

- **ABSTRACT**
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 Objectives To assess the performance of newly developed polymerase chain reaction (PCR) primers to detect severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) RNA, using gel electrophoresis and sequencing. Our results were compared against those obtained with the primers 47 developed by Charité Berlin and ones commercially available in the Applex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay.

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- **Design** Evaluation study
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 Setting This evaluation study was conducted at the Erasmus MC an academic hospital in the southwest of the Netherlands. Samples were obtained from a Medical Diagnostic Center also stationed in the South-West of the Netherlands that offers routine microbiology diagnostics (e.g., serology, molecular testing, bacterial cultures) for approximately 1,500 primary health care facilities. The primer sequences were designed by BioCoS, a biotechnology company providing bioinformatics services for biomarker discovery and primer design.

 Participants 150 symptomatic patients suspicious for a SARS-CoV-2 infection who presented themselves at a general practitioner or at a geriatric specialist were included.

 Main outcome measures Presence or absence of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in oro-nasopharyngeal swabs as detected by RT-(q)PCR, gel electrophoresis and sequencing of the PCR amplicons after which the positive predicted value (PPV), negative predicted value (NPV), positive percentage agreement (PPA) and negative percentage agreement (NPA) of each primerset was determined.

 Results Gel electrophoresis of RT-(q)PCR amplicons and sequencing methods demonstrated that the newly discovered and designed triplet STAMINA primersets by BioCoS in the ORF1ab (PPV,100%; NPV, 80%), E- (PPV 100%; NPV 73.85%) and N-gene (PPV 100%; NPV 60%) harbored an increased PPA compared to the triplet Charité Berlin primersets designed in the RdRp- (PPV 100%; NPV 67.61%), 70 E- (PPV 100%; NPV 71.64%) and N-gene (PPV 96.97%; NPV 39.17%), by using the Allplex[™] SARS- CoV-2 assay as a criterion standard. Moreover, calculating the PPA by using our own constructed composite reference as a standard confirmed that the STAMINA primersets outperformed the Charité Berlin primersets, which came with a trade-off in NPA. Sequencing of the RT-(q)PCR amplicons revealed the presence of aspecific products e.g., Homo sapiens, bacteria and viruses other than SARS- CoV-2, but excluded the presence of related coronaviruses in the amplicons generated with the STAMINA primersets.

 Conclusion This evaluation study reveals that reliable detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA using RT-(q)PCR critically depends on primer design and PCR test parameters. Moreover, our work shows that the newly developed primers, despite outperforming the ones designed by Charité Berlin in PPA, are still 81 suboptimal to detect SARS-CoV-2 RNA.

INTRODUCTION

 The emergence of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) and the associated pandemic has dramatically affected human health, society and economics worldwide [1–4]. SARS-CoV- 2 is a single-stranded, positive-sense RNA virus, which is closely related to the beta-coronavirus-2B lineage of the *Coronavirinae* subfamily [5]. In early 2020, it was shown that the SARS-CoV-2 genome encodes for the coronavirus-typical essential nucleocapsid (N), membrane (M), spike (S), envelope (E) proteins and expresses 16 additional non-structural proteins, including a RNA-dependent RNA- polymerase (RdRp) gene [5–8]. During the early stages of the pandemic, the reverse transcription- (quantitative) PCR (RT-(q)PCR) method, designed by Charité Berlin [9], quickly provided support to monitor the pandemic and was advised to be used as a reference test for the detection of SARS-CoV- 2 RNA [10]. The RT-(q)PCR assay was selected as a result of achieved performances during previous coronavirus outbreaks, because other techniques like antibody-based detection still required optimization for SARS-CoV-2 identification [11]. The RT-(q)PCR assay is based on the detection of the RdRp-, E- and N-genes as present in SARS-CoV-2 [9], which was introduced into the market in a relative 96 short-time window after whole-genome sequencing data became available on Jan 5th 2020 [12]. A challenge to the development of this detection test was the lack of patient samples at that time. So the designed primersets were validated on a set of synthetic sequences only, which subsequently turned into a limitation [9,11,13]. Despite this, the nucleic acid detection test offered valuable support in monitoring the spread of SARS-CoV-2 during the early stages of the pandemic. Logically, as time progressed, data and new knowledge accumulated inevitably, revealing that the protocol by the World Health Organization had space for improvements [10,14]. The main concerns related to lower sensitivity and specificity levels as seen with other developed methods [11,13,15,16] was in part driven by the genomic nature of SARS-CoV-2, in terms of sequence variations and mutations that affected the test results [16-19]. The observation that a specific mutation reduced the performance of the WHO recommended assay underlines also the necessity to further validate the SARS-CoV-2 positive test results using sequencing methods on the generated PCR amplicons [18]. This type of validation is fundamental to keep improving the nucleic acid detection methods, since among other factors that affect pandemic management, also the test accuracy has its important role to prevent misjudgment of an outbreak situation [14]. Indeed, a high number of false positives may force decision makers to apply unnecessarily measures and regulations [19,20]. For obvious reasons, high number of false negative results (undetected infected subjects) also interfere with an appropriate response of decision makers [20,21], which led to important remarks that need to be considered to improve such nucleic acid detection tests [14,19,22–28]. Moreover, the more reliable a detection test is, the better the development of treatment options can be validated to tackle later stages of a pandemic [29–37].

