

A new understanding of somatic coliphages belonging to the Microviridae family in urban wastewater

Marion C Bichet, Marion Gardette, Benjamin das Neves, Julie Challant, Anaïs Erbs, Véronica Roman, Maëlle Robin, Stéphanie La Carbona, Christophe Gantzer, Nicolas Boudaud, et al.

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- 3 wastewater

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ABSTRACT

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Somatic coliphages (SC) and F-specific RNA coliphages (FRNAPH) have been included in regulations or guidelines by several developed countries as a way of monitoring water safety and the microbiological quality of shellfish harvesting waters. SC are highly diverse in their morphology, size and genome. The Microviridae family contains three genera of phages (Alphatrevirus, Gequatrovirus, and Sinsheimervirus), all having a capsid of similar morphology (icosahedral) and size (25-30 nm in diameter) to that of common pathogenic enteric viruses. Three PCR assays specific for each genus of *Microviridae* were designed to study these phages in raw and treated wastewater (WW) in order to gain knowledge about the diversity and prevalence of Microviridae among SC, as well as their inactivation and removal during WW treatments. Among the four wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) monitored here, two WWTPs applied disinfection by UV light as tertiary treatment. First, we noticed that Microviridae represented 10 to 30 % of infectious SC in both raw and treated WW. Microviridae appeared to behave in the same way as all SC during these WW treatments. As expected, the highest inactivation, at least 4 log₁₀, was achieved for infectious Microviridae and SC in both WWTPs using UV disinfection. PCR assays showed that the highest removal of Microviridae reached about 4 log₁₀, but the phage removal can vary greatly between WWTPs using similar treatments. This work forms the basis for a broader evaluation of Microviridae as a viral indicator of water treatment efficiency and WW reuse.

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Keywords: Somatic coliphages; Microviridae; Wastewater; Viral pollution; Bacteriophages

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1. Introduction

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Waterborne enteric viruses are a major threat to global public health. These viruses are transmitted by the faecal-oral route and most of them are persistent in the environment (Kotwal and Cannon, 2014). Metagenomic studies have demonstrated the abundance and diversity of enteric viruses in the human gastrointestinal tract (Reyes et al., 2012), as well as in urban wastewater (WW) (Aw et al., 2014; Cantalupo et al., 2011; Petrovich et al., 2019). Enteric viruses may be discharged in aquatic environments depending on both the treatments applied in WWTP and their initial concentration. Viral contamination of environmental waters has been involved in drinking waterborne outbreaks (Moreira and Bondelind, 2017), foodborne outbreaks due shellfish consumption such as oysters (Bellou et al., 2013), and direct human contaminations during recreational activities (Sinclair et al., 2009). It is therefore important to monitor viral pollution in environmental waters for more effective viral hazard management. However, the direct detection of pathogenic enteric viruses in environmental waters remains difficult owing to irregular sampling, the small volume of water analysed, the temporal variability, and the low viral content outside of epidemic peaks. For this reason, Fspecific RNA coliphages (FRNAPH) and somatic coliphages (SC) have been included in regulations or guidelines by numerous developed countries as a way of monitoring water quality (US EPA, 2006; US EPA, 2015; European Commission, 2020; Health Canada, 2019) and ensuring the safety of shellfish (ASQAP, 2022; US FDA, 2019). The main advantages of FRNAPH and SC are their high prevalence and concentration in urban WW – with between 5 and 8 log₁₀ plaque forming units (PFU)/L (Blanch et al., 2006; Cole et al., 2003; Farkas et al., 2020; Gourmelon et al., 2007; Hartard et al., 2015; Havelaar et al., 1990; Korajkic et al., 2020) and the standardised methods used, which allow a fast and accurate quantification of the number of infectious particles (ISO 10705-1, 1995; ISO 10705-2, 2001). Furthermore, the effectiveness

of the removal of SC and FRNAPH during WW treatments has been reported to be similar to that of pathogenic enteric viruses(Carducci et al., 2009; Martín-Díaz et al., 2016). SC have been shown to be more abundant than FRNAPH, excepted in some situations such as reclaimed water, in which UV is the main factor in viral inactivation (Jofre et al., 2016).

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SC are non-enveloped phages whose taxonomy has recently been modified. The three families of tailed phages Myoviridae, Podoviridae, and Siphoviridae have been removed from the phage taxonomy proposed by the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) because they are not monophyletic (Turner et al., 2021). Now, these phages belong to the class of Caudoviricetes and the terms myovirus, podovirus, and siphovirus have been suggested for publications to indicate their morphology (Turner et al., 2021). Due to their high genomic diversity, there are not currently any available methods for the quantification of SC genomes. It is therefore interesting to focus on one specific family; the SC belonging to the Microviridae family are morphologically closer to the main enteric pathogenic viruses in terms of capsid shape (icosahedral) and size (around 25 nm) than the other SC. They are organised into three genera: Alphatrevirus, Gequatrovirus and Sinsheimervirus; the coliphages α3, G4, and $\phi X174$ were chosen as representative of these genera. A previous study, using transmission electron microscopy on infectious phages, observed that Microviridae were less removed by a full-scale membrane bioreactor (MBR) than the other SC (Purnell et al., 2015). The authors suggested that the highest susceptibility of the tailed SC to MBR could be due to adsorption to solids and/or damage within the MBR process. Since only Microviridae were observed among infectious SC in treated WW, the viral morphology of SC may be an important factor in their removal by MBR membranes (Purnell et al., 2015). It has also been shown that the removal of $\phi X174$ genomes after WW treatment is similar to that of some other pathogenic viruses commonly found in WW like the adenovirus or polyomavirus (Sidhu et al., 2017).

