; \ 0.434]$	0.689 [0.14; 1.301]
-15	Reference	Reference	$0.367 \ [0.254; \ 0.477]$	0.448 [-0.044; 0.998]
-15	Reference	+20	$0.374 \ [0.237; \ 0.504]$	0.446 [-0.077; 1.039]
-15	Reference	-20	$0.389 \ [0.295; \ 0.487]$	0.361 [-0.088; 0.851]
-15	+2	Reference	0.375 [0.27; 0.479]	0.398 $[-0.068; 0.915]$
-15	+2	+20	$0.375 \ [0.257; \ 0.491]$	0.43 [-0.058; 0.985]
-15	+2	-20	$0.387 \ [0.247; \ 0.484]$	0.322 [-0.104; 0.8]
-15	-2	Reference	$0.37 \ [0.253; \ 0.482]$	0.452 [-0.032; 0.999]
-15	-2	+20	$0.374 \ [0.235; \ 0.505]$	0.451 [-0.07; 1.044]
-15	-2	-20	$0.39\ [0.295;\ 0.488]$	$0.361 \ [-0.091; \ 0.858]$

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