 The development of nucleic acid detection tests was also part of STAMINA (ID: 883441), an EU funded project focused on management and intelligent decision support to tackle a pandemic crisis within and across European borders. In this paper, we present data on the first of the two nucleic acid detection tests on SARS-CoV-2 developed in STAMINA. The herein test involves the validation of three novel primersets discovered and designed in the ORF1ab-, E- and N-gene.

- The obtained results were evaluated against primersets designed in the RdRp-, E- and N-gene to detect
- 123 SARS-CoV-2 RNA by Charité Berlin or as available in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay [9,38,39]. Moreover, gel electrophoresis and sequencing methods were applied to increase the resolution of
- detection of the generated PCR amplicons.
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METHODS

Study population

 A Medical Diagnostic Center that provides laboratory services in the South-West of the Netherlands was involved, which performs for approximately 1,500 primary health care facilities diagnostic services (e.g., serology, molecular testing, bacterial cultures). During the pandemic, patients presenting at a general practitioner or geriatric medicine specialist with signs and symptoms suspicious for a SARS-CoV-2 infection, were sampled from both the oral and nasal cavity, subsequently using a single oro- nasopharyngeal swab (Aptima® Multitest Swab Transport Media, Hologic Inc., Marlborough, MA, USA). The Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay (Seegene Inc., Seoul, Republic of Korea) was used, since it was thoroughly validated [38,39]. Oro-nasopharyngeal samples were stored at –20°C until assayed.

Sample collection

 Oro-nasopharyngeal samples (*n* = 150), in Aptima® Multitest Swab Transport Media, were collected based on results obtained from the three genes (RdRp-, E, and N-gene) targeted in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay and several patients' characteristics (e.g., gender, age and the day of sample collection).

- SARS-CoV-2 was detected in 102 and remained undetected in 48 samples, respectively. In addition,
- data on cycle threshold (Ct)-values for each of the three genes were collected (**Table 1**) and on average,
- a Ct-value ≥ 35 was considered as negative. A SARS-CoV-2 reference sample (inactivated) with known
- viral load was kindly provided by the Virology department of Erasmus University Medical Center
- Rotterdam, Netherlands.
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Nucleic acid extraction

 First, nucleic acids were extracted on the MagNA Pure 96 Instrument (Roche, Almere, Netherlands) using the "Viral NA Plasma ext Lys SV 4.0 protocol'' from the ''MagNA Pure 96 DNA and Viral NA Small

- Volume kit'' (Roche). 450 μl of each sample was processed to obtain an elution volume of 50 μl,
- 153 whereafter the nucleic acid samples were stored at -20 $\mathrm{^0C}$.
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SARS‑**CoV**‑**2 RNA detection using reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)**

The SensiFast Probe No-ROX One-step kit (Meridian Bioscience®, Boxtel, Netherlands) was executed

- using six different sets of primer pairs (**Table 2**). The RT-PCR forward and reverse primersets designed
- by the STAMINA partner BioCoS in the ORF1ab, N- and E-gene from now on referred to as the
- STAMINA primers and the Charité Berlin SARS-CoV-2 forward and reverse primersets designed by
- Corman *et al*., [9] in the RdRp-, N- and E-gene were used (**Table 2**). Briefly, the reaction mixture of the
- 161 STAMINA or the Charité Berlin primersets contained 1x SensiFAST™ Probe No-ROX One-Step mix

 (Meridian Bioscience®), 0.4 µM forward and reverse primer, 0.4 µl Ribosafe RNase inhibitor (Meridian Bioscience®), 0.2 µl reverse transcriptase (Meridian Bioscience®) and 5 µl extracted nucleic acids in a 164 final volume of 20 µl. The RT-PCR program used included ten minutes of reverse transcription at 45 $^{\circ}$ C, 165 two minutes of polymerase activation at 95 $\mathrm{^0C}$, 45 cycles of five seconds of denaturation at 95 $\mathrm{^0C}$ 166 together with 30 seconds of annealing/extension at 60 \degree C and a final step of 30 seconds of cooling at 167 -40° C. For the Charité Berlin N-gene primerset, the same reaction mixture was used with a concentration 168 of 0.6 µM forward primer and 0.8 µM reverse primer as stated in their protocol [9]. The RT-PCR program 169 used included ten minutes of reverse transcription at 45 $^{\circ}$ C, three minutes of polymerase activation at 170 95 \degree C, 45 cycles of 15 seconds of denaturation at 95 \degree C together with 30 seconds of annealing/extension 171 at 55 \degree C and a final step of 30 seconds of cooling at 40 \degree C. The human RNase P gene used as an internal control was detected by PCR using 1x Dreamtaq Green buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific (TFS), 173 Breda, Netherlands)), 1.0 µM forward and reverse primer, 0.2 mM dNTP (TFS), 1.25 U DreamTaq DNA polymerase (TFS) and 2 µl extracted nucleic acids with a final volume of 50 µl. The PCR program used 175 included five minutes of initial denaturation, 35 cycles of 40 seconds of denaturation at 95 °C together 176 with 40 seconds of annealing/extension at 57 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ and one minute of extension at 72 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ and a final step 177 of 30 seconds of cooling at 40 \degree C. All PCR reactions were executed using the Veriti 96 Well Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems, Nieuwerkerk aan den IJssel, Netherlands) and all amplified products were analysed by gel electrophoresis and sequencing.

