



Comparison of viral concentration techniques for native fecal indicators and pathogens from wastewater

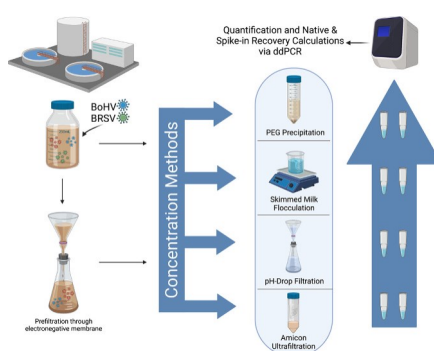
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Native recoveries are not sufficiently represented by spike-in recoveries.
- Virus concentration methods vary in efficacy based on virus structure and concentration.
- Amicon ultrafiltration was the most broadly effective concentration method.
- Polyethylene glycol was the best performing method for SARS-CoV-2.
- Native target recovery should be included in viral concentration evaluations.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ARTICLE INFO

Editor: Warfish Ahmed

Keywords:

Wastewater
Virus
Concentration
Indicator

ABSTRACT

Viral pathogens are typically dilute in environmental waters, necessitating a concentration step prior to subsequent quantification or analysis. Historically, studies on viral concentration efficiency have been done by spiking known viruses into the sample; however, spike-in controls may not have the same behavior as “native” viruses exposed to environmental conditions. In this study, four concentration methods, including polyethylene glycol precipitation (PEG), skimmed milk flocculation (SMF), pH drop followed by filtration through a 0.45 µm filter (pH), and centrifugation using an Amicon filter (Amicon), were evaluated to concentrate native viral targets in wastewater. Viral targets included both indicators (crAssphage and pepper mild mottle virus) and pathogens (adenovirus, norovirus GII, human polyomavirus, and SARS-CoV-2) in addition to a bacterial marker (HF183). A non-native spike-in control was also added to compare native and spike-in recoveries. Recovery varied widely across targets and methods, ranging from 0.1 to 39.3 %. The Amicon method was the most broadly effective concentration for recovery efficiency. For the lowest-titer target, the PEG method resulted in the fewest number of non-detections, with 96.7 % positive detections for SARS-CoV-2, compared to 66.7 %, 80 %, and 76.7 % positive detections for SMF, pH, and Amicon, respectively. The non-native spike-ins chosen were only representative of a few native recovery trends, varying by both target and concentration method, and consistently under or over-estimated recovery. Overall, this study suggests the utility of including native targets in viral concentration evaluation and determining the efficiency of concentration methods for a specific target of interest.

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.167190>

Received 27 July 2023; Received in revised form 12 September 2023; Accepted 16 September 2023

Available online 21 September 2023

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1. Introduction

Viruses account for the highest predicted infectious risks from exposure to sewage-contaminated water (Boehm et al., 2018; Crank et al., 2019; McBratney et al., 2013). That risk is despite low viral pathogen concentrations in sewage compared to bacteria and other pathogenic agents. To properly detect and quantify viruses, especially eukaryotic viral pathogens, in sewage-impacted environmental waters, samples must be concentrated prior to analysis, including culture-based and molecular approaches such as shotgun metagenomics or PCR methods. Concentration methods are critical for monitoring microbial water quality and improving detections in wastewater-based epidemiology applications.

Many methods exist to concentrate viruses in environmental water samples and pooling source materials, such as sewage, through chemical and physical interactions, though individual morphologies of viruses and bacteriophages respond differently to each method (Cashdollar and Wymer, 2013; Faalman et al., 2019; Farkas et al., 2022; Hjeltnes et al., 2017). Concentration methods rely on various underlying phenomena, including physical capture of particles with attached viruses, charge capture of viral particles, agglomeration of viral and solid particles, or size exclusion of viral particles. Standard concentration methods include filtration-based approaches that capture viral particles based on particle association and charge capture; ultrafiltration, which uses centrifugation and particle weight; and precipitation or flocculation, which employs various materials to attract viruses via surface charge and create larger particles that will settle or pellet in solutions. Commonly, multiple methods will be used in tandem (i.e., primary and secondary concentration) to achieve the highest recovery possible.

Spike-in controls are generally used to calculate concentration efficiency; however, this approach poses potentially significant challenges. Viruses and nucleic acids of viral origin are likely to be bound to larger particles within a sewage sample, some of which impact the efficacy of extraction and PCR processes and thus require as much separation from these particles as possible (Gedafanga and Olson, 2009; Medeiros and Danieff, 2015). In contrast, spike-in controls are taken from an effectively pure sample and mixed in with the sample for a relatively short time relative to what native viruses would experience, thus native viruses may be more effective for method comparison (Fores et al., 2021). They are less likely to experience the same integration and particle association as native viruses, potentially leading to a mis-estimation of recovery efficiency (Gantzer et al., 1994). Furthermore, fluctuations in water quality and fecal load may have more influence on viral recoveries, as particle association and pH impact the retention of viruses through physical concentration methods (Gerba et al., 1978). Water quality parameters can vary based on geographic location and service population, and samples from the same wastewater treatment plant can vary over time due to weather, season, and sampling time. Thus, recovery efficiencies are likely also variable because of wastewater conditions at the time and place of sampling (Bibby et al., 2019).

