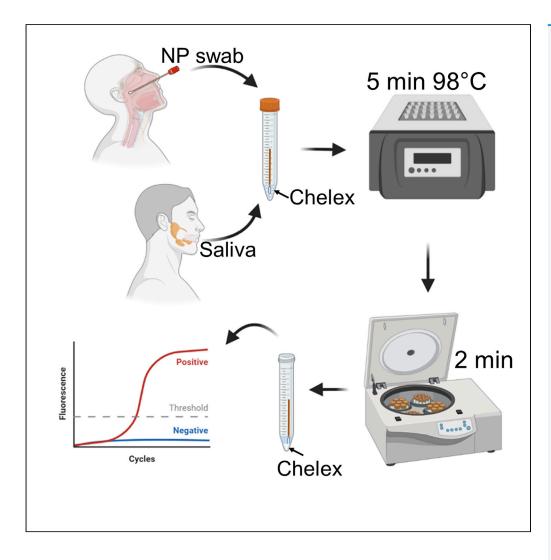
iScience



Article

Sensitive extraction-free SARS-CoV-2 RNA virus detection using a chelating resin



Bin Guan, Karen M. Frank, José O. Maldonado, Margaret Beach, Eileen Pelayo, Blake M. Warner, Robert B. Hufnagel

robert.hufnagel@nih.gov

Highlights

The COVID-19 pandemic caused supply shortages for diagnostic tests

Chelex resin preserves SARS-CoV-2 RNA in common buffers allowing direct RT-qPCR

The Chelex method presents a safe, economic, and sensitive test for RNA pathogens

Guan et al., iScience 24, 102960 September 24, 2021 https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.isci.2021.102960



iScience



Article

Sensitive extraction-free SARS-CoV-2 RNA virus detection using a chelating resin

Bin Guan,¹ Karen M. Frank,² José O. Maldonado,^{3,4} Margaret Beach,⁴ Eileen Pelayo,⁴ Blake M. Warner,⁴ and Robert B. Hufnagel^{1,5,*}

SUMMARY

Current conventional detection of SARS-CoV-2 involves collection of a patient's sample with a nasopharyngeal swab, storage of the swab during transport in a viral transport medium, extraction of RNA, and quantitative reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR). We developed a simplified preparation method using a chelating resin, Chelex, which obviates RNA extraction during viral testing. Direct detection RT-qPCR and digital droplet PCR were compared to the current conventional method with RNA extraction for simulated samples and patient specimens. The heat treatment in the presence of Chelex markedly improved detection sensitivity as compared to heat alone, and lack of RNA extraction shortens the overall diagnostic workflow. Furthermore, the initial sample heating step inactivates SARS-CoV-2 infectivity, thus improving workflow safety. This fast RNA preparation and detection method is versatile for a variety of samples, safe for testing personnel, and suitable for standard clinical collection and testing on high-throughput platforms.

INTRODUCTION

Diagnostic testing for SARS-CoV-2 is crucial to combat the current COVID-19 pandemic, even as vaccines are being distributed. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) protocol for detecting SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) involves sample collection, RNA extraction, and one-step real-time reverse transcription PCR (rRT-PCR or RT-qPCR) (CDC-006-00,019, Revision 06 accessed on 6/21/2021: https://www.fda.gov/media/134922/download). Uncontrolled community spread of SARS-CoV-2 has caused supply shortages for diagnostic tests, including the RNA extraction kits. Supply chain uncertainty and lack of adequate supplies remain widespread, which hinders day-to-day laboratory operations and impedes efforts to increase testing capacity (survey results published on Nov. 9, 2020 and accessed on 11/12/2020: https://asm.org/Articles/2020/September/Clinical-Microbiology-Supply-Shortage-Collecti-1).

Recent research aimed at both simplifying current standard testing procedures for SARS-CoV-2 and alleviating RNA extraction kit shortage has shown encouraging results. Initially, specimens collected on nasopharyngeal swabs (NP swab) have been eluted in low ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) tris buffer (lowTE) and were directly used for one-step RT-qPCR, without RNA extraction. This resulted in lower threshold cycles (Ct values) (Srivatsan et al., 2020). The lower Ct value suggests that eliminating the RNA extraction step may increase sensitivity. Secondly, samples collected in a viral transport medium (VTM) have been successfully used for direct RT-qPCR detection after heating (Alcoba-Florez et al., 2020; Beltrán-Pavez et al., 2020; Bruce et al., 2020; Fomsgaard and Rosenstierne, 2020; Grant et al., 2020; Hasan et al., 2020; Lubke et al., 2020; Merindol et al., 2020; Smyrlaki et al., 2020). Despite these noteworthy results, the Ct values were 4 or more cycles higher than those of the standard protocol utilizing the RNA extraction step. Lower inherent detection sensitivity leads to higher false negative rates, which is a particular risk for low viral load samples (Beltrán-Pavez et al., 2020; Bruce et al., 2020; Fomsgaard and Rosenstierne, 2020). Thirdly, proteinase K and heat have been used for NP and oropharyngeal swabs with 91% sensitivity, albeit with higher Ct than the conventional RNA extraction method in the RT-qPCR assays (Chu et al., 2020; Mallmann et al., 2020). Recently, saliva samples with RNA extraction have been found to be an effective alternative sample type to NP swabs (Chu et al., 2020; Sakanashi et al., 2020; Wyllie et al., 2020). Further studies showed that the SalivaDirect method, employing proteinase K and heat treatment, was able to detect six genome copies per µl of SARS-CoV-2 without RNA extraction (Vogels et al., 2020). Although RNA ¹Ophthalmic Genetics and Visual Function Branch, National Eye Institute, National Institutes of Health, 10 Center Drive, Building 10, Rm 10N109, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

²Department of Laboratory Medicine, Clinical Center, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

³AAV Biology Section, National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

⁴Salivary Disorders Unit, National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

⁵Lead contact

*Correspondence: robert.hufnagel@nih.gov https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci. 2021.102960





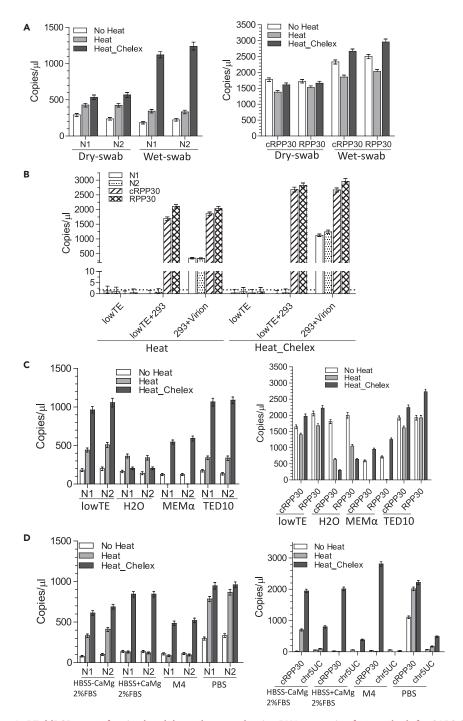


Figure 1. RT-ddPCR assays for simulated dry and wet swab using RNA-extraction-free methods for SARS-CoV-2 detection

(A) 200,000 SARS-CoV-2 virions and 20,000 293FT cells were dried at room temperature in a SpeedVac and then resuspended in a 200 μ L lowTE buffer to mimic the dry swab. The same amount of virions and 293FT cells directly added to the 200 μ L lowTE buffer was used to mimic the wet swab. The samples expected to have 1,000 virion genome copies/ μ l were then used directly for RT-ddPCR (no heat), heated at 98°C for 5 min (heat), or heated with 5% Chelex (Heat_Chelex). The RT-ddPCR reactions were carried out in one well for N1 and cRPP30 and another well for N2 and *RPP30*. (B) Negative controls and virion samples were prepared as wet swabs. The mean genome copies/ μ l of N1 and N2 were less than 1.2 in negative controls without virions added. N1 and N2 target SARS-CoV-2. cRPP30 is specific for *RPP30* cDNA, and *RPP30* targets both genomic DNA and cDNA. Copies/ μ l refers to concentration in the samples used for

iScience Article



Figure 1. Continued

RT-ddPCR. The error bars represent Poisson 95% confidence intervals. Dashed line indicates the threshold for the low detection limit of 1.8 copies/ μ l of SARS-CoV-2 virions.