Limit of detection

 To investigate the limit of detection (LOD) of the STAMINA and the Charité Berlin primersets, the SensiFast Probe No-ROX One-step kit was executed according to the 45 cycles RT-PCR SARS‑CoV‑2 RNA detection protocol, testing serial reference sample dilutions.

Agarose gel analysis

 The 2.5% agarose gels were prepared using agarose (SphaeroQ, Gorinchem, Netherlands), 1x TBE Electrophoresis buffer (TFS) and SYBR safe (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA). Agarose gels were run using 189 a Bio-Rad SUB-CELL[®] GT tank and Bio-Rad Power Pac 300 in 1x TBE Electrophoresis buffer. The gels were analysed using an Isogen Life sciences Proxima 16 Phi+ gel reader. GeneRuler 100 bp plus DNA ladders (TFS) and samples were prepared using a 6x Orange DNA loading dye (Fermentas, Vilnius, Lithuania). The agarose gels were run at 60 mA.

Sequence analysis

 All in-house generated RT-(q)PCR products were sequenced by BaseClear (Leiden, Netherlands). The identity of the sequences was analysed via the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool for Nucleotides (BLASTN) from the National Center of Biotechnological Information (NCBI) [40]. The produced results from BLASTN were reported as: 'Confirmed', 'No significant result' and 'To repeat'. Based on the outcomes of the sequencing analyses, a final overall conclusion considering the identity of each individual primerset and all primersets combined was formulated. In total, a set of two sequencing runs were performed. During the first sequencing analysis all 102 positive samples and a selection of negative samples that generated positive results were sequenced. A second sequencing run was executed to validate the positive and negative reported samples that produced a weak signal during the first run using a low primer concentration.

Ethical approval

 This study involving participants' residual materials was conducted in accordance with the 1964 Helsinki 208 declaration. Anonymous data corresponding to Allplex[™] SARS-CoV-2 assay run 1 and 2 were courtesy received from a medical diagnostic center that provides laboratory services in the South-West of the Netherlands, in support to the EU project STAMINA. Separate approval by an ethics review committee was therefore not required.

RESULTS

Limit of detection

 To assess the limit of detection (LOD) of the STAMINA and Charité Berlin primersets, we generated serial dilutions of a reference sample known to contain 8.56E06 infectious units of SARS-CoV-2 per microliter. Both the RdRp- and the ORF1ab-gene had a LOD of 85 infectious units per microliter (**Supplementary Figure 1A**). The LOD for the E-gene using STAMINA primerset was 8,560, while for the Charité Berlin primerset this number was 856 infectious units of SARS-CoV-2 per microliter, respectively (**Supplementary Figure 1B**). For the N-gene, both primersets revealed a LOD of 8,560 infectious units of SARS-CoV-2 per microliter (**Supplementary Figure 1C**).

The Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay and agarose banding pattern analyses

 Oro-pharyngeal samples (*n* = 150) were analysed using the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay and agarose gel electrophoresis (**Table 1**). In the first Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay run, hundred patient samples 227 were found to be positive and 50 were found to be negative for the genetic material of SARS-CoV-2, as measured by the presence of the RdRp/S-, E- and N-gene in a RT-(q)PCR setting (**Table 1**). In the second Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay run, a discrepancy was detected for three negative samples (sample 101, 107 and 127). In addition, multiple negative samples (*n* = 13) identified in the first Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay run were found to give a signal for one or more SARS-CoV-2 genes in the second Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay run, which were not detected in the first run (**Table 1**). We used gel electrophoresis to visualize the RT-(q)PCR products banding patterning of all and these dubious negative samples (**Fig 1A**), one of them (sample 103) revealed amplicons resembling a RT-(q)PCR product generated from the RdRp/S-, E- and N- and an internal control gene. For two other samples (sample 101 and 127) we first obtained negative data on their Ct-values in the first Allplex™ SARS- CoV-2 assay run, which was later on corrected (**Table 1**). Moreover, sample 103 had Ct-values around 37 and was actually counted as negative earlier (**Table 1**). All the positive samples identified in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay, including the two samples (101 and 127) (*n* = 102) were run on an agarose gel revealing positive banding patterns of RT-(q)PCR products obtained from the RdRp/S-, N-

, E- and internal control gene (**Fig 1B**).