The COVID-19 pandemic increased the popularity of wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE) for tracking the spread of SARS-CoV-2 and informing public health decisions (Bivins et al., 2020; Sfims and Kasprzyk-Hordern, 2020). An immediate need for concentration and analysis methods led to ad-hoc method selection, given that there is no universally agreed-upon method. Many studies compare concentration methods for SARS-CoV-2, typically using surrogates with similar physiochemical properties (enveloped virus, RNA genome) (Ahmed et al., 2020; Farkas et al., 2022; Jafferati et al., 2021; Kevill et al., 2022). However, changing the concentration method while monitoring a constant parameter makes comparing quantifications difficult, as all methods have different biases (Kitajima et al., 2020). It is vital to have data showing the efficiencies of various concentration methods for different types of viruses in complex matrices to inform further work on WBE, SARS-CoV-2, and any other pathogens of interest that may arise.

Here, we use both native and spike-in controls to assess the

performance of various viral concentration methods. Specifically, we compared four different viral concentration methods: polyethylene glycol precipitation (PEG), skimmed milk flocculation (SMF), pH modification and filtration through 0.45 μm filters (pH-drop), and ultrafiltration using Amicon ultrafilters (Amicon). These methods are not exhaustive but are among the most commonly chosen methods and capture the primary methods by which viruses are concentrated: size exclusion, disruption of particle association via buffers and salts, and ultrafiltration. Both unfiltered and filtered wastewater samples were assessed as a representative approach to enrich the viral fraction, for example, before metagenomic sequencing. This method has been used as a quick, cheap, and effective method of isolating the virome from the broader metagenome but gained popularity during the COVID-19 pandemic. We compared concentration efficiencies by calculating recovery using direct extractions and spike-in controls. Additionally, we assessed processing time and cost to determine optimal methods for situations with limited resources, such as funding, laboratory access, or time.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sample collection and pretreatment

Wastewater samples were collected from an anonymous wastewater treatment plant in Northern Indiana, USA. In 2020, this plant served 56,227 residents and had an average influent flow rate of 64 million liters daily. Each sampling event consisted of two one-liter grab samples from the primary influent, which were transported immediately on ice to the laboratory and stored at 4 °C until processing within 24 h. Five samples were collected from August to December of 2020, with each sample being collected between 9 and 11 AM.

The samples were spiked with process controls before concentration: bovine herpesvirus (BoHV) and bovine respiratory syncytial virus (BRSV) in the form of Inforce 3, an intranasal cattle vaccine consisting of five attenuated viruses. Process controls were spiked in at a 1 $\mu\text{L/mL}$ of wastewater, which was approximately 7 log₁₀ RNA copies.

Half of each sample was prefiltered to evaluate treatments to reduce the bacterial fraction of the sample. For these treatments, one liter of sample wastewater was filtered using a glass vacuum filtration assembly (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) through a 0.45 μm , 47 mm GN-6 Metrcel hydrophilic mixed cellulose ester membrane to remove larger particles (Pall Corporation, Westborough, MA, USA). Unfiltered and filtered samples were subjected to four concentration methods over five separate sampling days. 200 μL from each sample was also taken as a direct extraction, resulting in nine extractions per sampling day and 45 samples overall.

2.2. Polyethylene glycol (PEG) precipitation

The PEG precipitation protocol was based on the previous methodology by Hjeltnes et al. and Bibby et al. (Bibby and Peccia, 2013; Hjeltnes et al., 2017). Briefly, 200 mL of wastewater was mixed with 25 mL of a glycine buffer (0.05 M glycine, 3 % beef extract, pH 9.6) for 10 min to detach viral particles from organic material. The samples were centrifuged at 8000 $\times g$ for 30 min, then filtered through 0.45 μm , 47 mm GN-6 Metrcel hydrophilic mixed cellulose ester membranes. The filtered material was mixed with 8 % PEG 6000 and 17.5 g/L NaCl. The PEG mixtures were agitated overnight at 100 rpm and 4 °C, then centrifuged for 90 min at 13,000 $\times g$ the following day. The resulting pellet was placed directly into a 2 mL Garnet PowerBead Tube (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and stored at 80 °C until extraction.

2.3. Skimmed milk flocculation

Concentration using skimmed milk flocculation (SMF) involved mixing 200 mL of wastewater acidified to pH 3.5 with 2 mL of a 1 %

skimmed milk solution with concentrated NaOH (pH = 3.5) (Cafagua et al., 2008; Cantafupo et al., 2011). This mixture was stirred for 8 h, then allowed to settle for 8 h. The supernatant was removed without disturbing settled flocs, and the remaining liquid and flocs were centrifuged at 8000 $\times$ g for 45 min. The resulting pellet was placed directly into a 2 mL Garnet PowerBead Tube (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and stored at 80 °C until extraction.

2.4. pH-Drop concentration

Electronegative membrane concentration was similar to the prefiltration process. 200 mL of wastewater was acidified to pH 3.5, then filtered through a 0.45 μ m, 47 mm GN-6 Mettrecel hydrophilic mixed cellulose ester membrane using glass filtration assemblies. The filters were then rinsed aseptically, placed in 2 mL Garnet PowerBead Tubes, and stored at 80 °C until extraction.

2.5. Amicon (centrifugal ultrafilter concentration)

The ultrafiltration concentration was performed using the Amicon Ultra-15 10 kDa Centrifugal Filter Unit (MilliporeSigma, MA, USA). 15 mL of wastewater was loaded into the Amicon filter and centrifuged at 5000 $\times$ g for 30 min. All remaining retentate was transferred directly into a 2 mL Garnet PowerBead tube and stored at 80 °C until extraction.