First, this work aimed to study the quantity and diversity of *Microviridae* compared to SC as a whole in raw and treated wastewater. The second objective was to evaluate the inactivation and removal of these *Microviridae* during different WW treatments. To do this, new PCR assays were developed for each genus of *Microviridae*. For the purposes of this study, the three genera will be named α 3-like, G4-like and ϕ X174-like phages, for *Alphatrevirus*, *Gequatrovirus* and *Sinsheimervirus*, respectively. The PCR assays were carried out on raw and treated WW samples to quantify the number of genomes present as well as to genotype the infectious PFUs particles to estimate the abundance of *Microviridae* as a proportion of all SC.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Water samples

Influents and effluents of urban WW from four different French WWTPs were selected to consider the variability of urban WW. In this study, we will refer to them as WWTP-1, WWTP-2, WWTP-3, and WWTP-4 (Figure 1A). Influent samples were collected at the WWTPs' entry point and effluent samples were collected just before environmental discharge. All samples were collected during 24h periods using automated samplers. The characteristics of the WWTPs (location, treatment capacity, type of WW, automated sampler, steps implemented to treat WW) are described in Table 1. Between 8 and 12 independent samples of influent and effluent WW were collected in each WWTP with a total of 38 influent samples and 34 effluent samples (see Supplementary Table S1). For WWTP-1 and WWTP-2, samples were collected between September 2021 and April 2022 and between April 2022 and May

2022, respectively. For WWTP-3 and WWTP-4, samples were collected between September 2021 and June 2022.

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2.2. Production, quantification, and genotyping of infectious somatic coliphages

Three representative Microviridae strains, φX174, α3, and G4-like, belonging respectively to the Sinsheimervirus, Alphatrevirus and Gequatrovirus genera, were selected for the development of specific real-time PCR methods. Referenced strains were used for the φX174 phage (ATCC 13706) and α3 phage (HER 536, Félix d'Hérelle Reference Center for Bacterial Viruses from the University of Laval, Québec, Canada), whereas the G4-like phage was isolated from wastewater and fully sequenced (as described below). Each phage was separately replicated and produced according to the ISO 10705-2 standard method (ISO 10705-2, 2001) with minor adjustments (the chloroform step was not carried out and the bacterial host used was Escherichia coli CN13, which is also known as WG5 (ATCC 700078). Phage suspensions were then centrifuged (6000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C) and supernatants were filtered through 0.22-µm sterile syringe filters made of hydrophilic polyethersulfone (Cytiva, USA). Initial concentrations of viral stocks were determined using the ISO 10705-2 standard method (NF EN ISO 10705-2, 2001). Only infectious SC can be replicated using the E. coli CN13 bacterial strain, since the absence of F-pilus on the surface of the bacterial strain prevents the replication of infectious FRNAPH. Concentrations of phage suspensions were about 10¹² PFU/mL for the α 3 and G4-like phages, and about 10⁸ PFU/mL for ϕ X174 phages. The phage suspensions were stored at 4 °C for up to two months.

Infectious SC were enumerated in duplicate in each WW sample using the ISO 10705-2 standard method as described above. After enumeration, plates containing 10 to 70 PFUs per sample were selected for genotyping. All the PFU of each plate were then individually

recovered using sterile loops and resuspended in 1 mL of PBS-5% Glycerol by vortexing for 20 sec. The total PFU analysed for the four WWTP reached 1,001 for influents and 664 for effluents (Table S1). Samples were then stored at -20 °C before DNA extraction for up to two weeks.

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2.3. Viral DNA extraction

Viral DNA extraction was directly performed on one mL of WW. Two mL of NucliSENS® lysis buffer (BioMérieux, France) were added to the sample, followed by vortexing and incubation at room temperature for 10 min. Samples were then stored at -20 °C for up to seven days or immediately extracted using NucliSENS® magnetic extraction reagents on NucliSENS® MiniMAG (BioMérieux, France) according manufacturer's to the recommendations. A negative control (water) was included in each run of extraction. The extracted DNA was eluted in 100 µL of elution buffer, purified with a OneStep PCR Inhibitor Removal Kit (Zymo Research, Ozyme, France) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Briefly, a column was prepared prior to use with a solution provided in the kit. The matrix of the column has been designed for efficient removal of polyphenolic compounds, humic and fulvic acids, tannins, etc. The sample was transferred on the matrix and recovered by centrifugation. The samples were stored at -80 °C for up to one month before PCR analyses. The individual plaques recovered in PBS-5% Glycerol were heated at 95°C for 5 min at 500 rpm to extract DNA (ThermoMixer comfort, Eppendorf, France). Then, the genotype of each plaque was determined by qPCR as described below. All plaques containing a mix of genotypes were removed from the analysis. This represented 2% of the total number of plaques collected over all samples from the four WWTPs (see Supplementary Table S1).