(C) Virions of 1,000 genome copies/ μ l and 100 293FT cells/ μ l were prepared in lowTE, H2O, MEM alpha, or TED10, treated and assayed by RT-ddPCR as in (A).

(D) Virions of 1,000 genome copies/ μ l and 100 293FT cells/ μ l were prepared in HBSS with or without Ca²⁺ & Mg²⁺ supplemented with 2% FBS, M4, or PBS, treated and assayed by RT-ddPCR in for N1, N2, cRPP30, and chr5UC, a genomic DNA region on chromosome 5.

extraction-free methods are promising, they lack the sensitivity and limit of detection compared to the current CDC protocol.

In this study, we aimed to improve the reported RNA extraction-free protocols to match or exceed the sensitivity to that of the standard protocol with RNA extraction using both synthetic and human samples. We tested a variety of common chemicals that are used in molecular biology laboratories and tested different preparation methods to identify reagents and conditions that (i) minimize RNA degradation, (ii) allow room temperature transport, heat inactivation, and storage of human samples, and (iii) provide sensitive RNA detection by RT-qPCR or RT-ddPCR. We found that Chelex 100, a chelating ion exchange resin, preserves essentially all SARS-CoV-2 RNA in the sample and permits direct detection by both RT-qPCR and RT-ddPCR. We further demonstrated a COVID-19 testing workflow that immediately inactivated the virus and omitted RNA extraction while preserving the sensitivity of the standard protocol with RNA extraction.

RESULTS

Heating in lowTE buffer along with Chelex detects all virion RNA added

Given the promising results for COVID-19 testing obtained by direct elution of dried patient swab to lowTE (1x low-EDTA TE, 10 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) buffer (Srivatsan et al., 2020) and because heating has been shown to increase testing sensitivity for SARS-CoV-2 when samples stored in VTM were used for direct testing without RNA extraction (Beltrán-Pavez et al., 2020; Bruce et al., 2020; Fomsgaard and Rosenstierne, 2020), we set out to test these conditions in a direct dried swab elution procedure. We simulated the dry swab procedure by desiccating the mixture of inactivated SARS-CoV-2 virions with known genome copies and 293FT cells using a SpeedVac centrifuge at room temperature. After resuspending the virus and cells in lowTE to a concentration of 1,000 genome copies/ μ l, we quantified the virus with RT-ddPCR using the N1 and N2 primers and showed that only ~30% of virions were detected (Figure 1A, dried swab, no heat). Heating increased the detected virus to ~40% of added virions (Figure 1A, dried swab, heat).

As RNases are Mg²⁺ dependent similar to DNases and Chelex polymers have been used successfully for DNA preparation for their property of chelating divalent ions (Walsh et al., 1991), we tested viral RNA isolation using Chelex. Heating the sample along with 5% Chelex improved virion detection to ~50% (Figure 1A, dried swab, Heat_Chelex). We suspected that the desiccation-resuspension process caused viral and cellular RNA degradation. To confirm this, we added virions and 293FT cells directly to lowTE and measured viral RNA content (Figure 1A, wet swab). Heating the sample in lowTE in the presence of Chelex led to the detection of ~100% of virions added. The *RPP30* mRNA also had the highest yield in the presence of Chelex. Heating without Chelex led to more *RPP30* mRNA degradation but also resulted in better detection of the SARS-CoV-2 RNA as compared to the no heat condition. The N1 and N2 primers produced minimum background as shown in the controls (lowTE and 293FT cells suspended in lowTE) (Figure 1B).

The pH of 5% Chelex in water is 10-11 (Walsh et al., 1991). Because alkaline conditions are expected to lead to rapid RNA hydrolysis, we postulated that Tris pH 8.0 in the lowTE buffer was critical for the high detection rate of SARS-CoV-2 virions in the presence of Chelex. To test this, we measured detectable virion RNA when samples were prepared in water (Figure 1C). In water, heating with Chelex only detected 20% of added virions and 15% of the *RPP30* mRNA, detected in the lowTE/Chelex condition. We also simulated the swab stored in MEM α media, which has a similar formulation to VTM. Heating in MEM α led to an undetectable level of viral RNA and *RPP30* mRNA, possibly owing to the presence of 1.8 mM Ca²⁺ and 0.8 mM Mg²⁺ in the media. Inclusion of Chelex during heating resulted in detection of >55% of viral RNA (Figure 1C). We found that inclusion of 2.5–5% DMSO in the final ddPCR reaction reduced the negative droplet intensity (Figure S1). In addition, we also the simulated swab stored in the TED10 (90% lowTE +10% DMSO) buffer, which results in 2.5% DMSO in the ddPCR reaction and thus potentially simplifies the reaction setup. The





viral and *RPP30* RNA amounts detected in the TED10 buffer in Chelex were slightly higher than those in the lowTE buffer.

The CDC recommends VTM for specimens for viral culture and viral detection, which contains HBSS 1X with calcium and magnesium, 2% heat-inactivated FBS, and gentamicin and amphotericin B (CDC SOP# DSR-052-05 accessed on 11/16/2020, https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/downloads/Viral-Transport-Medium.pdf). The 1X HBSS buffer contains 1.3 mM Ca²+ and 0.9 mM Mg²+, which may lead to viral RNA degradation during heating, similar to MEM α medium. We tested the HBSS buffer without Ca²+/Mg²+ but supplemented with 2% heat-inactivated FBS, HBSS buffer containing Ca²+/Mg²+ and 2% heat-inactivated FBS, the M4 transport medium (HBSS-based medium, containing HEPES, BSA, gelatin, and antibiotics), and PBS in the RNA extraction-free assay (Figure 1D). Heat increased the viral detection for calcium/magnesium-free media but not the calcium/magnesium media. Only ~12% of viral RNA was detected in the HBSS containing Ca²+/Mg²+ and 2% heat-inactivated FBS after heating. In contrast, heating in the presence of Chelex allowed the detection of 84% of virions.

In summary, LowTE pH 8.0 and TED10 with Chelex produced the highest amount of viral RNA detected as compared to no heat or heating conditions among the buffers tested.

Buffers allowing successful RT-qPCR without conventional RNA extraction

To investigate whether other agents besides Chelex could similarly be used for efficient RNA extraction-free SARS-CoV-2 detection by protecting against degradation, we tested various buffers for RT-qPCR without conventional RNA extraction. These buffers included RNA/later (used for sample storage before RNA extraction), buffer RLT (lysis buffer from the QIAGEN RNeasy RNA extraction kit), urea (used for RNA extraction (Almarza et al., 2006)), DMSO (used as lysis buffer for DNA extraction (Campo et al., 2010) and known to inhibit RNases (Moreno et al., 1990)), 1 x TE (10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0), 10 x TE (20 mM Tris, 10 mM EDTA, pH7.5), and MEM α medium. Inactivated SARS-CoV-2 and 293FT cells were mixed and added to these buffers above along with lowTE and heated with or without Chelex (Figure S2A). We diluted the samples in water before RT-qPCR to avoid suspected inhibition of reverse transcription and PCR and then compared the Ct values to calculated Ct values based on the Ct of extracted RNA and number of virions present in each sample.

