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1 **Transformative Approach to Investigate the Microphysical Factors**
2 **Influencing the Airborne Transmission of Pathogens**

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12
13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Emerging outbreaks of airborne pathogenic infections worldwide, such as the current SARS-CoV-2
15 pandemic, have raised the need to understand parameters affecting the airborne survival of microbes
16 in order to develop measures for effective infection control. We report a novel experimental strategy,
17 TAMBAS (Tandem Approach for Microphysical and Biological Assessment of Airborne
18 Microorganisms Survival), to explore the synergistic interactions between the physicochemical and
19 biological processes that impact airborne microbe survival in aerosol droplets. This innovative
20 approach provides a unique and detailed understanding of the processes taking place from aerosol
21 droplet generation through to equilibration and viability decay in the local environment, elucidating
22 decay mechanisms not previously described. The impact of evaporation kinetics, solute hygroscopicity

23 and concentration, particle morphology and equilibrium particle size on airborne survival are reported,
24 using *Escherichia coli* (MRE162) as a benchmark system. For this system, we report that the particle
25 crystallisation does not directly impact microbe longevity, bacteria act as crystallization nuclei during
26 droplet drying and equilibration, and the kinetics of size and compositional change appear to have a
27 larger effect on microbe longevity than equilibrium solute concentration.

28 **IMPORTANCE**

29 A transformative approach to identify the physicochemical processes that impact the biological decay
30 rates of bacteria in aerosol droplets is described. It is shown that the evaporation process and changes
31 in the phase and morphology of the aerosol particle during evaporation impact microorganism viability.
32 The equilibrium droplet size was found to affect airborne bacterial viability. Furthermore, the presence
33 of *Escherichia coli* (MRE162) in a droplet does not affect aerosol growth/evaporation, but influences
34 the dynamic behaviour of the aerosol through processing the culture media prior to
35 aerosolization affecting the hygroscopicity of the culture medium; this highlights the importance of
36 the inorganic and organic chemical composition within the aerosolised droplets that impact
37 hygroscopicity. Bacteria act also as a crystallisation nucleus. The novel approach and data has
38 implications for increased mechanistic understanding of aerosol survival and infectivity in bioaerosol
39 studies spanning medical, veterinary, farming, and agricultural fields, including the role of micro-
40 organisms in atmospheric processing and cloud formation.

41 **1. INTRODUCTION**

42 Transmission of respiratory infectious diseases via the airborne route has been identified as the major
43 transmission mode in many epidemics, predominantly in indoor environments.(1–6) Nevertheless, the
44 mechanisms that control the survival of airborne respiratory pathogens remain largely unknown due
45 to the complex multifactorial processes which are involved.(7) Further investigation is critical to
46 determine the fundamental mechanisms of airborne disease transmission, necessary not only to

47 develop strategies to mitigate the impact of disease outbreaks, but also to understand seasonality of
48 infectious diseases,(8) improve treatment of respiratory infections(9) and even determine synergistic
49 effects of air pollution on the atmospheric microbial community.(10)

50 Some of the critical factors that are thought to affect microbial survival in the aerosol phase include
51 relative humidity (RH), temperature, particle size and microbial load.(11–19) Further, experimental
52 methods of aerosol generation (i.e. reflux nebulizers) and sampling (i.e. impingement) can introduce
53 damage to microorganisms. Thus, the aerosolised population may not be wholly representative of
54 microorganisms aerosolised naturally through a cough or sneeze. (20–24) However, the CELEBS
55 system minimises damage imparted during aerosol generation and sampling meaning biological decay
56 is purely due to the environment and droplet conditions. (25)

57 To address the fundamental mechanistic questions central to understanding airborne disease
58 transmission, we present a new approach derived from using two complementary experimental tools.
59 First, the aerosol droplet evaporation kinetics, changes in particle morphology during drying and
60 changes in the solute hygroscopicity are fully quantified using a comparative kinetic electrodynamic
61 balance (CK-EDB), providing a detailed understanding of the dynamic behaviour of aerosol
62 particles.(26, 27) Second, the bioaerosol survival rates as a function of time, particle composition and
63 environmental conditions, of identical particle types are measured with a Controlled Electrodynamic
64 Levitation and Extraction of Bioaerosol onto a Substrate (CELEBS).(25) When used in combination,
65 these particle levitation technologies can be used to interrogate the true airborne state of airborne
66 microorganisms. Understanding this state is critical since the physicochemical conditions that
67 microorganisms are exposed to within an aerosol host droplet can differ dramatically from those in a
68 bulk phase sample,(28) potentially impacting their viability and consequently, their transmissibility
69 between hosts. Combining the strengths of these complementary methodologies for probing aerosol
70 particles directly, the TAMBAS approach enables an exploration of the complex interconnections
71 between airborne microphysics and biological decay.

72 2. RESULTS

73 The capability of our novel approach, described in the *Methods* section (after the references below)
74 and *Supplementary Information*, is assessed through combined measurements of the dynamics driving
75 the evolving size, composition, morphology, and hygroscopic response with their corresponding
76 biological outcome. We illustrate the value of this approach by reporting outcomes of studies to explore
77 the coupling of aerosol microphysical and biological processes using *Escherichia coli* (MRE162) as a
78 benchmark system, representing the survival rates as a decline in culturability as it is described in the
79 *Methods* section.

80 2.1 The Water Content of Microbiological Media: Bacterial Processing of Growth Media 81 Affects Aerosol Hygroscopicity

82 The retrieval of equilibrium hygroscopic properties of microbial media from mass-transfer kinetics
83 measurements was performed in the CK-EDB.(26, 29) The relationship between water activity and
84 aerosol composition for common microbial media are compared to thermodynamic model predictions
85 for NaCl (E-AIM,(30) Fig. 1). Freshly autoclaved LB broth and LB broth previously used to culture
86 bacteria over 24h with subsequent withdraw of *E. coli* MRE-162 cells, are referred to as non-
87 metabolized and metabolized, respectively. The hygroscopic growth curves in Fig. 1 show that PBS
88 has similar hygroscopicity to NaCl alone (NaCl makes up 83% of the mass of PBS). However, both
89 LB broth solutions, with 60% of the solute mass arising from organic components, are much less
90 hygroscopic. Interestingly, non-metabolized and metabolized LB broth display different
91 hygroscopicity, suggesting that the metabolization of LB broth by bacteria alters the solute
92 composition and, thus, the water content of aerosol droplets at a particular RH. Although it is well
93 known that bacteria alters composition of media through metabolism, the effect that this has on aerosol
94 hygroscopicity is a novel observation. Ostensibly, microbes affect the physicochemical properties of
95 bioaerosol altering the initial solute composition.

