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4 **CHARACTERISATION OF THE SEWAGE VIROME: COMPARISON OF NGS TOOLS**
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6 **AND OCURRENCE OF SIGNIFICANT PATHOGENS**
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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 NGS techniques are excellent tools to monitor and identify viral pathogens
3 circulating among the population with some limitations that need to be overcome,
4 especially in complex matrices. Sewage contains a high amount of other
5 microorganisms that could interfere when trying to sequence viruses for which
6 random PCR amplifications are needed before NGS. The selection of appropriate
7 NGS tools is important for reliable identification of viral diversity amongst the
8 population.

9 We have compared different NGS methodologies (Untargeted Viral Metagenomics,
10 Target Enrichment Sequencing and Amplicon Deep Sequencing) for the detection
11 and characterization of viruses in urban sewage, focusing on three important
12 human pathogens: papillomaviruses, adenoviruses and enteroviruses.

13 A full picture of excreted viruses was obtained by applying Untargeted Viral
14 Metagenomics, which detected members of four different human viral families in
15 addition to bacteriophages, plant viruses and viruses infecting other hosts. Target
16 Enrichment Sequencing, using specific vertebrate viral probes, allowed the
17 detection of up to eight families containing human viruses, with high variety of
18 types within the families and with a high genome coverage.

19 By applying Amplicon Deep Sequencing, the diversity of enteroviruses,
20 adenoviruses and papillomaviruses observed was higher than when applying the
21 other two strategies and this technique allowed the subtyping of an enterovirus
22 A71 C1 strain related to a brainstem encephalitis outbreak occurring at the same
23 time in the sampling area.

24 From the data obtained, we concluded that the different strategies studied
25 provided different levels of analysis: TES is the best strategy to obtain a broad
26 picture of human viruses present in complex samples such as sewage. Other NGS
27 strategies are useful for studying the virome of complex samples when also
28 targeting viruses infecting plants, bacteria, invertebrates or fungi (Untargeted Viral
29 Metagenomics) or when observing the variety within a sole viral family is the
30 objective of the study (Amplicon Deep Sequencing).

31

32 **KEYWORDS**

33 Sewage virome, target enrichment sequencing, amplicon deep sequencing,
34 papillomavirus, adenovirus, enterovirus.

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36 **1. INTRODUCTION**

37 Viruses excreted by humans in faeces, urine and skin desquamation together with
38 animal viruses and viruses infecting invertebrates, plants, bacteria and fungi
39 constitute the sewage virome, a complex matrix that contains a large variety of
40 pathogenic and commensal viruses and could give important information on
41 persistent and acute infections affecting the population.

42 Currently, Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) methodologies are increasingly
43 viewed as promising tools for the comprehensive study of microorganisms in a
44 wide variety of samples and settings, replacing traditional molecular methods. The
45 main reasons for this new trend are: the capacity to process larger number of
46 samples simultaneously, the reduction in sequencing costs, the ease with which
47 samples and libraries can be prepared and the development of faster and more

48 efficient bioinformatic tools with which to process the huge amount of data.
49 (Huang et al., 2019).

50 The application of NGS techniques was easily incorporated into the study of
51 bacterial communities even for environmental samples, but the lack of shared
52 regions in viral genomes make them more challenging for viral sequencing. To
53 overcome this problem, the use of random-primer-based sequencing facilitates the
54 development of different protocols adapted for viral NGS (Cantalupo et al., 2011;
55 Kohl et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2012), making this methodology key for the study of
56 viral communities and viral discovery while providing enough starting material for
57 library preparation.

58 The excreted virome of a population provides critical information about virus
59 circulation, the introduction of emergent viruses and how they are transmitted
60 among the population. The accurate study of the virome with a focus on specific
61 target viral groups urges the development of NGS protocols with higher sensitivity.

62 The main limitation when analysing the virome from any type of sample is the low
63 proportion of viral sequences identified compared with the total number of
64 sequences amplified when using random primers (Krishnamurthy and Wang,
65 2017; Santiago-Rodriguez and Hollister, 2019; Tamaki et al., 2012). This is
66 especially critical for human viruses which seem to represent a low fraction of the
67 whole virome of sewage, clearly dominated by phages and plant viruses
68 (Cantalupo et al., 2011; Ng et al., 2012). Few published studies in viral sewage
69 metagenomics describe the human virome together with protocols to achieve a
70 better recovery of viral sequences by applying mainly negative viral selection
71 methods, also called pre-extraction, generally entail the use of, for example, filters,
72 density gradients and nucleases (Cantalupo et al., 2011; Fernandez-Cassi et al.,

