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# Water Research

## Making Waves: Collaboration in the time of SARS-CoV-2 - rapid development of an international co-operation and wastewater surveillance database to support public health decision-making --Manuscript Draft--

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| <b>Abstract:</b>            | <p>The presence of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in wastewater was first reported in March 2020. Over the subsequent months, the potential for wastewater surveillance to contribute to COVID-19 mitigation programmes has been the focus of intense national and international research activities, gaining the attention of policy makers and the public. As a new application of an established methodology, focused collaboration between public health practitioners and wastewater researchers is essential to developing a common understanding on how, when and where the outputs of this non-invasive community-level approach can deliver actionable outcomes for public health authorities. Within this context, the NORMAN/SCORE “SARS-CoV-2 in sewage” database provides a platform for rapid, open access data sharing, validated by the uploading of 137 data sets from nine countries to-date. Through offering direct access to underpinning meta-data sets (and describing its use in data interpretation), the NORMAN SCORE database is a resource for the development of recommendations on minimum data requirements for wastewater pathogen surveillance. It is also a tool to engage public health practitioners, providing an opportunity to build mutual understanding of the demand and supply for data and facilitate the translation of this promising research application into public health practice.</p> |
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1 **Making Waves: Collaboration in the time of SARS-CoV-2 - rapid development of an**  
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68

## 69 **Abstract**

70 The presence of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in wastewater was first reported in March 2020. Over the  
71 subsequent months, the potential for wastewater surveillance to contribute to COVID-19  
72 mitigation programmes has been the focus of intense national and international research  
73 activities, gaining the attention of policy makers and the public. As a new application of an  
74 established methodology, focused collaboration between public health practitioners and  
75 wastewater researchers is essential to developing a common understanding on how, when  
76 and where the outputs of this non-invasive community-level approach can deliver actionable  
77 outcomes for public health authorities. Within this context, the NORMAN/SCORE “SARS-CoV-  
78 2 in sewage” database provides a platform for rapid, open access data sharing, validated by  
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80 underpinning meta-data sets (and describing its use in data interpretation), the NORMAN  
81 SCORE database is a resource for the development of recommendations on minimum data  
82 requirements for wastewater pathogen surveillance. It is also a tool to engage public health  
83 practitioners, providing an opportunity to build mutual understanding of the demand and supply  
84 for data and facilitate the translation of this promising research application into public health  
85 practice.

86

87

88 **1. Introduction**

89 Research continues apace into many aspects of the use of wastewater surveillance for the  
90 detection of SARS-CoV-2 and how data generated can be utilised within local public health  
91 decision-making. Also known as sewage or environmental surveillance, the approach has an  
92 established literature in terms of monitoring the occurrence and concentration of chemicals  
93 arriving at a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) (Choi et al., 2018). Determined chemical  
94 concentrations such as illicit (González-Mariño et al., 2020; Ort et al., 2014) and licit drugs  
95 including tobacco, caffeine and alcohol (Castiglioni et al., 2015; Gracia-Lor et al., 2017; Ryu  
96 et al., 2016) are used to provide quantitative longitudinal data sets on the use at a catchment  
97 level. It is also possible to evaluate the rates of exposure to environmental or food  
98 contaminants using the same approach (Rousis et al., 2017; Lopardo et al., 2019).  
99 Furthermore, wastewater surveillance can be used to evidence changes overtime in relation  
100 to the implementation of new policy initiatives. The practical utility of chemical wastewater  
101 surveillance data sets is demonstrated by its use within local and national monitoring and  
102 public health programmes (EMCDDA, 2020; Riva et al. 2020; Lai et al., 2018). Prior to 2020,  
103 the use of wastewater surveillance for monitoring pathogens was gaining ground only slowly.  
104 Most notably, enterovirus wastewater surveillance systems have been established in several  
105 locations (Sedmak et al., 2003; Majumdar et al., 2018), with wastewater surveillance identified  
106 as playing a key role in polio eradication schemes in Israel, India and Egypt (WHO, 2020;  
107 Ashgar et al., 2014; Holm-Hansson et al., 2017). The first SARS-CoV-2 wastewater  
108 surveillance studies were undertaken in the Netherlands, with viral RNA material detected in  
109 wastewater treatment influent samples in seven Dutch cities and the international airport  
110 (Medema et al., 2020a). This landmark study included data on the detection of viral fragments  
111 in wastewater in one city prior to the detection of any clinical cases. This potential to provide  
112 an early warning on the presence of the virus within a community is a proof-of-concept and an  
113 evidence base that could be used by public health teams as a trigger to intensify clinical  
114 testing, facilitating the identification and isolation of positive cases (Thompson et al., 2020;  
115 POST, 2020). Hence, the use of wastewater surveillance for SARS-CoV-2 as a tool to address