Of the chemicals tested, RNA/ater and RLT appeared to be incompatible with the RNA-extraction-free method, as there was either no amplification or the Ct values were much higher than the expected values for all four targets (Figure S2A) after 20-fold dilution. Urea, DMSO, TE, or MEM α showed minimum RT-qPCR inhibition after dilutions. Chelex appears critical to achieve better detection of viral RNA and cellular RNA in DMSO, 1xTE, lowTE, or MEM α , with an average Ct cycle difference of N1 and N2 between Chelex and heat alone as 2.2, 1.8, 1.4, and 13, respectively. This represents improvement of sensitivity by Chelex of 4.5, 3.6, 2.7, and >1,000 fold for samples prepared in DMSO, 1xTE, lowTE, and MEM α , respectively. In summary, viral RNA detection sensitivity in simulated nasopharyngeal swab samples was highest in the presence of Chelex.

Next, we tested saliva samples with known added virion concentrations. Inactivated SARS-CoV-2 virions were also added to saliva, which were then mixed 1:1 with various buffers as above, to test whether saliva samples can be subjected to direct RNA detection. Saliva samples without exogenous chemicals or in DMSO were superior for RT-qPCR detection among the tested conditions (Figure S2A). Chelex 5% did not improve Ct for saliva, whereas decreased 3.4 Ct cycles for saliva 1:1 mixed with DMSO (Figure S2A).

We then determined the maximum concentrations of tested chemicals that were tolerated in an RT-qPCR reaction (Figure S2B). Samples were heat treated with Chelex, and serial dilutions of 2-fold were used for RT-qPCR. The highest chemical concentrations that did not interfere with RT-qPCR while using 5 μ L of undiluted sample in a 20 μ L reaction were urea 0.5 M, DMSO 50%, and EDTA 0.5 mM (Figure S2B). The N1 and N2 Ct values for the undiluted sample in lowTE were the lowest; the values were lower than those of RNA extraction using the same amount of virions, likely reflecting RNA loss during RNA extraction.

Together, these results indicate that, by obviating the RNA extraction step, the presence of Chelex in the sample buffer increases the RNA molecules available for RT-qPCR, as we observed in a variety of buffers





simulating nasopharyngeal and saliva collection conditions. Collecting swabs in lowTE appears to provide the highest sensitivity under synthetic conditions.

Limit of detection

We attempted to further refine the buffer for this RNA-extraction-free method by adjusting DMSO concentration and combining TE with DMSO. The RT-qPCR data showed that lowTE with heat and Chelex showed the lowest Ct values for N1 and N2, and combination of TE with DMSO did not improve the Ct (Figure S3A). Among the saliva samples, undiluted saliva condition had the lowest Ct for N1 and N2 (Figure S3A), with Ct values \sim 0.5 cycles above the lowTE sample. Heated saliva samples with or without Chelex lowered Ct values by more than 2 cycles compared to non-heated samples. We further found that increasing Chelex levels in DMSO increased detectable viral and cellular RNA (Figure S3B).

To improve the limit of detection for RT-qPCR, we optimized the reaction conditions by (i) including 2.5% DMSO in the final reaction if a sample does not contain DMSO, (ii) reducing the reaction volume to 10 μ L, and (iii) using the NEB-Luna-program II for RT-qPCR, thereby reducing denaturing time from 10 s to 5 s and annealing/extension time from 40 s to 20 s (Figure S4). Under this condition, the Ct values for non-template controls were either undetermined or above 38. When analyzing the 10-fold serial dilutions of SARS-CoV-2 virions using our new preparation method by using RT-qPCR, the limit of detection (LoD) was 200 copies per swab or 1000 copies/ml of samples before RT-qPCR (Figure 2A); however, while using the conventional RNA extraction method, the LoD was 2,000 genome copies per swab or 667 copies/ml of samples in VTM (Figure 2A). The LoD for saliva samples using the Chelex method was also at 1000 copies/ml for all replicates when 50 μ L of whole unstimulated saliva was added to 25 μ L of 50% Chelex, compared to the proteinase K method, which was undetermined for a single 1,000 copies/ml replicate (Figure 2B).

We then used RT-ddPCR to determine whether we could detect a lower virion copy number. Because we occasionally observed 1 or 2 positive droplets in the no-template control reactions, we applied 1.8 copies/ μ I or 50% higher than the maximum N1/N2 mean of negative controls (Figures 1B and 2C) for the mean of N1 and N2 as the threshold for being positive for the SARS-CoV-2 N1/N2 RT-ddPCR assay. RT-ddPCR confirmed the LoD for conventional RNA extraction method to 2,000 virions per swab (667 copies/mI) and the lowTE-Heat-Chelex method to 200 virions per swab (1,000 copies/mI) (Figures 2C and Table 1). The RNA extraction method only detected 30-50% of RNA molecules at the viral loads tested (Table 1).

In summary, the lower LoD for Chelex method is 1 copy/ μ l in NP or saliva under optimized buffer conditions, and it avoids virion loss as observed in the RNA extraction protocols.

Patient samples

We then validated our Chelex RNA preparation method using primary patient samples. NP swabs were collected in M4 (N = 14, S01 to S14, Figure 3A) or PBS (N = 2, S15 & S16). These samples were tested in the NIH Clinical Center diagnostic laboratory using conventional CDC RNA extraction and RT-qPCR method (easyMAG-CL method) and were then frozen. Three of these samples, S01–S03, had viral titers above 200 genome copies/ μ l. Twelve samples had viral titers less than 20 genome copies/ μ l, including eight considered indeterminate because only one of N1 or N2 targets was positive. One sample, S14, was negative.

Samples were thawed and mixed with the Chelex resin, heat inactivated, and subjected to RT-qPCR using the NEB Luna RT-qPCR kit (Chelex-Luna method). As the easyMAG-CL method enriched the sample 4-fold before RT-qPCR, we expected that Ct values from the Chelex-Luna method would increase by 2-fold including loss that may occur during RNA extraction (50% detectable viral materials in M4 in the Chelex-Luna assay; Figure 1D). The Ct values for N1, N2, and *RPP30* from clinical laboratory RT-qPCR and NEB Luna RT-qPCR were comparable when using a common set of purified patient RNA samples with different viral titers (data not shown). The mean difference of N1 Ct between the two methods was 2.7, excluding four samples (S10, S11, S12, and S16) that did not show a Ct value in the Chelex-Luna assay.

Of the twelve samples with less than 20 genome copies/µl, eight (or 67%) were positive in the N1 Chelex-Luna assay, including two samples (S13 and S15) that showed lower Ct values and another (S08) with a similar Ct value. The N2 Ct values were higher than N1 and many were higher than 38 and thus were not representative of the low titer samples in the Chelex-Luna assay. Two NP swab samples stored in the



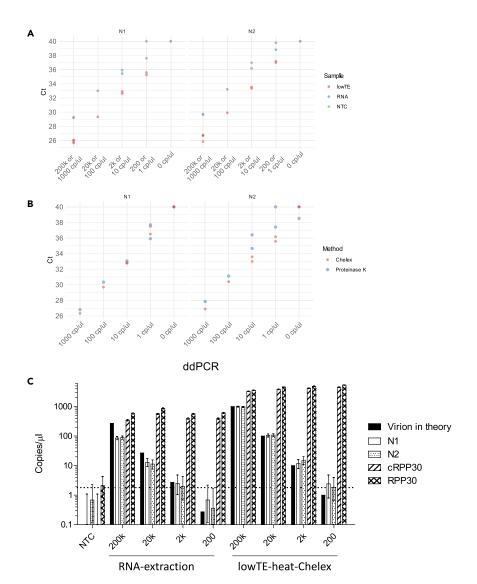


Figure 2. The limit of detection of SARS-CoV-2 using RT-qPCR or -ddPCR

(A) RT-qPCR comparing Chelex-RNA and conventional RNA extraction. RNA refers to RNA prepared by simulating conventional method with RNA extraction: a swab with 200,000 to 200 genome copies of SARS-CoV-2 virions was added to 3 mL of VTM, of which 200 μ L were used for RNA extraction, and RNA was eluted in 50 μ L H2O. LowTE refers to simulating a swab with 200,000 to 200 genome copies of virions eluted in 200 μ L lowTE and then heated in the presence of 5% Chelex.