73 2018; Hjelmsø et al., 2017). Viral selection approaches are effective for avoiding
74 the high background presence of other non-desired nucleic acids from bacteria or
75 other hosts. Apart from negative selection methods, positive selection methods,
76 also referred to post-extraction methods or Target Enrichment Methods, are
77 characterised by the use of probes within the PCR assays, microarrays or
78 hybridisation (Kumar et al., 2017). These methods increase in viral sequence reads
79 as well as in the breadth and depth of genome coverage, in some cases extending to
80 the full genome (Paskey et al., 2019; Wylie et al., 2015). Among these, the most
81 commonly used are those based on hybridisation probes, with different custom-
82 made and commercial approaches available (Chalkias et al., 2018; Hjelmsø et al.,
83 2019; Mühlemann et al., 2018), showing the potential use in viral discovery (Briese
84 et al., 2015).

85 Another NGS approach useful for identification and typing of different viral species
86 for outbreak control or environmental surveillance is Amplicon Deep Sequencing,
87 based on the mass sequencing of traditionally sanger-sequenced PCR amplicons.
88 This approach opened up new opportunities promoting the detailed study of
89 specific families and their diversity within a sample, also proving useful for a
90 different nature of samples, from studies of quasispecies of Hepatitis C Virus or
91 Human Immunodeficiency Virus in clinical settings (Del Campo et al., 2018; Kustin
92 et al., 2019) to environmental samples (Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018; Hata et al.,
93 2018; Prevost et al., 2015).

94 This study shows the wide diversity of viral pathogens identified in urban sewage
95 over one year of study with the application of different NGS tools for the
96 determination of the virome with different levels of analysis. To our knowledge,
97 this is the first work aimed to compare two different NGS strategies, Untargeted

98 Viral Metagenomics (UVM) and Target Enrichment Sequencing (TES), for the
99 characterisation of the virome excreted in a population in terms of viral diversity,
100 specificity and genome coverage. Also, Amplicon Deep Sequencing (ADS), was
101 examined as an alternative strategy when a deeper study on a concrete viral family
102 is needed. The work is focused on three specific viral families, human adenoviruses
103 (HAdV), human papillomaviruses (HPV) and human enteroviruses (EV), since they
104 are important pathogens and some of them are persistently excreted by the
105 population. In addition, we analysed enterovirus nucleotide sequences obtained
106 from clinical samples for evaluating the capacity of the studied NGS strategies to
107 catch up viruses causing clinical disease in the population.

108 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

109 **2.1 Sampling, viral particles concentration and nucleic acid extraction**

110 In April 2016, a 24-hour urban raw sewage composite sample was collected from a
111 wastewater treatment plant (WWTP), located in the north of Barcelona city
112 (WWTP A), that treats a population equivalent of up to 2.8 million and receives
113 domestic and industrial waste from the sewerage system. This composite sample
114 was analysed to compare TES, UVM and ADS.

115 Additionally, monthly samples were collected over the year, in 2016, from a second
116 WWTP located 30 km from Barcelona (WWTP B). The samples from this WWTP
117 were pooled by season (spring, summer, autumn and winter) and analysed by ADS
118 in order to evaluate specific viral groups, in depth, over one year. This plant serves
119 up to 115000 population equivalents.

120 Samples were collected in sterile containers and kept at 4°C until concentrated
121 within 24 hours. Viral particles from 42 ml of sewage from each sample were

122 concentrated by ultracentrifugation, as previously described (Bofill-Mas et al.,
123 2006). DNase treatment (TurboDNase, Ambion) and extraction of nucleic acids
124 was performed as described previously (Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018) using
125 QIAmp RNA Viral Mini Kit (Qiagen).

126

127 **2.2 Untargeted Viral Metagenomics and Target Enrichment Sequencing**

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129 *2.2.1 Random tagging of nucleic acids and pre-amplification*

130 Samples were prepared prior to the library construction following the protocol
131 described (Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018; Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018). Briefly, in
132 order to analyse both RNA and DNA viruses, NA were retrotranscribed with
133 SuperScript III enzymes (Life Technologies) and a random nonamer primer. The
134 second cDNA strand was obtained using Sequenase 2.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
135 and a PCR of 25 cycles was performed in order to obtain enough dsDNA for the
136 next steps. These PCR products were purified and concentrated with the Zymo
137 DNA Clean & Concentrate kit (Zymo Research) and quantified using Qubit 2.0
138 HSdsDNA kit (Life Technologies).