RT-PCR and agarose banding pattern analyses

 We then analyzed the performance of the STAMINA primers designed in the ORF1ab, E- and N-gene by agarose banding pattern analysis using gel electrophoresis (**Fig 2A-C**). The ORF1ab primerset (167 bp amplicon) resulted in 12 negative PCR samples, whereas the E-gene primerset (181 bp amplicon) revealed 17 and the N-gene primerset (193 bp amplicon) revealed 32 negative PCR samples out of the 102 that were found to be positive in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay, which we used as our criterion standard(**Table 1**), see American Medical Association manual of style for additional info on this standard [41]. Hereafter, we analyzed the primer performance of the primers (RdRp-, E- and N-gene) as mentioned in the Charité Berlin protocol by agarose banding pattern analysis (**Fig 3A-C**). The RdRp- gene primerset (100 bp amplicon) resulted in 23 negative PCR samples, whereas the E-gene (113 bp amplicon) and the N-gene (128 bp amplicon) primersets revealed 19 and 73 negative PCR samples, respectively, out of the 102 that were found to be positive in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay (**Table 1**). In contrast, the N-gene primerset revealed one positive PCR sample out of the 48 that were found to be negative in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay (**Table 1**).

 The Ct-value cut-off is important to eliminate false positives and negatives from true positives and negatives with respect to the ability to identify infectious persons and therefore we made advantage of available literature in which such cut-off values were established [42,43]. We therefore reanalysed our STAMINA and Charité Berlin primer results against the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay data with Ct- values at different cut-offs at 25 and 20 cycles (**Table 1**). At a Ct-value ≤ 25 the number of false positives for the STAMINA primers were for the ORF1ab-, E- and N-gene 23, 18 and 5, respectively, whereas the number of false negatives was 0, 0 and 2. For the Charité Berlin primers the number of false positives were for the RdRp-, E- and N-gene 14, 16 and 4 respectively, whereas the number of false negatives was 2, 0 and 41, respectively. At a Ct-value ≤ 20 the number of false positives for the STAMINA primers rose for the ORF1ab-, E- and N-gene to 49, 44 and 29, respectively, whereas the number of false negatives was zero for all three genes. The number of false positives for the Charité Berlin primers rose for the RdRp-, E- and N-gene to 38, 42 and 8, respectively, whereas the number of false negatives was 268 0, 0 and 19. Our data thus reveals that by lowering the Ct-value cut-off and using the Allplex[™] SARS- CoV-2 assay as a criterion standard, there is a trade-off for the six primer pairs (STAMINA and Charité Berlin) in the number of false negatives and false positives.

RT-PCR amplicon sequencing

 We then analyzed the RT-PCR generated amplicons for each of the used primerset (ORF1ab-, RdRp-, E- and N-gene) by sequencing. After two sequencing runs out of the 102 samples that were found to be positive in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay, the STAMINA primersets resulted in three SARS-CoV-2 negative RT-PCR samples for the ORF1ab gene obtained amplicons, whereas for the E-gene and N- gene obtained RT-PCR amplicons, the number of samples negative for genetic material of SARS-CoV- 2 was 8 and 22, respectively (**Supplementary data 1-3**). For the Charité Berlin related RdRp-gene primerset, out of the 102 samples that were found to be positive in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay, the number of negative amplicons for SARS-CoV-2 obtained after RT-PCR and sequencing was 29, whereas the number of SARS-CoV-2 negative RT-PCR amplicons for the E- and N-gene amplicons was 23 and 52, respectively (**Supplementary data 4-6**). From our sequencing results it thus becomes clear, that by taking care in primer design, the accuracy in detection of the genetic material of SARS-CoV-2 can be improved, e.g., by reducing potential false positive hits initiated by primer cross-reactivity. By not doing so, as can be seen in the results obtained after sequencing of the Charité Berlin amplicons, there will be an increase in the detection of genetic material of species other than SARS-CoV-2, ranging from Hepatitis and Rotaviruses, to *Solobacterium* spp., *Rothia mucilaginosa* to Homo sapiens, amongst others (**Supplementary data 4-6**). Furthermore, the STAMINA primersets for ORF1ab-, E- and N-gene generated amplicons in two samples that were corrected (sample 101 and 127). These amplicons (*n* = 6) were sequenced and found all to be positive for SARS-CoV-2 (**Supplementary data 1-3**), confirming that the correction of the error found in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay run 1 dataset was valid. The Charité Berlin primersets (RdRp-, E- and N-gene) also generated for each SARS-CoV-2 gene RT-PCR amplicons in three samples, the two corrected samples (101 and 127) and a negative sample, number 102. The RT-PCR related amplicons (*n* = 9) were all sequenced and five of these amplicons (101 and 127) revealed to be positive for a SARS-CoV-2 gene (**Supplementary data 4-6**). Number six, the N- gene amplicon of sample number 127 provided unexpectedly a signal for Homo sapiens genomic DNA (**Supplementary data 6**).