2.6. Nucleic acid extraction

DNA and RNA extractions were performed using the Qiagen AxiPrep PowerViral DNA/RNA kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with slight modifications to manufacturer instructions. Before extraction, 6 μ L of β -Mercaptoethanol (MP Biomedicals, Irvine, CA, USA) was added to each thawed PowerBead tube to aid RNA extraction. The bead beating step was performed on a FastPrep 24 homogenizer for four rounds of 20 s at 6 m/s with 5 min between rounds. In the final step, nucleic acids were eluted into 100 μ L of RNase-free water and transferred into 2 mL DNA LoBind tubes (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). Nucleic acids were split into 30 μ L and 70 μ L aliquots and stored at 80 and 20 °C for downstream processing.

2.7. ddPCR

DNA and RNA quantification was performed using the Biorad QX200 Droplet Digital PCR (ddPCR) System, with thermal cycling performed on the C1000 Touch Thermal Cycler (Biorad, Hercules, CA, USA). Biorad ddPCR Supermix for Probes was used according to the manufacturer's instructions for all DNA reactions. The reaction mixture contained 1 $\times$ Supermix, 900 nM forward and reverse target primers, 250 nM target probes, and 2 μ L of extracted DNA. RNA translation and PCR were performed in one reaction using the Biorad One-Step RT-ddPCR Advanced Kit for Probes according to the manufacturer's instructions for all RNA reactions, with 1 $\times$ Supermix, 20 U/ μ L reverse transcriptase, 15 mM dithiothreitol, 900 nM forward and reverse target primers, 250 nM target probes, and either 2 or 4 μ L of extracted RNA depending on the target. Target assays were CrAssphage (CR56), pepper mild mottle virus (PMMoV), the bacterial fecal marker HF183, norovirus GII, human adenovirus, human polyomavirus JC and BK (HPyV), and the SARS-CoV-2 N1 assay. Spike-in assays were bovine herpesvirus (BoHV) and bovine respiratory syncytial virus (BRSV). Primer and probe sequences, concentrations, and thermal cycling conditions for each ddPCR assay are summarized in Table S1. Copy numbers were determined using manual thresholding on Quantasoft Version 1.7.4.

2.8. Data analysis

Graphical and statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism Version 9.0.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA). Mann-

Whitney tests were used to compare concentration methods. Theoretical detection limits were calculated by taking the average genome copies from one positive droplet as calculated by Quantasoft software, then multiplying by the quantity of sample extracted in each concentration method to get a minimum concentration for detection. Detection limits were not calculated for assays where all samples had more than ten positive droplets. Each method's efficiency was compared by finding the sampling day rather than being pooled and compared in bulk. Native percent recovery was calculated by dividing the concentration method's quantity by the direct extraction quantity for each target. Percent recovery for BRSV and BoHV was calculated using the PCR-determined quantity for each concentration and the known spike in quantity. For native recovery and spike-in recovery comparison, the targets are compared to the spike-in that shares their nucleic acid type (BoHV for DNA or BRSV for RNA). Non-detections are noted on the summary figures for each target but were not included in any statistical analysis. Additional figures and statistical analyses where non-detections were set equal to the detection limit are included in the Supplementary Information.

3. Results

3.1. ddPCR detection and quantification

Wastewater samples were taken over five days, with four concentration methods used, each on filtered and unfiltered samples, and a direct sample extraction each day, resulting in 45 total samples. Across all concentration methods, CrAssphage, PMMoV, and HPyV were detected in all 45 samples, HF183 in 43 samples, adenovirus in 40 samples, norovirus GII in 37 samples, and 43 samples had at least one positive detection of three replicates for the SARS-CoV-2 N1 assay.

Concentration results for CrAssphage, PMMoV, and HF183 are shown in Fig. 1. CrAssphage abundances ranged from 4.29 to 8.5 $\log_{10}$ GC/L for all concentration methods, with the direct extractions averaging 8.92 $\log_{10}$ GC/L and no samples falling below the limit of detection. Unfiltered samples concentrated via the SMF method had the highest abundance of CrAssphage, while filtered samples concentrated via the pH-drop method had the lowest. The SMF, pH-drop, and Amicon methods all resulted in a significant difference in CrAssphage abundance between the filtered and unfiltered samples.

PMMoV showed similar trends as CrAssphage, with abundances from concentration methods ranging from 4.72 to 7.23 $\log_{10}$ GC/L and direct extractions averaging 7.41 $\log_{10}$ GC/L. Unfiltered samples concentrated via the pH-drop method resulted in the highest abundance of PMMoV, while filtered samples with the same method resulted in the lowest. Abundances in the PEG and Amicon methods did not show a significant difference between unfiltered and filtered samples.

HF183 densities ranged from 3.60 to 8.17 $\log_{10}$ GC/L for all concentration methods, with direct extractions averaging 8.70 $\log_{10}$ GC/L. HF183 had two non-detections for the filtered pH-drop method. Unfiltered samples concentrated via the Amicon and pH-drop methods had the highest densities, while filtered samples across all concentration methods were at least one log lower in abundance than unfiltered and statistically insignificant from each other. The prefiltration step showed a significant difference for HF183 for all methods except for PEG.

Concentrations for each method for Norovirus GII, Adenovirus, HPyV, and SARS-CoV-2 are shown in Fig. 2. Norovirus GII detection ranged from 2.39 to 5.65 $\log_{10}$ GC/L across all concentration methods. Three of five direct extractions had a positive detection, with an average concentration of 5.47 $\log_{10}$ GC/L. The only other non-detection for norovirus GII occurred for a single sample in the filtered Amicon method. Unfiltered samples concentrated via the Amicon method had the highest concentrations, while filtered PEG and pH-drop methods had the lowest.

