

Registered report



Cite this article: Khan KA, Cheung P. 2020 Presence of mismatches between diagnostic PCR assays and coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 genome. *R. Soc. Open Sci.* **7**: 200636. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsos.200636>

Received: 17 April 2020

Accepted: 27 May 2020

Subject Category:

Genetics and genomics

Subject Areas:

microbiology/health and disease and epidemiology/genomics

Keywords:

COVID-19, coronavirus SARS-CoV-2, diagnosis, sequence variation, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), primer–template mismatch

Author for correspondence:

Kashif Aziz Khan

e-mail: kakhan@yorku.ca

Electronic supplementary material is available online at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.5012597>.

Presence of mismatches between diagnostic PCR assays and coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 genome

Kashif Aziz Khan and Peter Cheung

Department of Biology, York University, 4700 Keele Street, Toronto, Canada M3 J 1P3

KAK, 0000-0003-3125-1497

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2; initially named as 2019-nCoV) is responsible for the recent COVID-19 pandemic and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is the current standard method for its diagnosis from patient samples. This study conducted a reassessment of published diagnostic PCR assays, including those recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO), through the evaluation of mismatches with publicly available viral sequences. An exhaustive evaluation of the sequence variability within the primer/probe target regions of the viral genome was performed using more than 17 000 viral sequences from around the world. The analysis showed the presence of mutations/mismatches in primer/probe binding regions of 7 assays out of 27 assays studied. A comprehensive bioinformatics approach for *in silico* inclusivity evaluation of PCR diagnostic assays of SARS-CoV-2 was validated using freely available software programs that can be applied to any diagnostic assay of choice. These findings provide potentially important information for clinicians, laboratory professionals and policy-makers.

1. Introduction

On 31 December 2019, a cluster of 41 pneumonia cases of unknown aetiology in Wuhan, China, were reported to the World Health Organization (WHO). Subsequently, a novel coronavirus of zoonotic origin, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2; initially named as 2019-nCoV), was isolated from the patients [1–3]. The virus has spread to more than 200 countries and territories resulting in global coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic [4]. The rapid spread of the virus is partially attributed to the transmission by asymptomatic carriers or mildly symptomatic cases [5,6]. Early diagnostic testing is an important tool for policy-makers to make public health decisions to contain the outbreak.

The virus from the patients was identified and sequenced early in the outbreak [1,7] and resulted in the development of several polymerase chain reaction (PCR) detection protocols by multiple national organizations that were published by the WHO [8]. In addition, several other methods have been developed and published in the literature recently [5,7,9–15]. However, the molecular diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2 may be jeopardized by potential preanalytical and analytical vulnerabilities including lack of harmonization of primers and probes [16]. Given the potential for the viruses to mutate, genetic variations in the viral genome at primer/probe binding regions can result in potential mismatches and false-negative results [17]. For example, primer and template mismatches have been reported to impede proper diagnosis of several viruses including influenza virus [18–21], respiratory syncytial virus [22], dengue virus [23], rabies virus [24], human immunodeficiency virus-1 [25,26] and hepatitis B virus [27,28].

SARS-CoV-2 is an enveloped positive-strand RNA virus classified as a member of family *Coronaviridae* in the genus *Betacoronavirus* along with SARS-CoV and Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS)-CoV [29]. The sequence analysis of SARS-CoV-2 isolates has shown that its single-stranded RNA genome is approximately 30 kb in size [1,7,30]. Based on similarity with SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2 genome has been predicted to encode at least 10 open reading frames (ORFs) for structural and accessory proteins. As per current annotation (NC_045512.2), these viral ORFs encode replicase ORF1ab, spike (S), envelope (E), membrane (M) and nucleocapsid (N), and at least six accessory proteins (3a, 6, 7a, 7b, 8 and 10) [31].

Human coronaviruses encode a proofreading exoribonuclease, nsp14-ExoN, for maintaining replication fidelity and thus have a relatively slower mutation rate than other RNA viruses [32,33]. SARS-CoV-2 encodes nsp14-ExoN as well [1], but mutations have been described in the genome for circulating SARS-CoV-2 [34–38]. Some laboratories have performed the alignment of diagnostic primers/probes with a limited number of viral sequences and have reported some mismatches [39,40] which may lead to false-negative results [41]. The use of several commercially developed diagnostic assays has also been permitted around the world with limited regulatory approval due to the pandemic emergency [42]. However, the limit of detection of these assays differs considerably and can also lead to false-negative results [43]. As there are already reports of false-negative diagnosis of COVID-19 [44–48], there is a need for verification of potential primer/probe mismatch with the sequences of viral isolates being isolated from around the world. The American Society for Microbiology COVID-19 International Summit held on 23 March 2020 recommended routine verification of sequence mutations in primer and probe binding regions of the viral genome for optimal virus detection [49].

The objective of this study is the *in silico* reassessment of previously published PCR primers/probes for COVID-19 diagnosis. This was performed through the evaluation of the sequence variability within the primer/probe target regions of SARS-CoV-2 viral isolates from around the world. The absence of any mutations and mismatches in target regions of the assay used would provide a higher degree of confidence in the test results obtained while the presence of mutations could help guide the strategies for the reassessment of diagnostic assays. We believe that these findings provide potentially important information for clinicians, laboratory professionals and policy-makers.

2. Methods

This study was pre-registered on the Open Science Framework (OSF); the accepted Stage 1 registration can be viewed at (<https://osf.io/ym8gc>). Minor deviations from protocol are identified in footnotes. The study design planner is included in table 1. The summary of the sequence tracing pipeline is shown in figure 1.

2.1. Selection of primers and probes

A total of 27 PCR primer-probe sets were selected based on literature review [9,10,12–15,50–52] and on the assays posted on WHO website [8] originally developed by seven different national institutions including Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention (China CDC), China; Institut Pasteur, Paris, France; US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), USA; National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Japan; Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin Institute of Virology, Germany; The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong; and National Institute of Health, Thailand.

Table 1. Study design planner.

question	hypothesis	sampling plan (e.g. power analysis)	analysis plan	interpretation given different outcomes	obtained results and interpretation
are there any mutations in the primer/probe binding regions of the SARS-CoV-2 genome for PCR assays published in the literature?	as the virus can potentially mutate during the outbreak, mutations in the primer/probe binding regions can result in mismatches with primer/probe template	17 026 viral isolates would be downloaded from GISAID EpiCov database <i>inclusion criteria:</i> only full length (>29 000 bp) <i>exclusion criteria:</i> the sequences with stretches of NNNs, ambiguous sequences, and missing sequences in the region of interest (ROI) will be considered low quality and would be excluded	sequences would be aligned using MAFFT low-quality sequences would be excluded from the alignment and sequence variability would be traced <i>in silico</i> using SequenceTracer the highly variable region, if any, would be further analysed for nucleotide composition at each position using positional nucleotide numerical summary (PNNS) the complete genome of Wuhan-Hu-1 from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) would act as a positive control (NCBI Reference Sequence: NC_045512.2)	in the event of a negative result, it would be concluded that there is no evidence of a difference between primer/probe and viral isolates this would serve as a reference for researchers and laboratory professionals using PCR assays for the detection of SARS-CoV-2	the analysis showed the presence of mismatches/mutations in primer/probe binding regions of 7 assays out of 27 assays studied

