

GLOBAL WATER PATHOGEN PROJECT

**PART THREE. SPECIFIC EXCRETED PATHOGENS: ENVIRONMENTAL AND  
EPIDEMIOLOGY ASPECTS**

# **SUMMARY OF EXCRETED AND WATERBORNE VIRUSES**

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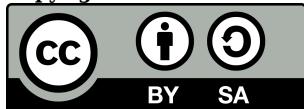
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## Summary

There are hundreds of viruses that infect humans and most are released into feces and urine making their way into the environment by excretion or secretion of bodily fluids or skin cells. The viruses infecting the enteric track are known to be excreted in high numbers and many of these viruses are commonly excreted by healthy people often long after symptom resolution.

The most important excreted known pathogens are transmitted by a variety of means including fecal-oral transmission routes and are members of six families, *Picornaviridae*, *Caliciviridae*, *Hepeviridae*, *Reoviridae*, *Astroviridae* (all RNA viruses) and the DNA virus family *Adenoviridae*. Viruses in these families cause asymptomatic infections and also outbreaks or sporadic cases with a wide range of symptoms from mild to severe gastroenteritis to meningitis, respiratory disease, conjunctivitis, myocarditis, paralysis, or hepatitis.

Recent data have shown the presence of new viral pathogens associated with gastroenteritis or other clinical symptoms in a set of novel viral families. In the *Parvoviridae* family, human bocaviruses 1 to 4 (HBoV) and human bufavirus (HBoV) are associated with respiratory and gastrointestinal diseases. Circoviruses are currently known to infect birds and swine, and no human pathogenic circoviruses have been definitively demonstrated yet, nevertheless new phylogenetically diverse Circoviruses have been shown to be present in sewage. A large portion of circular ssDNA viruses similar to the family *Circoviridae* have been revealed primarily through metagenomics in a diverse range of samples. Metagenomics in raw sewage water of United States, Spain and Ethiopia, showed sequences with identities between 20 and 50% to the *Circoviridae* family and in another study sewage from United States showed sequences 35 to 58% identical. The genera *Cyclovirus* have been suggested to cause human enteric infections and, a study identified and characterized the full genome of a novel cyclovirus (tentatively named cyclovirus-Vietnam [CyCV-VN]) in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) specimens of two Vietnamese patients with CNS infections of unknown etiology.

A wide diversity of viruses is known to be commonly excreted, some are new pathogens recently described and some of them have not been associated yet to human diseases. A study analyzing stool samples from two healthy infant siblings collected at about weekly intervals during their first year of life were analyzed by PCR for 15 different enteric viral genera showed that ninety-two percent (66/72) of the fecal samples tested contained one to five different human viruses. Adenovirus, Aichi virus, Anellovirus,

Astrovirus, Bocavirus, Enterovirus, Parechovirus, Picobirnavirus, and Rotavirus were detected. The study also confirmed long-term virus shedding for adenoviruses, anelloviruses, bocaviruses, enteroviruses, parechoviruses, and picobirnaviruses.

Excreted viruses are detected in urban sewage samples and survival is facilitated by organic debris of the clinical matrix in which the virus is shed (feces or vomit) and virus aggregate formation, offering protection in the route to new human hosts. The concentration of viruses observed in urban sewage is high and is related to the epidemiology of each viral infection. Viruses excreted in the population of all geographical areas and without defined seasonability, as it is the case of human adenoviruses, have been detected in wastewater and superficial waters in all geographical areas analyzed with levels of  $10^{4-7}$  GC/100 ml in raw sewage,  $10^{3-4}$  GC/100ml in secondary and tertiary effluent of wastewater treatment plants,  $10^{4-7}$  GC/100 g of biosolids,  $10^{1-5}$  CG/L in river water, and  $10^{1-3}$  CG/L in seawater. Human adenoviruses and human polyomaviruses have been suggested as indicators of human fecal/urine contamination and MST tools in the environment and water based on the affordability of quantification techniques for DNA viruses, and their abundance in all geographical areas and periods of the year. Many classical and emerging viral pathogens have been detected in bathing water, river and seawater and their high stability and low infectious doses support the need for improving control of virus dissemination in water is an important concern requiring improved water treatments and regulations.