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2.4. Design of primers and TaqMan probes

The primers and probes were designed using Primer3Plus and the genomic sequences available on Genbank (in 2021, when the primers were designed) for the three genera of the Microviridae family. Using BLAST alignment for nucleotides, the identity ranged from 98.9% to 99.9% (coverage: 100%) between φX174 sequence with accession number NC 001422.1 and the 114 other complete sequences of Sinsheimervirus. The identity ranged from 84.0% to 100% (coverage: 84% to 100%) between α3 sequence with accession number NC 001330.1 and the 14 other Alphatrevirus sequences. It ranged from 91.3% to 100% (coverage: 99% to 100%) between G4 sequence with accession number NC_001420.2 and the 19 other Gequatrovirus sequences. The previously described PCR system for φX174 detection (Dika et al., 2015) matched with only 63% of the 115 sequences of Sinsheimervirus, but this result could be improved to 86% by degenerating one nucleotide on the reverse primer at position 1727 on NC_001422.1. The system with the degenerated reverse primer was used for φX174-like phage detection and quantification. The primers and probes were located in the replicase gene for α3-like phages and in the hypothetical Protein A for G4-like phages because of the relatively small amount of sequence variation encountered in those areas. BLAST alignments showed that these two PCR systems detected all the complete sequences of their genus disponible on Genbank. The specificity for each genus could also be estimated at 100% for the three PCR assays. An additional validation was done by testing DNA from α 3, G4-like, and φX174 with each PCR detection assay. The specifications of the oligonucleotides are given in Supplementary Table S2.

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2.5. Digital droplet PCR

The digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) technology was used to quantify the genomes of each *Microviridae* genus directly in the WW samples. It was carried out using a ddPCR supermix for Probes (no dUTP) kit with a QX200 ddPCR system (Bio-Rad). Each reaction contained a final concentration of 1 X Supermix, 900 nM of each primer, 130 nM of the ϕ 174-like probe, or 230 nM of the α 3-like and G4-like probes (Eurogentec, Belgium) and molecular-grade water. Template DNA (5.5 μ L) was added for a final reaction volume of 22 μ L. Droplet generation was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (BioRad). The resulting droplets were then transferred to a Thermal Cycler for PCR amplification using the following parameters with a ramp rate of 70% between each step: 95 °C for 10 min, 40 cycles of 94 °C for 30 sec and 55 °C for 1 min, followed by 98 °C for 10 min and a final step at 4 °C for 30 min. The droplets were kept at 4 °C up to 12 hours before analysis using the QX200 Droplet Reader (BioRad).

The limit of quantification (LOQ) of the ddPCR assay was of three positive droplets for 20,000 total droplets. By modelling with a Poisson distribution, this represented a concentration ~50 genome copies (GC)/100 μ L of extracted DNA. As only one mL of WW was analysed, the LOQ was estimated to be ~4.7 log₁₀ GC/L for these experiments.

2.6. Real-time PCR

The real-time PCR technique was used to genotype the PFU recovered from the plates for each *Microviridae* genus. For influents samples, a total of 1,001 PFU were genotyped. The number of genotyped PFU per WWTP varied between 218 (WWTP-1) and 283 (WWTP-3). For effluent samples, a total of 664 PFU were genotyped. The number of genotyped PFU per WWTP varied between 110 (WWTP-4) and 269 (WWTP-2). The detailed data are given in Supplementary Table S1. The reactions were performed using the TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix (ThermoFisher Scientific). In accordance with the manufacturer's

recommendations, each reaction was performed in a 25 μ L reaction mixture containing 5 μ L of template DNA and 15 μ L of 1 × TaqMan mix, 800 nM of each primer and 200 nM of the probe, and molecular grade water (Sigma). The amplification was carried out on a CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR System (BioRad) using the following parameters: 50 °C for 2 min, 95 °C for 10, min, followed by 45 cycles of 95 °C for 15 sec and 60 °C for 1 min. Infectious phage genotyping was performed using the extracted phage plaque DNA and was considered positive when Cq was below 30 because a PFU is expected to contain a high quantity of genome. This limit corresponded to ~ 5 log₁₀ GC/PFU.

2.7. Isolation and sequencing of environmental G4-like phage

A phage belonging to G4-like phages was isolated from an influent sample collected at WWTP-1 during SC enumeration and genotyping of PFU, amplified on *E. coli* CN13 and quantified at 2×10^{13} GC/mL before sequencing analysis. Several steps were then applied to obtain a sufficient concentration of purified phage DNA for sequencing analysis. First, this phage was amplified on a plate; then the top agar layer was separated from the other layer starting from the edge of the plate using sterile forceps and transferred to 200 mL of PBS, homogenised by vortexing and then slowly agitated during 4 hours at room temperature. After centrifugation at 2,520 \times g for 10 min at 4 °C, the supernatant was filtered through 5- μ m and 0.22- μ m filters. The filtrate was ultra-centrifuged at room temperature, at 53,900 \times g, for 7 hours (Beckman Optima XE-90; Rotor type 19), and the resulting pellet was resuspended in 4 mL of PBS. Before sequencing, the nucleic acids were extracted using NucliSENS® magnetic extraction reagents on NucliSENS® MiniMAG (BioMérieux, France) and treated with DNase-I to remove bacterial DNA. The bacterial DNA removal was validated using a 16S PCR method (Muyzer et al., 1993; Nadkarni et al., 2002). As SC are DNA phages, the treatment with DNAse

resulted in a 3 log₁₀ decrease in phage DNA, but 2×10^{13} GC/mL were still present in the sample. The phage was sequenced using next generation sequencing (NGS) (Microsynth AG, Balgach, Switzerland). Briefly, the second-strand DNA was synthesised with DNA polymerase I, an Illumina TruSeq DNA library was prepared and the sequencing was performed using Illumina MiSeq 1 Mio reads (2x250 bp runs, v2). After demultiplexing and trimming of Illumina adaptor residuals, the assembled sequence was obtained using Unicycler v0.5.0. The sequence is available on GenBank with accession number OR492646. BLAST analysis showed between 92.1% and 96.7% identity (coverage: 100%) with the 20 other complete sequences of G4-like phages, 77% identity (coverage: 33%) with the NC_001422.1 sequences (*Escherichia* phage phiX174, complete genome) and between 71.1% and 75.8% identity (coverage: 24% to 32%) with the 15 complete sequences of α 3-like phages.