(B) RT-qPCR comparing Chelex and proteinase K methods for saliva samples. One thousand to 1 genome copies/ μ l of SARS-CoV-2 virions were prepared in saliva samples and subjected to the Chelex or proteinase K methods and RT-qPCR. The NEB Luna RT-qPCR kit and NEB-Luna-Program II were used with 2.5 μ L samples in 10- μ L reaction volumes. Samples with undetermined Ct values were plotted as Ct 40.

(C) The limit of detection of SARS-CoV-2 using RT-ddPCR. Samples from (A) were used for RT-ddPCR. The sample of 5 μ L was used for RT-ddPCR in 20- μ L reaction volume. The mean genome copies/ μ l of N1 and N2 were less than 1.2 in negative controls without virions added. N1 and N2 target SARS-CoV-2. cRPP30 is specific for *RPP30* cDNA, and *RPP30* targets both genomic DNA and cDNA. Copies/ μ l refers to concentration in the samples used for RT-ddPCR. The error bars represent Poisson 95% confidence intervals. Dashed line indicates the threshold for the low detection limit of 1.8 copies/ μ l of SARS-CoV-2 virions. NTC, no-template control.

CDC-suggested VTM (HBSS with Calcium & Magnesium, S17 and S18) were tested side by side using easy-Mag-CL and Chelex-Luna methods. The N1 and N2 Ct values of both samples increased to 2 and 4, respectively, indicating possible inhibition by the VTM as observed in the synthetic samples (Figure 3A).





Table 1. Limit of detection comparing conventional RNA extraction and new preparation method

Sample	RNA extraction			lowTE_Heat_Chelex		
"Swab" viral load (genome copies)	Theoretical virus concentration ^a (copies/µl)	Mean of N1/N2 concentration (copies/µl)	Percentage detected	Theoretical virus concentration ^a (copies/µl)	Mean of N1/N2 concentration (copies/µl)	Percentage detected
200k	266.7	86.8	33%	1,000	976	98%
20k	26.7	12.0	45%	100	106	106%
2k	2.7	2.2	Detectable ^b	10	13.4	134%
200	0.3	0.5	Under detection limit ^b	1	2.1	Detectable ^b

^aVirus concentration in samples used for RT-ddPCR if there is no loss during sample processing.

Next, we compared the RNA extraction and Chelex methods using two primary saliva samples (Saliva 01 and 02) and 20 positive saliva samples diluted in negative saliva samples side by side (Saliva 03–22, Figure 3B). The mean Ct difference values between the Chelex and RNA extraction methods for N1 and N2 were 1.6 and 2.6, respectively. Among the six samples with less than 10 genome copies/ μ l as determined by the RNA extraction method, five were positive and one (Saliva 20) was indeterminate in the Chelex assay (Figure 3B). Thus, the Chelex method demonstrated similar sensitivity as the RNA extraction method for both primary NP swab and saliva samples.

We then tested the optimized Chelex RNA isolation method prospectively by collecting symptomatic patient NP swabs (n = 7) and saliva-saturated swabs (n = 4) directly into 0.5 mL (NP) or 0.4 mL (saliva) Chelex containing buffer side by side with swabs collected into 3 mL VTM. The Chelex samples were heated and used for NEB Luna RT-qPCR, and the samples in VTM were subjected to RNA extraction followed by RTqPCR performed at the clinical laboratory. Because 1/6th of buffer in the collection tube was used in the Chelex method and RNA extraction concentrated the sample by 4-fold, the Ct values in the Chelex method are expected to be 0.6 lower than the RNA extraction method (1/200 of materials from a swab used in a $10~\mu L$ RT-qPCR reaction in the Chelex-Luna method vs 1/150 of materials from a swab used in a 20 μL reaction in the EasyMAG-CL method). Using both the methods, sample P1 was found to be negative; besides, five of the six NP samples and four of the four saliva samples had lower N1 and N2 Ct values in the Chelex method as compared to the RNA extraction method (Figure 3C). The N1 Ct difference values of the NP samples for patients P2-P7 between these two methods were -1.9, -2.1, -4.2, 0.8, -3.2, and -6.4, respectively; similarly, their N2 Ct difference values were -0.3, -5.5, -6.1, -0.7, -3.2, and -9.7, respectively. The N1 Ct difference values of the saliva samples for patients P4-P7 between these two methods were -1.1, -2.1, -2.5, and -1.1, respectively, and their N2 Ct difference values were -5.6, -3.9, -3.7, and -7.2, respectively. Thus, the Chelex method may offer better sensitivities by using the procedure discussed here. In addition, the Chelex method allowed sample processing without a Biosafety Cabinet hood as the samples were inactivated before the tube was opened.

Sample stability at room temperature

We then determined whether viral and cellular RNAs were stable over time. Samples were stored at room temperature, then heat treated in the presence of Chelex, and assayed at different time points as indicated (Figure 4). Viral RNAs in lowTE or TED10 were relatively stable at room temperature, and ~80% of N1 or N2 RNAs were detected on day 5 (Figure 4A). Viral RNAs were less stable in MEM α medium as > 80% degraded after 3 days (Figure 4A). The cellular RNA was less stable than the viral RNA under similar conditions (Figure 4A). We then determined the RNA stability at room temperature after heat treatment with Chelex (Figure 4B). Heat treatment stabilized both viral and cellular RNA, and >80% of viral RNAs and >60% of cellular RNAs were detected on day 5 (Figure 4B).

A similar stability experiment was performed for virions prepared in saliva samples. The viral RNAs were stable in saliva before heat treatment, as a higher amount of viral RNAs were detected after storage at room temperature, possibly because interfering agents in saliva degrade during storage (Figure 5A). However, the viral RNA stability decreased markedly after heat treatment (Figure 5B).

^bThe means of N1 and N2 copy numbers for the control samples without virions added were less than 1.2 copies/ μ l; thus, we applied 1.8 copies/ μ l as the low limit of detection for the SARS-CoV-2 N1/N2 RT-ddPCR assay.



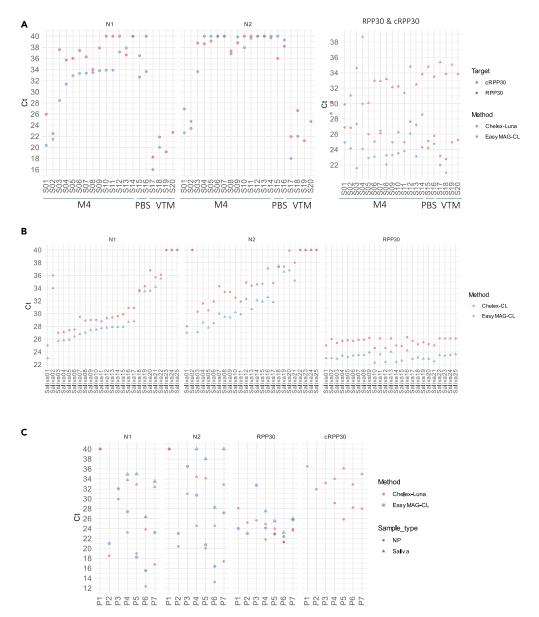


Figure 3. SARS-CoV-2 detection of patient samples prepared by the Chelex method

(A) Patient NP swab samples were heated in the presence of 5% Chelex (S01–S16, and S19, S20) or 10% Chelex (S17 and S18). S19 and S20 are of 1:2 dilutions of S17 & S18 in LowTE, respectively.