There are hundreds of viruses that infect humans and are released into the environment by excretion or secretion of bodily fluids or skin. The viruses infecting the gastrointestinal tract also known as enteric viruses, are excreted in high numbers ( $10^7$   $10^9$  g<sup>-1</sup> of feces) by infected individuals with or without disease, and in some cases long after the resolution of disease. These viruses can be transmitted by contaminated water via the fecal-oral route.

### 1.0 TAXONOMIC CLASSIFICATION OF THE VIRAL AGENTS

The most important waterborne viruses are members of six families, including RNA virus families such as *Picornaviridae*, *Caliciviridae*, *Hepeviridae*, *Reoviridae*, *Astroviridae* and the *Adenoviridae* within the family of DNA viruses. Viruses in these families cause asymptomatic infections and also outbreaks or sporadic cases with a wide range of symptoms from mild to severe gastroenteritis to meningitis, respiratory disease, conjunctivitis, myocarditis, paralysis, or hepatitis (<http://ictvonline.org>).

**Table 1. Main viral waterborne pathogens**

| Family (genome, size)                  | Genus          | Most important human pathogens  | Related diseases   |
|--|----------------|---|--|
| <i>Adenoviridae</i> (dsDNA, 70-90nm)   | Mastadenovirus | Human adenovirus A-G (HAdV)   | Gastroenteritis, respiratory disease, conjunctivitis, cystitis                 |
| <i>Astroviridae</i> (ssRNA, 28-41nm)   | Mamastrovirus  | Astrovirus 1-9 (HAstV)  | Gastroenteritis, related to respiratory infections                             |
| <i>Caliciviridae</i> (ssRNA, 27-38nm)  | Norovirus      | Norovirus GI, GII (NoV)   | Gastroenteritis  |
|  | Sapovirus      | Sapovirus GI, GII, GIV, GV (SaV)  | Gastroenteritis  |
| <i>Hepeviridae</i> (ssRNA, 25-30nm)    | Orthohepevirus | Hepatitis E virus G1,2,3,4,7 (HEV)  | Acute hepatitis  |
|  | Enterovirus    | Enterovirus A-D (EV-68 and EV-71), Rhinovirus A-C, Poliovirus 1-3, Coxsackievirus A-B | Paralysis, meningitis, hand-foot-and-mouth disease, heart anomalies, skin rash |
| <i>Picornaviridae</i> (ssRNA, 24-30nm) | Hepatovirus    | Hepatitis A virus GI-III (HAV)  | Acute hepatitis  |
|  | Kobuvirus      | Aichivirus A to C (AiV)   | Gastroenteritis  |
|  | Parechovirus   | Parechovirus 1 to 16 (PeV)  | Gastroenteritis, respiratory infections, encephalitis, meningitis, hepatitis   |
| <i>Reoviridae</i> (dsRNA, 70-75nm)     | Rotavirus      | Rotavirus A to G (RoV)  | Gastroenteritis  |

## 1.1 Viral pathogens of primary concern for waterborne diseases

### 1.1.2 Other groups containing new water-borne emerging viruses

Recent data has shown evidence of new viral pathogens in the *Parvoviridae* family associated with gastroenteritis in humans. The clinical manifestations of parvovirus 4 (PARV4) remain unknown whereas human bocaviruses 1 to 4 (HBoV) and human bufavirus (HBuV) are associated with respiratory and gastrointestinal diseases (Väisänen et al., 2014)

New viruses with DNA in circular form that are phylogenetically diverse have been detected in sewage. These viruses have been included within the family *Circoviridae* which comprises virus species that infect birds and swine (Blinkova et al., 2009). A large portion of circular

ssDNA viruses, similar to the family *Circoviridae*, was elucidated by metagenomics of a diverse range of samples. Metagenomics of urban sewage in the United States, Spain and Ethiopia, showed virome contigs with 20 to 50% similarities to viruses with circular genomes characteristic of the *Circoviridae* family (Cantalupo et al., 2011). In addition, PCR screening of viral nucleic acid recovered from sewage in the United States revealed genetic variants of DNA circoviruses (Blinkova et al., 2009). The genus *Cyclovirus* has been suggested to cause human enteric infections, and a study identified and characterized the full genome of a novel cyclovirus (tentatively named cyclovirus-Vietnam [CyCV-VN]) in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) specimens of two Vietnamese patients with CNS infections of unknown etiology (Li et al., 2010; Phan et al., 2015). The authors suggested the potential for fecal-oral as well as foodborne transmission while high detection rates in feces from pigs and poultry (average, 58%) suggested the existence of animal reservoirs for such transmission routes (Tan et al., 2013).