2.8. Statistical analysis

All the statistical tests were performed using GraphPad-PRISM software (version 9.5.0). The α level was fixed at 0.05. All data were analysed for single outliers using the Grubbs test. After removing the detected single outliers, the normality of the data sets was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. All data were independent of each other. So, we used the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a post-hoc Dunn multiple pairwise comparison test to compare more than two samples. A Mann-Whitney test was used to compare two samples. Asterisks were used to indicate significant differences: * for p-value \leq 0.005; ** for p-value \leq 0.01; *** for p-value \leq 0.001, and **** for p-value \leq 0.0001.

3. Results

3.1. Assessment of the presence and diversity of *Microviridae* in raw wastewater

Our first aim was to assess the presence and diversity of the three genera of *Microviridae* in raw WW by detecting their corresponding infectious particles and viral genomes. Thirty-eight influent samples from four WWTP locations in two different regions of France were analysed (Figure 1A and Supplementary Table S1).

The three specific genera of *Microviridae* were detected using three specific PCR assays designed for $\alpha 3$ -like, G4-like and $\phi X174$ -like phages. The specificity of the PCR assays, evaluated using BLAST alignments (see above in 2.4), was confirmed by the absence of cross-reactivity when testing DNA from $\alpha 3$, G4-like, and $\phi X174$ with each PCR detection system. Both qPCR and ddPCR methods could be used to quantify the *Microviridae* genomes in environmental samples. For convenience, the qPCR method was used for determine which of the three genera of *Microviridae* the plaques of infectious SC were made up of, while the ddPCR method was used for the direct quantification of the genome copies in WW samples.

Infectious SC were detected using the standardised PFU method (NF EN ISO 10705-2, 2001) in all the WW samples. The mean concentrations of infectious SC in influents reached $7.1\pm0.5\log_{10}$ PFU/L (WWTP-1), $7.4\pm0.2\log_{10}$ PFU/L (WWTP-2), $8.1\pm0.4\log_{10}$ PFU/L (WWTP-3) and $8.0\pm0.6\log_{10}$ PFU/L (WWTP-4) (Figure 1B), with the SC concentrations in WWTP-1 being significantly lower than those observed in WWTP-3 (p-value = 0.0009) and WWTP-4 (p-value = 0.0064). After genotyping each plaque from each sample, the results allowed us to determine which of the three *Microviridae* genera (or other SC) each PFU was made up of (see Supplementary Figure S1B). The mean concentration of infectious *Microviridae* for each site varied from $5.1\pm2.4\log_{10}$ PFU/L (WWTP-1) to $7.4\pm0.5\log_{10}$ PFU/L (WWTP-4) (Figure 1B). As observed for infectious SC, the concentration of infectious *Microviridae* was significantly lower at WWTP-1 than at WWTP-3 (p-value = 0.0031) and WWTP-4 (p-value \le 0.0001). From these values, we estimated that infectious *Microviridae* make up on average between 12 % \pm 9 %

(WWTP-1) and 30 % \pm 14 % (WWTP-4) of total infectious SC in influents. If we take into account all four WWTPs, the mean concentrations of infectious *Microviridae* of each genus varied from 2.6 \pm 3.4 log₁₀ PFU/L for G4-like phages to 4.0 \pm 3.2 log₁₀ PFU/L for α 3-like phages (data not shown). When analysing each site separately (Figure 1C), the only significant difference was a lower proportion of G4-like phages than α 3-like phages in influents from WWTP-2 (p-value = 0.0168). Nevertheless, the wide distribution of the concentration values with negative samples frequently observed for at least one genus may hide the differences between genera.

The mean concentration of *Microviridae* genomes varied from 7.6 \pm 0.3 log₁₀ GC/L (WWTP-1) to 8.1 \pm 0.3 log₁₀ GC/L (WWTP-3) (Figure 1B). As observed for the infectious phages, WWTP-1 had a lower concentration of *Microviridae* genomes than WWTP-3 (p-value = 0.0149) and WWTP-4 (p-value = 0.0288). If we take into account all four WWTPs, the mean concentrations of each genus varied from 6.7 \pm 0.6 log₁₀ GC/L for G4-like phages to 7.6 \pm 0.4 log₁₀ GC/L for α 3-like phages (data not shown). When analysing each site separately (Figure 1D), the concentrations of α 3-like genomes were significantly higher than those of G4-like genomes at all WWTPs (p-values from \leq 0.0001 for WWTP-2 and -4 to 0.0316 for WWTP-1). The concentrations of the α 174-like genomes were in between those of the two other genera, with no significant differences. These original genome data may be more representative of the real proportions of α 3-like, G4-like and α 4774-like phages than those obtained for PFUs as it was observed less variability for any given site for the genome parameter than what we observed for the infectious parameter.

3.2. Comparison of the behaviour of *Microviridae* and somatic coliphages during wastewater treatments

For the four same WWTPs, 34 effluent samples were collected in parallel with influent samples and analysed using the same methods to determine the concentrations of infectious SC and *Microviridae* and *Microviridae* genomes at the end of WW treatment (see Supplementary Table S1 and Supplementary Figure S1). From influent and effluent concentrations, the removal of infectious SC and *Microviridae* as well as the removal of *Microviridae* genomes could be estimated and expressed as a log₁₀ reduction (Figure 2A).