139 *2.2.2 Library construction*

140 For each sample, libraries were constructed in duplicate using KAPA HyperPlus
141 Library Preparation Kit (KAPA Biosystems, Roche). An enzymatic fragmentation
142 was performed in the previously obtained purification with a starting
143 concentration ranging from 1 to 3 ng/ μ l following the manufacturer's instructions.
144 After the fragmentation and the end-repair and A-tailing reaction, the adapter's
145 ligation was performed. Using the KAPA Single-Indexed Adapter Kit (KAPA
146 Biosystems, Roche), each sample was paired with the desired index. A post-ligation
147 clean-up was followed with a double-sized size selection with the magnetic
148 AMPure XP Beads (Beckman Coulter) to select those fragments of between 250

149 and 450 bp. Using an LM-PCR, sample libraries were amplified (seven cycles of
150 amplification for the adapters used) and purified. The quality of the resulting
151 libraries was assessed by using Agilent Bioanalyzer DNA 1000 assay (Agilent
152 Technologies) and the concentration was measured using Qubit 2.0 (Life
153 Technologies). Then, libraries were mixed together in two replicates, to obtain two
154 pools containing 1 µg each. One pool was directly sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq
155 2x300bp platform and the other was captured later by using specific viral probes.

156 *2.2.3 Capture of viral sequences by using the VirCapSeq-VERT Capture Panel*

157 One of the pooled libraries was captured using the VirCapSeq-VERT Capture Panel
158 (Roche). This panel consists of approximately two million probes, covering the
159 genomes of 207 viral taxa known to infect vertebrates, thus enabling the detection
160 of viral sequences in complex sample types (Briese et al., 2015). Using the
161 HyperCap Target Enrichment Kit (Roche) and the HyperCap Bead Kit (Roche), the
162 sample was prepared and then hybridised with the VirCapSeq-VERT probes at
163 47°C for 20 hours. Immediately after the hybridisation, the captured multiplex
164 DNA sample was recovered with the Capture Beads (HyperCap Bead Kit, Roche),
165 using a magnetic particle collector, and cleaned. The DNA captured, still bead-
166 bounded, was amplified using an LM-PCR. This post-capture PCR was purified and
167 the concentration and quality were checked, as mentioned before. Captured DNA
168 was sequenced in the same run as non-captured DNA in an Illumina MiSeq
169 2x300bp platform.

170 **2.3 Amplicon Deep Sequencing**

171 Specific nested PCR, previously proved to be adequate for typing purposes, for
172 HAdV, HPV and EV amplification were performed as described (De Roda Husman
173 et al., 1995; Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018; Forslund et al., 2003; WHO Regional

174 Office for Europe, 2015) with incorporation of Illumina adapters in the nested
175 primers. Amplicons were purified from agarose gel with the QIAquick Gel
176 Extraction Kit (Qiagen) and then sequenced with an Illumina MiSeq 2x300bp
177 platform.

178 **2.4 Clinical Enterovirus A71 sampling**

179 Most of 25 EV-A71-studied cases by Vall d'Hebron Hospital Respiratory Viruses
180 Unit corresponded to rhombencephalitis, while the remaining patients had hand-
181 foot-mouth disease (2), gastroenteritis (2), aseptic meningitis (1), and acute
182 bronchitis (1). EV-A71 was amplified from upper and lower respiratory tract
183 samples from suspicious patients by using CE-marked commercial multiplex real-
184 time RT-PCR-based assay (Anyplex II RV16 assay, Seegene, Korea). Total nucleic
185 acids were previously extracted using NucliSens easyMAG (bioMérieux, Marcy
186 l'Etoile, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions and kept frozen (-
187 20C) until use. An additional real-time RT-PCR (Seegene, Korea) was carried out to
188 improve the detection of all EV strains (Gimferrer et al., 2015).

189 The partial coding sequences of the viral protein 1 (VP1) from EV amplicons,
190 obtained according to the protocol recommended by the World Health
191 Organisation (WHO Regional Office for Europe, 2015), were used to construct a
192 phylogenetic tree.