116 the COVID19 pandemic is a new application of an established method in a rapidly moving  
117 field.

118

119 SARS-CoV-2 wastewater surveillance studies to date have demonstrated the occurrence of  
120 its RNA genome in a range of compartments, primarily WWTP influents but it has also been  
121 reported in sludge and effluents as well as within receiving waters (Jones et al., 2020). In  
122 terms of infectivity potential of wastewater containing SARS-CoV-2 RNA, initial studies  
123 (Westhaus et al., 2021; Rimoldi et al., 2020; Bivins et al., 2020a) and expert opinion (WHO,  
124 2020; Jones et al., 2020) indicate that detected RNA materials do not occur in the form of an  
125 infectious viral particle. Further studies also looked to establish a quantitative relationship  
126 between viral load and number of clinical cases reported within a catchment (Vallejo et al.,  
127 2020; Ahmed et al., 2020). However, variations in the load and duration of viral material shed  
128 in faeces by asymptomatic, pre-symptomatic and symptomatic cases, together with limited  
129 understanding of the fate of viral particles within sewer systems (which vary significantly in  
130 design and flow dynamics), and variations in analytical protocols and their associated  
131 extraction efficiencies, generates considerable uncertainty in terms of directly relating viral  
132 loads to numbers of cases. Hence, many open challenges exist within this research area and  
133 use of data by public health teams. Within the field, key research questions encompass the  
134 potential for viral materials to adsorb to biofilm and particles, degrade in the sewage system  
135 and optimising sample collection processes, including collection location and frequency  
136 (WHO, 2020). Moreover, the need to standardise and optimise analytical protocols has been  
137 clearly identified (Michael-Kordatou et al., 2020). In terms of interpreting data, key issues  
138 include data comparability between studies (e.g. use of a common marker for normalisation  
139 and how contextual data e.g. flow and other parameters are included in data interpretation),  
140 the identification of a SARS-CoV-2 RNA threshold value and the actions that exceeding a  
141 threshold value should trigger (Medema et al., 2020b). Variations in the amount of viral RNA  
142 excreted per person are a further unknown, and inherent levels of variability in shedding may  
143 make accurate predictions of prevalence impossible. However, the absence of an absolute

144 understanding of shedding rate behaviour does not preclude the use of this approach in public  
145 health contexts, where relative changes in signal (as opposed to its absolute value) can  
146 provide public health teams with valuable data.