96 In these studies, the microbial media used to generate aerosol droplets to investigate compositional
97 changes as a function of the ambient RH are not representative of respiratory droplets responsible for,
98 for example, human-human transmission mechanisms. However, this investigation allows us to
99 correlate droplet compositions of different characteristics (e.g. nutrient rich such as LB broth compared
100 to nutrient poor such as PBS) and investigate whether components play a role in the airborne survival
101 of microorganisms. In addition, aerobiological studies have been performed since the late 1950s (31)
102 by using different microorganism in a wide variety of suspending fluids, from water, (32) growth
103 media, (17, 33) and PBS (34) to more representative biological compositions such as artificial saliva.
104 (35, 36). However, most studies do not directly compare within a single study and therefore
105 understanding the effect of composition is still largely unknown.

106 **2.2 Changes in Phase/Morphology and Solute Concentration During Droplet** 107 **Evaporation at Varying RH Affect Microorganism Viability**

108 The evaporation profiles (including changes in morphology) of non-metabolized individual LB broth
109 droplets (Fig. 2a) and PBS droplets (Fig. 2b) into RHs of 30%, 50% and 70% have been investigated.
110 For evaporating LB broth solution droplets, the light scattering analysis(37) suggests the formation of
111 NaCl inclusions (NaCl makes up 40% of the mass of LB broth) during evaporation into RHs of 30 and
112 50% while complete homogeneity is sustained when evaporating at 70% RH (Fig. 2a). The PBS
113 solution droplets remain homogenous during evaporation into RHs of 50 % and above, but crystal
114 formation is observed when evaporating at an RH of 30% (red point in Fig. 2b); at this RH, the
115 determination of the size of the crystallised non-spherical particle is not possible.(27) As expected, the
116 efflorescence of PBS took place between 30 and 50% RH which agrees with the known efflorescence
117 RH for NaCl (45-50%).(38) In both Fig 2a and 2b, the morphology analysis is most certain after the
118 droplets reach equilibrium with their environment, i.e. once the cumulative phase functions become
119 consistent making the phase identification more robust.

120 To further explore the morphologies formed from the drying of PBS and LB broth droplets at 30% RH,
121 particles were captured for SEM (scanning electron microscopy) analysis (Fig. 2c and 2d). The
122 morphologies are as expected from the light scattering analysis performed in the CK-EDB
123 measurements. Briefly, LB broth particles are broadly spherical in shape (Fig. 2c and Supplementary
124 Fig. S4a) with clear evidence of dendritic salt inclusions, reflecting the likely diffusional limitation
125 due to elevated particle viscosity of these organic-rich droplets formed on rapid drying as inclusions
126 form (60% mfs of organic compounds).(39)(40) By contrast, PBS droplets form multiple crystals (Fig.
127 2d and Supplementary Fig. S4c) as the droplet rapidly dries with multiple nucleation events occurring
128 as the solute concentration surpasses critical supersaturation for efflorescence.(41)

129 The rapid changes in particle size and water content during drying lead to conditions in the aerosol
130 phase that are not accessible in the bulk liquid (e.g. supersaturated solute, high salt concentrations,
131 ultra-viscous and even glassy states) for nearly all ambient conditions when the RH falls below 70%,
132 potentially impacting the longevity of enclosed microorganisms. (28, 42–45) In Fig. 2e and Fig. 2f,
133 the time-dependent changes in solute concentrations accompanying evaporation of non-metabolized
134 LB broth and PBS droplets into gas-phases of 30, 50, 70 and 90% RHs are compared. The dynamics
135 for these solution droplets are simulated using a quasi-steady evaporation model that accounts for the
136 interplay of mass and heat transport during drying and is benchmarked against the experimental
137 measurements.(46)

138 The impacts on *E. coli* MRE162 survival of the interconnected changes in size, particle morphology
139 and solute concentrations taking place during evaporation of PBS and LB broth droplets at 300 s are
140 reported in Fig. 2g and 2h. Bacterial survival is reported as the ability of a bacterium to form a colony
141 (colony forming unit, CFU) after suspension, collection and 24 hr incubation. Overall, an inverse
142 correlation between the final equilibrated solute concentration and *E. coli* MRE162 survival is
143 observed.

144 At high RHs (90-70%), where all droplets remain homogeneous during evaporation for both droplet
145 compositions, bacteria survival shows a significant decrease in LB broth droplets with decrease in RH,
146 potentially due to the high solute concentration at 70%. In the case of PBS droplet composition, the
147 reduction in survival with RH is moderate. When comparing LB broth and PBS compositions, there
148 was not a significant difference between survival over this range of RHs. However, a higher survival
149 at 70% RH (Fig. 2h) is reported in PBS droplets, possibly due to the higher mass of water, larger
150 droplet size and lower solute concentration when achieving equilibrium with the gas-phase
151 composition (c.f. Supplementary Figs. S6 and S7).

152 Under the driest conditions (50 to 30% RH), a significant decline in *E. coli* MRE162 survival is
153 observed in PBS droplets (Fig. 2h) compared with a smaller decrease for LB broth droplets (Fig. 2g).
154 This sudden reduction in survival in PBS coincides with a transition in particle phase, in this case from
155 homogenous droplets to salt crystals (Fig. 2b and 2d). Comparing droplet compositions, a statistically
156 significant difference survival was observed at 50% RH, also matching a difference in droplet
157 morphologies between composition, showing a lower survivability in LB broth droplets where
158 inclusions were observed in contrast with the homogeneity of the PBS droplets (Fig 2a c.f. 2b).
159 Conversely, the survival reported in LB broth droplets at 30% RH is marginally higher than for PBS,
160 likely due to the presence of organic components in LB broth which potentially enhances survival (Fig.
161 2h c.f. Fig. 2h).