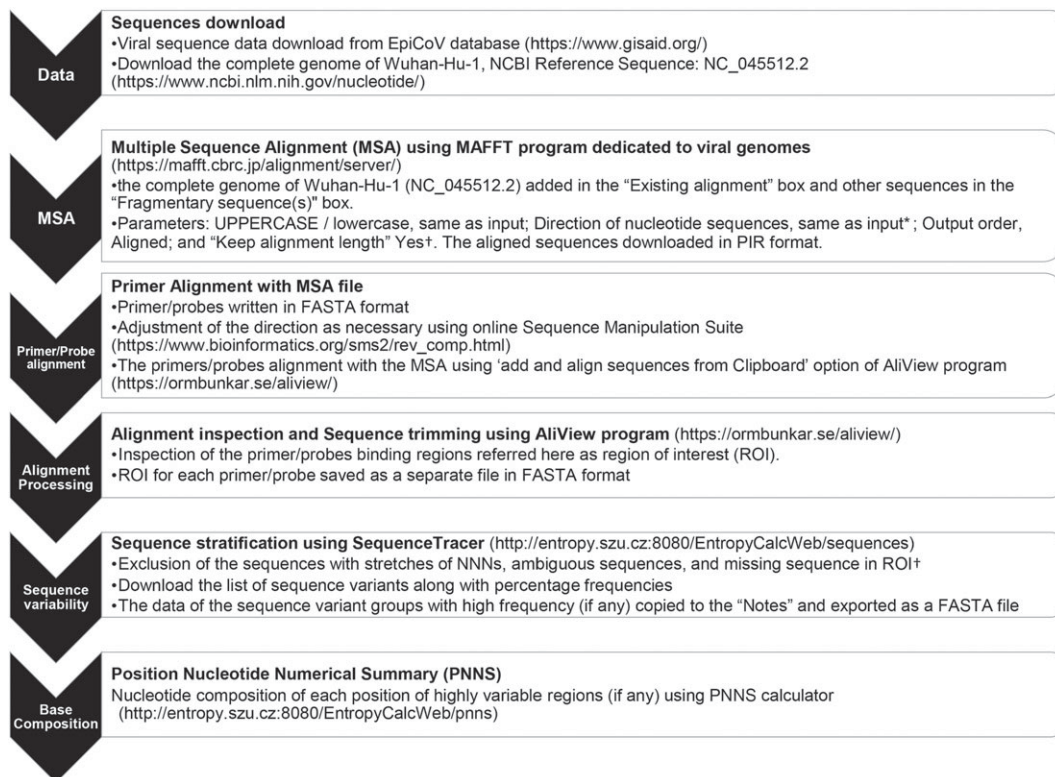


Figure 1. Sequence tracing pipeline used in the study. *The direction can be adjusted by selecting the option 'Adjust direction according to the first sequence', if needed. [†]The change was made with editorial approval after Stage 1.

2.2. Sequencing data

The complete genome sequences of the virus were downloaded from the Global Initiative on Sharing All Influenza Data (GISAID) EpiCoV database [53]. As of 7 May 2020, it hosted a total of 17 175 SARS-CoV-2 sequences isolated from humans. By applying the complete genome (greater than 29 000 bp) filter, a total of 17 026 sequences were included in the study that are available upon free registration (<https://www.gisaid.org/>). SARS-CoV-2 is an RNA virus, but the data are shown in DNA format as per scientific convention. The sequences are shared by the laboratories around the world and a list of accession numbers is included in electronic supplementary material, file S1. It is recognized that this study is not immune to the geographical bias present in academic and scientific research. As the data were sampled from a global sequence database, it is possible that data may originate from high-income countries like the literature in other disciplines [54,55]. In addition, it is possible that data from certain countries or regions are excluded based on the exclusion criteria of low-quality data that may skew the data geographically. Another reason for possible data skew may be the origin of the current pandemic being China. Indeed, a recent study analysed the publications in COVID-19 literature hub LitCovid [56] and observed that more than 30% of articles were related to China [57]. These aspects of possible bias and data skew are addressed in the Discussion to make sure that the valid conclusions are drawn from the data in terms of geographical correlation.

2.3. Multiple sequence alignment and alignment processing

Multiple sequence alignment (MSA) was performed using MAFFT (Multiple Alignment with Fast Fourier Transform) program v. 7 dedicated to closely related viral genomes [58,59] available online (<https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/>). The complete genome of Wuhan-Hu-1 downloaded from NCBI on 7 May 2020 was included as a reference, which is 29 903 bp long (NCBI Reference Sequence: NC_045512.2). The aligned sequences were downloaded in PIR format. Each primer/probe was aligned with the MSA and the binding region referred to here as region of interest (ROI) was inspected using the AliView program 1.26 [60]. To evaluate the sequence variability in target regions of previously published primers/probes, the ROI for each primer/probe set was saved as a separate file in FASTA format.

2.4. Sequence variation in primer/probe binding regions in SARS-CoV-2 genome

The MSA sequence for forward primer, probe and reverse primer were stratified using the SequenceTracer module (<http://entropy.szu.cz:8080/EntropyCalcWeb/sequences>) of the Alignment Explorer [61]. This tool segregated sequences into discrete groups of identical sequence variants along with their frequency for each primer/probe. The sequences with stretches of NNNs, ambiguous sequences in ROI and missing sequences¹ were excluded from the study. Subsequently, a threshold² (0.5% of all sequences included) was defined to remove extremely low prevalent variants and sequencing errors in the data as described previously [61]. Thus, only the sequence variants with at least 0.5% incidence were further considered. The viral isolates were reported as the frequency of hits with perfect primer match and hits with mismatches along with a summary of mutated nucleotides for each primer/probe. The distribution of the sequence variants in three primers/probes with the highest frequency of mismatches were analysed geographically. As the sequence variation was moderate, the base composition of each nucleotide position was not analysed. As noted in the registered Stage 1 protocol (<https://osf.io/ym8gc>), this analysis can be performed using the positional nucleotide numerical summary (PNNS) calculator (<http://entropy.szu.cz:8080/EntropyCalcWeb/pnns>) of the Alignment Explorer [61].

3. Results

The sequence tracing pipeline (figure 1) was applied to the comprehensive sequence dataset of 17 027 SARS-CoV-2 sequences for each PCR primer/probe. To determine the sequence variability in the primer/probe binding regions, all the sequences in the dataset were aligned using MAFFT. Next, for each PCR assay, the MSA file was trimmed to include only the primer or probe binding regions referred to here as ROI. The sequence file for each primer/probe was submitted to SequenceTracer to segregate into discrete groups of identical sequence variants and presented a detailed view of the nucleotide variation in each ROI along with the frequency of each variant (figures 2 and 3; electronic supplementary material, file S2). All the sequences showing ambiguous sequences were grouped as 'outgroup1', short sequences were grouped as 'outgroup2' and missing sequences were grouped as 'excluded'. These three groups were not included in the analysis (collectively referred here as 'removed'), and the number of 'informative' sequences was calculated by subtracting these three groups from the total number of sequences. The informative group was then divided into hits with a perfect match and hits with mismatches for each primer and probe (table 2). It is not surprising that most primer/probe binding regions show mutations/mismatches with at least a couple of sequences but some of those may be extremely low prevalent variants and sequencing errors in the data. To minimize the effect of such sequences on the analysis, a threshold of 0.5% was then defined where only the sequence variants with at least 0.5% incidence were further considered as described previously [61]. The frequency of the sequences with the perfect match and with mismatches was then calculated from sequences above the threshold for each primer and probe. The summary of the analysis for 27 assays is presented in table 2.

It was observed that the primers/probe of 20 assays out of 27 assays tested showed a perfect match with the template at the defined threshold (table 2). It was further observed that the forward primer of CN-CDC-N showed three nucleotide mismatches with 18.8% of viral sequences (table 3 and figure 2*a*). In addition, the US-CDC-N-1 probe and the US-CDC-N-3 forward primer showed one mismatch with 1.6% and 1.2% viral sequences, respectively (table 3 and figure 3). The reverse primer of NIID-JP-N also showed one mismatch with all the sequences (table 3; electronic supplementary material, file S2). The probe of Chan-ORF1ab showed one mismatch with 0.9% of sequences while one mismatch in the reverse primer for all the sequences (table 3; electronic supplementary material, file S2). One mismatch was also observed with all the sequences for the probe of Young-N (table 3; electronic supplementary material, file S2). Most of the mismatches observed were not near the 3' end of primers but some were in the probe binding regions. Many diagnostic assays have included degenerate nucleotides to increase the inclusivity of the assay for SARS-CoV and bat-SARS-related CoVs, but in certain cases, this is even detrimental for inclusive detection of SARS-CoV-2. For example, the Charité-ORF1b

¹SequenceTracer removes the missing sequences in ROI. The exclusion criterion of missing sequences was clarified with editorial approval after Stage 1 acceptance and prior to observation of the data.

²The threshold was decided before Stage 1 acceptance. However, it was not clearly mentioned in the Stage 1 protocol and a previous study was referenced only.

