

Importance of Adequate qPCR Controls in Infection Control

Matthew Oughton^{1,*}, Ivan Brukner^{1,2,*}, Shaun Eintracht^{1,3} , Andreas I. Papadakis², Alan Spatz^{1,2,3} and Alex Resendes²

¹ Faculty of Medicine, McGill University, Montreal, QC H3G 2M1, Canada; shaun.eintracht@mcgill.ca (S.E.); alan.spatz@mcgill.ca (A.S.)

² Lady Davis Institute for Medical Research, Montreal, QC H3T 1E2, Canada; andreas.papadakis@ladydavis.ca (A.I.P.); alex.resendes@mail.mcgill.ca (A.R.)

³ Department of Medicine, Jewish General Hospital, Montreal, QC H3T 1E2, Canada

* Correspondence: matthew.oughton@mcgill.ca (M.O.); ibrukner@jgh.mcgill.ca (I.B.)

Abstract: Respiratory screening assays lacking Sample Adequacy Controls (SAC) may result in inadequate sample quality and thus false negative results. The non-adequate samples might represent a significant proportion of the total performed tests, thus resulting in sub-optimal infection control measures with implications that may be critical during pandemic times. The quantitative sample adequacy threshold can be established empirically, measuring the change in the frequency of positive results, as a function of the numerical value of “sample adequacy”. Establishing a quantitative threshold for SAC requires a big number/volume of tests to be analyzed in order to have a statistically valid result. Herein, we are offering for the first time clear clinical evidence that a subset of results, which did not pass minimal sample adequacy criteria, have a significantly lower frequency of positivity compared with the “adequate” samples. Flagging these results and/or re-sampling them is a mitigation strategy, which can dramatically improve infection control measures.



Citation: Oughton, M.; Brukner, I.; Eintracht, S.; Papadakis, A.I.; Spatz, A.; Resendes, A. Importance of Adequate qPCR Controls in Infection Control. *Diagnostics* **2021**, *11*, 2373. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics11122373>

Academic Editor: Javier Fernández

Received: 22 November 2021

Accepted: 9 December 2021

Published: 16 December 2021

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2021 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Keywords: infection; control; pandemic; qPCR; sample; quality; assay; clinical; laboratory; quality; false negative

The accuracy of diagnostic test results are dependent on adequate samples [1–9]. Current clinical protocols allow for a variety of samples types to be used for the detection of respiratory pathogens, including various anatomical sites and sampling techniques, each having its own respective interpretation of sampling adequacy [1,6,10–14]. Nasopharyngeal swabbing is one of the most common methods for obtaining clinical specimens [4,9,13,15–18]. However, the human genome equivalents present in the respiratory sampling can vary over one million-fold, while the ratio of virus genome equivalents to human genome equivalents can differ by up to one billion-fold (from $(1/3 \times 10)^4$ to 3×10^4 ratios) [3,4,19,20]. This inherent variability in both human and virus genome equivalents can be measured with high resolution techniques, like quantitative PCR, by following the quantitative signal of sample-specific biomarkers that must be present in every sample [2–4,6–8,21,22]. Analysing the presence of this biomarker is performed by incorporating a Sample Adequacy Control (SAC) into the diagnostic assay. SAC not only offers assurance of proper assay processing but also establishes the absence of inhibition of nucleic acid amplification.

To estimate the impact of sampling variability on respiratory swab results, we measured positivity rates (numbers of positive tests/total number of tests) of three common respiratory viruses (influenza A, influenza B, and RSV) as a function of the number of human genome equivalents present in the sample. The concentration of single-copy-human-gene (RNase P) is typically chosen to present the quantitative measure of SAC [3,4,6,7,20,22,23]. In the case of symptomatic respiratory infections, it is usually assumed that the quantity of a virus-specific biomarker is a few log values higher than the sample adequacy biomarker. This can lead to the incorrect conclusion that the virus positivity is “guaranteed”, regardless

of sample adequacy. However, by using a larger clinical data set, different scenarios became evident, which explains the importance of routinely determining sampling adequacy. For example, during the viral incubation period, the ratio between viral and human genome equivalents can be very low (~1/10,000) [3], which can differ greatly from what is seen in a patient during a typical symptomatic infection. Thus, in the early stages of viral infections, determination of sample adequacy can be extremely valuable [4,17,18,24–27] by ensuring the quality and quantity of sampling was sufficient, and greatly reducing the possibility of a false negative result. In addition, consistent use of SAC allows earlier detection of positive cases and improves infectious control measures.