162 2.3 No loss of Viability is Observed during the Rapid Drying Phase of Bioaerosol Droplets; 163 Bacteria Act as a Crystallization Nuclei

164 Time-dependent measurements of the viability for *E. coli* MRE162 enclosed in LB broth and PBS
165 droplets equilibrated at various RHs were performed over 1h (Fig. 3). Due to the gentle aerosolization
166 processes and high-resolution sampling achieved with CELEBS, the CFUs observed for the shortest
167 survival measurements (<5s suspension time) agree with the estimated microbial concentrations in the

168 droplets. This expected concentration is estimated from the cell concentration in the suspension loaded
169 into the droplet-on-demand generator (DoD), described with a Gaussian distribution when cell
170 concentrations are in the order of 10^8 cells mL^{-1} . The efficiency of the sequence of processes (biological
171 sample solution to aerosol droplet creation to aerosol droplet sampling/recovery) has been discussed
172 in detail in our previous work. (25) Thus, only the biological decay processes occurring in the aerosol
173 phase need be considered.

174 Little decline in biological viability over a timescale of 5 s is observed at any of the droplet
175 compositions and RHs. This holds even for the very rapid evaporation and equilibration time at the
176 lowest RHs (e.g. Supplementary Fig. S6a and S7a) where the evaporative cooling and rise in solute
177 concentration at the droplet surface can be expected to be most severe. Thus, the dynamic processes
178 taking place (e.g. water evaporation, surface cooling, rapid changes in size and solute composition)
179 seem to not immediately impact *E. coli* MRE162 survival. The lack of impact of the dynamics
180 occurring during evaporation can be contrasted with current assumptions whereby two different decay
181 constants have been reported, suggested as arising from a rapid initial decay attributed to the drying
182 process and subsequent slower secondary phase associated with oxidative stress and the effect of
183 environmental conditions. (11–13, 47–50) These studies were performed by using reflux atomization
184 for aerosol generation and various methodologies for particle suspension such as the rotating drum and
185 the static and dynamic storage chambers. (11, 13, 47, 48, 50).

186 The marginal decay observed up to 5 s (Fig 3a and 3b) suggests that previous reports of a rapid initial
187 loss of viability (with decay constants of 1 sec) (48)(13) are likely not occurring in the aerosol phase,
188 but may be a systematic artefact of the aerosolization process used, since many aerosol generators
189 impact the structural integrity of microorganisms when nebulised.(22, 23) Further, the disturbance in
190 gas-phase conditions produced by the cumulative mass of water introduced to the system by the cloud
191 of droplets from nebulizers is often not contemplated and, therefore, the conditions studied are not
192 often precisely reported during droplet evaporation (tens of minutes may be necessary for the droplet

193 cloud to reach equilibrium).(51) The ability to determine microbial decay during dynamic
194 microphysical processes in the aerosol phase is unique to TAMBAS approach.

195 The time for the first decay is apparent in Fig. 3 and is considerably longer than the time required for
196 the droplets to reach thermodynamic equilibrium, a time that is dependent on RH. Interestingly, a
197 significant decrease in airborne bacteria viability (compared to 5s measurement) is observed only at
198 the lowest RHs (30 and 50%) for droplets composed of PBS during the first 60 s of suspension (*p*-
199 *values* of 0.00004 and 0.00015 respectively). In contrast, the loss of viability was significant only at
200 the highest RHs (70 and 90%) (*p*-*values* of 0.0013 and 0.0001 respectively) in the case of LB broth
201 droplets. This general trend describing greater survivability in PBS droplet composition at high RHs
202 is maintained at longer timescales. Thus, no significant decay is observed at 90% RH after 1h
203 suspensions for droplets composed of PBS (*p*-*values* of 0.2) while the reduction on viability is
204 significant for droplets with LB broth composition (*p*-*values* of 0.00005). This divergence in survival
205 in droplets of different compositions may be a result of the higher solute hygroscopicity of OBS, linked
206 to greater water content in the droplets and lower solute concentrations (Fig. S6b c.f. S7b).

207 Interestingly, the structure of bacteria containing PBS particles dried at 30% RH observed in the SEM
208 analysis show *E. coli* MRE162 cells embedded in the salt crystals, coinciding with a considerably
209 increase in the overall number of crystals when compared with pure PBS droplets (c.f. Fig. 2d with 3d
210 and Supplementary Fig. S4c with S4d), consistent with bacteria acting as crystallization nuclei.
211 Conversely, little change in the phase behaviour of LB broth is observed when containing bacteria (c.f.
212 Fig. 2c with 3c and Fig. S4a with S4b).

213 2.4 Droplet Size Affects Airborne Bacterial Viability

214 To isolate the effects of different factors (such as solute concentration and droplet size) impacting
215 airborne bacterial survival, the viability response of *E. coli* MRE162 levitated for 300s in droplets of
216 LB broth with different initial solute concentrations equilibrating at 50%RH are compared in Fig. 4c.

217 The evaporation profiles of three different starting concentrations of non-metabolized LB broth are
218 reported in Fig. 4a. The different initial concentrations lead to different equilibrated sizes although
219 each achieves the same concentration of LB broth and moisture content when reaching an equilibrium
220 at a specific RH (Fig. 4b), thereby having the same density. Thus, evaluation of solely the effect of
221 different particle sizes containing the same solute concentration at equilibrium is possible. This is a
222 unique and important element of this approach. The data in Fig. 4c suggests that either particle size
223 and/or the dynamic processes during evaporation plays a crucial role in the survival response of *E. coli*
224 MRE162.