 We then constructed a composite reference standard [44] by combining the results of the STAMINA and Charité Berlin tests (both with their limitations) and found when compared to the test results obtained earlier that eight of the 102 samples (36, 45, 52, 82, 83, 101, 127 and 143) shown to be positive and one of the 48 samples (number 103) found to be negative in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV- 2 assay criterion standard were dubious (**Table 1 & 4**). Subsequently, these results made us reanalyse these samples again by sequencing. Noteworthy, the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay harbors primersets that enabled the detection of the RdRp/S-, E- and N-gene with primer sequences that were unknown to us, complicating the sequencing process at the start of this analyses. To overcome this problem we tried using the Charité Berlin primersets for the RdRp-, E- and N-gene on all nine RT-(q)PCR amplicons obtained in the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay and to our surprise successfully discovered that eight out of nine generated a positive agarose banding result for the RdRp- and E-gene, respectively, whereas the N-gene generated only three aspecific PCR products (**Supplementary Figure 2A-C**). After tackling this problem all nine samples were found to be positive for the E-gene, surprisingly also the PCR negative sample 143 (**Table 4**)**.** This indicates that sequencing of the PCR amplicons can increase the sensitivity of detection, but also revealed that for these nine dubious samples only the SARS-CoV-2 E-gene was detected in all the PCR amplified samples (**Supplementary Figure 2A-C & Table 4**).

Positive and negative percentage agreement analysis

 We then calculated the positive (PPA) and negative (NPA) percentage agreement for each primerset 317 tested and used the Allplex[™] SARS-CoV-2 assay as a criterion standard or our own constructed composite standard as a reference (**Table 1**). PPA and NPA nomenclature were preferred in use instead of sensitivity and specificity, since the SARS-CoV-2 reference test was brought to the market with an emergency use authorization [9,45,46]. The composite standard was used to control whether the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay was truly positive for SARS-CoV-2 RNA or not. Firstly, by using the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay with a Ct-value 35 cut-off, we calculated the positive (PPV) and negative (NPV) predicted value and the PPA and NPA for the STAMINA and Charité Berlin primersets (**Table 3A**). We found that the performance of the STAMINA primersets in eliminating false negatives was increased compared to the Charité Berlin primersets (**Table 3A**). We then calculated the PPV, NPV and PPA and NPA of the RT-PCR tests (STAMINA and Charité Berlin) for each primerset validated, using our own constructed composite reference as a standard (**Table 1**). This calculation confirmed that the STAMINA primersets outperformed the Charité Berlin primersets in PPA (**Table 3B**). By using the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay as the criterion standard with a Ct-value 25 cut-off, we found that the STAMINA primersets still outperformed the Charité Berlin primers in PPA, which came with a trade-off in NPA. The number of false positives obtained with the STAMINA primersets was increased compared to the Charité Berlin primers (**Table 3A**), which was further established by using the Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay as the criterion standard with a Ct-value 20 cut-off (**Table 3A**), respectively.

DISCUSSION

 In the present work we assessed the performance of new PCR primers discovered and designed in the STAMINA project against primers developed by Charité Berlin and ones commercially available 338 (Applex[™] assay) to detect the genetic material of SARS-CoV-2. Gel electrophoresis and sequencing methods were applied to increase the resolution of detection of the generated PCR amplicons. When the commercial ApplexTM assay was used as a criterion standard, we found that the STAMINA primersets harbored an increased PPA to detect the RNA of SARS-CoV-2 in symptomatic patients. Results that we could confirm by establishing our own constructed composite reference standard. Indeed, specifically the N-gene primerset was improved in performance by increasing the PPA from 28% as observed for the Charité Berlin primerset to a 100% for the STAMINA primerset, depending on the condition validated. There against, the increase in PPA was accompanied with a trade-off in NPA in which the STAMINA primers were less well performing compared to the Charité Berlin primers. On the other hand, our sequencing data did reveal that the STAMINA primers were more specific in detecting SARS-CoV-2 RNA, whereas the Charité Berlin PCR amplicons were more often associated with a- specific products. Indeed, we identified hits with species other than SARS-CoV-2, ranging from Hepatitis and Rotaviruses, to *Solobacterium* spp., *Rothia mucilaginosa* to Homo sapiens, amongst others, but we also excluded the presence of coronaviruses other than SARS-CoV-2 in the amplicons generated with the STAMINA primersets. Increasing the PPA of the SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR test is important, because in a situation where a virus spreads in the community, it is mandatory, specifically from a track and trace situation or clinic point of view, not to miss real potential positive (infectious) cases. Our evaluation study thus demonstrated that in symptomatic patients suspicious for a SARS-CoV-2 infection, the STAMINA RT-PCR test protocol harbors an increased PPA, indicating that genetic material of this pathogen will be less often missed compared to the Charité Berlin protocol. Unfortunately, the NPA of both tests still exhibits problems, which became obvious when we reduced the Ct-value cut-off, to correct for infectious persons only [42,43]. Overall, our data shows that the RT-(q)PCR tests used in this work are still suboptimal in detecting SARS-CoV-2 RNA. However, we do demonstrate that by optimizing primer design and increasing the resolution of detection, the performance of the RT-(q)PCR test can be substantially improved to trace back the genetic material of SARS-CoV-2, particularly by substantially reducing false negatives.