193

194 **2.5 Bioinformatics**

195 *2.5.1 UVM and TES bioinformatic processing and taxonomical*
196 *assignment*

197 Pair-end FASTAQ files generated from the sequencing were analysed using
198 Genome Detective web-based software

199 (<https://www.genomedetective.com/>)(Vilsker et al., 2018a). Briefly, low-quality
200 reads and adapters were trimmed using `Trimmomatic` (Bolger et al., 2014), viral
201 reads were selected using DIAMOND alignment method and non-viral sequences
202 were discarded. Subsequently, viral reads were assembled with `metaSPAdes`
203 (Nurk et al., 2017) and taxonomically classified with NCBI-BLASTX and NCBI-
204 BLASTN against NCBI RefSeq viral database (Vilsker et al., 2018b; Wheeler et al.,
205 2007), using only the contigs with 70% identity cut-off. Richness Chao1 ratio was
206 calculated using the `Catchall` software, version 4.0 (Allen et al., 2013).

207 *2.5.2 Amplicon Deep Sequencing*

208 For the study of the amplicons, the quality of raw and clean read sequences was
209 assessed using the `FASTX-Toolkit` software, version 0.0.14 (Hannon
210 Lab, <http://www.hannonlab.org>). The cleaned reads were clustered using the
211 software `CDHIT` with default parameters (Huang et al., 2010); the output was
212 queried for sequence similarity using NCBI-BLASTN against a reference genome
213 species-specific custom database for HADV, HPV and EV (Wheeler et al.,
214 2007). Based on the best BLAST results (95% coverage and 95% identity cut-off),
215 each cluster was classified into its taxonomic group.

216 *2.5.3 Enterovirus phylogenetic analyses*

217 A phylogenetic tree based on enterovirus VP1 nucleotide sequences of the EV-A71
218 C1 strains obtained from sewage and clinical samples was constructed by a using
219 neighbour-joining method with `Geneious` software version 11.0
220 (<https://www.geneious.com>) , where branches having a bootstrap value below
221 70% were discarded for the Figure. Coxsackievirus A16 sequence (GenBank
222 accession number KT327162) was used as the outgroup.

223

224 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

225 3.1 Study of the sewage virome using Untargeted Viral Metagenomics 226 and Target Enrichment Sequencing

227 An urban sewage composite sample obtained after 24 hours of collection in WWTP
228 A was analysed using UVM and TES in parallel. A total of 6.07 million viral reads
229 were obtained when applying TES and 727,784 when applying UVM. Read counts
230 for each of the viral groups detected are presented in **Table 1**. The Chao1 diversity
231 index showed, as expected, a higher richness when using UVM, increasing from 170
232 obtained using the TES approach, to 311 when using UVM.

233 Probe enrichment increased the detection of sequences from vertebrate viruses by
234 a factor of 81.04% (299,650 sequences) of the total sequences obtained, compared
235 with the 2.74% (3,549 sequences) obtained without applying enrichment. An
236 exhaustive description of the total virome obtained using both methodologies is
237 presented as **Supplementary material 1**.

238 A comparison of the viral species obtained via each methodology, based on host
239 distribution, is shown in **Figure 1**. Not only was the number of sequences from
240 viruses that infect vertebrates higher after the TES approach, but also the number
241 of species within each viral family increased. The *Picornaviridae* and *Parvoviridae*
242 families showed a higher number of taxonomically assigned sequences after the
243 application of the TES. When applying UVM, a wide variety of bacteriophage
244 species was observed (49% of the total reads) within the families *Siphoviridae*,
245 *Myoviridae*, *Microviridae* and *Podoviridae*, as well as species of the viral plant
246 families (30% of the total reads) *Virgaviridae*, *Tombusviridae* and *Solemoviridae*.
247 The predominance of these viral families in environmental settings has been
248 reported before (Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018) and is of importance because of

249 their potential economic impact as plant pathogens. Reads from vertebrate
250 families were identified as JC Polyomavirus, Mamastrovirus 1, Aichivirus A, non-
251 human circoviruses and parvoviruses, representing 2.75% of the total sequences.
252 Accordingly, UVM can be considered a reference tool for the study of a global
253 picture of the whole virome of environmental and clinical samples, in accordance
254 with other studies performed by our research group (Cantalupo et al., 2011; Xavier
255 Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018).

256 The TES kit used in this study was developed in 2015 by Briese *et al.* (Briese et al.,
257 2015) with the aim of capturing viral sequences from only those viruses that infect
258 vertebrates, for use in clinical and veterinarian settings. This system uses more
259 than two million probes of 207 different vertebrate viruses and has been reported
260 useful for the detection of new variants. When applied to raw sewage, probes
261 helped to capture vertebrate viruses (Briese et al., 2015), although some
262 sequences from other viral hosts were still recovered. These kind of enrichment
263 approaches are clearly biased towards specific viral families (Parras-Moltó et al.,
264 2018) and while they might be useful for studying specific viral families (or groups
265 of families), they do not provide the whole virome picture.