(a) CN-CDC-N

Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Forward		Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Probe		Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Reverse	
			10	20				10	20				10	20
			GGGGAACCTCTCCTCTAGAAAT					TTGCTGCTGCTTGACAGATT					CAGCTTGAGAGAAAATGTCTG	
1	13533	79.480			1	16939	99.483			1	16905	99.283		
2	3129	18.377	aac		2	1	0.006		t	2	9	0.053		t
3	85	0.499		g	3	1	0.006		t	3	5	0.029		t
4	48	0.282		t	4	1	0.006		t	4	3	0.018		t
5	22	0.129		c	outgroup1	85	0.499			5	3	0.018		t
6	9	0.053	a							6	2	0.012		ct
7	4	0.023		t						7	2	0.012		t
8	4	0.023		c						8	1	0.006		t
9	4	0.023		t						9	1	0.006		c
10	3	0.018	t							10	1	0.006		a
11	3	0.018		t						11	1	0.006		a
12	3	0.018		a						12	1	0.006		a
13	3	0.018	aac	t						13	1	0.006		a
14	2	0.012		a						outgroup1	91	0.534		
15	1	0.006		t						outgroup2	1	0.006		
16	1	0.006		c										
17	1	0.006		g										
18	1	0.006	aa											
19	1	0.006	aac	t										
outgroup1	167	0.981												
outgroup2	3	0.018												

(b) Charité-ORF1b

Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Forward		Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Probe		Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Reverse	
			10	20				10	20				10	20
			GTGARATGGTCATGTGGCGG					CAGGTGGAACCTCATCAGAGATGC					TATGCTAATAGTGTSTTAAACATTTG	
			R=A/G										S=G/C Y=C/T	
1	16908	99.301		a	1	16976	99.700			1	17002	99.853		t
2	30	0.176		t	2	5	0.029		t	2	1	0.006		t
3	5	0.029		a	3	2	0.012		g	3	1	0.006		a
4	4	0.023		g	4	1	0.006		a	4	1	0.006		a
5	2	0.012		a	outgroup1	43	0.253			outgroup1	23	0.135		t
6	2	0.012		a										
7	1	0.006		a										
8	1	0.006	aa	a										
9	1	0.006		a										
10	1	0.006		a										
11	1	0.006		a										
outgroup1	71	0.417												

Figure 2. Sequence variants in primers and probe binding regions for CN-CDC-N (a) and Charité-ORF1b (b): sequence variants in 17 026 viral genome sequences aligned to the primer/probe binding regions (5' → 3') along with the number of sequence variants and the frequency of each variant in descending order. The dots indicate an identical nucleotide. The horizontal double bar indicates the threshold (greater than or equal to 0.5%). The binding region of reverse primer is reverse complemented. As an example, the removed and informative sequences are indicated with vertical bars. outgroup1, ambiguous sequences; outgroup2, short sequences.

reverse primer contains an S (G or C) but all the viral sequences (in total 17 002) contain a T at this position (table 3 and figure 2b). Some of the other mutations observed in the primer/probe binding regions that did not pass the defined threshold include T13402G, C15540T, A28338G, C28846T, C28887T, C28896G, C29144T, T29148C and A29188T. Some of these are near the 3' end of primers (figures 2 and 3; electronic supplementary material, file S2).

The majority of the sequences included in this study originated from Europe (9410) and North America (4759), while there were only 136 sequences from Africa, 7 from Central America and 142 from South America. The UK and the USA were among the countries with the highest number of sequences included (figure 4a; electronic supplementary material, file S3). The geographical distribution of the CN-CDC-N forward primer, US-CDC-N-1 probe and US-CDC-N-3 forward primer mismatches showed that it is distributed globally. However, mismatches with the CN-CDC-N forward primer were mostly found in Europe, while mismatches with the US-CDC-N-1 probe and the US-CDC-N-3 forward primer were found mostly in Australia and Asia (figure 4; electronic supplementary material, file S3).

4. Discussion

This study exhaustively evaluated the genetic diversity in the primer/probe binding regions of 27 previously published SARS-CoV-2 diagnostic assays including those recommended by WHO. The data presented in this study show mismatches in seven assays, highlighting the need for keeping the assay current through regular verification of sequence variation in PCR primer/probe binding regions. The other 20 assays show a perfect match with 100% of sequences at the defined threshold of 0.5%. This observation is in line with the estimates of the moderate mutation rate in the SARS-CoV-2 genome similar to the SARS-CoV genome [63,64]. It has been estimated that the mutation rate in the genome of coronaviruses is less than other RNA viruses while much higher than DNA viruses and the host [65,66]. Although all the sequences with mismatches were grouped in comparison to sequences with a perfect match, not all mismatches necessarily result in false-negative results. The

(a) US-CDC-N-1

Forward			probe			reverse		
Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %
1	16970	99.665	1	16647	97.768	1	16876	99.113
2	6	0.035	2	273	1.603	2	58	0.341
3	3	0.018	3	7	0.041	3	25	0.147
4	2	0.012	4	6	0.035	4	6	0.035
5	1	0.006	5	4	0.023	5	4	0.023
6	1	0.006	6	3	0.018	6	2	0.012
7	1	0.006	7	3	0.018	7	1	0.006
8	1	0.006	8	2	0.012	8	1	0.006
9	1	0.006	9	2	0.012	9	1	0.006
10	1	0.006	10	2	0.012	10	1	0.006
outgroup1	40	0.235	11	2	0.012	11	1	0.006
			12	1	0.006	12	1	0.006
			13	1	0.006	13	1	0.006
			14	1	0.006	14	1	0.006
			15	1	0.006	outgroup1	48	0.282
			outgroup1	71	0.417			
			outgroup2	1	0.006			

(b) US-CDC-N-3

Forward			probe			reverse		
Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %	Group Number	Variant Count	Frequency %
1	16747	98.356	1	16922	99.383	1	16952	99.560
2	196	1.151	2	20	0.117	2	27	0.159
3	13	0.076	3	16	0.094	3	6	0.035
4	3	0.018	4	9	0.053	4	3	0.018
5	2	0.012	5	7	0.041	5	1	0.006
6	1	0.006	6	3	0.018	6	1	0.006
7	1	0.006	7	2	0.012	7	1	0.006
8	1	0.006	8	2	0.012	8	1	0.006
outgroup1	62	0.364	9	2	0.012	9	1	0.006
outgroup2	1	0.006	10	1	0.006	outgroup1	34	0.200
			11	1	0.006			
			12	1	0.006			
			outgroup1	41	0.241			

Figure 3. Sequence variants in primers and probe binding regions for US-CDC-N-1 (a) and US-CDC-N-3 (b): sequence variants in 17 026 viral genome sequences aligned to the primer/probe binding regions (5'→3') along with the number of sequence variants and the frequency of each variant in descending order. The dots indicate an identical nucleotide. The horizontal double bar indicates the threshold (greater than or equal to 0.5%). The binding region of reverse primer is reverse complemented. outgroup1, ambiguous sequences; outgroup2, short sequences; excluded.

effects of mismatch between primers/probes and template depend upon position and number of mismatches. Most of the mismatches observed in primers of SARS-CoV-2 diagnostic assays were not near the 3' end and may be tolerated. Mismatches at the 3' end are known for their deleterious effect on PCR amplification [17,67,68], but single mismatches, especially more than 5 bp far from the 3' end, have a moderate effect on PCR amplification and are unlikely to significantly affect the assay performance [67]. Three assays showed a single nucleotide mismatch in the probe binding region. PCR amplification is more prone to mismatches in the probe region and even a single mismatch may reduce the sensitivity of the assay and lead to false-negative results due to the prevention of probe binding and subsequent fluorescence [22,28,69–71]. In the scenarios where mismatches were tolerated, one additional mutation resulted in reduced RT-qPCR sensitivity for the detection of influenza A virus [18].

Despite the ability of single mismatches to be tolerated, it is important to consider that mismatches need to be corrected if found in most of the viral sequences available. For example, the reverse primer of Charité-ORF1b shows a mismatch with all the viral sequences (a total of 17 002). This mismatch has also been observed in 990 viral sequences along with the lower sensitivity of this assay in a recent preprint [72]. Similarly, the NIID-JP-N reverse primer also shows a mismatch with all the sequences. This assay released by WHO was subsequently corrected by the authors in a separate study [51]. Although they show no difference in the performance of both assays, there is no apparent reason for not correcting the mismatch in the primer. The WHO recommended assays of SARS-CoV-2 were developed by multiple national organizations early in the outbreak with limited genomic sequence data available and have been instrumental for the diagnosis of COVID-19. However, some of the assays have not been reassessed in the light of the risk of mutations during viral evolution. Based on the analysis of 17 027 viral sequences, this study demonstrates the presence of mutations/mismatches in the primer/probe binding regions of some published assays (table 3). Sequences adjustments to these primers/probes need to be assessed experimentally using viral strains or nucleic acid coupled with subsequent experimental performance using clinical samples. With increasing concern of false-negative COVID-19 diagnosis and poor sensitivity of diagnostic PCR in certain cases [73,74],

Table 2. Reassessment of 27 published PCR diagnostic assays using 17 027 SARS-CoV-2 genome sequences.