Table 2. Emerging viruses with potential for water-borne transmission

| Family (genome, size)                    | Genus                | Human pathogens                           | Related diseases  |
|--|----------------------|---|---|
| <i>Anelloviridae</i> (ssDNA, 30-32nm)    | Alphatorquevirus     | Torquetenovirus (TTV)                     | Asymptomatic.<br>May be associated with various diseases: hepatitis, pulmonary diseases, hematologic disorders, myopathy and lupus. |
| <i>Circoviridae</i> (ssDNA, 15-20nm)     | Cyclovirus           | Human Associated Cyclovirus 1-11 (HuACyV) | Systemic infections, may play a role in development of paraplegia   |
| <i>Parvoviridae</i> (ssDNA, 18-26nm)     | Erythroparvovirus    | Parvovirus B19 (PaV)                      | Fifth disease in children, arthropathy, hepatitis   |
|  | Bocaparvovirus       | Human bocavirus 1-4 (HBoV)                | Gastroenteritis, related to respiratory infections  |
|  | Protoparvovirus      | Bufavirus (HBuV)                          | Gastroenteritis   |
| <i>Papillomaviridae</i> (dsDNA, 50-60nm) | Alpha-papillomavirus | Human Papillomavirus 16, 18 (HPV)         | Cervix, penis, anus and vulva cancers   |
|  | Beta-papillomavirus  | HPV 66                                    | Related to genital warts  |
| <i>Picobirnaviridae</i> (ssRNA, 33-41nm) | Picobirnavirus       | Human picobirnavirus (HPBV)               | May be implicated in gastroenteritis in humans  |
|  | Betapolyomavirus     | Polyomavirus JC (PyV)                     | Progressive multifocal encephalopathy (PML)   |
| <i>Polyomaviridae</i> (dsDNA, 50-60nm)   |                      | BKPyV                                     | Mild respiratory infection, polyomavirus-associated nephropathy polyomavirus-associated haemorrhagic cystitis                       |
|  | Alphapolyomavirus    | Merkel cell PyV (MCPyV)                   | Associated to merkel cell carcinoma   |

## 1.2 EXCRETION OF VIRUSES

The excretion of viruses in feces is high and viruses are commonly excreted by healthy people even after resolution of symptoms. Stool samples from healthy infants showed that ninety-two percent (66/72) of the tested fecal samples contained one to five different human viruses (Kapusinszky

et al., 2012). Adenoviruses, aichi viruses, anelloviruses, astroviruses, bocaviruses, enteroviruses, parechoviruses, picobirnaviruses and rotaviruses were the viruses most frequently detected. Vaccination schedules have an effect on the excretion of viruses (Laassri et al., 2005). The summary of the level of excretion of the most important waterborne viruses is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of the excretion characteristics of main water-borne viral pathogens

| Viral Pathogen | Excretion concentrations   | Clinical characteristics                                      | Prevalence in feces/urine                    | Reference   |
|----------------|----------------------------|---|--|---|
| Adenovirus     | E+07 to E+11 GC/g of stool | IP: 3 to 10 days<br>ID: 1 to 4 days<br>DE: 11 days (1 to 192) | 2.6% to 16% in fecal gastroenteritis samples | Bozkurt et al., 2015; Lion et al., 2010; Rimoldi et al., 2011       |
| Aichivirus     | E+06 to E+12 GC/g of stool | IP: 12 to 54h<br>ID: 2 to 3 days<br>DE: Undetermined          | 0.8% in fecal gastroenteritis samples        | Bozkurt et al., 2015; Drexler et al., 2011; Le Guyader et al., 2008 |