266 However, when focusing on viral families that infect humans, TES provided a more
267 sensitive approach, allowing the detection of more viral families and catching a
268 wide diversity of viral species within a given family while providing a higher
269 number of reads. Members of the *Adenoviridae*, *Hepeviridae*, *Papillomaviridae*, and
270 *Reoviridae* families as well as some species of the *Picornaviridae* (including an
271 EV71 contig) and *Polyomaviridae* were only detected when using TES. Regarding
272 the *Astroviridae* and *Caliciviridae* families, a big increase in sequences from
273 Mamastrovirus 1 species (up to 3-log) and Norwalk and Sapporo viruses (up to 2-

274 log) was observed when compared with UVM. Again, when processing these reads
275 as contigs, a considerable increase in the genome coverage of each virus was
276 observed after TES which is of huge interest for viral characterisation and
277 discovery, as reported before (Briese et al., 2015). Contigs corresponding to
278 Aichivirus A, Norwalk virus, JC Polyomavirus and Mamastrovirus 1 presented more
279 than 90% genome coverage. Indeed, for the latter two, almost the totality of the
280 genome was covered, at 93.82% and 99.25% respectively, whereas without
281 enrichment the respective coverage of these viruses was 77.37% and 30.45%
282 **(Table 1)**. This fact could be due to the higher number of sequences obtained with
283 TES and the wider distribution of reads from across all viral genomes.
284 From the data obtained, we conclude that TES is the best strategy to obtain a broad
285 picture of human viruses present in complex samples such as sewage, as well as
286 being a technique that might be useful for environmental public health
287 surveillance.

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289 **3.2 Application of Amplicon Deep Sequencing to the study of specific** 290 **viral groups in sewage: human adenoviruses, papillomaviruses,** 291 **and enteroviruses**

292 *3.2.1. Comparison of ADS with UVM and TES strategies in the study of the sewage* 293 *virome*

294 Amplicon Deep Sequencing has demonstrated its usefulness in the study of specific
295 viral groups, giving higher sensitivity and a large amount of information about the
296 viruses present in a given sample. This methodology has previously been applied
297 to environmental samples for studying diversity within viral groups, such as
298 *Adenoviridae* (Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018; Ogorzaly et al., 2015), *Papillomaviridae*

299 (Hamza and Hamza, 2018; Iaconelli et al., 2015; La Rosa et al., 2015) or enterovirus
300 (Brinkman et al., 2017).

301 The composite 24h sewage sample collected from WWTP A was evaluated by ADS
302 using specific PCR primers for HAdV, HPV and EV families. Results obtained after
303 the application of ADS are summarised in **Figure 2**.

304 While ADS showed similar adenovirus species to TES, detecting Human
305 Mastadenovirus F and A species, with HAdV 41 and HAdV 18 being the most
306 prevalent, some of the species appeared only with TES (e.g., HAdV5, HAdV 27 and
307 HAdV 56) and others only with ADS (e.g., HAdV 18, HAdV 12 and HAdV 61).

308 Regarding HPV, ADS provided a higher diversity of species than TES, with HPV6
309 and HPV66 being the only alphapapillomavirus detected by ADS and the most
310 abundant types, being 36.01% and 21.22% of the total sequences detected
311 respectively. Other members of the betapapillomavirus genus were also detected,
312 with HPV120 and HPV19 being the most prevalent types. An important difference
313 between these two methodologies was observed: sequences of HPV 122 and HPV
314 49 (betapapillomavirus types) were obtained from both approaches, but HPV 17
315 (betapapillomavirus type) and HPV127 (gammapapillomavirus type) only by TES
316 and a wider variety of types only by ADS, including oncogenic ones.

317 Regarding enterovirus, viral species Enterovirus A, B and C were detected by ADS
318 as occurred when applying TES. E-E30 was the most prevalent enterovirus,
319 followed by EV-C99 and EV-A119. Also, sequences from EV-A71 were obtained by
320 ADS and TES, which were of interest because a clinical brainstem encephalitis
321 outbreak was occurring in Catalonia during the sampling period. By applying TES,
322 only one EV-A71 contig (884 bp) was obtained from WWTP A and, by ADS, 14
323 amplicons (301 bp) were obtained from both WWTPs.