147

## 148 **2. The use of wastewater surveillance data within public health decision-making**

149 Wastewater surveillance can be used to non-invasively screen 'hard to test' communities (i.e.  
150 where uptake of testing is low or challenging for resource reasons) at a sewer catchment level  
151 as a new public health tool to understand COVID-19 spread (CDC, 2020; POST, 2020).  
152 Detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA fragments in wastewater is independent of clinical testing  
153 strategy bias (Thompson et al., 2020), can be used as an early warning of the need for further  
154 testing (e.g. reallocating/increasing local testing resources such as drive-through test facilities)  
155 or the implementation of wastewater surveillance upstream of the WWTP i.e. near-source  
156 tracking to identify location of cases (Hassard et al., 2020). For example, the detection of  
157 SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentrations can indicate the (re-)emergence of the virus in a catchment  
158 following a period of no clinical cases and an increase in viral RNA load can indicate the  
159 occurrence of new outbreaks, requiring the urgent tracing of infected individuals and their  
160 subsequent support to isolate (DEFRA, 2020). Likewise decreasing prevalence can indicate  
161 that infected individuals are 'known' and isolation/public health interventions are effective.  
162 Further, an increase in viral load over time against a trend of 'no-change' in daily positive case  
163 numbers could indicate that the clinical testing regime should be intensified (i.e. new cases  
164 are not being detected) (Thompson et al., 2020). Wastewater surveillance data sets can also  
165 be used to evidence the effect of alternative policy actions e.g. curfew vs local lockdown vs  
166 national lockdown at a community level, as well as track progress of vaccination campaigns.

167

168 To deliver these types of actionable outcomes i.e. to enable public health authorities to use  
169 wastewater surveillance data within their community level decision-making processes requires  
170 activities on several fronts. As well as addressing the wastewater surveillance methodological  
171 and analytical challenges identified earlier, data from wastewater needs to be collected

172 frequently and available rapidly in a format that is useful and useable by public health  
173 practitioners. Further collaboration between wastewater and public health practitioners is  
174 required to ensure that public health teams can access the type of data they require in a  
175 timeframe and format that integrates with current pandemic mitigation measures i.e.  
176 addressing public health data requirements needs to be front and centre of operationalising  
177 this new development in wastewater surveillance. The format and sampling strategies  
178 underpinning wastewater data sets may need to morph in terms of the locations and frequency  
179 of sample collection, quality assurance/quality control processes, scale at which data is  
180 generated and made available and the aspects of primary value from a public health  
181 perspective i.e. absolute values or trends analysis. Delivering this type of integrated data share  
182 'dashboard' is already challenging under usual working conditions; working across disciplines  
183 during a pandemic when public health teams are at (or beyond) full capacity is extremely  
184 challenging. However, collaboration between public health and wastewater researchers –  
185 where public health practitioners take a lead role in determining dashboard development - is  
186 happening. For example, in Australia, the development of a SARS-CoV-2 wastewater  
187 surveillance dashboard was led by a collaboration between the Victorian state public health  
188 team and Water Research Australia. This has already matured from a research and  
189 development phase to an operational tool for day-to-day use with functional dashboards for  
190 both internal and external communications (Victoria State Government, 2020). Other countries  
191 with established monitoring programs include the Netherlands, Canada, Luxembourg, Italy,  
192 Finland, and Austria. In the UK, sharing of data between a government-led wastewater  
193 surveillance project and the national COVID-19 'track and trace' programme led to the  
194 identification of an increase in SARS-CoV-2 RNA in wastewater despite relatively low numbers  
195 of people taking clinical tests (DEFRA, 2020). This data was used to alert local health  
196 professionals to contact people in the area to warn of the increase in cases and encourage  
197 local populations to engage with clinical testing programmes.

198

199 The need for and benefits of collaboration among wastewater researchers has been  
200 recognised and several international and national collaborations rapidly established (e.g.  
201 Bivins et al., 2020b; WRF, 2020; WHO, 2020; JRC, 2020; Réseau Obépine, 2020; WRA, 2020;  
202 UCMERCED, 2020). These have focussed primarily on technical and analytical issues,  
203 facilitating opportunities for rapid discussion on a range of topics from recent publications to  
204 method development, predictive modelling and risk assessment. However, collaboration  
205 activities to-date have yet to address two key issues: firstly, the development of an open-  
206 access data platform to enable and facilitate the rapid sharing and critical evaluation of multiple  
207 wastewater meta-data sets to address technical issues (Bivins et al., 2020a). Secondly,  
208 engagement with public health authorities i.e. development of a critical mass of public health  
209 and wastewater researchers to collaboratively identify and deliver an operational SARS-CoV-  
210 2 wastewater surveillance public health system.