225 3. DISCUSSION

226 The novel TAMBAS approach presented provides opportunity to explore the effect of individual
227 parameters on airborne survival which could be crucial for fully understanding the fundamental
228 mechanisms that control the transmission of airborne diseases. The ability to measure the impact of
229 aerosol dynamics on the survival of microorganisms in the aerosol phase while reducing stresses
230 involved in the generation, suspension and sampling processes is unique to this technique. Previous
231 studies performed with evaporating sessile droplets (i.e. droplets deposited on surfaces) (52) or
232 conventional technologies (53)(20) are often not representative of the natural mechanisms involved in
233 the airborne transmission of disease. Therefore, data comparison becomes challenging due to the wide
234 variety of methodologies, bioaerosol compositions and environmental conditions employed in
235 longevity studies.

236 Supplementary Fig. S9 shows *E. coli* MRE162 viability at 300 s of suspension as a function of six
237 different parameters (droplet cooling, volume reduction, surface to volume ratio, concentration of
238 NaCl, concentration of solute and droplet volume) where only three (Figs. S9a, S9b and S9e)
239 demonstrate a large collective correlation for both particle types (e.g. PBS and LB broth) reporting R^2
240 values of 0.78, 0.80 and 0.87 for droplet cooling, volume reduction and solute concentration,

241 respectively. These correlations of viability with droplet cooling, volume reduction and solute
242 concentration, are all associated with the initial water mass flux from the droplet at the point of
243 generation. Thus, although there is no apparent loss in viability during the drying phase (first 5-10
244 seconds), the impact of the initial mass flux from the droplet on microbe longevity, and overall change
245 in size (Fig. 4), is consistent with an impact on viability over longer timescales. Put simply, the data
246 suggest that the initial evaporation dynamics of the bioaerosol have a pronounced and predictable
247 delayed effect on bioaerosol longevity and should be further explored. Ultimately this transformative
248 approach will contribute to a more complete understanding of the fundamental factors influencing the
249 airborne transmission of pathogens enabling development of refined hazard mitigation strategies.

250 **4. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

251 To demonstrate the utility of the new approach, *E. coli* MRE-162 was chosen as both a benchmark and
252 a representative system to study bioaerosol. This bacteria strain presents a higher aerosol stability than
253 other gram-negative bacteria and was proposed previously in the literature as a simulant for respiratory
254 pathogens and to understand the effect of ‘outdoor’ conditions on survival. (54–58) In addition,
255 wastewater treatment plants (WWTP) are a major emission source of bioaerosols due to the mechanical
256 sewage treatment devices. *E. coli* has been detected in air sampled around such facilities and is known
257 to cause zoonotic infection via aerosol route.(59)

258 **4.1 Comprehensive Methodology for Bioaerosol Survival Studies**

259 The TAMBAS approach was developed to elucidate the fundamental mechanisms responsible for
260 degrading the viability of airborne microorganisms and, thus, to identify the parameters that define the
261 transmission of airborne infection. The complementarity of two methodologies is used to resolve the
262 complex interrelationship between the physicochemical and biological processes taking place from the
263 production mechanism such as coughing and sneezing,(60) until the droplet reaches equilibrium and
264 through to rehydration during the inhalation process. The CK-EDB method can be used to study the

265 evaporation/condensation kinetics, the solute hygroscopic properties and the evolving particle
266 morphology during drying of single levitated aerosol particles.(37) These data can be used to develop
267 a detailed understanding of the thermodynamic and kinetics processes that take place during the
268 evaporation and condensation cycle occurring in a droplet lifespan. Additionally, the determination of
269 survival rates of microorganism in populations of bioaerosol droplets as a function of atmospheric
270 conditions, biological and chemical composition, and other biological factors such as the microbial
271 concentration and physiology, can be performed with the novel CELEBS method.(25) An overview of
272 both methodologies is included in the *Supplementary Information* (Table S1). Some of the key features
273 accessible with this technique, enabling a detailed analysis of biological decay as a function of time,
274 are: the suspension of particles in the true airborne state under a regulated atmosphere for a well-
275 defined and unlimited period of time (~3 seconds to days) and with high time resolution (<1s); a
276 quantifiable number of individual microbe containing droplets probed in each experiment; and control
277 over the number of microbial cells hosted within each droplet. Importantly, the key elements of this
278 methodology (e.g. the use of DoD generation to produce droplets of tailored composition, the
279 imposition of low levels of charge on the particles to levitate particles) do not impact the viability of
280 the microorganisms.(25) Details on the set-up, operation and data analysis of both methodologies are
281 detailed below and in the Supplementary Figs S1 and S2.

282 Unique to this comprehensive methodology is the ability to combine our understanding of the
283 microphysics and microbiology in the airborne state with time resolutions between 10 ms and 1s,
284 respectively. Not only is the opportunity to achieve this in the aerosol phase, but the methodology
285 allows us to investigate the repeatability and reproducibility for many droplets with the same desired
286 initial conditions while minimizing stresses affecting microbial viability during aerosolisation, leading
287 to low experimental uncertainties. This valuable alternative to conventional technologies will allow
288 researchers to develop more accurate strategies to control the airborne transmission of disease.

289 4.2 Comparative Kinetics Methodology for Physicochemical Characterization of
290 Bioaerosols

291 The ability to measure the dynamic behaviour of single levitated droplets using the concentric
292 cylindrical electrodynamic balance (EDB) has been discussed in the literature.(27) A sample solution
293 of known chemical and biological composition is introduced in the reservoir of a droplet-on-demand
294 micro-dispenser (DoD) (Microfab MJ-ABP-01, 30 µm orifice). Single droplets are generated with a
295 high level of size reproducibility (Supplementary Fig. S5) by applying a pulse voltage to the
296 piezoelectric tip of the DoD and a small net charge is induced during droplet formation employing a
297 high-voltage induction electrode located 2-3 mm from the tip of the DoD, allowing the droplet to be
298 manipulated in the EDB. Approximately 100 ms after generation, the droplet is confined in the null
299 point of the electrodynamic field where a 200 mL/min gas inlet at a temperature of 20°C regulates the
300 RH (from 10 to 90%) inside the CK-EDB chamber by altering the mixing ratio of humidified and dry
301 nitrogen flows. The trapped droplet is illuminated with a laser beam (Laser Quantum, Ventus
302 continuous wave, CW) of wavelength $\lambda=532$ nm, and a CCD camera (Thorlabs) records the light
303 scattering pattern, referred to as “phase function”, at a central viewing angle of 45° every ~10 ms. By
304 using the Geometrics Optics Approximation, the angular separation between light scattering fringes,
305 $\Delta\vartheta$, in the phase function pattern is used to determine the absolute radius of the droplet(27) as a
306 function of time together with the droplet morphology.(37)The droplet radius is estimated from the
307 expression:(61)

$$r = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta\vartheta} \left(\cos\left(\frac{\vartheta}{2}\right) + \frac{n \sin\left(\frac{\vartheta}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{1 + n^2 - 2n \cos\left(\frac{\vartheta}{2}\right)}} \right)^{-1} \quad (1)$$