| Viral Pathogen | Excretion concentrations                       | Clinical characteristics  | Prevalence in feces/urine  | Reference   |
|----------------|--|---|--|---|
| Astrovirus     | E+08 to E+13 GC/g of stool                     | IP: 3,9 to 5,2 days<br>ID: 1 to 4 days<br>DE: 2 to 30 days                                | 11% mean incidence of gastroenteritis worldwide, with 7% and 23% incidences in urban and rural areas         | Bosch et al., 2013; Caballero et al., 2003; Desselberger and Gray, 1995; Lee et al., 2013                             |
| Bocavirus      | E+04 GC/ml of fecal supernatant                | IP: Undetermined<br>ID: 1 to 4 days<br>DE: weeks  | 1.3% in fecal gastroenteritis samples  | Lau et al., 2007; Proenca-Modena et al., 2013; Rimoldi et al., 2011   |
| Enterovirus    | Coxsackievirus: E+03 to E+06 TCID50/g of stool | IP: 2 days<br>ID: 2 to 3 days<br>DE: 50 days (44 to 142)                                  | 22.1% coxsackievirus in fecal gastroenteritis samples  | Bozkurt et al., 2015; Melnick and Rennick, 1980; Khetsuriani et al., 2009   |
| Hepatitis A    | E+07 GC/ml of fecal supernatant                | IP: 7 to 50 days<br>ID: 3 to 6 months<br>DE: 8 days (4 to 42)                             | 20% of clinical hepatitis  | Arankalle et al., 2006; Lee, 2000   |
| Hepatitis E    | E+03 to E+07 GC/ml of fecal supernatant        | IP: 2 to 10 weeks<br>ID: 2 to 6 weeks<br>DE: 22 days (14 to 33)                           | 70% of fecal samples from hepatitis patients   | Chandra et al., 2010.; Kim et al., 2014; Takahashi et al., 2007   |
| Norovirus      | E+07 to E+09 GC/gr of stool                    | IP: 1,1 to 1,2 days<br>ID: 12 to 60h<br>DE: 28 days (13 to 56)                            | 16.2 to 42.8% in fecal gastroenteritis samples   | Atmar et al., 2008; Bozkurt et al., 2015; Kaplan et al., 1982; Lee et al., 2013; Rimoldi et al., 2011                 |
| Polyomavirus   | E+05 GC/ml urine                               | Reactivation in patients with immunosuppressive conditions<br>DE: Several months or years | 62.7% of healthy adults and 13.2% of children excrete polyomaviruses in their urine, mostly JC virus (41.2%) | Bofill-Mas and Girones, 2001; Kling et al., 2012; Polo et al., 2004   |
| Rotavirus      | E+10 to E+12 GC/gr of stool                    | IP: 2 days<br>ID: 3 to 8 days<br>DE: 10 days (4 to 57)                                    | 33 to 38.2% in fecal gastroenteritis samples   | Bozkurt et al., 2015; Desselberger and Gray, 1995; Ramani et al., 2014; Richardson et al., 1998; Rimoldi et al., 2011 |
| Sapovirus      | E+07 to E+08 GC/g of stool                     | IP: 1,7 days<br>ID: 1 to 4 days<br>DE: 4 days (4 to 21)                                   | 3.8% in fecal gastroenteritis samples  | Bozkurt et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2013; Rimoldi et al., 2011; Rockx et al., 2002; Torner et al., 2016                 |

IP: Incubation Period, ID: Illness duration, DE: days excretion

### 1.3 TRANSMISSION

#### 1.3.1 Global routes of transmission for viral infections

Water and food are the main vehicles for transmission of viruses that replicate in the gastrointestinal tract causing the wide spectrum of diseases described in Table 2. Contaminated drinking water is an important cause of gastrointestinal disease (Altzibar et al., 2015; Braeye et al., 2015; Craun et al., 2010; Kauppinen et al., 2017). The burden of water-borne diseases directly related to viruses, was estimated at 136 outbreaks in Europe during 2000 and 2007 (39% of all diarrhea cases due to unsafe water) and at 64 outbreaks in the U.S. during 1971 and 2006 (Craun et al., 2010; ENHIS, 2009). The risk of emerging waterborne diseases increases where standards of water, sanitation and personal hygiene are low. More than half of the waterborne disease outbreaks linked to drinking water have been associated with untreated or inadequately treated ground water, indicating that contamination of ground water

remains a public health problem (Yoder et al., 2011).

The global public health impact is higher when considering the food-borne transmission route. The American and European surveillance reports on the food-borne outbreaks estimate that between 45 and 51% of the total food-borne outbreaks are caused by water-borne viruses (Gould et al., 2013; Price-Hayward and Hartnell, 2016). The route from food production to consumption is very complex, with many points where pathogens can enter and reach the consumers (e.g. at the farm, during slaughter, during processing, in the kitchen). Of the viral pathogens that can contaminate food, HAV, HEV and NoV in bivalve shellfish, fresh produce, and prepared foods have been identified as the highest risk pathogens (EFSA, 2012). Foodborne cases of hepatitis E in humans are increasingly common and likely underestimated in the medical community (Meng, 2013). Sporadic and cluster cases of hepatitis E occur after consumption of undercooked or raw animal meats.