To demonstrate the impact of sampling variability on “missing” positive results, we measured the frequency of positive results as a function of sample adequacy biomarker. The respiratory samples were subjected to microbiology laboratory screening during the period of 2016 to 2018. Group A comprises of 4168 samples that were tested by qPCR on a Roche Light Cycler 480, following a described protocol [15], which excludes nucleic acids extraction. Group B includes 2457 samples that underwent standard nucleic acid isolation (bioMerieux, easyMAG) [3] prior to testing. Samples belonging to the same methodological protocol were divided into two subgroups. These subgroups were defined by the SAC cycle threshold values (Cq) below and above 35 (group A) and 30 Cq units (group B), see Table 1. The number of pathogen positive cases seemed significantly lower when Cq values of SAC were in the range of 35 to 40 Cq units for group A and 30 to 40 Cq units, for group B. To assess the hypothesis that the virus positivity rates are dependent on to the sample adequacy values, the difference in the positivity for each subgroup was analyzed by chi-squared test. The chi-squared test detected a statistically significant decrease in the frequency of positive samples, in both A and B groups independent from the methodology used to perform the assay. The positivity rates decrease 4-fold for group A (chi-square = 92.2, p -value < 0.0001) and 2-fold for group B (chi-square: 12.7; p -value < 0.0004) as a function of the Cq of SAC.

Table 1. Relative frequency of positive results is affected by the Cq values of sample adequacy controls.

Number of tested samples	4234		2538	
Sample processing methodology	Group A (direct qPCR)		Group B (isolated nucleic acids)	
SAC range based on Cq	<35	35 < Cq < 40	<30	30 < Cq < 40
Relative positivity	1	0.25	1	0.5
Significance of Chi-Square	$p < 0.0001$		$p < 0.0004$	

Legend: Samples were tested either through direct qPCR (Group A) or qPCR after standard nucleic acid (N.A.) isolation (Group B). Samples having Cq value of SAC lower than 35 and 30 Cq units, for group A and B respectively, are characterised by the arbitrary positivity of one. The drop from this value is 4-fold for group A and 2-fold for group B, both characterised as statistically significant; Chi-Square p -values (0.0001 and 0.0004, respectively).

In general, the frequency of disease-specific biomarker changes must be analysed as a function of sample-specific biomarker changes. For example, in group A, samples having Cq of SAC < 35, have an average virus positivity rate of 0.24 (SD = 0.05). On the contrary, the rest of samples are having Cq of SAC in the range $40 > Cq > 35$, but show a significant drop in detecting positives, down to the average of 0.06 (SD = 0.04). A threshold in reporting negatives “with compromised sample adequacy” should be the Cq value of SAC, when the decrease in detecting positives becomes a statistically significant “trend” ($p < 0.001$).

In the ideal sampling case, disease-specific biomarker rate changes should be independent from the sample-specific biomarker changes. Therefore, if there is a significant drop in the disease-specific positivity rate as a function of SAC, the information about sample quality/quantity should be reported. The analyses demonstrate that the negative test result, characterized by the high Cq value of sample adequacy biomarker, might benefit from resulting as “inadequate sample quality and/or quantity”, and suggesting repeat sampling.

Although study results are focused on pre-pandemic common respiratory viruses as a function of sample adequacy biomarker, they may have important implications in the context of SARS-CoV2. With the positivity rate of respiratory infection in some jurisdictions as high as 30–40% [28–30], inadequate samples (10–15%) may produce 50–75% of false negative results on a daily basis. An assay which does not contain sample adequacy measures lacks the capacity to correct sampling errors. It also impairs early detection of disease and consequent public health efforts to prevent community transmission. Sample Adequacy Control remains still uncommon in individual commercial assays, intended for the fast and accurate testing of COVID-19 and other respiratory pathogens, despite explicit recommendations made by the World Health Organisation and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (USA). However, this trend is changing. Some examples of multiplex respiratory panels of Luminex [31] and BD Max [32], together with cartridge-based qPCR test Idylla™ SARS-CoV-2/Flu/RSV from Biocartis [33], or fast isothermal kits of Lucira [34] and Cue [35], are updating quality features of tests, by including RNase P as a control for sample adequacy. The technical description of how to incorporate SAC into Nucleic Acid Amplification (NAA) assays is described in multiple prior publications [3–8,14,17,20,21,23].