Adenovirus was detected at concentrations ranging from 2.60 to 5.74 $\log_{10}$ GC/L for all concentration methods, with the highest Adenovirus

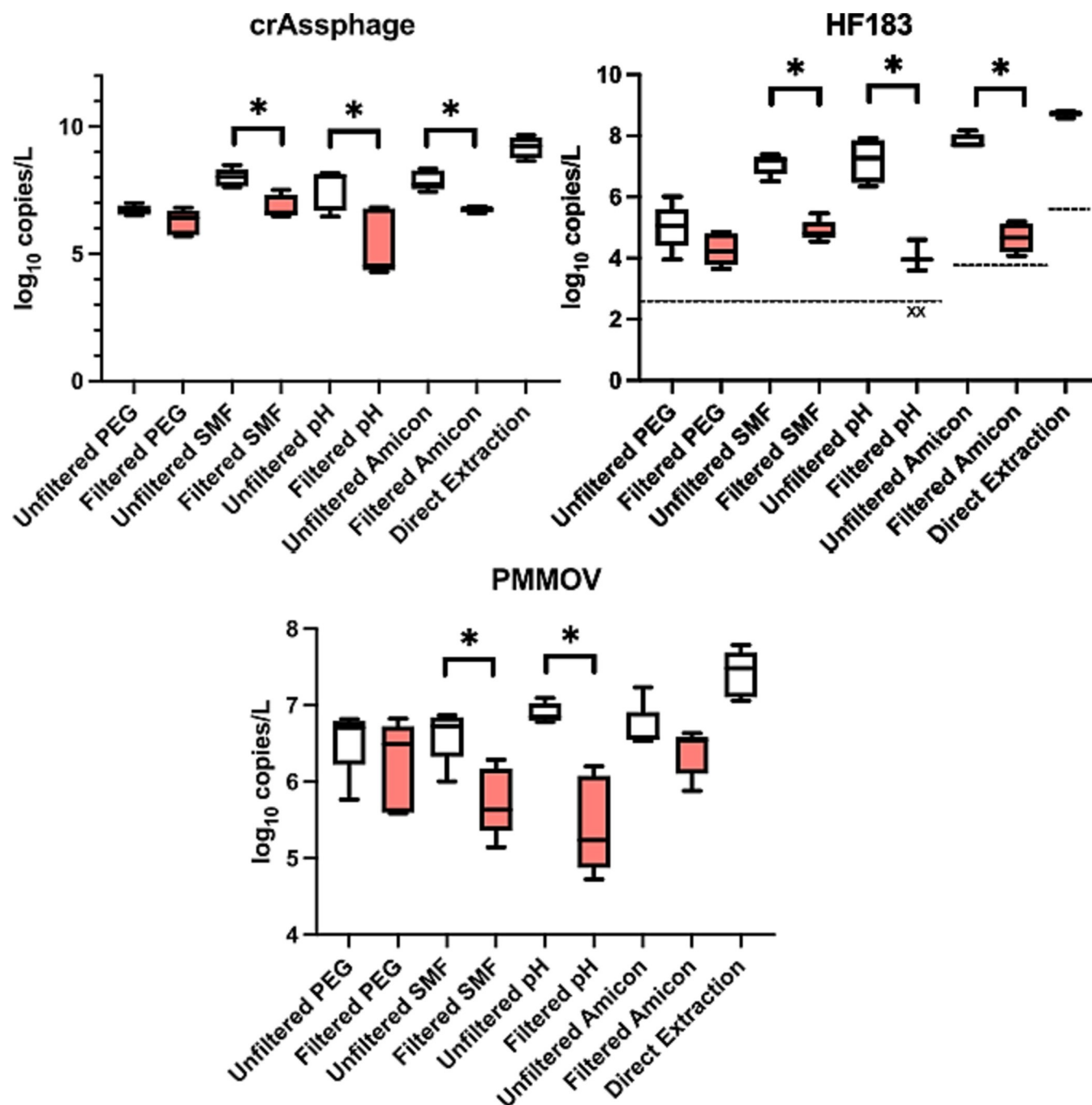


Fig. 1. Abundances of indicators of interest, separated by concentration method. Asterisks above the filtered and unfiltered methods indicate a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the two methods. The dotted lines mark detection limits (HF183: PEG/SMF/pH = 2.59, Amicon = 3.71, DE = 5.59 $\log_{10}$ GC/L). HF183 was the only assay with non-detects, indicated by 'x' below the detection limit.

concentration in a direct extraction. SMF, pH-drop, and Amicon performed similarly for unfiltered samples; however, the Amicon filter had the highest retention for filtered samples. The Amicon and PEG methods both had statistical significance between filtered and unfiltered samples. The filtered pH-drop method resulted in three non-detections out of five total sampling dates, while the direct extractions resulted in two non-detections.

HPyV was detected at concentrations ranging from 2.60 to 7.06 $\log_{10}$ GC/L and is the only pathogenic target without a non-detection. Like the other targets, the highest density of HPyV was detected in one of the direct extraction samples. Amicon filtration resulted in the highest concentration for both filtered and unfiltered samples, and pH

drop was the only method to show a significant difference between the two.

SARS-CoV-2 had concentrations ranging from 2.18 to 5.35 $\log_{10}$ GC/L and had more non-detections than any other target despite being quantified in triplicate. The filtered PEG method was the only method with zero non-detections. SARS-CoV-2 direct extractions averaged 5.30 $\log_{10}$ GC/L, and the Amicon method resulted in the highest quantifications for filtered and unfiltered samples. SMF and pH-drop methods both showed a significant difference between filtered and unfiltered.