308
309 where r is the radius of the droplet, ϑ is the central viewing angle and n is the droplet refractive index
310 (RI) which is initially set as a constant value. In a post-analysis process, the variation in the droplet RI

311 with the mass fraction of solute (mfs) during evaporation is accounted for by applying a solute RI
312 parametrisation generated by using the molar refraction mixing rule.(62) This revision process is
313 repeated over 2-3 iterations until the radii and corresponding refractive indices values converge,
314 providing accurate data for the droplet radius.(29)

315 From the droplet evaporation measurements, the hygroscopic growth properties at the thermodynamic
316 equilibrium can be retrieved by using a comparative kinetics approach described in the literature and
317 the section below.(29) Finally, the hygroscopicity data derived from the above process can be used to
318 predict the evaporation dynamics for droplets of any size, composition, gas-phase RH and temperature.
319 (26)

320 **4.2.1 Determination of Droplet Hygroscopicity Properties**

321 A comparative kinetics approach described in previous publications is used to retrieve the hygroscopic
322 equilibrium response of solution droplets.(27, 37, 63) Specifically, sequences of ten pairs of probe and
323 sample droplets with a different chemical composition are sequentially dispensed by two DoD micro-
324 dispensers. Firstly, the evaporation profile of a probe droplet (a well-known systems such as water or
325 aqueous NaCl solutions) is used to accurately determine the RH of the trapping atmosphere. Secondly,
326 measurements of the corrected radius over time of the sample droplet is converted into mass by using
327 a density parametrization. From these data, the mass flux as a function of time is calculated and used
328 to determine the water activity at the droplet surface by using the mass and heat transport equation of
329 Kulmala et al.(46) Finally, the droplet hygroscopicity is represented as the variation in mfs (calculated
330 from the initial size and droplet composition) against the variation in water activity, providing the
331 whole hygroscopicity curve.

332 **4.2.2 Simulations of Droplet Evaporation Kinetics**

333 Once the hygroscopic properties of the sample droplet are determined, it is possible to develop a solute
334 hygroscopicity parametrization by using the equation developed by Kreidenweis et al.(64) which is

335 then introduced in the Kulmala model together with the density treatment of the solution droplet to
336 generate predictions of mass-transfer kinetics for any initial solute concentration, droplet size and gas-
337 phase RH and temperatures. Simulations resulting from this approach have shown an excellent
338 agreement with experimental data. Associated errors with the thermodynamic predictions have been
339 also discussed in previous work.(26) The possibility to build models that enable the prediction of
340 evaporation kinetics of aerosol droplets containing microorganisms as a function of the initial droplet
341 radius and composition allows further exploration of the interplay between all the physiochemical
342 parameters affecting airborne bacteria survival (Supplementary Fig. S8).

343 **4.2.3 Inferring Particle Morphology from the Light Scattering Pattern**

344 The same light scattering pattern employed in the estimation of the droplet size has been also used to
345 qualitatively infer the morphology of single levitated particles.(65, 66) Based on qualitative
346 characteristics of the phase function, a new semi-quantitative methodology to differentiate among four
347 main particle structures has been recently developed.(37) This robust approach relies on over one
348 million observations of individual light scattering patterns to develop an algorithm which categorizes
349 the particle morphology as homogeneous, a core-shell structure, a particle-containing inclusions or as
350 a crystal or inhomogeneous particle. Specifically, an homogeneous and spherical evaporating droplet
351 produces a regular and smooth evolution in its light scattering pattern which is characterised by equally
352 spaced peaks. In the case of droplets containing inclusions, the regularity in the space between the
353 peaks is maintained, however the intensity pattern can be randomly enhanced or reduced depending
354 on the location of the inclusions within the droplet volume. In the evaporation of a droplet containing
355 inclusions, the absolute number of inclusions remains constant and is determined based on the initial
356 concentration pipetted on the DoD. However, the concentration of inclusions increases over time as
357 water evaporates. The sensitivity of this method for the detection of inclusion within a particle is
358 determined by their concentration. The absolute number of inclusions and their size were shown to be
359 irrelevant in the determination of the lower detection limit.(37) The phase function for droplets within

360 a concentration gradient or core-shell structure is characterised by an additional envelope of intensity
361 modulation superimposed on the regular fringes observed from a spherical particle due to the presence
362 of a secondary structure. Finally, irregular or crystal particles report a highly irregular phase function
363 over time which makes the determination of the particle size impossible. The sphere-equivalent size
364 can be inferred from the size and solute concentration of the initial droplet. The ability to detect
365 different morphologies on an individual bioaerosol droplet allows the possibility to explore the impact
366 of particle phase and structure on microbial viability.