Author Contributions: M.O., I.B., S.E. and A.I.P., have contributed into work conceptualization. All authors contributed to the writing, and they read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement: As per our hospital institutional review board (IRB) policies, this project was a laboratory quality improvement program and thus, further IRB approval was not required.

Informed Consent Statement: Patient consent was waived due to the fact that there is no connection between patients identity and presented data.

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable.

Acknowledgments: The implementations of the concept of sample adequacy control in the molecular clinical diagnostics is a long-term scientific project initiated locally by Dr Andre Dascal, which further evolved with Bruno Lamontagne, Fabien Rallu, David Faucher, Simon Levesque, Simon Gagnon, Hugues Charest, C, Marc-Christian Domingo, Stacy Giannakakis, Coleen Delisle, Melissa Tomkinson and Brigitte Malette (Quebec, Canada). “Thank you” goes to Marek Smieja (McMaster) for the recent helpful discussions. We want to thank the Biocartis team (<https://www.biocartis.com/en>, accessed date 13 December 2021) for supporting open-access fees for this work. We acknowledge the efforts of various molecular diagnostics teams, working in the industrial and public sector for implementing sample adequacy and increasing effectiveness of screening. Thank you to the members of the Standards Council of Canada: Sheila Woodcock and Robert Rennie for real life efforts in the implementations of adequate IVD standards in clinical laboratory practice.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Abdullah, M.; Sudrajat, D.G.; Muzellina, V.N.; Kurniawan, J.; Rizka, A.; Utari, A.P.; Pribadi, R.R.; Idrus, M.F.; Yusra, Y.; Meilany, S.; et al. The value of anal swab RT-PCR for COVID-19 diagnosis in adult Indonesian patients. *BMJ Open Gastroenterol.* **2021**, *8*, e000590. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
2. Bal, A.; Pichon, M.; Picard, C.; Casalegno, J.S.; Valette, M.; Schuffenecker, I.; Billard, L.; Vallet, S.; Vilchez, G.; Cheynet, V.; et al. Quality control implementation for universal characterization of DNA and RNA viruses in clinical respiratory samples using single metagenomic next-generation sequencing workflow. *BMC Infect. Dis.* **2018**, *18*, 537. [[CrossRef](#)]
3. Brukner, I.; Eintracht, S.; Papadakis, A.I.; Faucher, D.; Lamontagne, B.; Spatz, A.; Oughton, M. Maximizing confidence in a negative result: Quantitative sample adequacy control. *J. Infect. Public Health.* **2020**, *13*, 991–993. [[CrossRef](#)]
4. Brukner, I.; Resendes, A.; Eintracht, S.; Papadakis, A.; Oughton, M. Sample Adequacy Control (SAC) Lowers False Negatives and Increases the Quality of Screening: Introduction of “Non-Competitive” SAC for qPCR Assays. *Diagnostics* **2021**, *11*, 1133. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
5. Cuschieri, K.; Wilson, A.; Palmer, T.; Stanczuk, G.; Bhatia, R.; Ejegod, D.; Bonde, J. The challenges of defining sample adequacy in an era of HPV based cervical screening. *J. Clin. Virol.* **2021**, *137*, 104756. [[CrossRef](#)]