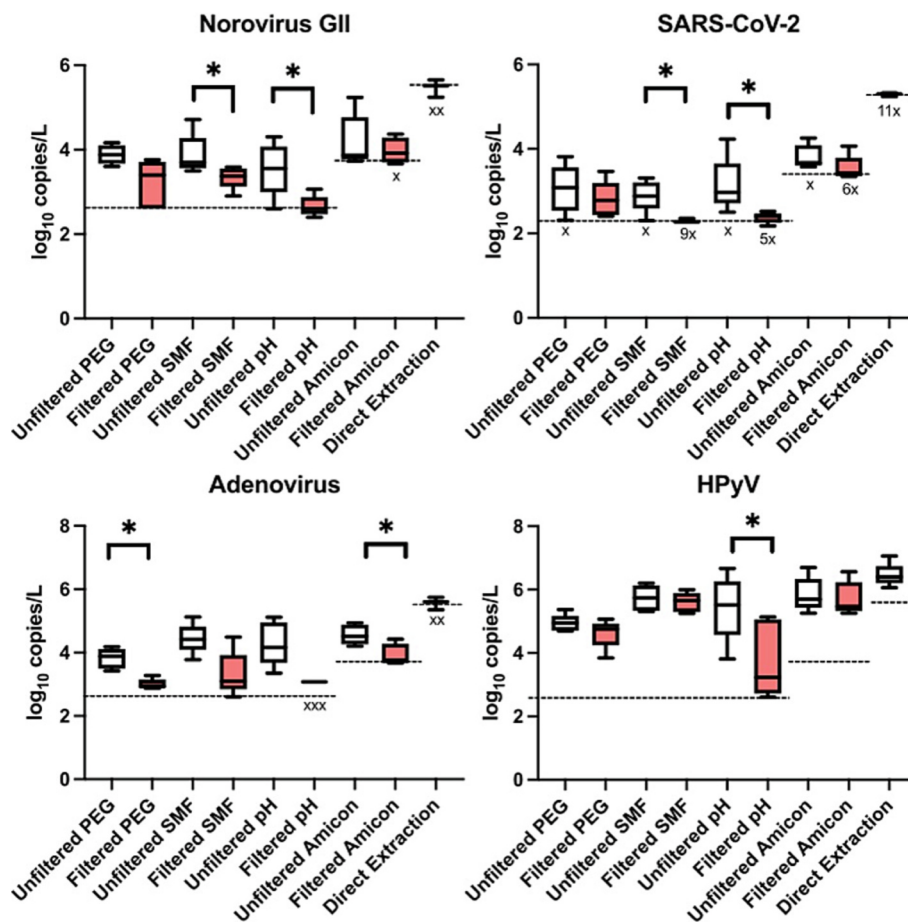


Fig. 2. Abundances of pathogens of interest, separated by concentration method. Asterisks above the filtered and unfiltered methods indicate a significant difference ($p < 0.05$). Limits of detection are marked by the dotted lines (Norovirus GII: PEG/SMF/pH = 2.61, Amicon = 3.73, DE = 5.61 log₁₀GC/L; Adeno and HPyV: PEG/SMF/pH = 2.59, Amicon = 3.71, DE = 5.59 log₁₀GC/L; SARS-CoV-2 N1: PEG/SMF/pH = 2.29, Amicon = 3.41, DE = 5.29 log₁₀GC/L). Non-detections are indicated by 'x' below the limit of detection.

3.2. Comparison of concentration methods

For unfiltered samples, the Amicon filtration had the highest average concentration for norovirus GII, adenovirus, and HPyV. CrAssphage had the highest abundance with the SMF method, while PMMoV was the highest with the pH-drop method. The PEG method was an order of magnitude lower in CrAssphage concentration than any other method and an order of magnitude lower than the Amicon method for HPyV. For the filtered samples, the Amicon method had the highest quantities for PMMoV, norovirus, adenovirus, and HPyV and performed similarly to SMF for crAssphage. The pH-drop method yielded the lowest average quantity for every method, with nearly a log difference between the pH-drop and Amicon methods for every PCR target.

3.3. Native vs. spike-in recoveries

Ideally, spike-in recovery would mirror native target recovery. Fig. 3 and Table S2 show that for most concentration methods, the spike-in either exceeded or underestimated the targets' recovery and was inconsistent for each method and target. In this experiment, the bovine herpesvirus (BoHV) spike-in is used to represent recovery of DNA targets, and bovine respiratory syncytial virus (BRSV) represents RNA targets. For CrAssphage, BoHV recovery overestimated native recovery for all methods except the unfiltered pH-drop and Amicon filtration and was statistically significant for both SMF methods and the filtered Amicon method. For the unfiltered pH-drop and Amicon filtration, the BoHV recovery fell within 2 % of the native recovery. For Adenovirus,

BoHV recovery reflected native recovery for unfiltered PEG and pH-drop, but overestimated recovery for all other methods except unfiltered Amicon. Both PEG method recoveries were accurately reflected by BoHV for human polyomavirus (HPyV), but all other method recoveries were underestimated except unfiltered SMF. For all DNA targets, the BoHV recovery in the unfiltered SMF method was over two times greater than the native recovery. For PMMoV, BRSV recovery underestimated native recovery by >10 % for all unfiltered concentration methods except for Amicon, which was within 1 % of native recovery. BRSV also underestimated recovery for filtered methods, but by a smaller margin, again with Amicon as an exception, which was overestimated by over 20 %. Norovirus GII had the lowest native recoveries of any target, but BRSV recovery was in the same range for unfiltered PEG and SMF and filtered PEG, SMF, and pH-drop. However, BRSV recovery through the Amicon filtration for both unfiltered and filtered samples overestimated recovery of norovirus by 17 % and 32 %, respectively.