(B) 50 μ L of patient saliva samples (Saliva 01 and 02) or negative patient saliva samples spiked with positive patient saliva samples (Salia 03–22) was mixed with 25 μ L of 50% Chelex in TED99 and heated for 5 min in a ThermoMixer.

(C) Paired NP swabs from seven patients (P1 to P7) and saliva-saturated swabs from four patients (P4 to P7) were collected in VTM or Chelex collection tubes. VTM samples were used for RNA extraction (EasyMag). Luna refers to the NEB Luna RT-qPCR kit and NEB-Luna-Program II with 2.5 μ L samples in a 10- μ L reaction volume. CL refers to a CDC assay performed in the clinical laboratory with 5- μ L samples in a 20- μ L reaction volume. Undetermined Ct values were plotted as Ct 40.

DISCUSSION

Our preparation approach using Chelex polymer increased RNA yield available for RT-qPCR and RT-ddPCR detection compared to the conventional method using the simulated samples with the ATCC SARS-CoV-2 virions. When using stored patient samples, RNA extraction provided higher sensitivity (Figures 3A and 3B). This is likely due to the enrichment arising from the lower volume of RNA eluate as compared to the input sample volume. Lower sensitivity of the Chelex method seen in Figure 3A could





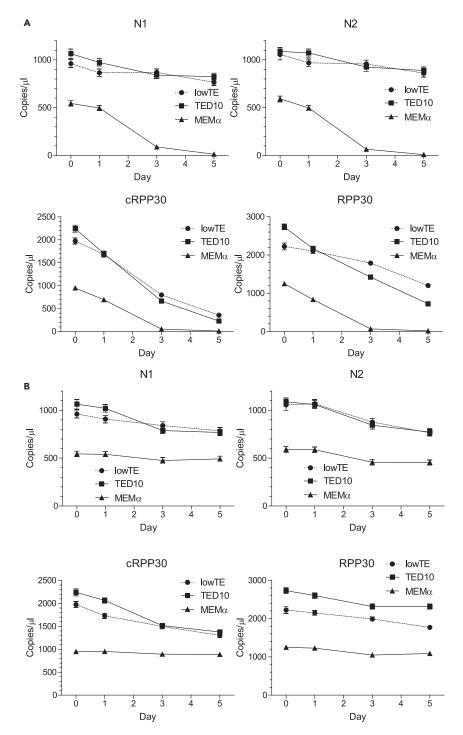
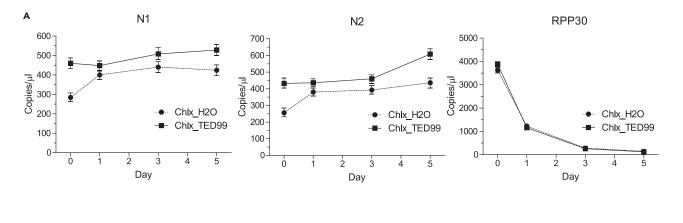


Figure 4. Viral and cellular RNA stability in lowTE by RT-ddPCR assays

(A) Virions of 1,000 virion genome copies/ μ l and 100 cells/ μ l 293FT cells were prepared in lowTE, TED10, or MEM α and stored at room temperature. Samples were heated with 5% Chelex on the time points indicated and assayed. The RT-ddPCR reactions were carried out in one well for N1 and cRPP30 and another well for N2 and *RPP30*. (B) Virions of 1,000 virion genome copies/ μ l and 100 cells/ μ l 293FT cells were prepared in the buffers, heated with 5% Chelex on day 0, and assayed on a time series. Copies/ μ l refers to concentration in the samples used for RT-ddPCR. The error bars represent Poisson 95% confidence intervals.





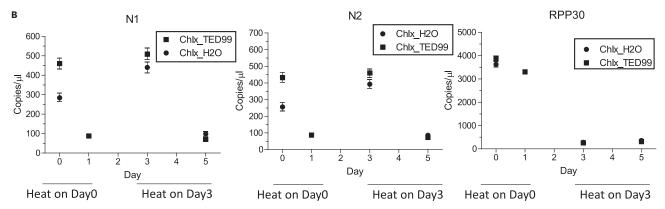


Figure 5. Viral RT stability in saliva by RT-ddPCR assays

(A) Virions were added to saliva samples at 1,000 virion genome copies/ μ l and stored at room temperature. Samples were heated with 1/5 volumes of 50% Chelex prepared in H2O or TED99 on the time points indicated and assayed. The RT-ddPCR reactions were carried out in one well for N1 and cRPP30 and another well for N2 and *RPP30*.

(B) Virions of 1,000 virion genome copies/ μ l were prepared in saliva as in (A), heated with Chelex on day 0 or day 3, and assayed on the days indicated. cRPP30 data points were not plotted because of the low level detected. Copies/ μ l refers to concentration in the samples used for RT-ddPCR. The error bars represent Poisson 95% confidence intervals.

also be due to RNA loss during the freeze-thaw cycle. When the samples were tested side by side (Figure 3B), the sensitivities of the Chelex method and RNA extraction method were comparable. When patient samples were collected in VTM (S17 & S18 in Figure 3A), the Ct values of N1 and N2 increased to 2 and 4, respectively, suggesting that the Chelex method on VTM-collected samples may result in lower sensitivity for some low viral load samples. Further, we found that N1 and N2 responded differently toward components in the VTM as the N1 Ct increased while N2 Ct decreased after the 1:2 dilution (S19 and S20 in Figure 3A). Our results in Figure 3C showed that collecting the swab directly in Chelex-TED (TE + DMSO) buffers followed by heating provided the best sensitivity for SARS-CoV-2 detection. The higher LoD associated with the conventional RNA extraction method was due to dilution in the VTM and loss of RNA during RNA extraction as shown in Table 1. In addition, viral RNA may be degraded faster when storing in the calcium/magnesium containing VTM, as suggested by the data presented in Figure 4A. As such, we recommend primary sample collection for this RNA isolation method in either TED or lowTE buffer, which has similar or better detection performance as RNA extraction methods for primary samples collected in VTM.

We also demonstrate that the Chelex method allows for highly reproducible detection of 1 genome copy/ μl of the SARS-CoV-2 virions, a 6-15-fold improvement in detection sensitivity (Mancini et al., 2020; Vogels et al., 2020). One explanation for this improvement is that the Chelex resin chelates the divalent ions necessary for Rnase activities, and the resin might be able to non-specifically remove inhibitors for reverse transcription and/or PCR. Un-processed samples may lead to more RNA degradation during sample collection

iScience Article



and storage as compared to being stored in the presence of Chelex. In addition, the lower volume used for sample collection as shown in Figure 3C could increase RNA detection due to less absorbance of RNA to the tubes. We further identified conditions that allow sensitive detection of SARS-CoV-2 in saliva. The potential benefits of salivary testing include lower cost (no swab), reduced variability, and improved patient acceptance over traditional NP swab (Barat et al., 2020; Wyllie et al., 2020). Thus, the Chelex method may provide a more sensitive point-of-care method for RNA diagnostics by reducing false-negative results.

We selected a temperature above 95°C for heat inactivation for two reasons: (i) much shorter duration is required to inactive RNA viruses at higher temperatures and (ii) heat inactivation at 60°C for 60 min decreases 50% of tissue culture infectivity dose more than 6 Log10, but it did not inactivate SARS-CoV-2 completely (Pastorino et al., 2020). A water or bead bath can be used to perform the 95-98°C heat inactivation of a large number of samples.