gene target	assay name ^a	country	F/P/R ^b	sequence (5'→3')	position ^c	total number of sequences				above threshold (≥0.5%) ^d		reference(s)
						removed	informative	perfect match	with mismatches	total	perfect match (%)	
ORF1ab	Yip-ORF1ab	China	F	ATGGATTGCATCAGAGGCT	1866→1885	85	16 942	16 911	31	16 911	100	[14]
	Pasteur-ORF1ab-1	France	R	TTGTATAGCGGCTTCGT	1970←1951	168	16 859	16 855	4	16 855	100	
ORF1ab	Pasteur-ORF1ab-2	France	F	ATGAGCTAGTCTGTG	12 690→12 707	54	16 973	16 973	0	16 973	100	[8]
			P	AGATGCTGTGTGTCGGGA	12 717→12 737	25	17 002	16 997	5	16 997	100	
ORF1ab			R	CTCCCTTGTGTGTGT	12 797←12 780	28	16 999	16 945	54	16 945	100	
			F	GGTAACTGGATGATTCG	14 080→14 098	46	16 981	16 981	0	16 981	100	[8]
ORF1ab			P	TGATCAAAKCAKCGCAGG	14 105→14 123	45	16 982	16 958	24	16 958	100	
			R	CTGGTAAGGTTAAATAGG	14 186←14 167	50	16 977	16 939	38	16 939	100	
ORF1ab	CH-CDC-ORF1ab	China	F	CCCTGGGTTTAACTTAA	13 342→13 362	40	16 987	16 977	10	16 977	100	[8,12]
			P	CGCTCGGGATGTGGAAAGTTATGG	13 377→13 404	1039	15 968	15 905	63	15 905	100	
ORF1ab			R	AGATTTGTCATCAGCTGA	13 460←13 442	1037	15 990	15 978	12	15 978	100	
	Young-ORF1ab	Singapore	F	TCATTTGTAATCCCTATATACC	14 155→14 178	51	16 976	16 969	7	16 969	100	[15]
ORF1ab			P	AACCTGGAAGTCAATGTTGAKA	14 193→14 215	67	16 960	16 939	21	16 939	100	
			R	CACCTAAATGTAAGCCTTCTTAAAG	14 243←14 220	25	17 002	16 983	19	16 983	100	
ORF1ab	Charité-ORF1b	Germany	F	GTGARATGGTCTGTGTGCGGG	15 431→15 452	71	16 956	16 908	48	16 908	100	[8,50]
			P	CAGGTGAACCTCATCAGAGATGC	15 470→15 494	43	16 984	16 976	8	16 976	100	
ORF1ab			R	CARATGTTAAASKACATATAGATA	15 530←15 505	23	17 004	0	17 004	17 002	0.0	100
	Won-ORF1ab	South Korea	F	CATGTGGCGGTTCCTAT	15 441→15 460	45	16 982	16 972	10	16 972	100	[13]
ORF1ab			R	TGCATTAAGATTGCCCGTGA	15 558←15 539	29	16 998	16 931	67	16 931	100	
	Chan-ORF1ab	China	F	CGACACAGCTTTCACAGGCT	16 220→16 239	69	16 958	16 946	12	16 946	100	[9]
ORF1ab			P	TTAAGATGGGTCTGCATACGAGAC	16 276→16 303	84	16 943	16 786	157	16 930	99.1	0.9
			R	GTGTGATGTTGAWATGACATGTC	16 353←16 330	86	16 941	0	16 941	16 932	0.0	100
ORF1ab	HKU-ORF1b	Hong Kong	F	TGGGGYTTTACRGGTAACT	18 778→18 797	61	16 966	16 932	34	16 932	100	[8,52]
			P	TAGTTGTGATGCWATCATGACTAG	18 849→18 872	41	16 986	16 976	10	16 976	100	
ORF1ab			R	AARKCCCTTAAACAAGCACTC	18 909←18 889	48	16 979	16 958	21	16 958	100	

(Continued)

Table 2. (Continued.)

gene target	assay name ^a	country	F/P/R ^b	sequence (5'–3')	position ^c	total number of sequences				above threshold ($\geq 0.5\%$) ^d		reference(s)
						removed	informative	perfect match	with mismatches	total	perfect match (%)	
S	Young-S	Singapore	F	TATACATGCTGGGACCA	21 763–>21 782	91	16 936	16 907	29	16 907	100	[15]
			P	CAAGAGGTTTGATACCTGCTACCC	21 789–>21 816	90	16 937	16 910	27	16 910	100	
			R	ATCGAGCTCTATATGTAGAC	21 876–<21 853	99	16 928	16 907	21	16 907	100	
Chan-S		China	F	CGTACTAATTAATGATCTCGCTTACT	22 712–>22 741	254	16 773	16 768	5	16 768	100	[9]
			P	CGCTCCAGGGCAACTGGAAAG	22 792–>22 813	262	16 765	16 752	13	16 752	100	
			R	CAAGCTATACGGAGCTGTGA	22 869–<22 849	65	16 962	16 956	6	16 956	100	
Won-S		South Korea	F	CTACATGACGCGAAGCTGT	23 114–>23 133	872	16 155	16 126	29	16 126	100	[13]
			R	CACCTGTGCTGTAAACCA	23 213–<23 194	29	16 998	16 987	11	16 987	100	
			F	TTCGGAAGAGACAAGTACGTT	26 259–>26 279	33	16 994	16 986	8	16 986	100	
Won-E		South Korea	R	CACACATCGATCGCAGTA	26 365–<26 346	83	16 944	16 938	6	16 938	100	[13]
			F	ACAGGTACGTTAATAGTAAATAGGT	26 269–>26 294	47	16 980	16 975	5	16 975	100	[8,50]
			P	ACACTAGCGAATCTACTGGCTTCG	26 332–>26 357	75	16 952	16 928	24	16 928	100	
Charité-E		Germany	R	ATATGGAGCGAGCGACACA	26 381–<26 360	89	16 938	16 928	10	16 928	100	
			F	ACTCTTTTCTTCTGCTGGT	26 295–>26 318	80	16 947	16 925	22	16 925	100	[10]
			P	CTAGTACACAGCCACTTACTCGC	26 326–>26 351	81	16 946	16 920	26	16 920	100	
Huang-E		China	R	GGACGATGCGCACATC	26 376–<26 357	90	16 937	16 928	9	16 928	100	
			F	TCTCTGCTTCGGTATTC	26 303–>26 322	78	16 949	16 926	23	16 926	100	[12]
			P	GTACACAGCCATCTACTAGCGCTCGA	26 329–>26 358	82	16 945	16 921	24	16 921	100	
		R	CAAGTAAACAATATGGACC	26 391–<26 372	111	16 916	16 911	5	16 911	100		

(Continued.)

Table 2. (Continued.)

gene target	assay name ^a	country	FP/R ^b	sequence (5'→3')	position ^c	total number of sequences				above threshold (≥0.5%) ^d		reference(s)	
						removed	informative	perfect match	with mismatches	total	perfect match (%)		with mismatches (%)
N	CN-CDC-N	China	F	G66GAATCTCTCTGCTAGAAT	28 881→28 902	170	16 857	13 533	3324	16 662	81.2	18.8	[8,12]
			P	TTCGTGCTGTGACAGATT	28 934→28 953	85	16 942	16 939	3	16 939	100		
			R	CAGACATTTGCTCAAGCTG	28 979→28 958	92	16 935	16 905	30	16 905	100		
NIH-TH_N	Thailand	F	CGTTGGTGACCTCAGAT	28 320→28 339	52	16 975	16 893	82	16 893	100		[8]	
		P	GACTGGGAGTACCA	28 341→28 356	42	16 985	16 946	39	16 946	100			
		R	CCCCCTGGTTCGATT	28 376→28 358	52	16 975	16 938	37	16 938	100			
US-CDC-N-1	US	F	GACCCGAAATCAGCAAT	28 287→28 306	40	16 987	16 970	17	16 970	100		[8,62]	
		P	ACCCGCTTACGTTGTGGACC	28 309→28 332	72	16 955	16 647	308	16 920	98.4	1.6		
		R	TCTGGTACTGCGAGTTGAATCTG	28 358→28 335	48	16 979	16 876	103	16 876	100			
US-CDC-N-2	US	F	TTACAAACATGGCCGCAAA	29 164→29 183	339	16 688	16 647	41	16 647	100		[8,62]	
		P	AGAAITTCGCCGAGCTCAG	29 188→29 210	351	16 676	16 605	71	16 605	100			
		R	GCGGACATTCGANGAA	29 230→29 213	334	16 693	16 677	16	16 677	100			
US-CDC-N-3	US	F	G6GAGCTTGAAATACACAAA	28 681→28 702	63	16 964	16 747	217	16 943	98.8	1.2	[8,62]	
		P	AVCAGTTGGACCCGCACTCTG	28 704→28 727	41	16 986	16 972	64	16 972	100			
		R	TGTAGCAGATTGGAGCTTG	28 753→28 732	34	16 993	16 952	41	16 952	100			
Young-N	Singapore	F	CTAGCTCAAGATGATTTCT	28 583→28 604	67	16 960	16 953	7	16 953	100		[15]	
		P	ACTTAGAACTGGCCAGAGCT	28 608→28 630	58	16 969	0	16 969	16 927	0.0	100		
		R	AGCACTATGGGAGTCC	28 648→28 631	52	16 975	16 949	26	16 949	100			
Coman-N	Germany	F	CAGTTGGACCCGAAATC	28 706→28 724	38	16 989	16 954	35	16 954	100		[90]	
		P	ACTCTCAAGGAAKACATGGCA	28 754→28 777	75	16 952	16 930	22	16 930	100			
		R	GAGGAAGAGAAAGGCTTG	28 833→28 814	92	16 935	16 863	72	16 863	100			
Won-N	South Korea	F	CATGCTCAATGCTCAC	28 732→28 751	33	16 994	16 953	41	16 953	100		[13]	
		R	GTTCGACTACTGATGAGG	28 849→28 830	85	16 942	16 788	154	16 788	100			

(Continued.)