4. Discussion

4.1. Target selection

The evaluated viruses span various sizes, genome structures, and hosts summarized in Table 1. CrAssphage, is a Bacterioides bacteriophage of the *Podoviridae* family found within the human gut. It is the most abundant gut bacteriophage, making it highly abundant in human feces, with a double-stranded DNA genome and non-enveloped capsid roughly 75 nm in diameter (Outfill et al., 2014; Shkoporov et al., 2018).

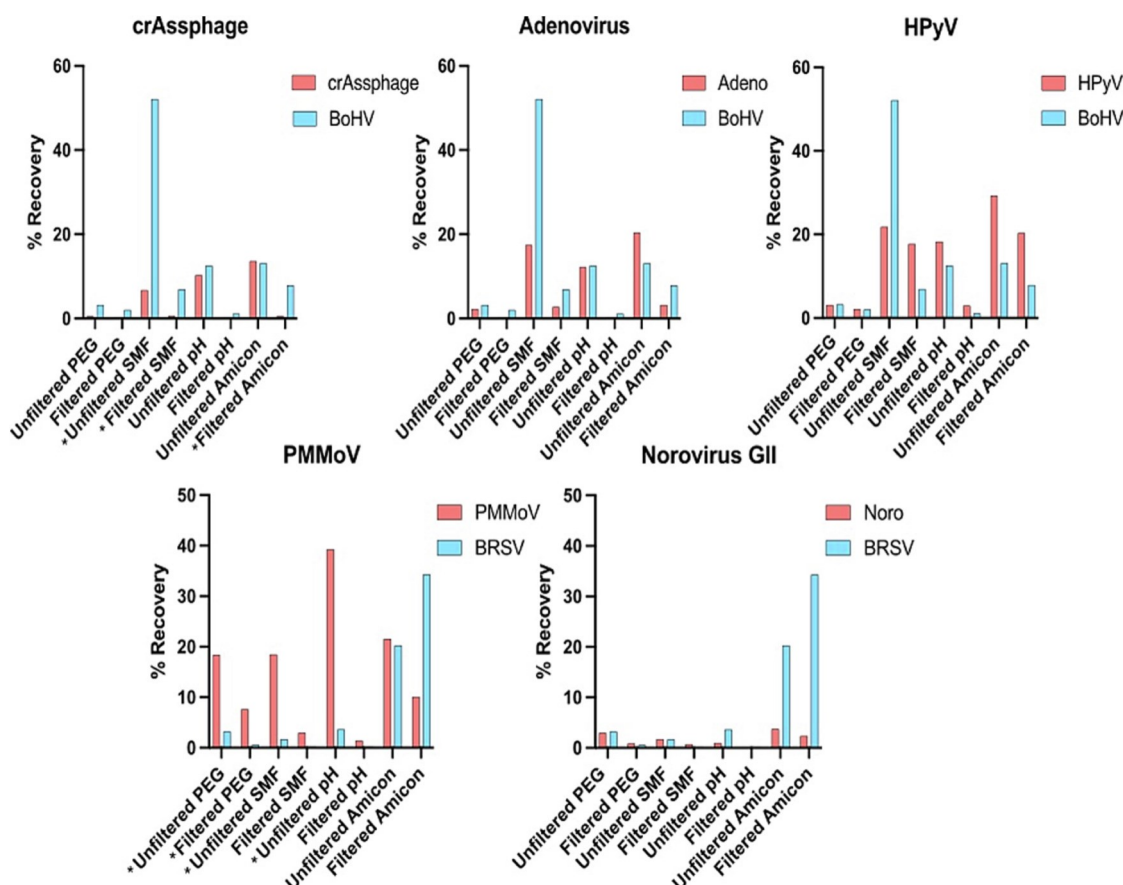


Fig. 3. Each PCR target's percentage recovery as calculated relative to direct extraction. Each target was compared to the spike-in with the corresponding nucleic acid type (DNA targets – BoHV, RNA targets – BRSV). Asterisks indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

Pepper mild mottle virus (PMMoV) is a pepper *Tobamovirus* that remains stable through the human gut, making it a promising indicator of fecal pollution. PMMoV has a single-stranded RNA genome and is rod-shaped, roughly 300 nm in length. PMMoV also has a lower isoelectric point than many enteric viruses, making it more likely to adhere to filters and particles at lower pHs (Gyawali et al., 2019; Hamza et al., 2011; Khatijima et al., 2018). Norovirus is a non-enveloped, single-stranded RNA enteric pathogen of the *Caliciviridae* family, responsible for gastrointestinal illness in humans with a 30 nm diameter. Norovirus is the most common

cause of waterborne gastroenteritis and is prevalent throughout the world (Katayama et al., 2008; Nordgren et al., 2009; Teunis et al., 2008). Notably, despite its importance for waterborne disease transmission, norovirus is historically quantified via molecular methods, although recent advances have allowed culture-based quantification (Shaffer et al., 2022). Other enteric pathogens included were human adenovirus and human polyomavirus (HPyV), which are non-enveloped, double-stranded DNA viruses and belong to the *Adenoviridae* and *Polyomaviridae* families. Adenovirus can range from 70 to 100 nm in diameter, while HPyV is smaller, around 40 nm in diameter. Both pathogens cause gastrointestinal illness and are associated with fecal and urine shedding into wastewater systems (Boffill-Mas et al., 2000; Hewitt et al., 2013; Katayama et al., 2008; Wong et al., 2012). The assay used for HPyV includes both JC and BK polyomaviruses (McQuaig et al., 2009). SARS-CoV-2 was also included due to the increase in wastewater-based epidemiology during the COVID-19 pandemic, creating a need for optimized concentration and quantification of the virus. SARS-CoV-2 is an enveloped, single-stranded RNA virus in the *Coronaviridae* family, ranging from 70 to 120 nm in diameter, and is the only respiratory pathogen in this study (Zhou et al., 2020). The only non-viral target included in this study is HF183, a Bacteroides 16S rRNA marker commonly used as an environmental fecal indicator (Ahmed et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2012). In this study, HF183 is used to represent bacterial populations, particularly bacterial removal by prefiltration. This grouping of targets is not exhaustive; however, it represents viral pathogens of varying sizes and nucleic acid types.