211

### 212 **3. Open access data sharing to progress collaboration across disciplines**

213 The NORMAN/SCORE SARS-COV-2 in sewage (SC2S) database is a platform, which can  
214 contribute to meeting both these needs. This open-access database is an output of the  
215 collaboration between two international networks: the NORMAN network ([www.norman-](http://www.norman-network.net/)  
216 [network.net/](http://www.norman-network.net/)) of research organisations supporting the validation and harmonisation of  
217 measurement methods and monitoring tools and SCORE (<https://score-cost.eu>) a network  
218 established to harmonise methodologies for measuring human biomarkers in wastewater to  
219 evaluate lifestyle, health and exposure at the community level. The database is located within  
220 the NORMAN Database System at <https://www.norman-network.com/nds/> as the latest  
221 addition to its 13 database modules within the interlinked database system series for the  
222 collection and evaluation of data / information on emerging substances in the environment  
223 (Dulio et al., 2020). The SC2S database structure follows that of the NORMAN Antibiotic  
224 Resistance Bacteria/Genes database, enabling users to freely access data at a WWTP level  
225 as well as upload new data via a customised data collection template (DCT; downloadable  
226 from the website) which facilitates its automatic uploading to the system. On accessing the

227 database, users can search via country and/or WWTP or view the entire data set (both within  
228 the database or it can be exported into MS Excel) without any restrictions. Data displayed in  
229 the dashboard includes sampling date, gene copy (number of copies /mL and/or ng of  
230 RNA/mL), cycle threshold (Ct), WWTP and country name, population served and the number  
231 of people reported SARS-CoV-2 positive in the sewer catchment area on the day of sampling.  
232 Table 1 identifies the requested reporting parameters and provides an overview of their role  
233 in interpreting generated data sets. Finally, the full DCT containing all reported data on all  
234 parameters can be downloaded for each dataset. In terms of engaging the attention of public  
235 health authorities, as a first step it includes both wastewater and clinical case data. In addition,  
236 and perhaps more importantly, it is a starting point for further discussions with public health  
237 practitioners on what wastewater surveillance is, the types of longitudinal data sets it can  
238 produce (together with process controls), and the potential of this non-invasive approach as a  
239 tool to provide an early warning of new clusters as well as the impact of existing pandemic  
240 mitigation measures.

241

242 To launch the database, invitations to participate were initially shared through both the  
243 NORMAN and SCORE networks, with a request for members to disseminate further through  
244 their own networks. To harmonise activities, participants were provided with a common  
245 protocol covering sample collection, RNA extraction and analysis. The common protocol  
246 (available at [https://www.norman-network.com/nds/sars\\_cov\\_2/](https://www.norman-network.com/nds/sars_cov_2/)) adopts the Medema et al  
247 (2020) methodology with an alternative simplified protocol for SARS-CoV-2 extraction from  
248 wastewater via polyethylene glycol (PEG) precipitation (recognising that many  
249 consumables/equipment currently in short supply). Submission of data using both methods is  
250 welcomed, with space on the DCT to identify which approach was used and the genes  
251 targeted. A further step was to establish a 'buddy system' for research groups who were able  
252 to collect wastewater samples but whose laboratories were under lock-down and/or were not  
253 familiar with RNA analysis. As such, the rapid sharing of a common protocol also had a  
254 capacity building effect, enabling many groups to explore opportunities to undertake

255 wastewater surveillance for pathogens for the first time. Two scheduled sampling campaigns  
256 were held on June 1<sup>st</sup> 2020 and June 15<sup>th</sup> 2020, with data referring to further identified  
257 sampling campaigns now welcomed. To date the SC2S database contains 137 sets of data  
258 from nine different countries.