A reduction of $1.9 \pm 0.3 \log_{10}$ and $2.9 \pm 0.2 \log_{10}$ was observed for infectious SC at WWTP-1 and -2. WWTP-3 and -4 achieved a reduction of $4.2 \pm 0.4 \log_{10}$ and $3.9 \pm 0.5 \log_{10}$, respectively, with both sites doing tertiary disinfection treatment based on UV light (Figure 2A and Table 1). The reduction in infectious SC was statistically higher in WWTP-3 and -4 than in WWTP-1 (p-value ≤ 0.0001 for WWTP-3 and p-value = 0.0002 for WWTP-4). No significant difference was observed between WWTP-2 and the three other WWTPs.

The reduction in infectious Microviridae followed a similar trend to that observed for all SC (Figure 2A), but higher standard deviation values were noticed for Microviridae than for SC. The reduction of infectious Microviridae reached $0.5 \pm 2.5 \log_{10}$ at WWTP-1 and $3.1 \pm 1.5 \log_{10}$ at WWTP-2, while average reductions of $4.0 \pm 3.6 \log_{10}$ and $5.6 \pm 1.9 \log_{10}$ were observed at WWTP-3 and WWTP-4, respectively. As observed for all SC, the reduction in infectious Microviridae was significantly lower at WWTP-1 than at WWTP-3 (p-value = 0.0042) and WWTP-4 (p-value ≤ 0.0001). Based on the concentration values of infectious particles (Supplemental Figure 1), the average proportions of infectious Microviridae were estimated to be between 17 % \pm 17 % (WWTP-3) and 32 % \pm 16 % (WWTP-2) of all infectious SC in effluent samples. Overall, except for WWTP-1 where infectious Microviridae were significantly less reduced than infectious SC (p-value = 0.0088), similar behaviour was observed between

infectious SC and *Microviridae* during WW treatments, even when tertiary UV treatment was carried out.

The removal of *Microviridae* particles was estimated using genome quantification data (Figure 2A). The highest mean removal of *Microviridae* particles was $4.2 \pm 2.1 \log_{10}$ for WWTP-2 and was significantly higher than the reduction of about $2.0 \log_{10}$ obtained at the three other WWTPs (p-values = 0.0029, 0.0092, and 0.0417, respectively). Despite both applying similar steps for the entire wastewater treatment, WWTP-1 and -2 showed a significant difference (p-value = 0.0029) in effectiveness in removing *Microviridae* particles (about $2 \log_{10}$). Even if the treatments applied in these two WWTPs were similar, they may differ in their conditions of application. The $4.0 \log_{10}$ reduction obtained for infectious *Microviridae* and SC at WWTP-3 and -4 was not observed for the *Microviridae* genomes detected with a single target.

Few differences were found between the three genera of *Microviridae*. For infectious *Microviridae* (Figure 2B), we did not observe a reduction in the concentration of G4-like phages at WWTP-1 and WWTP-2 because infectious G4-like phages were more frequently detected in effluents than in influents in these two WWTPs. Thus, for these two WWTPs, G4-like phages represented only 11.5% and 8.9% of infectious *Microviridae* in influents, whereas they represented 56.8% and 63.5% of infectious *Microviridae* in effluents (Table S1). This led to the only significant difference observed between the three genera for infectious *Microviridae* with a higher removal of α 3-like phages than G4-like phages at WWTP-2 (p-value = 0.0251). If we take into account all the data, irrespective of the WW treatment method used, there was similar reductions of infectious particles for all three genera (p-value > 0.05). Regarding genome data (Figure 2C), the only difference between genera was observed at WWTP-3, where the decrease in α 3-like phages was higher than those observed for G4-like phages (p-value = 0.0063) and α 4X174-like phages (p-value = 0.0126). If we take into account

all the data, there was significantly higher reduction of $\alpha 3$ -like phages than $\phi X174$ -like phages during WW treatments (p-value = 0.0186). Moreover, the higher genome concentrations of $\alpha 3$ -like phages relative to G4-like phages in all influent samples were no longer visible in the effluent samples (see Supplementary Figure 1C). Despite the variability of the data, especially for infectious *Microviridae*, our results suggest that the removal of $\alpha 3$ -like phages during WW treatments was slightly more efficient than for the two other genera (G4-like and $\phi X174$ -like).

4. Discussion

This study aimed to increase knowledge about SC belonging to the *Microviridae* family in WW, and to better understand the effect of WW treatments on their inactivation and removal. PCR assays were developed here for the quantification of the three genera of *Microviridae*, which is the only remaining recognized family in the SC (Turner et al., 2021). The design of these PCR assays was done by using the complete sequences available on Genbank which are more numerous for ϕ X-174-like genus than the other genera. Three PCR assays were necessary since this family is too genetically diverse to create a single PCR assay that can target all its members. A previous study proposed a PCR assay that only targeted the ϕ X-174-like genus (Lee, 2009) and did not detect all *Microviridae* or compare the three genera of *Microviridae* between each other. By conducting our PCR assays on PFUs, we also quantified infectious *Microviridae* in WW, which provided information on both the removal and inactivation of *Microviridae* by WW treatments. Raw and treated WW samples were collected in four French WWTPs using tertiary treatments based either on lamellar settling for the removal of phosphorous and residual suspended solids or on UV disinfection.