Table 2. (Continued.)

gene target	assay name ^a	country	F/P/R ^b	sequence (5'-3')	position ^c	total number of sequences				above threshold ($\geq 0.5\%$) ^d		reference(s)	
						removed	informative	perfect match	with mismatches	total	perfect match (%)		with mismatches (%)
NID-JP-N	Japan	Japan	F	AAATTTGGGGACGGGAC	29 125→29 144	301	16 726	16 658	68	16 658	100		[8,51]
			P	ATGTCGGGATTGGATGA	29 222→29 241	329	16 698	16 679	19	16 679	100		
			R	TGGCAGCTGTAGGTACAC	29 282←29 263	309	16 718	0	16 718	0.0	16 687	100	
HKU-N	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	R-V3	TGGCAGCTGTAGGTGAC	29 282←29 263	309	16 718	16 687	31	16 687	100		[51]
			F	TAAATCAGAAAGGAACTGATTA	29 145→29 166	309	16 718	16 667	51	16 667	100		[8,52]
			P	GCAATTTGGCAATTTGCGG	29 177←29 196	347	16 680	16 637	43	16 637	100		
Chan-N	China	China	R	CGAAGGTGACTTCGAG	29 254←29 236	320	16 707	16 668	39	16 668	100		[9]
			F	GGTTCTCGGARTCG	29 210→29 227	338	16 689	16 665	24	16 665	100		
			P	AAGTGTGACTACACAGST	29 257→29 278	311	16 716	16 680	36	16 680	100		
			R	TGGATCTTGTCAICGAITTG	29 306←29 284	304	16 723	16 674	49	16 674	100		

^aThe assays were named in the following format: organization/author-gene target.

^b Forward primer (F), probe (P) and reverse primer (R).

^c Positions shown are with reference to NC_045 512.2.

^dA threshold of 0.5% was defined where only the sequence variants with greater than or equal to 0.5% incidence were further considered.

Table 3. Summary of primer/probe mismatches with SARS-CoV-2 genome.

primer name	F/P/R ^b	sequence (5'–3') ^c and suggested adjustment	nucleotide		frequency
			primer	genome	
Charite-ORF1b	R	CARATGTTAA\$ <u>S</u> ACACTATTAGCATA Suggested modification from S to A (or R). CARATGTTAAAACACACTATTAGCATA	15 519	S (G/C) ¹	17 002/17 002 (100%)
Chan-ORF1ab	P	TTAAGATGGTGGTTCATACGATAGAC	16 289	C	144/16 930 (0.9%)
	R	<u>GT</u> GTGATGTTGAWATGACATGGTC Suggested modification from G to A	16 353	C ^a	16 932/16 932 (100%)
CN-CDC-N	F	<u>AT</u> GTGATGTTGAWATGACATGGTC <u>GGG</u> GAACCTCCTGCTAGAAT	28 881 28 882 28 883	GGG	3129/16 662 (18.8%)
US-CDC-N-1	P	<u>ACC</u> CGCATTAGTTGGTGGACC	29 311	C	273/16 920 (1.6%)
US-CDC-N-3	F	GGGAGCCTGAATACACAAA	28 688	T	196/16 943 (1.2%)
Young-N	P	ACCTAGGAAGTGG <u>CC</u> CAGAAAGCT Suggested modification from C to G	28 621	C	16 969/16 969 (100%)
NID-JP-N	R	ACCTAGGAAGTGG <u>CC</u> CAGAAAGCT <u>TGG</u> CA <u>GCT</u> GTGTAGGTCAAC Suggested modification from G to C [51]	29 277	C ^a	16 687/16 687 (100%)

^aReverse-complemented.

^bForward primer (F), probe (P) and reverse primer (R).

^cUnderlined and bold sequences indicate the mismatch observed and the suggested adjustment.

^dPositions shown are with reference to NC_045512.2.

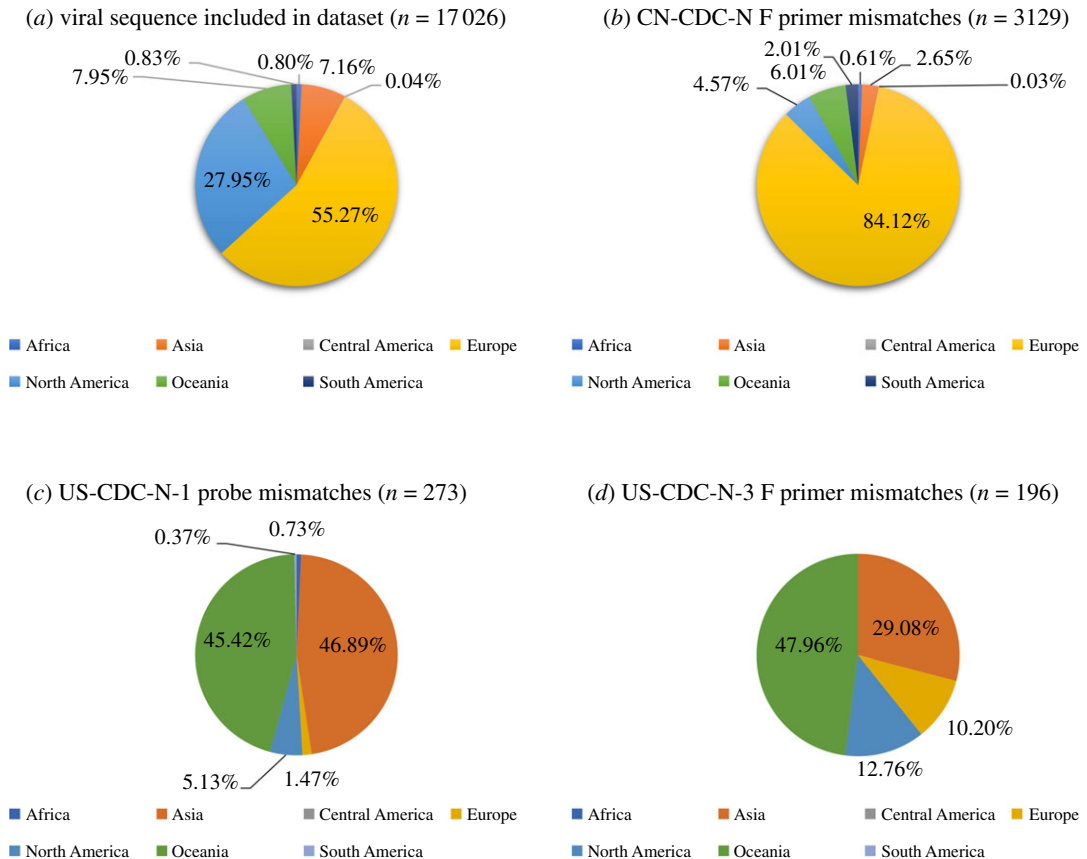


Figure 4. Geographical distribution of included sequences dataset (a) and mismatches for CN-CDC-N forward primer (b), US-CDC-N-1 probe (c) and US-CDC-N-3 forward primer (d). The total number of sequences in each dataset is given in parentheses. Data used to draw graphs are included in electronic supplementary material, file S3.

correcting the mismatches between primers/probes and template may help to improve the sensitivity of certain diagnostic assays.

There have been recent efforts along the same line where a limited number of viral sequences were aligned with primers/probes to search for mismatches. One of the recent preprints used 992 sequences to report some variants in the primer/probe binding regions [72]. However, many of the mismatches could be rare variants or sequencing errors, and variability in the assay binding regions should be assessed across a larger number of viral sequences. In addition, the diagnostic assay should not be revised based on the presence of rare variants in the population and thus a threshold of 0.5% was defined to eliminate such variants from the analysis. Some of the mismatches observed by this preprint were confirmed in the larger dataset of the current study. Other variants were not observed or did not reach the threshold and thus were not reported in the final analysis. It cannot be excluded that empirical threshold adjustment of this study might have missed some significant variants. For instance, choosing a threshold of 0.2% would have resulted in a mismatch with five additional assays that were reported to match with 100% of sequences in the current analysis. Another recent preprint reported a bioinformatics system named 'BioLaboro' to assess the efficacy of the existing PCR assays to detect pathogens as they evolve [75]. However, this system requires specialized software and large RAM hardware which is not generally available in regular diagnostic or research laboratories. By contrast, the current study validates a pipeline for *in silico* re-evaluation of PCR diagnostic assays of SARS-CoV-2. This approach has successfully been applied previously for influenza A virus [61]. Using freely available open-source software, the analysis was performed on a regular desktop computer without any need for special hardware. The pipeline does not require extensive computational skills except for some sequence alignment skills. The pipeline can be applied to a SARS-CoV-2 diagnostic assay of choice.