**Table 4. Transmission routes of the principal waterborne viruses**

| <b>Viral Pathogen</b> | <b>Transmission routes</b>   | <b>Seasonality</b>   | <b>Reference</b>                            |
|-----------------------|--|--|---|
| Adenovirus            | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, person-to-person, drinking water<br>Airborne: respiratory secretions<br>Bathing water | Without clear seasonality  | Mena and Gerba, 2009; Vetter et al., 2015   |
| Aichivirus            | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, person-to-person, drinking water  | Without clear seasonality  | Kitajima and Gerba, 2015                    |
| Astrovirus            | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, person-to-person, drinking water  | Higher incidence in the cold-weather period  | Bosch et al., 2014                          |
| Bocavirus             | Fecal-oral: drinking water<br>Airborne: aerosol, respiratory secretions<br>Vertical transmission?                    | Higher prevalences in cold months  | Hamza et al., 2009; Schildgen et al., 2008  |
| Enterovirus           | Fecal-oral: drinking water<br>Respiratory secretions   | Higher prevalences in warm/wet seasons   | Sedmak et al., 2005                         |
| Hepatitis A           | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, person-to-person  | No clear seasonality   | Fares, 2015; Ouardani et al., 2016          |
| Hepatitis E           | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, drinking water<br>Foodborne: raw meat   | Occurs more frequently in winter   | Inoue et al., 2009; Kotwal and Cannon, 2014 |
| Norovirus             | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, person-to-person, drinking water  | Higher prevalences in cold months  | de Graaf et al., 2016                       |
| Polyomavirus          | The route of intra-human transmission is still unknown   | Without seasonal distribution  | Fratini et al., 2014                        |
| Rotavirus             | Fecal-oral: contaminated food, person-to-person, drinking water  | Year-round infection in countries within 10 degrees of the equator, Winter peaks in all other regions of the world | Estes et al., 1983                          |
| Sapovirus             | Fecal-oral: drinking water   | Peak observed mainly in the cold season  | Dey et al., 2012                            |

### 1.3.2 Animal Reservoirs of viral infections in humans

Humans are the main reservoirs of enteric viruses. With exception of rotavirus and hepatitis E virus, zoonotic transmission of water-borne viruses is rare. It is a well-known fact that animal RoV-A infect humans. Nowadays, there is convincing genetic evidence that interspecies transmission of RoV occurs. Animal RoV can infect humans via direct interspecies transmission events or reassortment between a human and animal rotavirus. Recent reviews on porcine, bovine and equine rotaviruses indicate that there are some globally important genotype specificities of RoVs in each of these host species. (Papp et al., 2013a; Papp et al., 2013b). Nevertheless, zoonotic viruses can emerge from animal reservoirs and affect humans only incidentally.

Hepatitis E virus is an emerging zoonotic water- and foodborne pathogen (Ricci et al., 2017; Uddin Khan et al., 2013). HEV-1 and HEV-2 are restricted to humans whereas HEV-3 and HEV-4 are naturally present in several animal

species and can cross the species barrier. The zoonotic transmission of HEV-3 and HEV-4 from swine, wild boar and deer to human via the consumption of raw meat has been proven (Bouquet et al., 2012, 2011; Cook et al., 2017). In 2016, a small outbreak in China was related to HEV-4 found in food from the company's cafeteria (Zhang et al., 2016). There is also an increasing evidence for zoonotic transmission of hepatitis E from camels (Sridhar et al., 2017).

## 2.0 DATA ON OCCURRENCE OF VIRUSES IN WASTE WATER

Waterborne viral diseases are of major concern in both developing and developed countries and wastewater treatment plays a crucial role in mitigating viral pollution of aquatic environments. A summary of representative available data on the occurrence of viral pathogens in raw sewage, secondary and tertiary effluents of wastewater treatment plants is shown in Tables 5, 6 and 7.