 After the WHO recommended the usage of the Charité Berlin RT-(q)PCR protocol at the beginning of the pandemic, many colleagues in the field started to consider this protocol as a 'gold- standard' to detect SARS-CoV-2 RNA [47], whereas Corman *et al*., nor the WHO explicitly mentioned to treat this protocol as a gold standard in their documents [9,10]. Based on findings by us and others [14,19,22–28], it is clear that the Charité Berlin protocol required improvement despite having a crucial role at the start of the pandemic. On the other hand this protocol is acceptable as a criterion standard, a test for a particular disease or condition that can be used as a basis of comparison for new tests to further optimize the technology, as described in the American Medical Association manual of style [41].

 In the EU funded STAMINA project, we aimed to develop tools that facilitate intelligent and evidence-based decision support to assist end-users and optimize pandemic management by decision makers. The current pandemic crisis revealed that while this project was executed many problems and gaps were identified in tackling a viral outbreak in a coordinated manner. Indeed, care is required in all processes involved in tackling a pandemic crisis from which lessons needs to be learned [48], because in the end they will influence healthcare, policy and decision making accordingly [49].

Strengths and limitations of this study

 A clear strength of our study is that we cross-validated the performance of the new primersets designed by BioCoS in the ORF1ab-, E- and N-gene, on their ability to detect the genetic material of SARS-CoV- 2 in symptomatic patients with the Charité Berlin primers designed in the RdRp-, E- and N-gene, and 383 the commercially available Allplex[™] assay primersets. The oro-nasopharynx swab samples obtained from symptomatic patients were put in Aptima transport media that enabled the inactivation, but also the preservation of the genetic material of SARS-CoV-2, to guarantee the quality of the samples for longer periods of storage. Furthermore, after RT-(q)PCR amplification we increased the resolution of detection by performing combined gel electrophoresis and sequencing of the PCR amplicons, our main parameters tested in this study. The short fragments of some of the PCR amplicons might have affected the reliability of the sequencing results [50], although a second run was added, next to forward and reverse sequencing of the PCR amplicons to validate the findings. Another limitation that might have influenced our study outcome is that, although the PCR amplicons were all small sized < 200 bp, those obtained with the Charité Berlin protocol were at least 50 bp smaller when compared to the PCR amplicons obtained with the primers generated by BioCoS, which might have affected our sequencing results as well. Finally, different standards were used, one based on the commercially available AllplexTM SARS-CoV-2 assay and one based on or our own constructed composite reference standard. In this way, we obtained insight in the performance of our newly developed primersets during the STAMINA project, the WHO recommended RT-(q)PCR protocol as developed by Charité Berlin [10] and the ones commercially available as provided with Allplex™ SARS-CoV-2 assay. Moreover, the adaptation of the Ct-value cut-off helped us to study the effect on viral infectiousness [42,43], revealing that there is a trade-off in PPA and NPA. There against the main limitation of this study is the lack of an *in vitro* assay, to control for the presence of infectious virus particles in the patient samples, and its correspondence to

- the Ct-value cut-off. In this respect, existing literature to this topic was of support [42,43], with a recent
- study even showing prolonged time of positive RT-PCR results in comparison to a negative viral culture
- already at Ct-values < 36 [51]. Moreover, the performance and interpretation of the assays also depends
	- on disease status of the patients, which was not available to us, except that they were suspicious for a
- SARS-CoV-2 infection. Finally, our results and findings are limited to the 150 samples tested, therefore
- follow up work with more samples and a broader variety of commercial test kits will be of importance to
- establish our findings by gel electrophoresis and sequencing.
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Comparisons with other studies

- Our findings are in agreement with a multitude of studies questioning the reliability of the WHO recommended protocol overtime [11,13–16], and with a series of studies showing that the Charité Berlin primers were not optimal [19–28,52]. Of note, it is important to clarify that our work does not aim to criticize the work performed by Charité Berlin, where the primers design and the test were developed in an emergency state and without any prior genomic knowledge of SARS-CoV-2 as well as the lack of patient samples. Our findings were solely compared to the above test, due to the availability of data and results from other studies. Indeed, in our work we noticed that by adapting the Ct-values the number of false positives and false negatives became altered, a finding reported and discussed before in relation to infectivity and the Charité Berlin protocol [42,43,51,53–55]. This narrative indicates there is still space for an optimized and validated diagnostic nucleic acid detection test [14]. However, we cannot completely exclude that among the several diagnostic tests developed during the pandemic, such issues have already been taken into consideration. This is why more research studies evaluating (non-) commercial tests are fundamental to keep improving the scientific knowledge that will serve to empower the monitoring of SARS-CoV-2 or any other emerging pathogen.
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Health care and policy implications