6. Deviaene, M.; Weigel, K.M.; Wood, R.C.; Luabeya, A.K.K.; Jones-Engel, L.; Hatherill, M.; Cangelosi, G.A. Sample adequacy controls for infectious disease diagnosis by oral swabbing. *PLoS ONE* **2020**, *15*, e0241542. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Glisovic, S.; Eintracht, S.; Longtin, Y.; Oughton, M.; Brukner, I. Rectal swab screening assays of public health importance in molecular diagnostics: Sample adequacy control. *J. Infect. Public Health* **2018**, *11*, 234–237. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Husain, A. A novel approach to minimize the false negative COVID-19 diagnosis by inclusion of specific cell markers and multiple sample collection. *MethodsX* **2021**, *8*, 101270. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
9. Piras, A.; Rizzo, D.; Uzzau, S.; De Riu, G.; Rubino, S.; Bussu, F. Inappropriate Nasopharyngeal Sampling for SARS-CoV-2 Detection Is a Relevant Cause of False-Negative Reports. *Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* **2020**, *163*, 459–461. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Alemany, A.; Millat-Martinez, P.; Ouchi, D.; Corbacho-Monné, M.; Bordoy, A.E.; Esteban, C.; Hernández, Á.; Casañ, C.; Gonzalez, V.; Costes, G.; et al. Self-collected mid-nasal swabs and saliva specimens, compared with nasopharyngeal swabs, for SARS-CoV-2 detection in mild COVID-19 patients. *J. Infect.* **2021**, *83*, 709–737. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
11. Alkhateeb, K.J.; Cahill, M.N.; Ross, A.S.; Arnold, F.W.; Snyder, J.W. The reliability of saliva for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 in symptomatic and asymptomatic patients: Insights on the diagnostic performance and utility for COVID-19 screening. *Diagn. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* **2021**, *101*, 115450. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Bidkar, V.; Selvaraj, K.; Mishra, M.; Shete, V.; Sajjanar, A. A comparison of swab types on sample adequacy, suspects comfort and provider preference in COVID-19. *Am. J. Otolaryngol.* **2021**, *42*, 102872. [[PubMed](#)]
13. D’Andrea, E.L.; Cossu, A.M.; Scrima, M.; Messina, V.; Iuliano, P.; Di Perna, F.; Pizza, M.; Pizza, F.; Coppola, N.; Rinaldi, L.; et al. Efficacy of Unsupervised Self-Collected Mid-Turbinate FLOQSwabs for the Diagnosis of Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19). *Viruses* **2021**, *13*, 1663. [[CrossRef](#)]
14. Kocagoz, T.; Can, O.; Uyar, N.Y.; Aksoy, E.; Polat, T.; Cankaya, D.; Karakus, B.; Mozioglu, E.; Kocagoz, S. Simple concentration method enables the use of gargle and mouthwash instead of nasopharyngeal swab sampling for the diagnosis of COVID-19 by PCR. *Eur. J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.* **2021**, *40*, 2617–2622. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
15. Alcoba-Florez, J.; González-Montelongo, R.; Íñigo-Campos, A.; de Artola, D.G.M.; Gil-Campesino, H.; Team, T.M.T.S.; Ciuffreda, L.; Valenzuela-Fernández, A.; Flores, C. Fast SARS-CoV-2 detection by RT-qPCR in preheated nasopharyngeal swab samples. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.* **2020**, *97*, 66–68.
16. Bullis, S.S.; Crothers, J.W.; Wayne, S.; Hale, A.J. A cautionary tale of false-negative nasopharyngeal COVID-19 testing. *IDCases* **2020**, *20*, e00791. [[CrossRef](#)]
17. Islek, A.; Balci, M.K. Analysis of Factors Causing False-Negative Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction Results in Oropharyngeal and Nasopharyngeal Swabs of Patients With COVID-19. *Ear Nose Throat J.* **2021**, 145561321996621.
18. Kapoor, D.; Goyal, A. How to Take a Nasopharyngeal Swab: Nuanced Modifications Aiding Reduction in False Negative Results and Auxiliary Training. *J. Assoc. Phys. India* **2021**, *69*, 11–12.
19. Pronier, C.; Gacouin, A.; Lagathu, G.; Le Tulzo, Y.; Tadié, J.-M.; Thibault, V. Respiratory Influenza viral load as a marker of poor prognosis in patients with severe symptoms. *J. Clin. Virol.* **2021**, *136*, 104761. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
20. Piralla, A.; Giardina, F.A.M.; Rovida, F.; Campanini, G.; Baldanti, F. Cellular DNA quantification in respiratory samples for the normalization of viral load: A real need? *J. Clin. Virol.* **2018**, *107*, 6–10. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
21. Jordan, S.J.; Van Der Pol, B.; Hook, E.W.I.M. Utilization of the Cepheid Xpert(R) CT/NG Sample Adequacy Control to Determine the Influence of the Urethral Swab on Cellular Content in Post-Swab versus Pre-Swab Urine. *Sex Transm. Dis.* **2017**, *44*, 67–68. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
22. Resa, C.; Magro, S.; Marechal, P.; Barranger, C.; Joannes, M.; Miszczak, F.; Vabret, A. Development of an efficient qRT-PCR assay for quality control and cellular quantification of respiratory samples. *J. Clin. Virol.* **2014**, *60*, 270–275. [[CrossRef](#)]
23. Rowan, A.G.; May, P.; Badhan, A.; Herrera, C.; Watber, P.; Penn, R.; Crone, M.A.; Storch, M.; Garson, J.A.; McClure, M.; et al. Optimized protocol for a quantitative SARS-CoV-2 duplex RT-qPCR assay with internal human sample sufficiency control. *J. Virol. Methods* **2021**, *294*, 114174. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Balla, M.; Merugu, G.P.; Pokal, M.; Gayam, V.; Adapa, S.; Naramala, S.; Konala, V.M. A Comprehensive Approach Is Vital for Diagnosing COVID-19: A Case of False Negative. *J. Clin. Med. Res.* **2020**, *12*, 315–319. [[CrossRef](#)]
25. Jarvis, K.; Kelley, J.B. Temporal dynamics of viral load and false negative rate influence the levels of testing necessary to combat COVID-19 spread. *Sci. Rep.* **2021**, *11*, 9221. [[CrossRef](#)]
26. Kinloch, N.N.; Ritchie, G.; Brumme, C.; Dong, W.; Dong, W.; Lawson, T.; Jones, R.B.; Montaner, J.S.G.; Leung, V.; Romney, M.G.; et al. Suboptimal Biological Sampling as a Probable Cause of False-Negative COVID-19 Diagnostic Test Results. *J. Infect. Dis.* **2020**, *222*, 899–902. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
27. Kusaka, Y.; Tsukamoto, K.; Fujiwara, H.; Hosoya, R.; Fujii, S.; Sato, K.; Yazawa, K.; Oba, T.; Kumagai, T.; Isogai, S. False negative results on PCR for SARS-COV-2 using nasopharyngeal swab. *Infect. Dis.* **2021**, *53*, 733–735. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Grunberg, M.; Sno, R.; Adhin, M.R. Epidemiology of respiratory viruses in patients with severe acute respiratory infections and influenza-like illness in Suriname. *Influ. Other Respir. Viruses* **2021**, *15*, 72–80. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
29. Park, J.Y.; Kim, H.I.; Kim, J.-H.; Park, S.; Hwang, Y.I.; Jang, S.H.; Kim, Y.K.; Jung, K.-S. Changes in respiratory virus infection trends during the COVID-19 pandemic in South Korea: The effectiveness of public health measures. *Korean J. Intern. Med.* **2021**, *36*, 1157–1168. [[CrossRef](#)]