**Table 5. Viral concentrations in wastewater effluents worldwide**

| Area    | Viral Pathogen | Percent Positive (# of samples) | Mean concentration (GC/L) | Max concentration (GC/L) | Reference              |
|---------|----------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| Asia    | Norovirus GGII | 36                              | 2.51 E+06                 | NR <sup>a</sup>          | Eftim et al., 2017     |
| Bolivia | Rotavirus      | NR                              | 3.1 E+07                  | NR                       | Symonds et al., 2014   |
| Brazil  | Hepatitis A    | 25% (6/22)                      | 5.1 E+02                  | NR                       | Villar et al., 2007    |
| Brazil  | Polyomavirus   | 96% (23/24)                     | 4.6 E+05                  | 3.2 E+05                 | Fumian et al., 2010    |
| Brazil  | Rotavirus      | 70.6% (17/24)                   | NR                        | 2.9 E+08                 | Prado et al., 2011     |
|         | Adenovirus     | 100% (16/16)                    | 9.16 E+06                 | NR                       |                        |
|         | Enterovirus    | 100% (16/16)                    | 4.08 E+04                 | NR                       |                        |
| Canada  | Norovirus GGII | 100% (16/16)                    | 1.2 E+06                  | NR                       | Qiu et al., 2015       |
|         | Sapovirus      | 12.5% (2/16)                    | E+07                      | NR                       |                        |
| Europe  | Norovirus GGII | 305                             | E+05                      | NR                       | Eftim et al., 2017     |
| France  | Astrovirus     | 82% (14/17)                     | 4.1 E+06                  | 3.1 E+07                 | Le Cann et al., 2004   |
|         | Adenovirus     | 100% (13/13)                    | 1.24 E+06                 | NR                       |                        |
| Germany | Enterovirus    | 92% (12/13)                     | 2.27 E+05                 | NR                       | Leifels et al., 2016   |
| Italy   | Bocavirus      | 76% (102/134)                   | 4.7 E+04                  | E+05                     | Iaconelli et al., 2016 |
| Japan   | Adenovirus     | 100% (72/72)                    | 5.5 E+06                  | NR                       | Katayama et al., 2008  |



| Area          | Viral Pathogen | Percent Positive<br>(# of samples) | Mean concentration<br>(GC/L)        | Max concentration<br>(GC/L) | Reference                            |
|---------------|----------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|               | Astrovirus     | 36%<br>(10/28)                     | 1.7 E+06                            | NR                          |                                      |
| Japan         | Hepatitis A    | 7%<br>(2/28)                       | 9.7 E+02                            | 1.8 E+03                    | Kobayashi<br>et al., 2017            |
|               | Hepatitis E    | 11%<br>(3/28)                      | 1.7 E+02                            | 6.4 E+03                    |                                      |
|               | Enterovirus    | 65%<br>(47/72)                     | 2.95 E+05                           | NR                          |                                      |
| Japan         | Norovirus GGI  | 94%<br>(68/72)                     | 3.6 E+07 winter<br>2.39 E+04 summer | NR                          | Katayama<br>et al., 2008             |
|               | Norovirus GGII | 92%<br>(66/72)                     | 3.9 E+07 winter<br>8.3 E+04 summer  | NR                          |                                      |
| Japan         | Sapovirus      | 100%<br>(12/12)                    | 1.8 E+04                            | 1.3 E+05                    | Haramoto<br>et al., 2008             |
| Japan         | Polyomavirus   | 7%<br>(2/28)                       | 2.7 E+02                            | 7.2 E+02                    | Kobayashi<br>et al., 2017            |
| Nepal         | Aichivirus     | 100%<br>(1/1)                      | NR                                  | 4.0 E+09                    | Haramoto<br>and<br>Kitajima,<br>2017 |
| New Zealand   | Enterovirus    | 100<br>(30)                        | NR                                  | 4.7 E+06                    | Hewitt et<br>al., 2011               |
| New Zealand   | Norovirus GGII | 13                                 | 6.31 E+03                           | NR                          | Eftim et al.,<br>2017                |
| North America | Norovirus GGII | 107                                | 5.01 E+04                           | NR                          | Eftim et al.,<br>2017                |
| Spain         | Adenovirus     | 89%<br>(33/37)                     | 8.38 E+05                           | 2.9 E+07                    | Rusiñol et<br>al., 2015              |
|               | Polyomavirus   | 100%<br>(37/37)                    | 7.47 E+05                           | 1.7 E+07                    |                                      |
| Spain         | Norovirus GGI  | 91%<br>(49/54)                     | NR                                  | 5.9 E+08                    | Pérez-Sautu<br>et al., 2012          |
|               | Norovirus GGII | 98%<br>(53/54)                     | NR                                  | 3.4 E+09                    |                                      |
| Sweden        | Adenovirus     | 100%<br>(7/7)                      | 4.42 E+06                           | 9.3 E+06                    | Hellmér et<br>al., 2014              |
| Switzerland   | Hepatitis E    | 31%<br>(5/31)                      | 7.81 E+04                           | NR                          | Masclaux et<br>al., 2013             |
| Uruguay       | Astrovirus     | 45<br>(19/45)                      | NR                                  | 4.3 E+07                    | Victoria et<br>al., 2014             |
| USA           | Adenovirus     | 100%<br>(48/48)                    | 1.55 E+07                           | NR                          | Schmitz et<br>al., 2016              |
| USA           | Aichivirus     | 100%<br>(11/11)                    | 1.18 E+04                           | NR                          | Rachmadi<br>et al., 2016             |