 During the STAMINA project (ID: 883441), although submitted and funded before the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, our team from Erasmus MC and BioCoS became by coincidence involved in a real-time unfolding pandemic. Part of this project was focused to develop, validate and apply point of care tests to anticipate on potential pandemic threats and to plan daily efforts to enhance health security of the European citizens. However, the unfolding pandemic also provided a unique opportunity to critically analyze the suitability of molecular tests implemented under an emergency state. Summarized, our results point towards the need of a thorough cross-validation of different tests, but also a continuous improvement of diagnostic laboratory assays as the virus continuously evolves. Indeed, the more accurate a test applied on a global scale the better the healthcare response, and the management of a pandemic will become, even if the latter is a multidimensional process. A suboptimal diagnostic test can both over- and under-interpret the severity of a pandemic [21,56], and moreover, can affect (mislead) the validation process of medical treatment options [23–30], that will be desperately sought to control or even eliminate a pandemic causing pathogen. In that respect, our work adds additional insights and knowledge to enhance the accuracy in pandemic monitoring, an important factor in supporting health-care system and decision-making processes in which communication based on solid data is mandatory.

Conclusion

 This evaluation study reveals that reliable detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA using RT-(q)PCR critically depends on primer design and PCR test parameters. Moreover, we found that the STAMINA primers outperform the ones as designed by Charité Berlin in PPA, but are still suboptimal to detect SARS-CoV-2 RNA.

What is already known on this topic

 A substantial number of publications reported on the shortcomings of the RT-(q)PCR laboratory assay implemented at the start of the pandemic to detect SARS-CoV-2 RNA, revealing certain risks in using nucleic acid detection test in interpreting the severity of an outbreak. Moreover, the RT-(q)PCR test implemented at the start of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic played a crucial role in healthcare, economics, policy and decision making and in the clinical validation of different treatment options targeting SARS-CoV-2.

What this study adds

 This work reveals the importance of wet lab data on how to increase the resolution of detection by gel electrophoresis and sequencing analysis of the generated RT-PCR amplicons obtained of tested suspects suspicious for a SARS-CoV-2 infection. Furthermore, our new primersets show that the detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA can be improved, but also reveals that all the RT-PCR tests analyzed in this work remain suboptimal. The more the SARS-CoV-2 RT-(q)PCR tests are optimized the more sophisticated the accuracy of monitoring a pandemic will become. Indeed, solid laboratory assays will not only help us to understand how pathogens are spreading, but will also minimize collateral effects that may appear in the short and long run, affecting healthcare, economies, and most importantly societies [49]. As a final note we would like to suggest that future studies should specifically focus on technological developments that act faster and better and search for infectious viral particles only, so 467 that future pandemics or outbreaks can be monitored more precise.

Funding

- The team of Erasmus MC and BioCoS are funded by the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and
- innovation program under grant agreement no. 883441, project STAMINA (Demonstration of intelligent
- decision support for pandemic crisis prediction and management within and across European borders).
- The team of Erasmus MC is also funded by the Chiron Foundation and obtained a PPP Allowance made
- available by Health~Holland, Top Sector Life Sciences & Health, to stimulate public-private partnerships
- LSH-TKI foundation grant LSHM18006.
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Acknowledgements

- We like to thank Prof. Dr. Klaus Steger for critically reading the manuscript.
-

Competing interest

 Erasmus MC and BioCoS, have signed a joint ownership agreement related to SARS-CoV-2 detection methods. All other authors declare no competing interest.

Author contributions

 RL Study management, Experimental design, result interpretation, manuscript writing, editing and reviewing; **SV** Experimental design, primer validation, execution, result interpretation, manuscript reviewing and editing; **IL** bioinformatic analysis, biomarker discovery, primer design, manuscript reviewing; **PB** Experimental design, result interpretation, manuscript writing, editing and reviewing; **AMD** primer design, manuscript editing and reviewing and **SA** Bioinformatic analysis, primer design, manuscript editing and reviewing

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Fig 1 SARS-CoV-2 AllplexTM assay and agarose banding pattern analyses.

Examples of (**A**) negative and **(B)** positive AllplexTM assay samplesare shown**.** The presence or absence

of the RdRp/S-, E-, N- and control gene is visualised (white arrow) using gel electrophoresis. (M) 100

base pairs Plus DNA size marker; (pos) positive control sample; (neg) negative control sample; (NTC)

no template control sample; (number) patient sample numbers.

Fig 2 SARS-CoV-2 STAMINA RT-PCR agarose banding pattern analyses.