All influent samples were positive for infectious SC using the standardised method with values ranging from 7.1 to 8.2 \log_{10} PFUs per litre. A meta-analysis of infectious SC in raw WW

has previously shown a significant difference in the mean density distributions between geographic regions (Nappier et al., 2019). Nevertheless, our values were consistent with mean concentration values ranging from 5.1 to 9.7 log₁₀ PFUs per litre previously reported for raw WW (Blanch et al., 2006; Chacón et al., 2020; Jofre et al., 2021; Kelmer et al., 2023; Levantesi et al., 2010; Lucena et al., 2004; Muniesa et al., 1999; Purnell et al., 2015; Truchado et al., 2021; Zhang and Farahbakhsh, 2007). Moreover, a mean concentration value of 7.1 log₁₀ PFUs per litre had been previously obtained for WWTP-1 featured in this study (Lucena et al., 2004).

The reduction in infectious SC between influents and effluents reached 2 and 3 log₁₀ in WWTP-1 and -2, respectively. These WWTP included tertiary treatment for phosphorous removal based on flocculation with FeCl₃ and lamellar setting. About 2.7 log₁₀ removal of infectious SC was observed in a WWTP applying similar treatment including flocculation (n=14 samples) (Fu et al., 2010). This tertiary treatment was estimated to eliminate about 0.5 to 0.8 log₁₀ of infectious SC (Fu et al., 2010; Gantzer et al., 1998; Lucena et al., 2004). The reduction in infectious SC between influents and effluents reached 4 log₁₀ in WWTP-3 and -4. It can be considered that the difference of 1 to 2 log₁₀ observed between WWTP-1 and -2 on one hand and WWTP-3 and -4 on the other hand was due to UV disinfection because it was the main difference between these WWTPs. Similarly, Korajkic and colleagues (2022) observed that UV light treatment improved infectious SC reduction by 1 to 2 log₁₀. About 5 log₁₀ reduction of infectious SC was observed in two WWTPs using UV or chlorine as tertiary treatment (Truchado et al., 2021).

The three PCR assays developed here allowed us to measure the genome concentrations of each *Microviridae* genus and the concentrations of infectious *Microviridae*. The *Microviridae* genomes were systematically detected in raw WW and their concentrations were between 7.6 and 8.1 log₁₀ GC per litre. By using the PCR assay designed by Lee (2009),

the genome of the φX-174-like genus was detected at 6 to 7 log₁₀ GC per litre of raw WW in Australia (Sidhu et al., 2018, 2017). We observed a predominance of the α 3-like genome compared to the G4-like genome in raw WW, indicating differences in the initial concentrations of the three genera of Microviridae. Infectious Microviridae were also systematically detected in raw WW and they represented between 12 % and 30 % of all infectious SC (21% by considering the 1,001 PFU from all influents samples together). Moreover, we analysed all PFU from plates containing between 10 and 70 PFU in order to have more chance to detect phages present at low frequency. Our percentage values for Microviridae were considerably higher than those observed by Muniesa et al., (1999), who detected no more than 2 % of Microviridae among infectious SC in raw WW. However, these authors analysed plates containing no more than 20 PFU. This low quantity of PFU per plate may have contributed to the low detection of *Microviridae* as suggested by previous study performed on bacterial diversity (Bianchi and Bianchi, 1982). Metagenomic approaches previously applied to WW gave rates that were closer to ours, with Microviridae representing 19 % to 37 % of total SC in raw sewage (Cantalupo et al., 2011; Aw et al., 2014).

The analysis of raw and treated WW with our PCR assays showed the level of removal of *Microviridae*, whereas PCR assays on PFUs provided a relative information about the rate of *Microviridae* inactivation. PCR assays allow the quantification of both infectious and non-infectious *Microviridae* and several states of viral particles (infectious, non-infectious with intact capsid, non-infectious with altered capsid) can be present and detected using PCR methods in environmental samples (Randazzo et al., 2018; Wurtzer et al., 2021). For the two WWTPs that used tertiary settling treatments, the reduction in *Microviridae* genomes (2 to 4 log₁₀) was greater than the reduction in infectious *Microviridae* (0.5 to 3 log₁₀), showing that physical removal of *Microviridae* particles predominated over inactivation. This could be due

to the adhesion of a part of *Microviridae* phages to suspended matter leading to their removal with these particulates during flocculation and lamellar settling. The study of the surface properties of *Microviridae*, especially their relative hydrophobicity as performed for other phages (Dika et al., 2015), could contribute to the understanding of this phenomenon. On the contrary, for tertiary treatment using UV disinfection, the reduction in infectious *Microviridae* (4 to 5 log₁₀) was greater than the reduction in *Microviridae* genomes (2 log₁₀). This was expected, because viral inactivation is due to genomic lesions during UV disinfection (Beck et al., 2016; Pecson et al., 2011; Simonet and Gantzer, 2006), but damage due to UV are often limited to some parts of the genome and the use of a single genome target is commonly no sufficient to evaluate such a treatment (Young et al., 2020). As we targeted only a small part of *Microviridae* genome (~100 nucleotides), these phages were still detected by PCR whereas they were inactivated. These results showed that UV treatment is highly efficient for the inactivation of *Microviridae* and that PCR methods using only a single target cannot be used to evaluate this tertiary treatment.

Overall, similar reductions were observed for infectious *Microviridae* and SC, and the proportion of infectious *Microviridae* was shown to be between 10% and 30% of total infectious SC in both raw and treated WW. This suggested similar behaviour for un-tailed *Microviridae* and tailed SC exposed to these WW treatments. A link between the phages' morphology and the efficiency of WW treatment has been previously described for a full-scale MBR (Purnell et al., 2015). These authors only detected infectious *Microviridae* in treated WW using transmission electronic microscopy; this was explained by tailed SC's higher adsorption of solids and/or susceptibility to damage within the MBR process. The specific monitoring of each *Microviridae* genus performed in our work suggested that α 3-like genus might be more

sensitive to WW treatments than other *Microviridae*, but this point requires further investigation taking account of the frequency of each genus.