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327 *3.2.2. Amplicon Deep Sequencing for characterization of specific viral*

328 *groups in sewage: human adenoviruses, papillomaviruses, and*

329 *enteroviruses*

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331 The distribution of the three viral groups over one year in sewage was also
332 evaluated by applying ADS in seasonally pooled samples from WWTP B and the
333 results obtained are represented in **Figure 3**. A wide variety of HAdV, HPV and EV
334 sequences was obtained.

335 The in-depth analysis of HAdV showed more than 10 serotypes in the year of study
336 **(Figure 3a)**. HAdV from *Human Mastadenovirus A* species, related to
337 gastrointestinal, urinary and respiratory infections, and *Human Mastadenovirus F*,
338 related to infantile gastroenteritis, were the groups most commonly detected over
339 the whole year, with being HAdV 41 (Group F) and HAdDV 31 (Group A) being the
340 most abundant types. HAdV 40 (Group F), and HAdV 12 (Group A) found
341 throughout the year and HAdV 18 (Group A) in spring. Other *Human*
342 *Mastadenoviruses* serotypes (HAdV 51, HAdV 59, HAdV 46, HAdV 19) were
343 detected in lower proportions, as previously described in other studies
344 (Fernandez-Cassi et al., 2018; Iaconelli et al., 2017).

345 Many HAdV produce infections that may be subclinical and could be excreted in
346 faeces by healthy people over a long period. The prevalence of HAdV in sewage
347 through the year is in accordance with the proposal to use adenovirus as an
348 indicator of human faecal contamination (Pina et al., 1998).

349 For papillomaviruses, a large diversity of types was observed by ADS through the
350 whole year of sampling (**Figure 3b**). Sequences of the potentially oncogenic types
351 HPV 6 and HPV 66 (genus alphapapillomavirus) were detected through the year,
352 with higher proportions than other HPV in the spring and winter months.
353 Members of this genus had been described previously in raw sewage (Iaconelli et
354 al., 2015), but HPV 66, involved in vulvar cancer and classified as a group I
355 carcinogen (Proceedings of the IARC Working Group on the Evaluation of
356 Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Biological Agents., 2009), has never been reported
357 in environmental samples. More than 25 different cutaneous betapapillomaviruses
358 were detected, with HPV 120, HPV 19, HPV 9, HPV 8, HPV 49 and HPV 80 being the
359 most abundant during the year of observation.

360 Enterovirus ADS showed different distribution patterns through the studied year
361 (**Figure 3c**): CV-B5, E-E18 and E30 (EV species B) were the serotypes more
362 frequently detected in spring and summer and E-E14 (EV species B) and EV-C99
363 (EV species C) in autumn and winter. These enterovirus species are traditionally
364 related to aseptic meningitis cases and, with the exception of Enterovirus C99, had
365 been also reported as etiological agents involved in Acute Flaccid Paralysis (AFP)
366 cases by the Spanish Ministry of Health in their Annual Epidemiologic Surveillance
367 (López-Perea et al., 2017). This emergent member of enterovirus species C has
368 been reported to be involved in the development of AFP (Brown et al., 2009) and
369 was recently described as being very prevalent in Uruguay and Brazil (Lizasoain et
370 al., 2018; Luchs et al., 2019).

371 Also, a comparison of EV presence in spring in two different WWTPs (composite
372 sample from WWTP A, which was collected in spring, and spring pooled samples
373 from WWTP B) showed E-E30 to be the most prevalent strain detected in both

374 plants while CV-B5 was the second most frequent strain in plant B and EV-C99 and
375 EV-119 in plant A.

376 In fact, the comparison of the results obtained by analysing sewage samples
377 collected in spring from both WWTPs by ADP resulted in a similar distribution of
378 HAdV, HPV and EV, despite the locations being 30 km apart and treating sewage
379 from different population equivalent amounts.

380 Further research should be directed towards analysing sewage during longer
381 periods, in order to establish the most appropriate sampling design for use in the
382 characterisation of the sewage virome from a determined population (composite,
383 pooled or individual samples), as well as for elucidating if there exist any
384 seasonality in the excretion of relevant pathogenic viruses.

385

386 **3.3 Effect of the EV-A71 outbreak on the excreted virome in sewage**

387 An outbreak of brainstem encephalitis occurred in the geographical area studied
388 during the studied period affecting more than 100 children showing a peak in
389 spring 2016 (Casas-Alba et al., 2017).

390 Sequences from EV-A71 were detected using ADS in both of the WWTP studied
391 which belong to geographical areas located within 30Km in the outbreak area. A
392 total of 14 amplicons of 301bp from VP1 region were subtyped as C1 with the
393 Enterovirus Genotyping tool (Kroneman et al., 2011). These sequences showed a
394 pairwise identity of 97% with sequences related to the German outbreak of 2015
395 (Böttcher et al., 2016) and with clinical sequences from patients involved in the
396 outbreak, obtained at Hospital Vall d'Hebron in Barcelona (Andres et al., 2019).