30. Park, K.Y.; Seo, S.; Han, J.; Park, J.Y. Respiratory virus surveillance in Canada during the COVID-19 pandemic: An epidemiological analysis of the effectiveness of pandemic-related public health measures in reducing seasonal respiratory viruses test positivity. *PLoS ONE* **2021**, *16*, e0253451. [[CrossRef](#)]
31. Corporation, L. *ARIES® SARS-CoV-2 Assay Package Insert*; FDA Archive U.S. Food & Drug Administration, 2020. Available online: <https://www.fda.gov/media/136693/download> (accessed on 13 December 2021).
32. *BD Becton, Dickinson and Company, SARS-CoV-2 Reagents for BD MAX™ System*; FDA Archive U.S. Food & Drug Administration, 2021. Available online: <https://www.fda.gov/media/136816/download> (accessed on 13 December 2021).
33. De Luca, C.; Gragnano, G.; Conticelli, F.; Cennamo, M.; Pisapia, P.; Terracciano, D.; Malapelle, U.; Montella, E.; Triassi, M.; Troncone, G.; et al. Evaluation of a fully closed real time PCR platform for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 in nasopharyngeal swabs: A pilot study. *J. Clin. Pathol* **2021**. Epub ahead of print. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
34. *Lucira COVID-19 All-In-One-Test-Kit*; FDA Archive U.S. Food & Drug Administration, 2021. Available online: <https://www.fda.gov/media/143808/download> (accessed on 13 December 2021).
35. Inc., F.A.C.H. COVID-19 Cue™ COVID-19 Test Instructions For Use. 2021. Available online: <https://www.cuehealth.com/> (accessed on 13 December 2021).