4.2. Impact of virus physiology on concentration method efficiency

Concentration methods often rely on physical and chemical

Table 1

Physical and genomic characteristics of all PCR targets used in this study.

Target	Type	Genetic material	Genome size	Capsid details
CrAssphage	Gut bacteriophage	dsDNA	~100 kb	Non-enveloped, 75 nm
HF183	rRNA marker	dsDNA		
Pepper mild mottle virus	Viral pepper pathogen	RNA	6.4 kb	Rod-shaped, 312 nm
Norovirus GII	Human ENTERIC PATHOGEN	RNA	7.5 kb	Non-enveloped, 30 nm
Adenovirus	Human enteric pathogen	dsDNA	26–48 kb	Non-enveloped, 70–100 nm
Human polyomavirus	Human enteric pathogen	dsDNA	5.5 kb	Non-enveloped, 40 nm
SARS-CoV-2	Human respiratory pathogen	RNA	30 kb	Enveloped, 70–120 nm

interactions between viruses, the sample matrix, and the concentration methodology. Wastewater is a complex matrix containing organic and inorganic particles that viruses and genetic material can interact with and attach to. These particles can impact how the target species move through filters and react to changes in pH, causing variation in recoveries. Virus-specific characteristics, such as size and nucleic acid type, may also considerably impact sample concentration efficiency.

The largest viral target in this study was PMMoV, with a capsid length of 300 nm, and it is highly persistent in the environment (Greaves et al., 2020). As the largest virus, filtration methods might be expected to be the most effective. The methods with the highest PMMoV recoveries for unfiltered and filtered samples were pH-drop and Amicon, respectively, confirming that a size-exclusion method retains PMMoV well, to the detriment of the pre-filtration process. All concentration methods performed similarly for CrAssphage except for PEG; however, methods did exhibit more significant differences between filtered and unfiltered samples with CrAssphage than with other targets. This indicates that CrAssphage is retained on the 0.45 µm filter more than other targets, which could be due to attachment to larger particles. The PEG method having a lower average quantity than other methods may also indicate that either the glycine buffer or PEG itself cause CrAssphage to degrade or become otherwise less detectable via PCR. Using HF183 as a surrogate for bacterial populations, the prefiltration step significantly decreases the amount of bacteria in the sample for all concentration methods except PEG, even leading to non-detections in the pH-drop method. Most bacteria and bacterial DNA should be retained by a 0.45 µm filter, and the 3-log (1000×) decrease in HF183 demonstrates this concept.

Adenoviruses can range in size (70–100 nm) and origin (for example, phlegm, feces, blood), making it more challenging to draw expectations on behavior; however, the Amicon method had the highest percent recovery for both filtered and unfiltered samples. Human polyomavirus is smaller than adenoviruses, at roughly 40 nm in diameter, but also showed the highest percent recoveries for the Amicon method. HPyV demonstrated little variability between filtered and unfiltered samples, with the largest difference being 15.6 % and had the highest average recovery of the DNA targets for all methods. Norovirus displayed similar behavior to HPyV, with filtered and unfiltered recovery being similar for most concentration methods, but overall recovery was generally lower for all methods, less 3.72 %. The Amicon centrifugation had the highest observed concentrations of norovirus.

SARS-CoV-2 is the only native enveloped virus in this study and occurred at lower average concentrations than all other targets. The Amicon method also resulted in the highest concentration efficiencies of SARS-CoV-2, but all methods had non-detections due to low input quantity. However, the PEG method had only one nondetection for both the unfiltered and filtered samples, while all other methods had a minimum of 6. SARS-CoV-2 assays were performed in triplicate to increase the likelihood of detection, yet 11 of 15 direct extractions were non-detections, demonstrating the need for targeted sample concentration prior to analysis.

Despite the target origin and size variation, the Amicon method generally yielded the best recoveries for all targets. This is likely due to the Amicon's ability to retain all particles above a selected size, avoiding some sources of loss in other methods, such as flocculation and filtration. The pre-filtration process frequently resulted in decreased quantification yet did not generally result in non-detections and significantly decreased the bacterial presence as marked by HF183.

4.3. Relevance to prior viral concentration comparisons

Most peer-reviewed concentration method comparisons use non-native spike-in controls to quantify the retention of targets through concentration processes. These controls are typically a bacteriophage or eukaryotic viral pathogen that is not anticipated to occur within the sample or in relevant concentrations (Ahmed et al., 2020; Fauman et al.,

2019; Hjelmsø et al., 2017) naturally. Conceptually, controls are chosen based on the morphology of the target and the idea that they should behave similarly to the targets of interest if they have common traits. However, this concept fails to acknowledge matrix complexities in environmental samples and may not be reflective of native virus populations due to a lack of integration into the sewage microbiome. Sewage contains extremely diverse microbiological populations, but the environmental residence time allows for further interactions between those populations and particles within sewage. This study shows that two representative controls, BoHV and BRSV, infrequently represent the calculated native recovery of common viral indicators and pathogens.