There will be a continued need for SARS-CoV-2 detection during and after the current vaccination period. The sheer volume of preprints and publications in a short period of time illustrates the urgent need and hope to increase the testing capacity employing the RNA-extraction-free approach. The utility of this RNA isolation method for both NP and saliva samples would increase the number of people tested in the same time frame as the current method. In addition to improved sensitivity, this method offers a number of additional advantages compared to the current gold standard clinical laboratory testing, including improved cost, reduced sample processing time and complexity, and enhanced workflow safety. The cost of CDC-recommended VTM collection tube is ~\$1.70 per tube, and RNA extraction may cost > \$6 per sample. We estimate the total cost of Chelex, lowTE, DMSO, and the collection tube to be <\$1 per sample. Thus, the Chelex method will save cost and reduce supply chain burden by eliminating the need for RNA extraction and VTM. The Chelex-based RNA preparation method—amenable for high-throughput processing—is expected to shorten diagnostic testing time by omitting the RNA extraction step and omitting the chemical disinfection of patient samples. This method utilizes a heat inactivation step that minimizes viral RNA loss and inactivates the virus before the tube is opened, thereby limiting the exposure of laboratory personnel to a live virus. Therefore, we fully expect that this method will facilitate broader availability and testing capacity not only for COVID-19 but also for other infectious pathogens. Because of the observed stability of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in collected samples at room temperature, this method should also improve access to COVID-19 testing in resource-scarce regions of the world, by improving the RNA stability, reducing the cost of collection kits and diagnostic reagents, and eliminating the requirement of refrigeration, biosafety cabinet, and the storage of RNA extraction kits.

Because the Chelex method also allowed cellular RNA detection, we expect that the method could find wide use in both clinical and research laboratories. DNA present in the solution is not expected to interfere with many applications because RT-qPCR can be performed using exon-spanning primers, and poly (A) selection is often an integrated step in RNAseq. The DNA present may be also used as a normalization control since the DNA content reflects the cell number when two cell populations have a similar percentage of cells in the G2/M phases. This helps to alleviate the concerns of choosing a proper house-keeping gene during RNA expression analysis (Panina et al., 2018). If DNA needs to be removed before downstream application, Dnase I treatment may be performed using commercially available Dnase I kits. The new RNA preparation method could also be used together with other RNA detection methods such as rolling circle amplification, loop-mediated isothermal amplification, or SHERLOCK (Kellner et al., 2019; Park et al., 2020; Takahashi et al., 2018).

In summary, we robustly demonstrate improvements in COVID-19 viral testing workflow using synthetic and real-world samples employing the Chelex-based extraction-free workflow. This methodology has clear benefits such as dramatic improvement of sensitivity, cost, and time saving for clinical laboratory testing. In addition, this method exhibits improved safety characteristics. Finally, this method can be easily adapted by both clinical and research laboratories and could be a standard of care for nucleic acid testing and transport in the near future.

Limitations of the study

One limitation of the current study was the low-level contamination observed in the RT-ddPCR assay, where one or two positive droplets were observed in the no-template control reactions. The





contamination could result from either viral RNA or PCR amplicons present in the research laboratory. Due to background contamination, we used 1.8 copies/µl as the low limit of detection for the SARS-CoV-2 N1/N2 RT-ddPCR assay. According to the FDA Emergency Use Authorization by the manufacturer Bio-Rad, the lower LoD in the 1-well RT-ddPCR assay system is 2 positive droplets and no positive droplets observed in no-template controls. Thus, the lower LoD in an RT-ddPCR assay could reach 100 copies/ml if performed in a clean room. Another limitation of the current study is that the ATCC heatinactivated virions were used in the method development and room temperature stability assays. Because the heat inactivation process may alter virion structure and/or RNA structure, the ATCC heatinactivated virions may not fully recapitulate the behaviors of SARS-CoV-2 virions in patient samples. However, results in Figure 3C showed that Chelex-TE buffer may have preserved the virion RNA better because five of the six positive patient samples had 1.9–6.4 lower N1 Ct values as compared to the method incorporating RNA extraction.

STAR*METHODS

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- KEY RESOURCES TABLE
- RESOURCE AVAILABILITY
 - Lead contact
 - Materials availability
 - O Data and code availability
- EXPERIMENTAL MODELS AND SUBJECT DETAILS
 - O Human samples
 - O Sample collection
- METHOD DETAILS
 - O Clinical laboratory CDC SARS-CoV-2 assay
 - O Chemicals, buffers, and cells
 - O Primers, RT-qPCR and RT-ddPCR
- QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
- ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2021.102960.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Intramural Research Programs of the National Institutes of Health (Clinical Center, NEI, NIDCR). The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of Health and Human Services nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the U.S. Government. We would like to acknowledge staff in the National Institutes of Health Department of Laboratory Medicine, Occupational Medical Services COVID-19 Testing Facility, and the Division of Fire and Rescue Services.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

B.G., K.M.F., B.M.W., and R.B.H. designed experiments and wrote the manuscript. K.M.F., J.O.M., M.B., E.P., and B.M.W. collected patient samples. All authors contributed to the manuscript editing.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

NEI (B.G. and R.B.H.) filed an invention disclosure. NEI has protected the intellectual property around this technology which is available for licensing and co-development. Please contact neitechtransfer@nei.nih. gov for more information.

Received: February 9, 2021 Revised: April 13, 2021 Accepted: August 3, 2021 Published: September 24, 2021

iScience

Article



REFERENCES

Alcoba-Florez, J., Gonzalez-Montelongo, R., Inigo-Campos, A., de Artola, D.G., Gil-Camposino, H., The Microbiology Technical Support, T., Ciuffreda, L., Valenzuela-Fernandez, A., and Flores, C. (2020). Fast SARS-CoV-2 detection by RT-qPCR in preheated nasopharyngeal swab samples. Int. J. Infect. Dis. 97, 66–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.05. 099.

Almarza, J., Morales, S., Rincon, L., and Brito, F. (2006). Urea as the only inactivator of RNase for extraction of total RNA from plant and animal tissues. Anal. Biochem. 358, 143–145. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ab.2006.03.040.

Barat, B., Das, S., De Giorgi, V., Henderson, D.K., Kopka, S., Lau, A.F., Miller, T., Moriarty, T., Palmore, T.N., Sawney, S., et al. (2020). Pooled saliva specimens for SARS-CoV-2 testing. J. Clin. Microbiol. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02486-20.

Beltrán-Pavez, C., Márquez, C.L., Muñoz, G., Valiente-Echeverría, F., Gaggero, A., Soto-Rifo, R., and Barriga, G.P. (2020). SARS-CoV-2 detection from nasopharyngeal swab samples without RNA extraction. bioRxiv. https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.03.28.013508.

Bruce, E.A., Huang, M.L., Perchetti, G.A., Tighe, S., Laaguiby, P., Hoffman, J.J., Gerrard, D.L., Nalla, A.K., Wei, Y., Greninger, A.L., et al. (2020). Direct RT-qPCR detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA from patient nasopharyngeal swabs without an RNA extraction step. PLoS Biol. 18, e3000896. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.3000896.

Campo, E.M.d., Hoyo, A.d., Casano, L.M., Martínez-Alberola, F., and Barreno, E. (2010). A rapid and cost-efficient DMSO-based method for isolating DNA from cultured lichen photobionts. Taxon 59C, 588–591.

Chu, A.W., Chan, W.M., Ip, J.D., Yip, C.C., Chan, J.F., Yuen, K.Y., and To, K.K. (2020). Evaluation of simple nucleic acid extraction methods for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 in nasopharyngeal and saliva specimens during global shortage of extraction kits. J. Clin. Virol. 129, 104519. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv.2020.104519.