5. Conclusion

The PCR approach developed in the present study showed that the specific monitoring of *Microviridae* genomes and infectious particles is possible in raw and treated WW; it could also be applied to other environmental samples. In the WWTPs studied here, these phages appeared to behave similarly to all SC. Moreover, the size and capsid morphology of *Microviridae* are closer to common pathogenic enteric viruses than other SC; this could be a tremendous advantage for the evaluation of WW treatment. Thus, further studies focusing on *Microviridae* may contribute to the improvement of WW treatment and reuse and, consequently, human health risk management.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interest.

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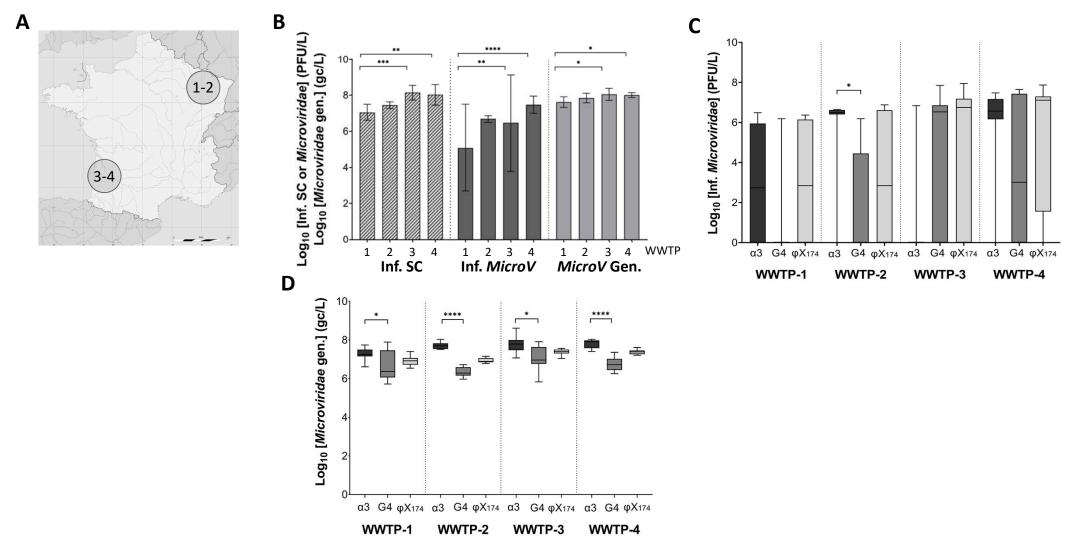


Figure 1: Quantification of viral infectious particles and genome copies in wastewater influents. (A) Localisation of the four WWTP in France. (B) Concentration values of infectious SC (grey pattern), infectious Microviridae (dark grey) and Microviridae genome copies (light grey) before WW treatments (bars represent the mean with SD for each condition). (C) Concentration values of infectious particles for the three genera of Microviridae in the influent (Box and whiskers representing the mean and the maximum and minimum values). (D) Concentration values of the genome of the three genera of Microviridae in the influent (Box and whiskers representing the mean and the maximum and minimum values). The LOQ of the three ddPCR assays in WW was between 4.7 \log_{10} GC/L. For all panels, Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was performed: stars represent significative differences (* = p ≤ 0.05; ** = p ≤ 0.01; *** = p ≤ 0.001 and **** = p ≤ 0.0001). In Figure 1B, the four WWTP were compared between each other and the WWTP were tested independently from each other for 1C and 1D.