<sup>a</sup>NR: Not reported

Table 6. Viral concentrations in secondary effluents worldwide

| Area      | Viral Pathogen | Percent Positive<br>(# of samples) | Mean concentration<br>(GC/L) | Treatment | Reference              |
|-----------|----------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------|------------------------|
| Brazil    | Adenovirus     | 70%<br>(5/7)                       | 3.78 E+03                    | CAS       | Prado et al., 2011     |
|           | Norovirus GGII | 28.5%<br>(4/14)                    | 2.4 E+06                     | CAS       |                        |
| Brazil    | Rotavirus      | 71%<br>(3/5)                       | 1.9 E+04                     | CAS       | Fumian et al., 2010    |
|           | Polyomavirus   | 39%<br>(9/23)                      | 4.3 E+04                     | CAS       |                        |
| Canada    | Adenovirus     | 100%<br>(16/16)                    | 9.08 E+04                    | CAS       | Qiu et al., 2015       |
| France    | Aichi virus    | 84%<br>(231/275)                   | 1.55 E+03                    | CAS       | Prevost et al., 2015   |
|           | Astrovirus     | 84%<br>(231/275)                   | 1.08 E+05                    | CAS       |                        |
|           | Enterovirus    | 64%<br>(175/275)                   | 1.0 E+02                     | CAS       |                        |
|           | Norovirus GGI  | 98%<br>(270/275)                   | 5.0 E+03                     | CAS       |                        |
|           | Rotavirus      | 84%<br>(231/275)                   | 2.11 E+05                    | CAS       |                        |
| Germany   | Enterovirus    | 46%<br>(6/13)                      | 8.63 E+03                    | CAS       | Leifels et al., 2016   |
|           | Rotavirus      | 77%<br>(10/13)                     | 1.3 E+04                     | CAS       |                        |
| Italy     | Hepatitis A    | 14%<br>(3/21)                      | Undetermined                 | CAS       | Iaconelli et al., 2015 |
|           | Aichi virus    | 71%<br>(20/28)                     | 5.5 E+02                     | DHS       |                        |
|           | Astrovirus     | 32%<br>(9/28)                      | 6.3 E+03                     | DHS       |                        |
|           | Enterovirus    | 21%<br>(6/28)                      | 8.0 E+02                     | DHS       |                        |
| Japan     | Hepatitis A    | 4%<br>(1/28)                       | 1.5 E+03                     | DHS       | Kobayashi et al., 2017 |
|           | Hepatitis E    | 0%<br>(0/28)                       | Non detected                 | DHS       |                        |
|           | Norovirus GGI  | 14%<br>(4/28)                      | 6.5 E+01                     | DHS       |                        |
|           | Norovirus GGII | 57%<br>(16/28)                     | 7.2 E+01                     | DHS       |                        |
|           | Rotavirus      | 11%<br>(3/28)                      | 4.3 E+02                     | DHS       |                        |
| Japan     | Sapovirus      | 58%<br>(7/12)                      | 1.5 E+02                     | CAS       | Haramoto et al., 2008  |
|           | Bocavirus      | 54%<br>(14/26)                     | 2.72 E+04                    | CAS       |                        |
| Norway    | Hepatitis E    | 8%<br>(2/26)                       | Undetermined                 | CAS       | Myrmel et al., 2015    |
|           | Norovirus GGI  | 100%<br>(26/26)                    | 3.8 E+06                     | CAS       |                        |
| Singapore | Astrovirus     | 100%<br>(18/18)                    | 3.9 E+04                     | CAS       | Aw and Gin, 2010       |
|           | Hepatitis A    | 28%<br>(5/18)                      | Undetermined                 | CAS       |                        |