397 A phylogenetic tree including all these sequences was constructed and
398 represented in **Figure 4** and, even though the presence of this serotype was in a

399 minority, these sequences proved to be phylogenetically close to those that caused
400 the German (2015) and Catalan outbreaks (2016).

401 By applying TES, only one EV-A71 contig (884 bp) was obtained from WWTP A,
402 but subtyping was not possible due to the short VP1 region present in this contig.

403 Thus, the application of ADS, in addition to TES, has also been useful to monitor an
404 outbreak, detecting EV A71 sequences only when an encephalitis outbreak was
405 occurring simultaneously with the sampling period in two different sewage
406 samples from two different locations in Catalonia.

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409 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

410 • Enterovirus A71 C1 was detected by Amplicon Deep Sequencing and Target
411 Enrichment Sequencing during an encephalitis outbreak, although it was
412 only a small percentage of the enterovirus excreted, being other serotypes
413 much more abundant. Only Amplicon Deep Sequencing was useful for
414 subtyping purposes.

415 • Sewage from two different WWTPs, collected as a unique composite and as
416 monthly pooled samples in spring 2016, showed a similar distribution of
417 HAdV, HPV and EV types, despite the locations being 30 km apart and
418 treating sewage from different population equivalent amounts.

419 • Untargeted Viral Metagenomics is the only NGS technique that provides a
420 complete picture of the whole virome present in sewage including
421 vertebrate, invertebrate, bacteria, plant and fungi viruses.

422 • Target Enrichment NGS based on probe capture has proved a very
423 successful strategy for the study of vertebrate viruses in sewage samples

424 providing a higher number of detected families, a higher number of
425 members within these families, more reads and larger genome coverage
426 than conventional Untargeted Viral Metagenomics.

427 • Amplicon Deep Sequencing proved useful when observing the variety
428 within a sole viral family is the objective of the study and, because is a very
429 sensitive technique, it may be useful for the surveillance of specific
430 pathogenic viruses (e.g: EV-A71).

431

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437 **AVAILABILITY OF DATA AND MATERIAL**

438 The datasets generated during the current study are available in zenodo under the
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Table 1. Read counts and Genome coverage obtained from contigs of viral species of interest obtained by Target Enrichment Sequencing (TES) and Untargeted Viral Metagenomics (UVM).

Viral families	Viral species	Viral sequence reads			Breadth genome coverage (%)		<i>Fold increase is presented in logs of increase and breadth of genome coverage in percentages.</i>
		Viral read count		Fold increase (log)	TES	UVM	
		TES	UVM				
<i>Papillomaviridae</i>	Betapapillomavirus 2	24	0	1,38	15,47	0	
<i>Picornaviridae</i>	Aichivirus A	23372	33	2,85	89,86	22,05	
	Enterovirus A	725	0	2,82	61,12	0	
	Enterovirus B	902	0	2,96	44,00	0	
	Enterovirus C	2098	0	3,32	62,10	0	
<i>Adenoviridae</i>	Human mastadenovirus A	343	0	2,54	14,22	0	
	Human mastadenovirus F	1333	0	3,12	34,66	0	
<i>Polomaviridae</i>	BK polyomavirus	829	0	2,92	79,89	0	
	Human polyomavirus 6	79	0	1,90	10,88	0	
	JC polyomavirus	714	237	0,48	93,82	77,37	
	WU polyomavirus	17	0	1,23	10,96	0	
<i>Astroviridae</i>	Mamastrovirus 1	83857	64	3,12	99,25	30,45	
<i>Caliciviridae</i>	Sapporo virus	421	10	1,62	62,07	57,33	
	Norwalk virus	1820	8	2,36	88,72	11,73	
<i>Hepeviridae</i>	Orthohepevirus A	781	0	2,89	24,21	0	
<i>Reoviridae</i>	Rotavirus A	423	0	2,63	38,64	0	

Figure 3

[Click here to download Figure: FIGURE 3 R1.pdf](#)

Figure 3. Diversity of *Adenoviridae* (a), *Papillomaviridae* (b) and *Picornaviridae* (c) families in the seasonal pooled raw sewage samples from WWTP B obtained by Amplicon Deep Sequencing. Data presented as percentage of viral species and number of reads.