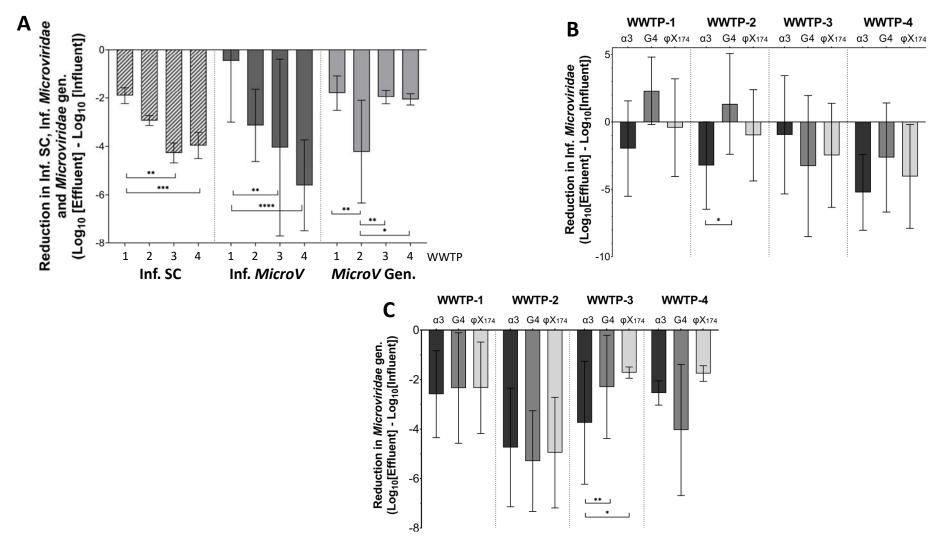
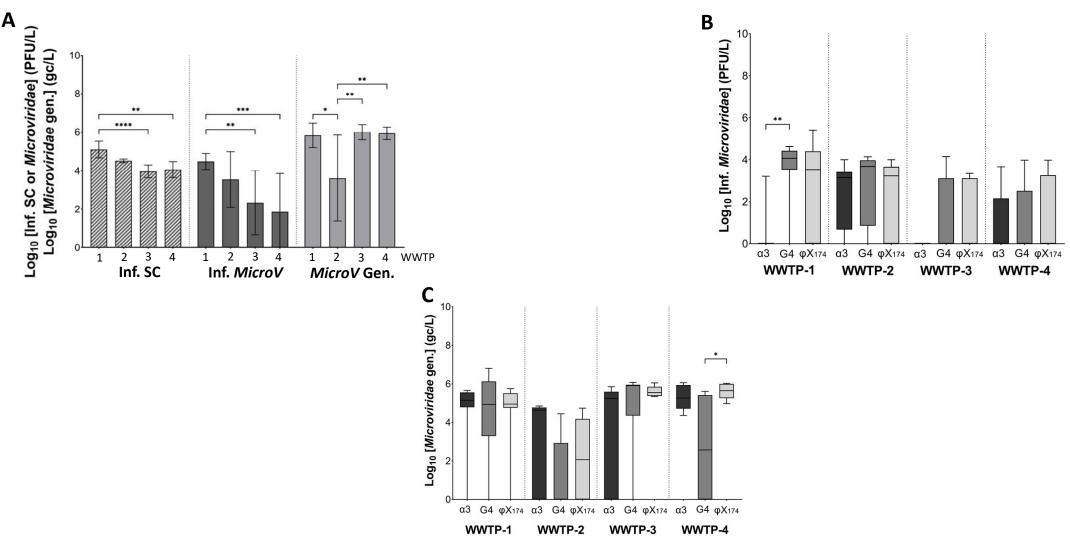


Figure 2: Variation in genome and infectious viral particles concentrations after WWTP treatments. (A) Log_{10} reduction of infectious SC (grey pattern), infectious *Microviridae* (dark grey) and *Microviridae* genome (light grey) after WW treatments (bars represent the mean with SD for each condition). (B) Log_{10} reduction of infectious *Microviridae* after WW treatments for each WWTP (bars represent the mean with SD for each condition). (C) Log_{10} reduction of the *Microviridae* genome copies after WW treatments for each WWTP (bars represent the mean with SD for each condition). For all panels, Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was performed: stars represent significative differences (* = p \leq 0.05; ** = p \leq 0.001; *** = p \leq 0.001 and **** = p \leq 0.0001). In Figure 2A, the WWTP were compared between each other and the WWTP were tested independently from each other for 2B and 2C.

Table 1: Characteristics of the four WWTP

| | WWTP-1 | WWTP-2 | WWTP-3 | WWTP-4 | |
|---------------|---|---|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|
| Location | Grand Est region | Grand Est region | Nouvelle Aquitaine region | Nouvelle Aquitaine region | |
| | (north-east of France) | (north-east of France) | (south-west of France) | (south-west of France) | |
| Capacity | 400,000 | 440,000 | 150,000 | 135,000 | |
| (inhabitant- | | | | | |
| equivalents) | | | | | |
| Type of WW | Urban | Urban | Urban | Urban | |
| | Residential | Residential and industrial ^a | Residential | Residential | |
| | Combined sewer system | Combined sewer-system | Separative sewer-system | Separative sewer-system | |
| Automated | Hach Lange Bühler | Endress Hauser | Endress Hauser | Endress Hauser | |
| sampler | | (ASP2000) | (Liquistation CSF48) | (Liquistation CSF48) | |
| | Refrigerated | Refrigerated | Refrigerated | Refrigerated | |
| | Dry weather: 60 mL / 250-300 m ³ | 60 mL / 200 m ³ | $50 \text{ mL} / 50 \text{ m}^3$ | $50 \text{ mL} / 50 \text{ m}^3$ | |
| | Wet weather: 60 mL / 350-450 m ³ | | | | |
| Pre-treatment | | Scree | ning | | |
| | Removal of sand, oil, and grease | | | | |
| Treatment-I | Primary settling tank | | | | |
| Treatment-II | | Biological | filtration | | |
| | Secondary settling tank | | | | |
| Treatment-III | Phosphorous treatment | by flocculation with | U | IV | |
| | FeCl ₃ , sand and polymer, | | | | |

^a: industrial WW reached about 42,000 inhabitant-equivalents in terms of pollution.



Supplementary Figure 1: Concentration of the genome and infectious viral particles after WW treatment. (A) Concentration values of infectious SC (grey pattern), infectious *Microviridae* (dark grey) and *Microviridae* genome copies (light grey) after WWTP treatments (bars represent the mean with SD for each condition). (B) Concentration values of infectious particles for the genera of *Microviridae* in the effluents (Box and whiskers representing the mean and the maximum and minimum values)). (C) Concentration values of the genome of the three genera of *Microviridae* in the effluents (Box and whiskers representing the mean and the maximum and minimum values)). The LOQ of the three ddPCR assays in WW was ~4.7 \log_{10} GC/L. For all panels, Kruskal-Wallis statistical test was performed, stars represent significative differences (* = p ≤ 0.05; ** = p ≤ 0.001; *** = p ≤ 0.001 and **** = p ≤ 0.0001). In Figure S1A, the four WWTP were compared between each other and the WWTP were tested independently from each other for S1B and S1C. For ddPCR, the LOQ was 5.0 \log_{10} gc/L