367 **4.3 Levitation and Sampling Methodology for Biophysical Characterization of** 368 **Bioaerosols**

369 The ability to determine the biological decay rates of bioaerosols as a function of time, atmospheric
370 conditions and chemical and biological composition has been recently developed.(25) The CELEBS
371 apparatus is an adaptation of the double-ring electrodynamic trap(67) with important modifications
372 that enable the generation, levitation and sampling of populations of bioaerosol droplets while
373 minimizing the stresses associated with these processes when using conventional techniques for
374 bioaerosol studies.(68, 69) All components are enclosed in a 3D printed chamber to avoid the
375 disturbance of the levitated particles in a conditioned environment. CELEBS utilizes the same method
376 of droplet generation used in the CK-EDB with the difference that in this case, a population of droplets
377 is generated. A high-voltage induction electrode induces a small net charge on each particle allowing
378 the population of droplets to be trapped in the electrodynamic field generated by applying an AC
379 voltage (1000-2700V) to the two parallel ring electrodes located in the centre of the chamber. The net
380 like-charge on all particles prevents coalescence among the population of droplets. The particles are
381 confined in the electrodynamic field with a gas inlet, which enables the control of the atmospheric
382 conditions (i.e. temperature, RH, gas, etc) inside the chamber and a 580 nm LED light illuminates the
383 population of droplets allowing particle enumeration by using a LabView program developed in-house.

384 A probe connected to the gas inlet registers the %RH and temperature that the droplets are exposed to
385 at every time. After the desired levitation period, the shielding on the sampling area is removed by
386 retracting a safety plate. Then, the particles are extracted from the EDT onto the substrate holder by
387 gradually reducing the amplitude of the waveform applied to the electrodes. The CELEBS instrument
388 provides a 100% efficiency in the collection of the levitated particles by utilizing similar sampling
389 velocities to the ones used with electrostatic precipitators,(70) consequently reducing the stresses
390 associated with conventional bioaerosol samplers such as impingers.(24, 71) In addition, this
391 methodology presents the possibility to probe viability/infectivity in any type of substrate (i.e. lung
392 cells, microbiological media, ATP assays, etc). In this work, the bioaerosol droplets were sampled onto
393 Petri dishes containing a ~3mm layer of LB agar and 300 μ L volume of LB broth located in the centre
394 of the plate. Finally, the Petri dishes were removed from the instrument, the LB broth containing the
395 sampled bioaerosol was spread over the agar surface and the plates were incubated during 24h at 37°C.
396 The approach used to calculate the survival rates of bacteria was previously described by us(25) and
397 is also included in the SI.

398 **4.3.1 Measurements of Survival Rate**

399 The characterization of bioaerosol survival rates has been described in our previous work.(25) The loss
400 of viability of airborne pathogens is represented as a reduction in their ability to form colony-forming
401 units (CFUs) on plating media (culturability) as a function of time in the aerosol phase by using the
402 following equation:

$$BD = \frac{C_{culturable}(TEST)}{C_{culturable}(CONTROL)} \times 100 \quad (5)$$

403

404 Where $C_{culturable}(TEST)$ is the number of CFUs obtained after the incubation of the bioaerosol
405 population that was levitated for a set time interval. This measurement is normalized by using a
406 $C_{culturable}(CONTROL)$ measurement to facilitate data comparison. Two options are valid as control

407 measurements: one is the absolute number of bacteria cells contained in the droplets estimated from
408 the bacterial concentration introduced into the DoD. The second option is to measure the number of
409 culturable cells (CFUs/droplet) obtained after a levitation time under 7 s in a preceding measurement.
410 In this case, the levitation period is too brief to impact the viability of the microorganisms and therefore
411 is considered as a non-exposure measurement. The validation of this assumption has been confirmed
412 by comparing a series of CFUs/droplet obtained after 5 s “harmless” levitations with the original
413 CFUs/droplet estimated by using the concentration of the cell suspension pipetted in the DoD.(25)

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418 School of Chemistry at the University of Bristol for his contribution in acquiring the SEM images used
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420 **6. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

421 A.E.H and M.O developed the approach with support from J.P.R, R.J.T and H.O. A.E.H and J.P.R.
422 conceived and designed the project. M.O carried out the data analysis, wrote the paper, assisted to the
423 design and development of the methodology and performed the laboratory work with support from
424 A.E.H, R.J.T and H.O. A.E.H and J.P.R. are joint corresponding authors, supervised and coordinated
425 the research and edited the manuscript for publication. J.P.R acquired funding and administered the
426 project.