In other studies, the target of choice is seeded into various environmental water sources (for example, tap, lake, or stream water). The sewage sample in a spike-in recovery evaluation is often filtered or autoclaved to inactivate native microbial populations. Farkas et al. showed that recoveries of enteric viruses spiked into wastewater were similar to or lower than native recoveries in this study, with CrAssphage not having >4 % recovery with any method. Farkas et al. also found that Amicon filtration and the beef extract improved PEG precipitation recovery and had the highest average recoveries (Farkas et al., 2022). At the same time, our current evaluation shows that skimmed milk flocculation has a slightly higher recovery for most targets. Fauman et al. reported 106 % and 60 % recoveries for spiked-in poliovirus type 1 for PEG and SMF methods, respectively, which are far higher than the recoveries reported in this study (Fauman et al., 2019). Hjelmsø et al. report better recoveries for PEG precipitations than SMF for their spike-ins, both human adenovirus and murine norovirus (Hjelmsø et al., 2017). Studies that compare viral recovery between sewage and various environmental waters typically find that recovery decreased in sewage due to matrix complexity. This study shows similar recovery rates to other sewage concentration studies, including the high variability based on target and concentration methods.

4.4. Limitations and applications

The primary deciding factor for the choice of concentration method must depend on downstream assays and goals. The optimal choice for metagenomic sequencing would be a method that retains the highest number of targets while excluding bacteria; PCR is less sensitive to bacterial inclusion but could be impacted by PCR inhibitors that prefiltration would remove. The SMF and Amicon methods achieve these goals and are low-cost, making high-throughput sample processing attainable, and prefiltration can be chosen ad-hoc based on sample quality. For example, a sample with high amount of organics that is concentrated using an unfiltered Amicon method may have issues with PCR inhibition due to the retention process. Any method may be effective, but methods must be targeted to specific research goals. There are many other concentration methods available, some of which may result in higher recoveries, yet the most effective methods tend to require lots of time and processing, and potentially expensive equipment.

Another major factor in deciding the best concentration method for an experiment is the available budget. Fig. 4 shows a comparison of the four concentration methods by both time and money spent per sample. The PEG method is the most time-intensive, taking roughly 24 h from sample collection to extraction, but it is a generally less-expensive option. The most expensive method is the Amicon filtration due to the costs for the disposable filter, but the methodology performed well and was rapid. The SMF method requires overnight processing, so it does not offer same-day sampling and extraction but costs the least per sample. The pH-drop method fell in the middle of the group, with variable sample processing time due to turbidity and muddling cost due to cellulose filters.

One limitation of this study is that samples were taken from a single wastewater treatment plant. While that choice minimizes variability in the wastewater composition, other municipal wastewaters may vary in organic content or other materials that could inhibit or alter

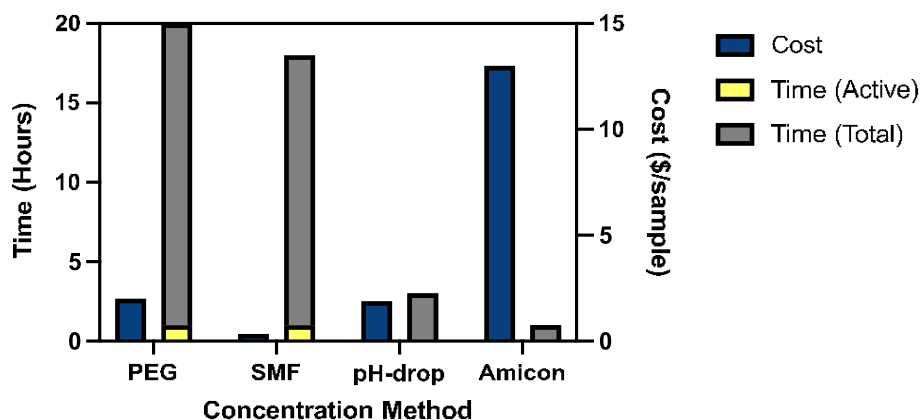


Fig. 4. Cost and time analysis for each concentration method. Time is split into active time, which would be time spent physically handling the sample, and passive time, waiting for processes to complete.

concentration results. However, having multiple days and consistent performance of each method regardless of daily variation suggests that these results could hold with mutable matrix complexities. Another limitation is that while all methods chosen were consistent with the most widely used concentration methods, only four concentration methods were tested in this study. Similarly, only a small subset of potential native targets was evaluated, and two spike-ins. A wider variety of spike-ins could help solidify the claims drawn from the data in this study. However, the chosen targets and concentration methods represent various virus types and those of clinical relevance to WBE and other applications.

5. Conclusions

This study compared four concentration methods on multiple viral targets commonly studied within microbial water quality monitoring applications. The highest native percent recoveries typically resulted from the Amicon filtration method, yet all methods can be used effectively for most targets, considering trade-offs between methods, required time, and costs. Prefiltration also demonstrated a significant removal of bacterial signal within the concentration samples, as shown by Bacteroides 16S rRNA marker HF183. Ultimately, this study suggests that non-native spike-in controls do not consistently represent the native recovery of many targets across concentration methods. These results also suggest that future method and process control evaluations should include native targets in their workflow.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Devlin North – Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Editing, Visualization.

Kyle Bibby – Conceptualization, Writing – Editing, Funding Acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Kyle Bibby reports financial support was provided by United States National Science Foundation. Kyle Bibby has patent Cross-Assembly Phage DNA Sequences, Primers and Probes for PCR-based Identification of Human Fecal Pollution Sources pending to EPA.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by National Science Foundation grant 1748019 to KB.

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