Fomsgaard, A.S., and Rosenstierne, M.W. (2020). An alternative workflow for molecular detection of SARS-CoV-2 - escape from the NA extraction kit-shortage, Euro Surveill. 25. https://doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.14.2000398.

Grant, P.R., Turner, M.A., Shin, G.Y., Nastouli, E., and Levett, L.J. (2020). Extraction-free COVID-19 (SARS-CoV-2) diagnosis by RT-PCR to increase capacity for national testing programmes during a pandemic. bioRxiv.

Hasan, M.R., Mirza, F., Al-Hail, H., Sundararaju, S., Xaba, T., Iqbal, M., Alhussain, H., Yassine, H.M., Perez-Lopez, A., and Tang, P. (2020). Detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA by direct RT-qPCR on assopharyngeal specimens without extraction of viral RNA. PLoS One 15, e0236564. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0236564.

Huang, N., Perez, P., Kato, T., Mikami, Y., Okuda, K., Gilmore, R.C., Conde, C.D., Gasmi, B., Stein, S., Beach, M., et al. (2021). SARS-CoV-2 infection of the oral cavity and saliva. Nat. Med. 27, 892–903. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01204.8

Kellner, M.J., Koob, J.G., Gootenberg, J.S., Abudayyeh, O.O., and Zhang, F. (2019). SHERLOCK: nucleic acid detection with CRISPR nucleases. Nat. Protoc. 14, 2986–3012. https:// doi.org/10.1038/s41596-019-0210-2.

Lubke, N., Senff, T., Scherger, S., Hauka, S., Andree, M., Adams, O., Timm, J., and Walker, A. (2020). Extraction-free SARS-CoV-2 detection by rapid RT-qPCR universal for all primary respiratory materials. J. Clin. Virol. *130*, 104579. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv.2020.104579.

Mallmann, L., Schallenberger, K., Demolliner, M., Antunes Eisen, A.K., Hermann, B.S., Heldt, F.H., Hansen, A.W., Spilki, F.R., and Fleck, J.D. (2020). Pre-treatment of the clinical sample with Proteinase K allows detection of SARS-CoV-2 in the absence of RNA extraction.

Mancini, F., Barbanti, F., Scaturro, M., Errico, G., lacobino, A., Bella, A., Riccardo, F., Marsili, G., Stefanelli, P., Pezzotti, P., et al. (2020). Laboratory management for SARS-CoV-2 detection: a userfriendly combination of the heat treatment approach and rt-Real-time PCR testing. Emerg. Microbes Infect. 9, 1393–1396. https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2020.1775500.

Merindol, N., Pepin, G., Marchand, C., Rheault, M., Peterson, C., Poirier, A., Houle, C., Germain, H., and Danylo, A. (2020). SARS-CoV-2 detection by direct rRT-PCR without RNA extraction. J. Clin. Virol. 128, 104423. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv. 2020.104423.

Moreno, J.M., Sinisterra, J.V., and Ballesteros, A. (1990). Influence of organic aqueous-media in the Rnase activity of spleen phosphodiesterase. J. Mol. Catal. 62, 341–351. https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-5102(90)85229-B.

Panina, Y., Germond, A., Masui, S., and Watanabe, T.M. (2018). Validation of common housekeeping genes as reference for qPCR gene expression analysis during iPS reprogramming process. Sci. Rep. 8, 8716. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-26707-8.

Park, G.S., Ku, K., Baek, S.H., Kim, S.J., Kim, S.I., Kim, B.T., and Maeng, J.S. (2020). Development of reverse transcription loop-mediated isothermal amplification assays targeting severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). J. Mol. Diagn. 22, 729–735. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmoldx.2020.03.006.

Pastorino, B., Touret, F., Gilles, M., de Lamballerie, X., and Charrel, R.N. (2020). Heat inactivation of different types of SARS-CoV-2 samples: what protocols for biosafety, molecular detection and serological diagnostics? Viruses 12. https://doi.org/10.3390/v12070735.

Sakanashi, D., Asai, N., Nakamura, A., Miyazaki, N., Kawamoto, Y., Ohno, T., Yamada, A., Koita, I., Suematsu, H., Hagihara, M., et al. (2020). Comparative evaluation of nasopharyngeal swab and saliva specimens for the molecular detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in Japanese patients with COVID-19. J. Infect. Chemother. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiac.2020.09.027.

Smyrlaki, I., Ekman, M., Lentini, A., Rufino de Sousa, N., Papanicolaou, N., Vondracek, M., Aarum, J., Safari, H., Muradrasoli, S., Rothfuchs, A.G., et al. (2020). Massive and rapid COVID-19 testing is feasible by extraction-free SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR. Nat. Commun. 11, 4812. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18611-5.

Srivatsan, S., Han, P.D., van Raay, K., Wolf, C.R., McCulloch, D.J., Kim, A.E., Brandstetter, E., Martin, B., Gehring, J., Chen, W., et al. (2020). Preliminary support for a "dry swab, extraction free" protocol for SARS-CoV-2 testing via RT-qPCR. bioRxiv. https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04. 22.056283.

Takahashi, H., Ohkawachi, M., Horio, K., Kobori, T., Aki, T., Matsumura, Y., Nakashimada, Y., and Okamura, Y. (2018). RNase H-assisted RNA-primed rolling circle amplification for targeted RNA sequence detection. Sci. Rep. 8, 7770. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-26132-x.

Vogels, C.B.F., Watkins, A.E., Harden, C.A., Brackney, D., Shafer, J., Wang, J., Caraballo, C., Kalinich, C.C., Ott, I., Fauver, J.R., et al. (2020). SalivaDirect: a simplified and flexible platform to enhance SARS-CoV-2 testing capacity. medRxiv.

Walsh, P.S., Metzger, D.A., and Higuchi, R. (1991). Chelex 100 as a medium for simple extraction of DNA for PCR-based typing from forensic material. Biotechniques 10, 506–513.

Wyllie, A.L., Fournier, J., Casanovas-Massana, A., Campbell, M., Tokuyama, M., Vijayakumar, P., Warren, J.L., Geng, B., Muenker, M.C., Moore, A.J., et al. (2020). Saliva or nasopharyngeal swab specimens for detection of SARS-CoV-2. N. Engl. J. Med. 383, 1283–1286. https://doi.org/10.1056/





STAR*METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER	
Biological Samples			
Heat-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 virions	ATCC	Cat#VR-1986HK	
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins			
Chelex® 100 Resin	Bio-Rad	Cat#142-1253	
Critical Commercial Assays			
Luna Universal Probe One-Step RT-qPCR Kit	NEB	Cat#E3006X	
1-Step RT-ddPCR Advanced Kit for Probes	Bio-Rad	Cat#186-4021	
Oligonucleotides			
Primers	See Table S1	N/A	

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Robert Hufnagel (robert.hufnagel@nih.gov).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents

Data and code availability

- The published article includes all dataset generated or analyzed during this study.
- No specialized computer codes were used.
- Any additional information required to generate the plots reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODELS AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Human samples

Samples were collected from healthy volunteers and subjects who provided informed consent to National Institutes of Health (NIH) Institutional Review Board (IRB)-approved protocols (20-D-0094, NCT04348240; 20-CC-0128, NCT04424446) at the NIH Clinical Center. Participants of age 18 and older provided samples for individual data points. We do not anticipate the sex of the participants to have any influence on the results.