Verification of *in silico* nucleotide identity match, termed as inclusivity analysis, is also a component of the performance criteria of COVID-19 diagnostic assays by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) as well as the European Commission [76,77]. Several commercially developed COVID-19 diagnostic assays have received limited regulatory approval due to the emergency situation. As of 12

May 2020, a total of 54 commercial diagnostic test kits including the one developed by the US-CDC have received emergency use authorization (EUA) from the FDA [78]. The CDC has also reported one nucleotide mismatch in the N1 forward primer in their inclusivity assay using sequences available as of 1 February 2020 [62]. Some commercial kits like BD BioGX use CDC primers and thus do not conduct independent inclusivity analysis [79]. Many other kits have reported the alignment of their assay primers/probes with a couple of hundred sequences [80–85]. As primer/probe identity for most commercial kits is not revealed, manufacturer-independent data are scarce. Recent comparisons of SARS-CoV-2 diagnostic assays have shown some discordance which may partially be due to sequence differences [86,87]. Therefore, there is a need for comprehensive inclusivity assessment of commercial diagnostic assays. Although not addressed in this article, other factors for reassessment include *in silico* cross-reactivity with human genes, genes of other members of family Coronaviridae and other respiratory viruses/bacteria.

The methodology outlined here uses MSA of publicly available viral sequences and is prone to certain biases despite its general utility in diagnostic PCR assay design. One of the biases is the compositional bias, which may arise as a result of sampling from certain geographical locations due to access to better facilities for viral genome sequencing or location of the outbreak. Based on a relatively moderate mutation rate in the genome, the results obtained can be applied globally, but caution should be exercised when drawing conclusions from the results for a specific region, especially with a smaller number of sequences included. Another possible geographical bias can arise due to the removal of data collected from certain countries or regions. However, the fact that less than 2.1% of sequences were removed for 73 out of 76 primers/probes studied mitigates this concern in the current study. The geographical analysis of the removed data (approx. 6%) of the remaining three primers/probes showed that most of the removed viral sequences were from Europe as expected (electronic supplementary material, file S4). Although the risk of data skew geographically cannot be ruled out completely, this much data exclusion is in line with previous reports [61]. Another source of compositional bias may be the redundancy where the same viral strain is re-sequenced and re-submitted to the sequence database.

Another source of bias may arise from the submission of isolates after passaging in the cell culture as well as sequencing artefacts including ambiguous data, short artificial insertions or deletions, incorrect sequence directions, incorrect nucleotide insertions, short sequence stretches and sequence longer than standard length [88]. Most data in the EpiCov database include the full-length data, and thus short sequences were not included in the study. To remove artificially inserted sequences and sequences at the ends, if any, MSA was performed with the option to keep the alignment length according to the reference sequence. In this methodology, no gaps are inserted in the reference sequence and corresponding sites in the other sequences are deleted. Therefore, this methodology can potentially remove any real insertions as well. However, only seven insertions affecting 31 sequences are catalogued in CoV-GLUE database (<http://cov-glue.cvr.gla.ac.uk/#/insertion>) as of 22 May 2020 [89]. The use of SequenceTracer in the tracing pipeline successfully filters out ambiguous data and deletions [61]. As SequenceTracer removes all the sequences with short and missing sequences, a real deletion of a stretch of sequence would also be filtered out. However, only a few sequences were removed in the 'outgroup2' or in 'excluded' group (figures 2 and 3; electronic supplementary material, file S2). In line, none of the deletions affecting more than two sequences listed in CoV-GLUE database (<http://cov-glue.cvr.gla.ac.uk/#/deletion>) as of 22 May 2020 were found in the ROI under study.

5. Conclusion

This work outlines a comprehensive approach for the bioinformatics reassessment of PCR diagnostic assays for SARS-CoV-2. The application of this strategy on 27 previously developed assays using 17027 viral sequences showed mutations/mismatches in primer/probe binding regions of seven assays. This information will act as a reference and may help re-evaluate COVID-19 diagnostic strategies. *In silico* analysis of primers/probes should be coupled with empirical testing on clinical samples and the primers/probes that work well *in silico* as well as empirically should be used in a diagnostic assay for SARS-CoV-2.

Data accessibility. A list of accession numbers of sequences is included in electronic supplementary material, file S1. Sequence tracing figures of all the assays not shown in the main article are included in electronic supplementary material, file S2. Geographical data used to draw graphs in figure 4 are included in electronic supplementary

material, file S3. The geographical analysis of removed data for three primers/probe with the highest frequency is included in electronic supplementary material, file S4.

Authors' contributions. K.A.K. conceived and designed the study, carried out sequence alignments, performed data analysis and drafted the manuscript. P.C. provided valuable suggestions throughout, critically revised the manuscript and arranged the funding for the project.

Competing interests. The authors have no competing interests.

Funding. Funding for this study was provided by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research operating (grant no. RN227427–324983) awarded to P.C.

Acknowledgements. We gratefully acknowledge the great work of authors, originating and submitting laboratories of the sequences from GISAID's EpiCoV™ Database on which this research is based. The list is included in electronic supplementary material, file S1. We thank Alexander Nagy (State Veterinary Institute, Prague, Czech Republic) for critical reading of the manuscript.