259

260 The impact of pandemic mitigation measures on working conditions impacted on the ability to  
261 both collect and manage samples e.g. reduced access to WWTPs and laboratories, and/or  
262 work force. As a result, 24 hour composite samples (either volume-weighted or time-weighted)  
263 were collected on several dates on or close to scheduled sampling dates (from 24<sup>th</sup> May 2020  
264 – 16<sup>th</sup> June 2020) with grab and/or composite samples collected on further as local conditions  
265 permitted. Sample preparation date, date of analysis and storage conditions were identified,  
266 together with the method used for sample preparation, RNA extraction, analysis and the use  
267 of internal standards in the sample preparation phase (20% of samples) and the RNA  
268 extraction step (81% of samples). Reviewing the data set as a whole, a positive signal for  
269 SARS-CoV-2 was quantified in 33 of the 137 samples analysed. Genetic markers were  
270 reported for 132 of the samples; N1 gene in 114 samples, N2 gene in 3 samples, N3 in 4  
271 samples, E gene in 9 samples with 6 samples referring to the genetic marker as 'N gene' only.  
272 Ct counts ranged from 34 - 41.9, with the number of gene copies/ml ranging from 0.04 – 148  
273 gene copies/mL (median: 2.5 gene copies/mL). In terms of quality control, reported analysis  
274 included two to six replicates per sample with the use of a positive control reported in the  
275 analyses of 129 of the 137 samples. The analytical limit of detection was reported on 34  
276 occasions (range: 0.5 - 266 gene copies/mL; median 3 gene copies/mL). However, no study  
277 reported their limit of quantification. In terms of clinical data, the number of positive cases  
278 reported in the local municipality (which may/may not reflect the sewer catchment) on the day  
279 of sampling was reported for 117 of the 137 samples analysed (range: 0 – 985; median = 54.5  
280 cases).

281

282

283 **4. Conclusions**

284 The SC2S provides a snapshot of the occurrence of SARS-CoV-2 in wastewater at  
285 participating WWTPs and demonstrates the ad-hoc cooperation of the scientific community on  
286 data collection. However, more importantly, the NORMAN/SCORE initiative:

- 287 • demonstrates that the SC2S database is a workable multi-jurisdictional data-share  
288 platform with potential to facilitate development of an international dataset
- 289 • provides a tool to engage and inform discussions with public health practitioners on  
290 the potential role of wastewater surveillance as an additional approach to integrate  
291 within community public health strategies
- 292 • is open to all (contributors are warmly invited to submit data from any campaigns they  
293 are able to share, using the relevant sections on the DCT to document sample  
294 collection, storage and analytical details together with clinical case numbers)
- 295 • with continued use, this collection of wastewater meta-data will support a retrospective  
296 analysis of the impact of differing sewer/catchment/population variables on the use of  
297 wastewater surveillance as a tool in public health practice
- 298 • facilitated the collection of comparable data sets from an early phase of the pandemic;  
299 continued use will provides an opportunity to maximise operational insights gained  
300 during different phases of the pandemic and support development of robust best  
301 practice in wastewater surveillance.

302

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## Highlights

- open access SARS-CoV-2 in sewage meta data base (137 datasets from nine countries)
- a tool to engage and inform discussions with public health practitioners
- continued use can enable analysis of catchment variables on wastewater surveillance
- commencing early in the pandemic provides an opportunity to inform best practice

Table 1. Overview of parameters recorded and their role in facilitating data analysis, interpretation and comparison