427 **7. CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

428 The authors declare they have no conflicts of interest.

429 **8. REFERENCES**

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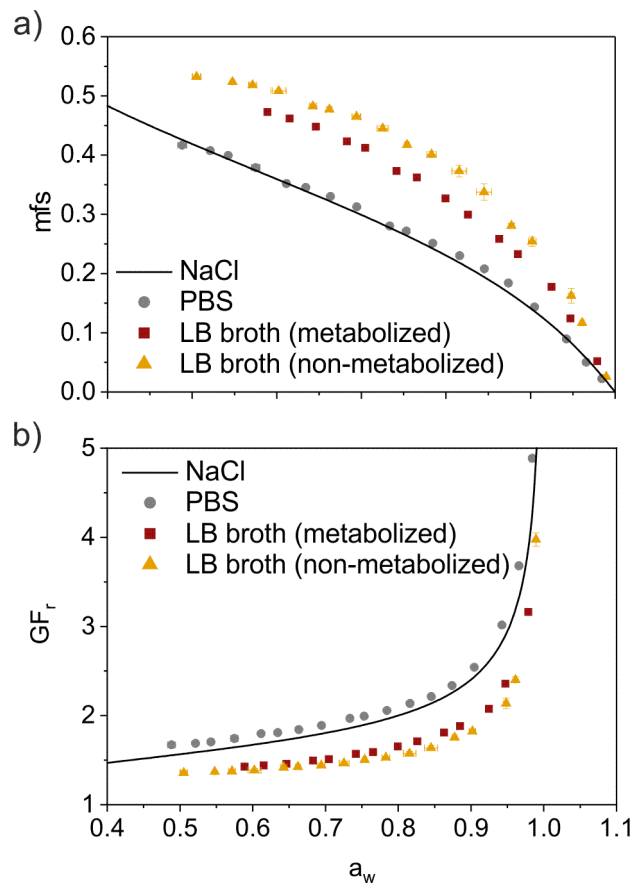
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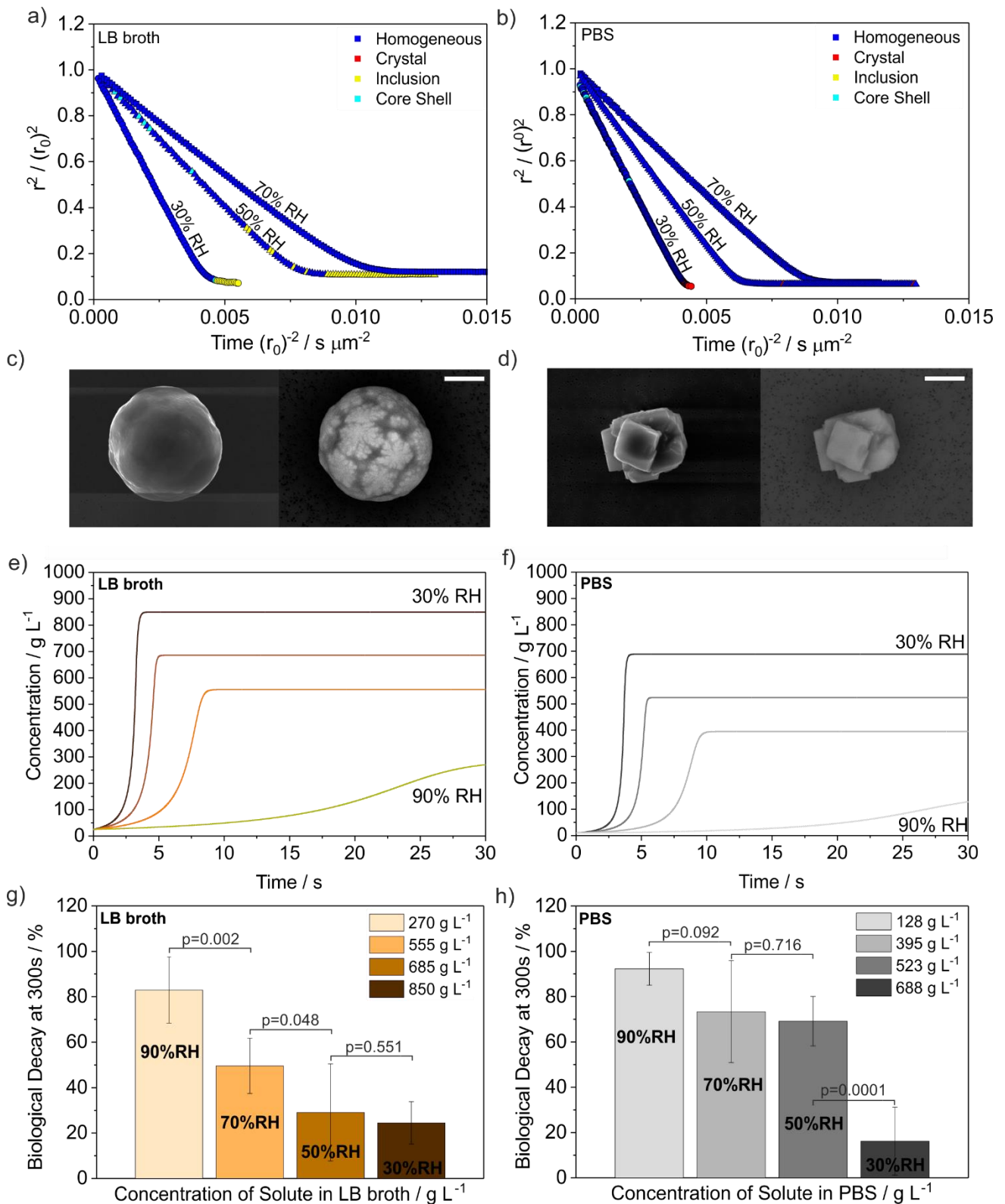
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597

598 **Figure 1.** Hygroscopicity curves of different culture media with variation in solution water activity
 599 (a_w), presented in terms of (a) mass fraction of solute (mfs) and (b) radial growth factor (GF_m).
 600 Predicted curves for NaCl hygroscopicity (line) from the E-AIM model are also shown for reference.

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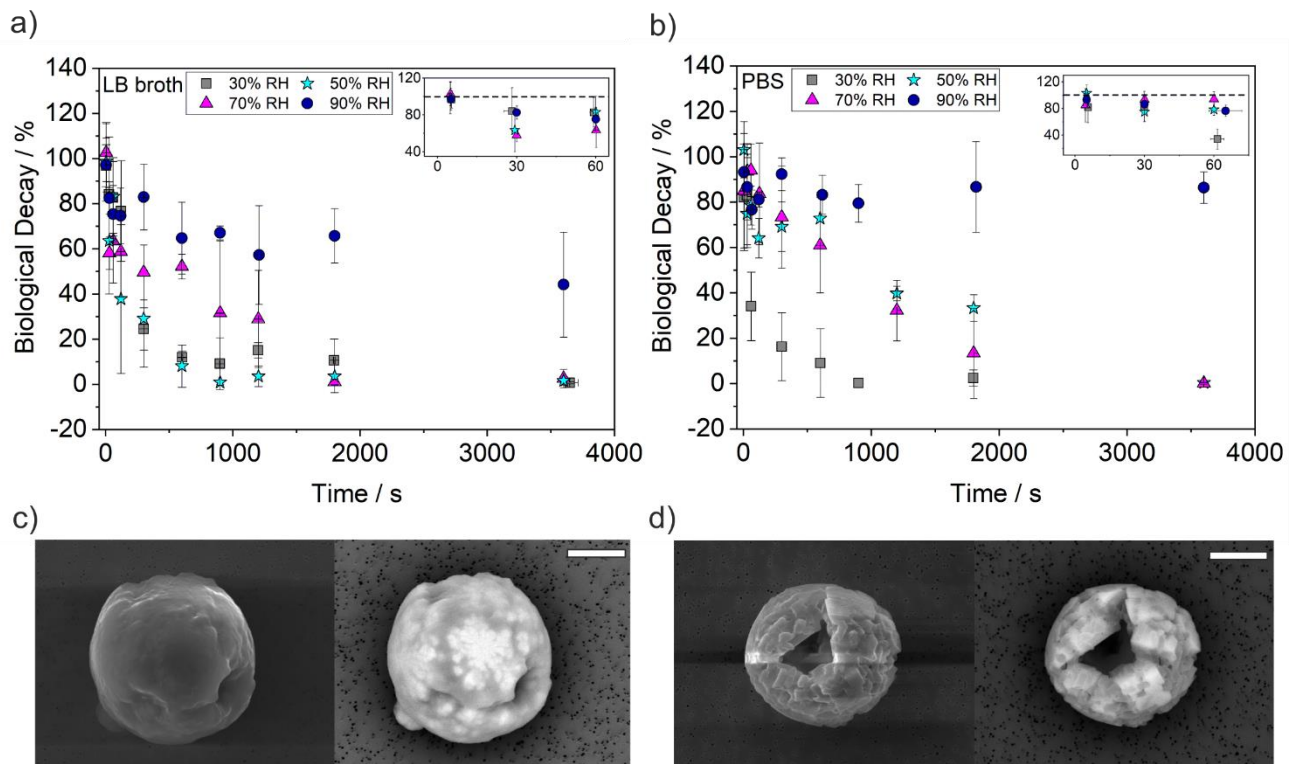