References

- Wu F *et al.* 2020 A new coronavirus associated with human respiratory disease in China. *Nature* **579**, 265–269. (doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2008-3)
- Zhou P *et al.* 2020 A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat origin. *Nature* **579**, 270–273. (doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2012-7)
- Zhu N *et al.* 2020 A novel coronavirus from patients with pneumonia in China, 2019. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **382**, 727–733. (doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2001017)
- Worldometers.info. 2020 COVID-19 coronavirus pandemic. See <https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/> (accessed 16 April 2020).
- Chan JF *et al.* 2020 A familial cluster of pneumonia associated with the 2019 novel coronavirus indicating person-to-person transmission: a study of a family cluster. *Lancet* **395**, 514–523. (doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30154-9)
- Yu P, Zhu J, Zhang Z, Han Y. 2020 A familial cluster of infection associated with the 2019 novel coronavirus indicating possible person-to-person transmission during the incubation period. *J. Infect. Dis.* **221**, 1757–1761. (doi:10.1093/infdis/jiaa077)
- Lu R *et al.* 2020 Genomic characterisation and epidemiology of 2019 novel coronavirus: implications for virus origins and receptor binding. *Lancet* **395**, 565–574. (doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30251-8)
- WHO. 2020 In-house developed molecular assays. See https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/coronavirus/who-inhouseassays.pdf?sfvrsn=de3a76aa_2 (accessed 16 April 2020).
- Chan JF *et al.* 2020 Improved molecular diagnosis of COVID-19 by the novel, highly sensitive and specific COVID-19-RdRp/Hel real-time reverse transcription-PCR assay validated in vitro and with clinical specimens. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **58**, e00310-20. (doi:10.1128/JCM.00310-20)
- Huang C *et al.* 2020 Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *Lancet* **395**, 497–506. (doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30183-5)
- Nalla AK *et al.* 2020 Comparative performance of SARS-CoV-2 detection assays using seven different primer/probe sets and one assay kit. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **58**, e00557-20. (doi:10.1128/JCM.00557-20)
- Niu P, Lu R, Zhao L, Wang H, Huang B, Ye F, Wang W, Tan W. 2020 Three novel real-time RT-PCR assays for detection of COVID-19 virus. *China CDC Weekly.*
- Won J *et al.* 2020 Development of a laboratory-safe and low-cost detection protocol for SARS-CoV-2 of the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). *Exp. Neurobiol.* **29**, 107–119. (doi:10.5607/en20009)
- Yip CC *et al.* 2020 Development of a novel, genome subtraction-derived, SARS-CoV-2-specific COVID-19-nsp2 real-time RT-PCR assay and its evaluation using clinical specimens. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **21**, 2574. (doi:10.3390/ijms21072574)
- Young BE *et al.* 2020 Epidemiologic features and clinical course of patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 in Singapore. *JAMA* **323**, 1488–1494. (doi:10.1001/jama.2020.3204)
- Lippi G, Simundic AM, Plebani M. 2020 Potential preanalytical and analytical vulnerabilities in the laboratory diagnosis of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). *Clin. Chem. Lab. Med.* (doi:10.1515/clin-2020-0285)
- Whitley DM, Sloots TP. 2005 Sequence variation in primer targets affects the accuracy of viral quantitative PCR. *J. Clin. Virol.* **34**, 104–107. (doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2005.02.010)
- Hoang Vu Mai P *et al.* 2019 Missed detections of influenza A(H1N1)pdm09 by real-time RT-PCR assay due to haemagglutinin sequence mutation, December 2017 to March 2018, northern Viet Nam. *Western Pac. Surveill. Response J.* **10**, 32–38. (doi:10.5365/wpsar.2018.9.3.003)
- Klungthong C, Chinnawirotpisan P, Hussem K, Phonpakobsin T, Manasatienkij W, Ajariyakhajorn C, Rungrojcharoenkit K, Gibbons RV, Jarman RG. 2010 The impact of primer and probe-template mismatches on the sensitivity of pandemic influenza A/H1N1/2009 virus detection by real-time RT-PCR. *J. Clin. Virol.* **48**, 91–95. (doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2010.03.012)
- Lee HK, Lee CK, Lok TP, Chiang D, Koay ES, Tang JW. 2011 Missed diagnosis of influenza B virus due to nucleoprotein sequence mutations, Singapore, April 2011. *Euro Surveill.* **16**, 19943.
- Yang JR *et al.* 2014 Newly emerging mutations in the matrix genes of the human influenza A(H1N1)pdm09 and A(H3N2) viruses reduce the detection sensitivity of real-time reverse transcription-PCR. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **52**, 76–82. (doi:10.1128/JCM.02467-13)
- Kamau E, Agoti CN, Lewa CS, Oketch J, Owor BE, Otieno GP, Bett A, Cane PA, Nokes DJ. 2017 Recent sequence variation in probe binding site affected detection of respiratory syncytial virus group B by real-time RT-PCR. *J. Clin. Virol.* **88**, 21–25. (doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2016.12.011)
- Koo C, Kaur S, Teh ZY, Xu H, Nasir A, Lai YL, Khan E, Ng LC, Hapuarachchi HC. 2016 Genetic variability in probe binding regions explains false negative results of a molecular assay for the detection of dengue virus. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **16**, 489–495. (doi:10.1089/vbz.2015.1899)
- Hughes GJ, Smith JS, Hanlon CA, Rupprecht CE. 2004 Evaluation of a TaqMan PCR assay to detect rabies virus RNA: influence of sequence variation and application to quantification of viral loads. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **42**, 299–306. (doi:10.1128/jcm.42.1.299-306.2004)
- Christopherson C, Sninsky J, Kwok S. 1997 The effects of internal primer-template mismatches on RT-PCR: HIV-1 model studies. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **25**, 654–658. (doi:10.1093/nar/25.3.654)
- Acharya A, Vaniawala S, Shah P, Parekh H, Misra RN, Wani M, Mukhopadhyaya PN. 2014 A robust HIV-1 viral load detection assay optimized for Indian sub type C specific strains and resource limiting setting. *Biol. Res.* **47**, 22. (doi:10.1186/0717-6287-47-22)
- Liu C, Chang L, Jia T, Guo F, Zhang L, Ji H, Zhao J, Wang L. 2017 Real-time PCR assays for hepatitis B virus DNA quantification may require two different targets. *Viral J.* **14**, 94. (doi:10.1186/s12985-017-0759-8)
- Chow CK, Qin K, Lau LT, Cheung-Hoi Yu A. 2011 Significance of a single-nucleotide primer mismatch in hepatitis B virus real-time PCR diagnostic assays. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **49**, 4418–4419; author reply 4420. (doi:10.1128/JCM.05224-11)
- Coronaviridae Study Group of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses. 2020 The species severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus: classifying 2019-nCoV and