| Area           | Viral Pathogen | Percent Positive<br>(# of samples) | Mean concentration<br>(GC/L) | Treatment | Reference             |
|----------------|----------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------|-----------------------|
| Spain          | Adenovirus     | 78%<br>(25/32)                     | 1.2 E+05                     | CAS       | Rusiñol et al., 2015  |
|                | Norovirus GGII | 65%<br>(21/32)                     | 5.05 E+05                    | CAS       |                       |
|                | Polyomavirus   | 59%<br>(19/32)                     | 1.6 E+05                     | CAS       |                       |
| Sweden         | Norovirus GGII | 100%<br>(12/12)                    | 1.0 E+05                     | CAS       | Nordgren et al., 2009 |
| United Kingdom | Adenovirus     | 10%<br>(5/48)                      | 1.1 E+01                     | MBR       | Purnell et al., 2016  |
|                | Norovirus GGI  | 3%<br>(1/48)                       | 1.1 E+01                     | MBR       |                       |
|                | Norovirus GGII | 6%<br>(2/48)                       | 1.1 E+01                     | MBR       |                       |

CAS: conventional activated sludge; MBR: membrane bioreactor; DHS reactor: down-flow hanging sponge (DHS) reactor

**Table 7. Viral concentrations in tertiary effluents worldwide**

| Area    | Viral Pathogen | Percent Positive<br>(# of samples) | Mean concentration<br>(GC/L) | Treatment type  | Reference            |
|---------|----------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------|
| Brasil  | Adenovirus     | 50%<br>(3/6)                       | 2.88 E+03                    | Cl2             | Prado et al., 2011   |
|         | Hepatitis A    | 100%<br>(4/4)                      | 2.8 E+04                     | Cl2             |                      |
|         | Rotavirus      | 66%<br>(3/4)                       | 1.20 E+05                    | Cl2             |                      |
| Canada  | Adenovirus     | 100%<br>(16/16)                    | 8.71 E+04                    | UV              | Qiu et al., 2015     |
|         | Adenovirus     | 6%<br>(1/16)                       | 1.86 E+04                    | UF and Cl2      |                      |
|         | Astrovirus     | 6%<br>(1/16)                       | 3.54 E+03                    | UF and Cl2      |                      |
|         | Rotavirus      | 38%<br>(6/16)                      | 7.94 E+02                    | UF and Cl2      |                      |
|         | Enterovirus    | 6%<br>(1/16)                       | 7.41 E+02                    | UF and Cl2      |                      |
| Germany | Enterovirus    | 8%<br>(1/13)                       | 6.0 E+03                     | UV              | Leifels et al., 2016 |
|         | Rotavirus      | 0%<br>(0/13)                       | Non detected                 | UV              |                      |
| Spain   | Adenovirus     | 72%<br>(16/22)                     | 1.9 E+03                     | Actiflo® and UV | Rusiñol et al., 2015 |
|         | Hepatitis E    | 0%<br>(0/22)                       | Non detected                 | Actiflo® and UV |                      |
|         | Norovirus GGII | 54%<br>(12/22)                     | 3.09 E+05                    | Actiflo® and UV |                      |
|         | Polyomavirus   | 21%<br>(5/22)                      | 4.67 E+02                    | Actiflo® and UV |                      |

| <b>Area</b> | <b>Viral Pathogen</b> | <b>Percent Positive<br/>(# of samples)</b> | <b>Mean concentration<br/>(GC/L)</b> | <b>Treatment type</b>  | <b>Reference</b>    |
|-------------|-----------------------|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| USA         | Adenovirus            | 13%<br>(3/23)                              | 1.0 E+01                             | UV and Cl <sub>2</sub> | Francy et al., 2012 |
|             | Enterovirus           | 0%<br>(0/23)                               | Non detected                         | UV and Cl <sub>2</sub> |                     |
|             | Norovirus GGI         | 8%<br>(2/23)                               | 1.0 E+01                             | UV and Cl <sub>2</sub> |                     |

UV: Ultraviolet, UF: Ultrafiltration, Cl<sub>2</sub>: Chlorination

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