| Type of data                        | Parameters   | Role in data interpretation   |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Sampler information                 | Name, contact details  | Auditability  |
| Sampling site                       | WWTP name and country; longitude/latitude; altitude (m)  | Identify sewer shed location; consider climatic influences  |
|                                     | Design capacity (PE); population served (PE); catchment size (m <sup>2</sup> )   | Consider drainage network size and WWTP loads/dynamics; calculate population density and population-normalised virus loads  |
| SARS-CoV-2 clinical prevalence data | No. of people SARS-CoV-2 positive on sampling date   | Relationship between viral load and clinical cases on day of sampling   |
|                                     | No. of people recovered from SARS-CoV-2 on sampling date   | Relationship between viral load and all clinical cases to-date  |
|                                     | No. of people SARS-CoV-2 positive 2 weeks prior to sampling date   | Longitudinal trends in clinical case numbers; consider shedding from active cases versus post-infection shedding  |
|                                     | No. of people recovered from SARS-CoV-2 2 weeks prior to sample date   |   |
| Sample matrix                       | Influent wastewater  | Confirmation of sample type   |
| Sampling date                       | Start and finish: hour; day; month; year   | Seasonality   |
| Sampling procedure                  | Composite (time- or flow-weighted with intervals reported) or grab sample  | Understanding of sampling errors/bias   |
| Inflow characteristics              | Flow (total m <sup>3</sup> ; minimum/maximum m <sup>3</sup> /h);   | Consider drainage network and WWTP dynamics; calculate mass loads   |
|                                     | COD [mg/L]; TSS [mg/L]; Total N / NH <sub>4</sub> -N [mg N/L]  | Consider effects of wastewater composition on RNA yield and occurrence of groundwater infiltration  |
|                                     | Rain (dry weather/number of days since last rain event)  | Occurrence of dilution due to rainfall  |
| Sample preparation                  | Date of analysis; storage temperature (°C)   | Potential for degradation of RNA  |
|                                     | Internal standard used (if so which)   | Process quality control / quality assurance   |
|                                     | Method used for sample preparation   | Potential differences in extraction efficiencies  |
|                                     | Volume of sample [mL]  | Understanding of RNA copies per a certain wastewater volume   |
|                                     | Number of replicates   | Quality control / quality assurance   |
| RNA extraction                      | Date of and method used for RNA extraction   | Quality control / quality assurance   |
|                                     | Genetic markers (N1, N2, N3 etc.)  | Differences in sensitivity using qPCR analysis  |
|                                     | Internal standard used (if so which)   | Quality control / quality assurance in understanding RNA extraction efficiency  |
|                                     | RNA [ $\mu$ L; ng / $\mu$ L]   | Quantitative identification of virus in wastewater  |
|                                     | Number of replicates   | Quality control / quality assurance   |
| Analytical method                   | Technique e.g. Conventional PCR / Real-time PCR / Illumina Myseq / Whole genome sequencing / LAMP-PCR / non-targeted analysis. | Quality control / quality assurance   |
|                                     | Limit of detection (number of copies/mL of sample)   | The lowest level of virus that can be determined as present   |
|                                     | Limit of quantification (number of copies/mL of sample)  | The lowest level of virus that can be quantified at a good confidence   |
|                                     | Uncertainty of the quantification (%RSD)   | Potential variations in qPCR measurement  |
|                                     | Extraction efficiency  | Understanding of performance of selected extraction methods   |
|                                     | Concentration of RNA in which analysis performed ( $\mu$ L; ng/ $\mu$ L)   | Quantitative information of virus measured in wastewater extracts   |
|                                     | Positive control used (if so which)  | Process quality control / quality assurance; indication of method performance   |
|                                     | Number of replicates   | Quality control / quality assurance   |
| RNA concentration / abundance       | Cycle threshold (Ct #)   | Quality control / quality assurance   |
|                                     | Gene copy [number/mL of sample or number/ng of RNA)  | Trend and spatial evaluations of virus levels within and across catchments. Calculations considering concentrations, wastewater flow and population served by a WWTP. |

Key: WWTP = wastewater treatment plant



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23 December 2020

Professor Stefan Wuertz  
Editor: Water Research Making Waves

Dear Professor Wuertz

Further to our email discussions, I would like to submit the accompanying manuscript entitled 'Making Waves: Collaboration in the time of SARS-CoV-2 - rapid development of an international co-operation and wastewater surveillance database to support public health decision-making' for consideration for publication as a Water Research Making Waves research communication.

As an inclusive, multi-national initiative, I have invited all those who contributed to developing the concept, database and submitted data to be a co-author. All co-authors have reviewed the manuscript and provided comments.

Please let me know if you require any further information.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Lian Lundy". The signature is written in a cursive style with a light blue rectangular background behind it.

Professor Lian Lundy  
Professor of Environmental Science

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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