- naming it SARS-CoV-2. *Nat. Microbiol.* **5**, 536–544. (doi:10.1038/s41564-020-0695-z)
30. Chan JF, Kok KH, Zhu Z, Chu H, To KK, Yuan S, Yuen KY. 2020 Genomic characterization of the 2019 novel human-pathogenic coronavirus isolated from a patient with atypical pneumonia after visiting Wuhan. *Emerg. Microbes Infect.* **9**, 221–236. (doi:10.1080/22221751.2020.1719902)
 31. NCBI. 2020 Sequence Viewer 3.36.0: severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1, complete genome. See https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/seqviewer/?id=NC_045512.2 (accessed 15 May 2020).
 32. Ogando NS, Ferron F, Decroly E, Canard B, Posthuma CC, Snijder EJ. 2019 The curious case of the nidovirus exoribonuclease: its role in RNA synthesis and replication fidelity. *Front. Microbiol.* **10**, 1813. (doi:10.3389/fmicb.2019.01813)
 33. Smith EC, Sexton NR, Denison MR. 2014 Thinking outside the triangle: replication fidelity of the largest RNA viruses. *Annu. Rev. Virol.* **1**, 111–132. (doi:10.1146/annurev-virology-031413-085507)
 34. Castillo AE *et al.* 2020 Phylogenetic analysis of the first four SARS-CoV-2 cases in Chile. *J. Med. Virol.* (doi:10.1002/jmv.25797)
 35. Forster P, Forster L, Renfrew C, Forster M. 2020 Phylogenetic network analysis of SARS-CoV-2 genomes. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **117**, 9241–9243. (doi:10.1073/pnas.2004999117)
 36. Phan T. 2020 Genetic diversity and evolution of SARS-CoV-2. *Infect. Genet. Evol.* **81**, 104260. (doi:10.1016/j.meegid.2020.104260)
 37. Tang X *et al.* 2020 On the origin and continuing evolution of SARS-CoV-2. *Natl Sci. Rev.* nwa036. (doi:10.1093/nsr/nwa036)
 38. Wang C, Liu Z, Chen Z, Huang X, Xu M, He T, Zhang Z. 2020 The establishment of reference sequence for SARS-CoV-2 and variation analysis. *J. Med. Virol.* **92**, 667–674. (doi:10.1002/jmv.25762)
 39. Northill J, Mackay I. 2020 Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) real-time RT-PCR N gene 2020 (Wuhan-N; 2019-nCoV-related test). *protocols.io*. (doi:10.17504/protocols.io.bchwit7e)
 40. Public Health Ontario. 2020 *Review of 'Detection of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) by real-time RT-PCR'*. Toronto, ON: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
 41. CDC. 2020 Real-time RT-PCR Panel for detection 2019-novel coronavirus. See https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/coronavirus/uscdrt-pcr-panel-for-detection-instructions.pdf?sfvrsn=3aa07934_2 (accessed 16 April 2020).
 42. Sharfstein JM, Becker SJ, Mello MM. 2020 Diagnostic testing for the novel coronavirus. *JAMA* **323**, 1437. (doi:10.1001/jama.2020.3864)
 43. Wang X, Yao H, Xu X, Zhang P, Zhang M, Shao J, Xiao Y, Wang H. 2020 Limits of detection of six approved RT-PCR kits for the novel SARS-coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2). *Clin. Chem.* (doi:10.1093/clinchem/hvaa099)
 44. Li D, Wang D, Dong J, Wang N, Huang H, Xu H, Xia C. 2020 False-negative results of real-time reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction for severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2: role of deep-learning-based CT diagnosis and insights from two cases. *Korean J. Radiol.* **21**, 505–508. (doi:10.3348/kjr.2020.0146)
 45. Chen Z, Li Y, Wu B, Hou Y, Bao J, Deng X. 2020 A patient with COVID-19 presenting a false-negative reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction result. *Korean J. Radiol.* **21**, 623. (doi:10.3348/kjr.2020.0195)
 46. Li Y, Yao L, Li J, Chen L, Song Y, Cai Z, Yang C. 2020 Stability issues of RT-PCR testing of SARS-CoV-2 for hospitalized patients clinically diagnosed with COVID-19. *J. Med. Virol.* (doi:10.1002/jmv.25786)
 47. Dong X, Cao YY, Lu XX, Zhang JJ, Du H, Yan YQ, Akdis CA, Gao YD. 2020 Eleven faces of coronavirus disease 2019. *Allergy*. (doi:10.1111/all.14289)
 48. Ai T, Yang Z, Hou H, Zhan C, Chen C, Lv W, Tao Q, Sun Z, Xia L. 2020 Correlation of chest CT and RT-PCR testing in coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in China: a report of 1014 cases. *Radiology*. (doi:10.1148/radiol.20200642)
 49. Patel R, Babady E, Theel ES, Storch GA, Pinsky BA, St George K, Smith TC, Bertuzzi S. 2020 Report from the American Society for Microbiology COVID-19 International Summit, 23 March 2020: value of diagnostic testing for SARS-CoV-2/COVID-19. *mBio* **11**, e00722-20. (doi:10.1128/mBio.00722-20)
 50. Corman VM *et al.* 2020 Detection of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) by real-time RT-PCR. *Euro Surveill.* **25**, 2000045. (doi:10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.3.2000045)
 51. Shirato K *et al.* 2020 Development of genetic diagnostic methods for novel coronavirus 2019 (nCoV-2019) in Japan. *Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.* (doi:10.7883/yoken.JIID.2020.061)
 52. Chu DKW *et al.* 2020 Molecular diagnosis of a novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) causing an outbreak of pneumonia. *Clin. Chem.* **66**, 549–555. (doi:10.1093/clinchem/hvaa029)
 53. Shu Y, McCauley J. 2017 GISAID: global initiative on sharing all influenza data—from vision to reality. *Euro Surveill.* **22**, 30494. (doi:10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2017.22.13.30494)
 54. Das J, Do Q-T, Shaines K, Srikanth S. 2013 U.S. and them: the geography of academic research. *J. Dev. Econ.* **105**, 112–130. (doi:10.1016/j.jdeveco.2013.07.010)
 55. Di Marco M *et al.* 2017 Changing trends and persisting biases in three decades of conservation science. *Glob. Ecol. Conserv.* **10**, 32–42. (doi:10.1016/j.gecco.2017.01.008)
 56. Chen Q, Allot A, Lu Z. 2020 Keep up with the latest coronavirus research. *Nature* **579**, 193. (doi:10.1038/d41586-020-00694-1)
 57. Arab-Zozani M, Hassanipour S. 2020 Features and limitations of LitCovid hub for quick access to literature about COVID-19. *Balkan Med. J.* (doi:10.4274/balkanmedj.galenos.2020.2020.4.67)
 58. Katoh K, Misawa K, Kuma K, Miyata T. 2002 MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **30**, 3059–3066. (doi:10.1093/nar/gkf436)
 59. Katoh K, Rozewicki J, Yamada KD. 2019 MAFFT online service: multiple sequence alignment, interactive sequence choice and visualization. *Brief Bioinform.* **20**, 1160–1166. (doi:10.1093/bib/bbx108)
 60. Larsson A. 2014 AliView: a fast and lightweight alignment viewer and editor for large datasets. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 3276–3278. (doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btu531)
 61. Nagy A, Jirinec T, Jirincova H, Cernikova L, Havlickova M. 2019 In silico re-assessment of a diagnostic RT-qPCR assay for universal detection of Influenza A viruses. *Sci. Rep.* **9**, 1630. (doi:10.1038/s41598-018-37869-w)
 62. CDC. 2020 CDC 2019-novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) Real-Time RT-PCR Diagnostic Panel. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/134922/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
 63. Zhao Z, Li H, Wu X, Zhong Y, Zhang K, Zhang YP, Boerwinkle E, Fu YX. 2004 Moderate mutation rate in the SARS coronavirus genome and its implications. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **4**, 21. (doi:10.1186/1471-2148-4-21)
 64. Shen Z *et al.* 2020 Genomic diversity of SARS-CoV-2 in coronavirus disease 2019 patients. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* (doi:10.1093/cid/ciaa203)
 65. Sanjuan R, Domingo-Calap P. 2016 Mechanisms of viral mutation. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* **73**, 4433–4448. (doi:10.1007/s00018-016-2299-6)
 66. Carrasco-Hernandez R, Jacome R, Lopez Vidal Y, Ponce de Leon S. 2017 Are RNA viruses candidate agents for the next global pandemic? A review. *ILAR J.* **58**, 343–358. (doi:10.1093/ilar/ilx026)
 67. Lefever S, Pattyn F, Hellemans J, Vandesompele J. 2013 Single-nucleotide polymorphisms and other mismatches reduce performance of quantitative PCR assays. *Clin. Chem.* **59**, 1470–1480. (doi:10.1373/clinchem.2013.203653)
 68. Stadhouders R, Pas SD, Anber J, Voermans J, Mes TH, Schutten M. 2010 The effect of primer-template mismatches on the detection and quantification of nucleic acids using the 5' nuclease assay. *J. Mol. Diagn.* **12**, 109–117. (doi:10.2353/jmoldx.2010.090035)
 69. Armstrong PM, Prince N, Andreadis TG. 2012 Development of a multi-target TaqMan assay to detect eastern equine encephalitis virus variants in mosquitoes. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis.* **12**, 872–876. (doi:10.1089/vzb.2012.1008)
 70. Garson JA, Ferns RB, Grant PR, Ijaz S, Nastouli E, Szypulska R, Tedder RS. 2012 Minor groove binder modification of widely used TaqMan probe for hepatitis E virus reduces risk of false negative real-time PCR results. *J. Virol. Methods.* **186**, 157–160. (doi:10.1016/j.jviromet.2012.07.027)
 71. Brault AC, Fang Y, Dannen M, Anishchenko M, Reisen WK. 2012 A naturally occurring mutation within the probe-binding region compromises a molecular-based West Nile virus surveillance assay for mosquito pools (Diptera: Culicidae). *J. Med. Entomol.* **49**, 939–941. (doi:10.1603/me11287)
 72. Vogels CB *et al.* 2020 Analytical sensitivity and efficiency comparisons of SARS-CoV-2 qRT-PCR assays. *medRxiv*. (doi:10.1101/2020.03.30.20048108)
 73. West CP, Montori VM, Sampathkumar P. 2020 COVID-19 testing: the threat of false-negative

- results. *Mayo Clin. Proc.* **20**, 30365–30367. (doi:10.1016/j.mayocp.2020.04.004)
74. Drame M, Teguo MT, Proye E, Hequet F, Hentzien M, Kanagaratnam L, Godaert L. 2020 Should RT-PCR be considered a gold standard in the diagnosis of Covid-19? *J. Med. Virol.* (doi:10.1002/jmv.25996)
75. Holland M *et al.* 2020 BioLaboro: a bioinformatics system for detecting molecular assay signature erosion and designing new assays in response to emerging and reemerging pathogens. *bioRxiv.* (doi:10.1101/2020.04.08.031963)
76. Commission Services. 2020 Current performance of COVID-19 test methods and devices and proposed performance criteria—working document of commission services. 17 April 2020. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/135659/download> (accessed 6 May 2020).
77. FDA. 2020 Policy for coronavirus disease-2019 tests during the public health emergency (Revised). 4 May 2020. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/135659/download> (accessed 6 May 2020).
78. FDA. 2020 Emergency Use Authorizations. See https://www.fda.gov/medical-devices/emergency-situations-medical-devices/emergency-use-authorizations#_covid19ivd (accessed 12 May 2020).
79. BD. 2020 BD BioGX SARS-CoV-2 reagents for BD MAX system. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/136653/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
80. Abbott. 2020 Abbott realtime SARS-CoV-2. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/136258/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
81. GenExpert. 2020 Xpert xpress SARS-CoV-2. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/136314/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
82. Hologic. 2020 Panther fusion SARS-CoV-2 assay. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/136156/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
83. Qiagen. 2020 QIAstat-Dx respiratory SARS-CoV2 Panel. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/136571/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
84. Roche. 2020 Cobas SARS-CoV-2. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/136049/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
85. Seegene. 2020 Allplex 2019-nCoV Assay. See <https://www.fda.gov/media/137178/download> (accessed 12 May 2020).
86. Pujadas E *et al.* 2020 Comparison of SARS-CoV-2 detection from nasopharyngeal swab samples by the Roche cobas(R) 6800 SARS-CoV-2 test and a laboratory-developed real-time RT-PCR test. *J. Med. Virol.* (doi:10.1002/jmv.25988)
87. Rahman H *et al.* 2020 Interpret with caution: an evaluation of the commercial AusDiagnostics versus in-house developed assays for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 virus. *J. Clin. Virol.* **127**, 104374. (doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2020.104374)
88. Nagy A, Jirinec T, Cernikova L, Jirincova H, Havlickova M. 2015 Large-scale nucleotide sequence alignment and sequence variability assessment to identify the evolutionarily highly conserved regions for universal screening PCR assay design: an example of influenza A virus. *Methods Mol. Biol.* **1275**, 57–72. (doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-2365-6_4)
89. Singer JB, Thomson EC, McLauchlan J, Hughes J, Gifford RJ. 2018 GLUE: a flexible software system for virus sequence data. *BMC Bioinf.* **19**, 532. (doi:10.1186/s12859-018-2459-9)