Sample collection

We used four types of samples for assay development and validation: (i) simulated samples containing the heat-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 virions obtained from ATCC (VR-1986HK, concentration measured by ddPCR at ATCC); (ii) positive patient saliva samples diluted into negative saliva samples; (iii) historical patient samples including nasopharyngeal swab and whole unstimulated saliva; and (iv) prospective paired nasopharyngeal and saliva samples swabs. The paired NP and saliva samples were collected at the NIH Symptomatic Testing Facility. Briefly, a FLOQswab (COPAN) was inserted into the nares and advanced posteriorly to the nasopharynx as previously described (Huang et al., 2021). Swabs were then inserted into VTM. Subjects were asked to expectorate a sterile 50 mL conical vial every 30 s for 3-5 min, or until ~3 mL of saliva was collected. A FLOQswab was inserted into the saliva and immediately transferred into VTM. Samples were placed on ice and shipped immediately to the NIH Clinical Center Clinical Laboratory for standard CDC testing. In parallel, NP samples were placed in 0.5 mL 10% Chelex in TED10 buffer (90% lowTE and

iScience Article



10% DMSO), and swabs with saliva were placed in 0.4 mL Chelex saliva buffer. The 0.4 mL Chelex saliva buffer was made by mixing 0.2 ml of 50% Chelex in TED99 and 0.2 ml of lowTE. TED99 was 10mM Tris pH 8.0, 0.1 mM EDTA and 99% DMSO, which was made by mixing 100 μ l of 1 M Tris pH 8.0, 2 μ l of 0.5 M EDTA, and 9.9 ml of DMSO. These patient samples with Chelex in 15-ml tubes were heat-inactivated in a thermomixer for 10 min at 98°C before testing.

METHOD DETAILS

Clinical laboratory CDC SARS-CoV-2 assay

The conventional RNA-extraction RT-qPCR method following CDC guidelines has been reported, and herein referred to as easyMAG-CL (clinical laboratory) assay (Barat et al., 2020). Briefly, nucleic acid from individual specimens was extracted from 200 μ L of Saliva/NP specimens using the NucliSENS® easyMAG® platform (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France) with an elution volume of 50 μ L. 5 μ l RNA was then used for RT-qPCR in 20 μ l reaction volume. PCR was performed on the ABI 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). The assay utilized primer/probe sets for nucleocapsid protein, 2019-nCoV_N1 and 2019-nCoV_N2, and the human RNase P (*RPP30* gene, also referred as *RP* gene in the CDC protocol) as an internal control to ensure that extraction and amplification was adequate as described. Cycle threshold (Ct) values were recorded for N1, N2 and RNAse P for each sample. Samples were considered positive for SARS-CoV-2 when both N1 and N2 targets were detected with Ct count <40. The positive signal for N1 or N2 alone was defined as an indeterminate result.

Chemicals, buffers, and cells

Chelex® 100 Resin (hereafter "Chelex"; cat# 142-1253, molecular biology grade) was obtained from Bio-Rad. Molecular biology grade water (cat# 351-029-101), TE pH 8.0 (cat# 351-011-131), 1M Tris-HCl pH7.5 (cat# 351-006-101), HBSS with $Ca^{2+7}Mg^{2+}$ (cat# 114-061-101) were from Quality Biological (Gaithersburg, MD). The low-EDTA TE or lowTE buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 0.1 mM EDTA, cat# 12900-015), Urea (cat# 15505-050), RNAlater (cat# AM7024), MEM α medium (cat# 12571-063), HBSS without $Ca^{2+7}Mg^{2+}$ (cat# 14175-095), M4 (cat# R12550), heat-inactivated FBS, 293FT cells were procured from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, cat# D2650-100ML) was from Sigma. 1M Tris-HCl pH 8.0 (cat#221-232) and 0.5M EDTA (cat#221-057) were from Crystalgen (Commack, NY). PBS (cat# RGF-3190, pH7.2) was from KD Medical (Columbia, MD). TED10 buffer was 90% lowTE and 10% DMSO (volume to volume).

Chelex was first prepared in H_2O , lowTE, or TED99 at 50% (50 grams/100 ml total volume, or 500 milligrams Chelex to 550 μ l H2O). The 50% Chelex was then added in 1/10 volume to samples to obtain 5% Chelex in a PCR strip with a wide-bore tip. The samples were vortexed briefly then heated in a PCR cycler for 5 min at 98°C, followed by spinning at 1,000 to 2,000xg for 2 mins in a swing-rotor. The supernatant was then used for RT-gPCR or -ddPCR.

For simulated samples involving the ATCC virions, the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) was used to extract RNA from virion and cell mixture of less than 10 μ l that contained the expected amounts of virions. The RNeasy Protect Saliva Mini Kit (Qiagen) was used for RNA extraction from ATCC virion-simulated saliva samples.

Primers, RT-qPCR and RT-ddPCR

The primer and probe sequences used for detecting SARS-CoV-2 and human *RPP30* targets in the RT-ddPCR and NEB Luna RT-qPCR were identical to the easyMAG-CL assay above. The *RPP30* (or RP) primers and probe in the CDC protocol, whose sequences are RPP30F AGATTTGGACCTGCGAGCG, RPP30R GAGCGGCTGTCTCCACAAGT, RPP30Hex TTCTGACCTGAAGGCTCTGCGCG, amplify the DNA sequence located in the exon 1 of the *RPP30* gene, thus are expected to amplify both cDNA and genomic DNA contents. An additional *RPP30* primer specific for *RPP30* cDNA was designed to span the exon 1 and exon 2, RPP30cR GCAACAACTGAATAGCCAagGT, where the lowercase "ag" denotes the exon junction. RPP30cR was used for RT-qPCR or -ddPCR together with RPP30F and RPP30Hex. The primer and probe sequences for an ultra-conserved region in chromosome 5 are: chr5UC-F ATTTATGACCAGCCACAGCC, chr5UC-R CCATCAGGGACTTGGTTTCA, chr5UC-Hex CAACTCCAGCAGCTGCACACCGC. Primers and probes were ordered from Eurofins Genomics or IDTDNA.

The Luna Universal Probe One-Step RT-qPCR Kit (#E3006X, NEB) was used for RT-qPCR with the following cycling conditions using a QuantStudio 3 real-time PCR system (ThermoFisher Scientific):





NEB-Luna-Program I: 55° C for 10 min, 95° C for 1 min, and 45 cycles of 95° C for 10 sec and 60° C for 40 sec or NEB-Luna-Program II: 55° C for 10 min, 95° C for 1 min, and 45 cycles of 95° C for 5 sec and 60° C for 20 sec. Ct (Crossing threshold) values for N1 & N2 (viral targets) were set at 0.1 Δ Rn, Ct values for cRPP30 (specific for *RPP30* cDNA) and *RPP30* (targets both genomic DNA and cDNA) were at 0.02 Δ Rn. The N1 and N2 Ct of less than 38 were considered positive in the NEB Luna RT-qPCR assay.

The 1-Step RT-ddPCR Advanced Kit for Probes (#186-4021, Bio-Rad) was used for RT-ddPCR using the QX200 Droplet Digital PCR System (Bio-Rad). The cycling condition for RT-ddPCR was: 50°C for 60 min, 95°C for 10 min, and 40 cycles of 94°C for 10 sec and 55°C for 60 sec, followed by 98°C for 10 min, 4°C for 30 min then hold at 4°C. If DMSO was not present in the sample, DMSO was added to 2.5% in the RT-qPCR or -ddPCR reaction, unless specified otherwise.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Quantification in this study involved Ct values from qPCR assays and absolute copy number from ddPCR assays. Individual Ct values were plotted in dot plots. The absolute copy numbers from ddPCR assays were determined using the QuantaSoft software provided by Bio-Rad. The error bars in ddPCR bar charts represent the Poisson 95% confidence intervals, which are stated in the related legends. Data in this study were descriptive and no statistical analyses were employed.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Human subjects were recruited under two clinical trials conducted at the NIH Clinical Center, NCT04348240 & NCT04424446: https://clinicaltrials.gov/.