602

603 **Figure 2.** Evolution of size and morphology for evaporating droplets of (a) non-metabolized LB broth,
 604 (b) PBS into 30%, 50% and 70% gas-phase RHs. Slopes for the linear trend in the radius-squared are
 605 -216.7, -118.1 and -90.4 in the case of LB broth droplets and -221.9, -153.4 and -108.7 for PBS droplet

606 composition, each at 30, 50 and 70% RHs, respectively. SEM and backscattered electron images for
607 particles formed from (c) non-metabolized LB broth and (d) PBS at 30% RH are shown. Predicted
608 time-dependent solute concentrations for evaporation of droplets into RHs spanning from 30 to 90%
609 RHs and 20 °C for droplets solutions of (e) non-metabolized LB broth and (f) PBS are shown. To
610 simulate the evaporation profiles, a starting radius of 25 µm and concentration of 25 g L⁻¹ and 9.5 g L⁻¹
611 ¹ for LB broth and PBS were used, respectively. The impact of morphology and solute concentration
612 on airborne bacteria viability at 300 s from droplet generation and at RHs of 30 to 90% RH are shown
613 for (g) LB broth and (h) PBS droplets containing *E. coli* MRE162 (starting concentration of
614 $(2.6\pm 0.6)\times 10^8$ CFU ml⁻¹, 28 ± 11 CFUs droplet⁻¹). *p*-values obtained when comparing LB broth and
615 PBS compositions at 90, 70, 50 and 30% RHs by applying a two-sample t-test are 0.137, 0.079, 0.00
616 and 0.22, respectively, showing only a significant difference on survivability between compositions at
617 50% RH.

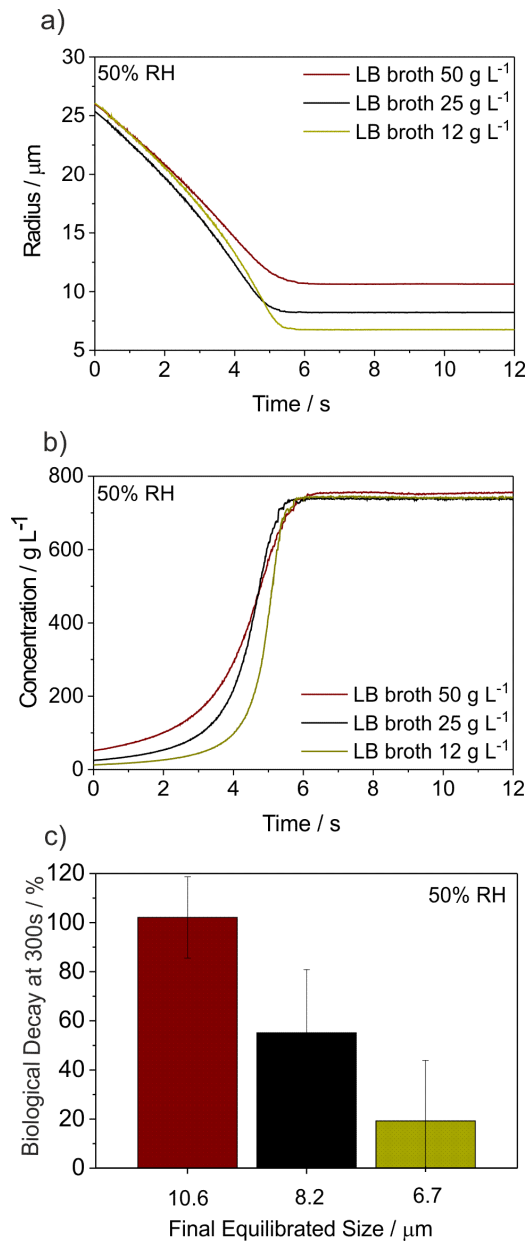
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620

621 **Figure 3.** Relationship between solute compositions on bacteria airborne survival as a function of RH
 622 and survival for *E. coli* MRE162 ($2.6 \pm 0.6 \times 10^8$ CFU ml⁻¹) in (a) LB broth and (b) PBS droplets. Note
 623 that in (b), the data points for 50% and 70%RH at 3600s overlap. Insets show the survival decay during
 624 a timeframe of 60 s levitation. SEM and backscattered electron images for (c) LB broth and (d) PBS
 625 droplets containing *E. coli* MRE-162 at $(2.6 \pm 0.6) \times 10^9$ CFU ml⁻¹ at 30% RH. Scale bars represent 5
 626 μm.

627



628

629 **Figure 4.** (a) Comparison of the measured (a) particle size and (b) changes in solute concentration (g
 630 L^{-1}) of LB broth droplets with different initial solute concentrations evaporating into 50% RH and
 631 20 °C. (c) The effect of the equilibrium particle size on bacteria viability. All the survivability data are
 632 expressed as the average and standard deviation for three replicates per experiment were populations
 633 from 2 to 6 droplets were levitated.

634