 Examples of (**A**) ORF1ab, (**B**) E-gene and (**C**) N-gene RT-PCR agarose banding pattern results are shown**.** The presence or absence of the ORF1ab-, E-, and N-gene is visualised (white arrow) using gel electrophoresis. (M) 100 base pairs Plus DNA size marker; (pos) positive control sample; (neg) negative control sample; (NTC) no template control sample; (number) patient sample numbers.

Fig 3 SARS-CoV-2 Charité Berlin RT-PCR agarose banding pattern analyses.

 Examples of (**A**) RdRp-, (**B**) E-gene and (**C**) N-gene RT-PCR agarose banding pattern results are shown**.** The presence or absence of the RdRp-, E-, and N-gene is visualised (white arrow) using gel electrophoresis. (M) 100 base pairs Plus DNA size marker; (pos) positive control sample; (neg) negative control sample; (NTC) no template control sample; (number) patient sample numbers.

 reference sample SARS-CoV-2 Delta 8.56 IU/uL; (8) reference sample SARS-CoV-2 Delta 0.856 IU/uL; (NTC) no template control sample.

Supplementary Figure 2 SARS-CoV-2 PCR on nine dubious AllplexTM assay samples. PCR result of the (**A**) RdRp-, (**B**) E-gene and (**C**) N-gene on the AllplexTM assay obtained RT-qPCR amplicons are shown**.** The presence or absence of the RdRp-, E-, and N-gene is visualised (white arrow) using gel electrophoresis. (M) 100 base pairs Plus DNA size marker; (pos) positive control sample; (neg) negative control sample; (NTC) no template control sample; (number) patient sample numbers that were found to be dubious.

Tables

Table 1: Analyses of 150 symptomatic patients suspicious for a SARS-CoV-2 infection using RT-(q)PCR and sequencing

715 **Table 2: SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR primers** 715
 716

717 **A. Charité Berlin**

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Table 3: Comparison of the STAMINA and Charité Berlin primersets using the AllplexTM 722 **assay as a criterion standard**

A. Results based on the Allplex[™] assay

727 728 730

729 **B. Results based on our composite reference standard**

731 732

733 **a** PPA: positive percentage agreement; ^bNPA: negative percentage agreement

^cPPV: positive predictive value**;** 734 **^d**NPV: negative predictive value

Table 4: RT-qPCR, RT-PCR, banding patterning and sequencing analysis results of nine dubious AllplexTM 737 **assay samples**

Supplementary Data 1: Sequencing analyses of 150 STAMINA SARS-CoV-2 ORF1ab-gene RT-PCR samples

Supplementary Data 2: Sequencing analyses of 150 STAMINA SARS-CoV-2 E-gene RT-PCR samples

Supplementary Data 3: Sequencing analyses of 150 STAMINA SARS-CoV-2 N-gene RT-PCR samples

Supplementary Data 4: Sequencing analyses of 150 Charité Berlin SARS-CoV-2 RdRp-gene RT-PCR samples

758 **Supplementary Data 5: Sequencing analyses of 150 Charité Berlin SARS-CoV-2 E-gene RT-PCR samples**

762 **Supplementary Data 6: Sequencing analyses of 150 Charité Berlin SARS-CoV-2 N-gene RT-PCR samples** 763

Sample number First run Highly similar First run Somewhat similar Second run Highly similar Second run Somewhat similar *1* Homo sapiens Homo sapiens *2* Confirmed *3* No significant similarity found

Confirmed *4* Confirmed *5* No significant similarity found *6* Confirmed *7* No significant similarity found *8* No significant similarity found Homo sapiens *9* Homo sapiens ¹⁰ Confirmed Confirm $\begin{array}{c|c} 11 \\ 12 \end{array}$ Confirmed ¹² Rothia mucilaginosa **Confirmed** Confirmed Rothia mucilaginosa Rothia mucilaginosa $\begin{array}{c|c} \n^{13} & \text{No significant similarity found} \\
\hline\n\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c|c} \n^{14} & \text{Confirmed} \\
\hline\n15 & 7 & \n\end{array}$ *¹⁵* Confirmed 16 Rothia mucilaginosa
17 Rothia mucilaginosa $\begin{array}{c} \n 17 \\
 18\n \end{array}$ Confirmed ¹⁸ Confirmed Confirm ¹⁹ Confirmed $\begin{array}{c|c} 20 \\ 21 \end{array}$ Confirmed $\begin{array}{c|c} 21 \\ 22 \end{array}$ Confirmed $\begin{array}{c|c} 22 \\ 23 \end{array}$ Confirmed ²³ No significant similarity found
24 No significant similarity found
24 No significant similarity found in the significant similarity found in the significant similarity found in the significant significant similarity f ²⁴ Homo sapiens No significant similarity found
25 No significant similarity found *²⁵* No significant similarity found 26 No significant similarity found *²⁷* Confirmed

Supplemental data 7

- 766
767 **Raw sequencing data of positive RT-PCR amplicons obtained from symptomatic patients**
- **suspicious on SARS-CoV-2 (Confidential)** 768
769