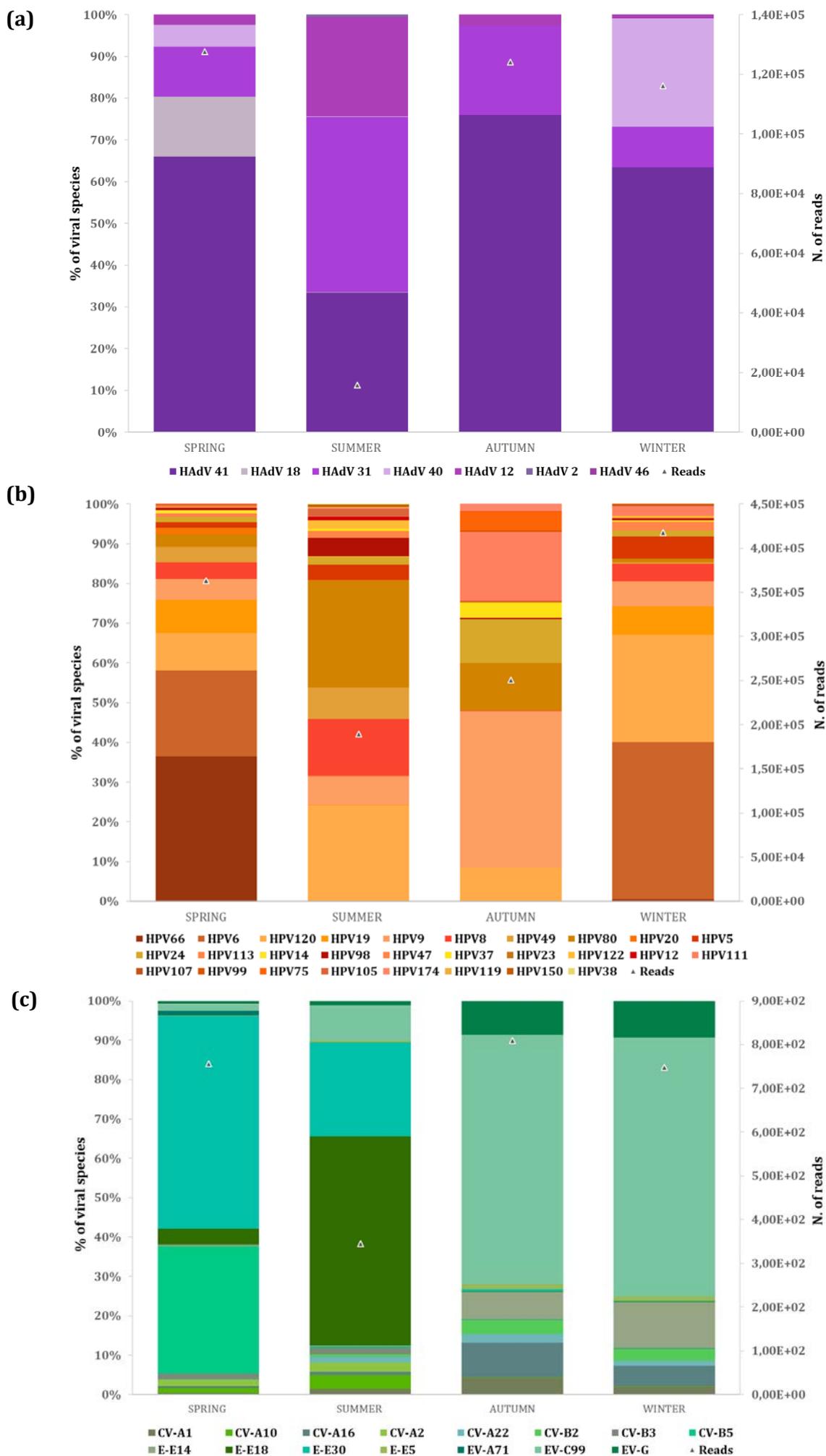


Figure 4. Phylogenetic tree based on enterovirus VP1 nucleotide sequences of EV-A71 C1 strains identified by ADS. Represented in bold are the sequences obtained in both WWTPs (BCN_A and BCN_B). The rest of the strains were the ones obtained from clinical cases by Sanger sequencing from Hospital Vall d'Hebrón (VH) and the ones related to the Germany outbreak in 2015 (those with KU prefix; Böttcher, 2016). Scale bar indicate nucleotide substitution per site. CV-A16 (KT327162) has been used as outgroup, with a distance of 0.511 to BCN A_08.

