

1 Increased PCR screening capacity using pool addresses

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8 Abstract

9 Effective public health response to viral outbreaks such as SARS-CoV-2 is often informed by real-time
10 PCR screening of large populations. Pooling samples can increase screening capacity. However, when
11 a traditional pool is tested positive, all samples in the pool need individual retesting, which becomes
12 ineffective at a higher proportion of positive samples. Here, we report a new pooling protocol that
13 mitigates this problem by replicating samples across multiple pools. The resulting “pool address” allows
14 the sample status to be resolved more often than with traditional pooling. At 2% prevalence and 20
15 samples per pool, our protocol increases screening capacity by factors of 5 and 2 compared to individual
16 testing and traditional pooling, respectively. The corresponding software to layout and resolve samples is
17 freely released under a BSD license (<https://github.com/phiweger/clonepool>).

19 Group testing has long been used to screen larger collections of samples, most of which are expected to
 20 test negative.¹ In pathogen outbreaks such as the current SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, this “pooling” allows
 21 screening of large populations to guide public health response and restrict spreading. However, in most
 22 laboratories, the screening capacity is limited by the number of PCR reactions that can be performed in
 23 a day. It is, therefore, desirable to maximize the number of samples that can be tested per reaction.

24 Various approaches have been proposed to do this in the context of SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR testing.^{2,3} One
 25 problem with the traditional pooling approach, where several samples are collected and tested collectively,
 26 is that the number of positive pools that require individual retesting increases rapidly with the number
 27 of positive samples in the overall population, henceforth called “prevalence”. A high prevalence renders
 28 pooling ineffective. To mitigate this, we propose to test samples in replicates and distribute them across
 29 multiple pools. The resulting “pool address” can then be used to resolve samples in one pool, given
 30 information from other pools that contain a replicate. While some previous studies have taken a similar
 31 approach implicitly,² it has neither been investigated systematically for more replicates than two, nor is
 32 there any software that would generate and resolve the corresponding pooling layout for laboratory use.

33 We therefore introduce “clonepool”, a pooling framework to maximize the effective number of samples s_e
 34 per PCR reaction. “Effective” refers to the fact that samples in positive pools, whose status cannot be
 35 resolved in the pooled run, are assumed to be retested individually. The maximum number of samples for
 36 a given pool size p , number of pools n and number of replicates r is calculated as $s_m = \frac{pn}{r}$. The effective
 37 number of samples can then be calculated from the number of unresolved samples s as $s_e = \frac{s_m}{p+s}$.

38 The clonepool algorithm first distributes all sample replicates randomly across the available pools, with
 39 the limitation that a sample’s replicates do not co-occur in the same pool. After the pools have been
 40 tested, the algorithm tries to resolve the samples’ status in two iterations: In a first iteration, all samples
 41 that have at least one replicate in a negative pool are marked negative. In the second iteration, samples
 42 that only occur in positive pools and where at least one replicate is in a pool where all other samples
 43 are negative, are marked positive (red, orange). All other samples cannot be resolved, and need to be
 44 retested individually. The longer the set of pools a sample is distributed across, i.e., the longer its “pool
 45 address”, the more samples can be resolved given a particular prevalence.

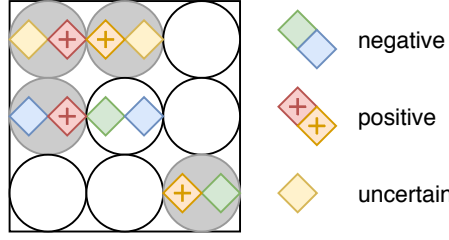


Figure 1: Illustration of the clonepool algorithm. Positive pools (circles) are marked grey, negative ones in white. Samples are depicted as squares, positive ones with a “+”. In a first iteration, all samples that have at least one replicate in a negative pool are marked negative (blue, green). In the second iteration, samples that only occur in positive pools and where at least one replicate is in a pool where all other samples are negative, are marked positive (red, orange). All other samples cannot be resolved and have to be retested individually (yellow).

In our simulation test of the proposed clonepool algorithm, we assume no pipetting errors, which can be achieved e.g., through the use of a pipetting robot. We also assume that 94 pools are available, which corresponds to a 96-well plate with two wells reserved for a positive and a negative control. Furthermore, we assume that there are no false positive or false negative PCR reactions.

Two parameters determine which pooling scheme is most effective (Fig. 2). If both the prevalence and the number of samples per pool are low, traditional pooling without replicates yields the highest number of samples per reaction. However, if the prevalence increases or more samples are pooled, any pool is more likely positive. Sample replicates will then resolve more samples. In our testing experience, we observed a prevalence of about 5%, but this value is subject to variability e.g., depending on a population’s pre-test probability.

The number of samples that can be pooled without affecting the PCR sensitivity is limited by the PCR cycle threshold (Ct) for the target, i.e., the cycle at which amplification becomes detectable over background noise (typically ten times the standard deviation, SD). Usually, Ct values above 35 are treated as unspecific amplification. SARS-CoV-2 amplifies at low Ct values due to high viral titers (Ct 18-25 depending on the material and number of days post-infection).^{4,5} A 20-fold dilution, i.e., pooling 20 samples, would cause the Ct value to increase by about 4.3 cycles ($2^x = d$, where d is the dilution and x the shift in Ct), still comfortably above the detection limit.

At a prevalence of 5% SARS-CoV-2 positive samples, and for ten samples per pool and two replicates per sample, we simulate that 2.61 times the number of samples can be processed compared to testing samples individually (SD 0.13). This result is in line with previous estimates using a slightly different version of

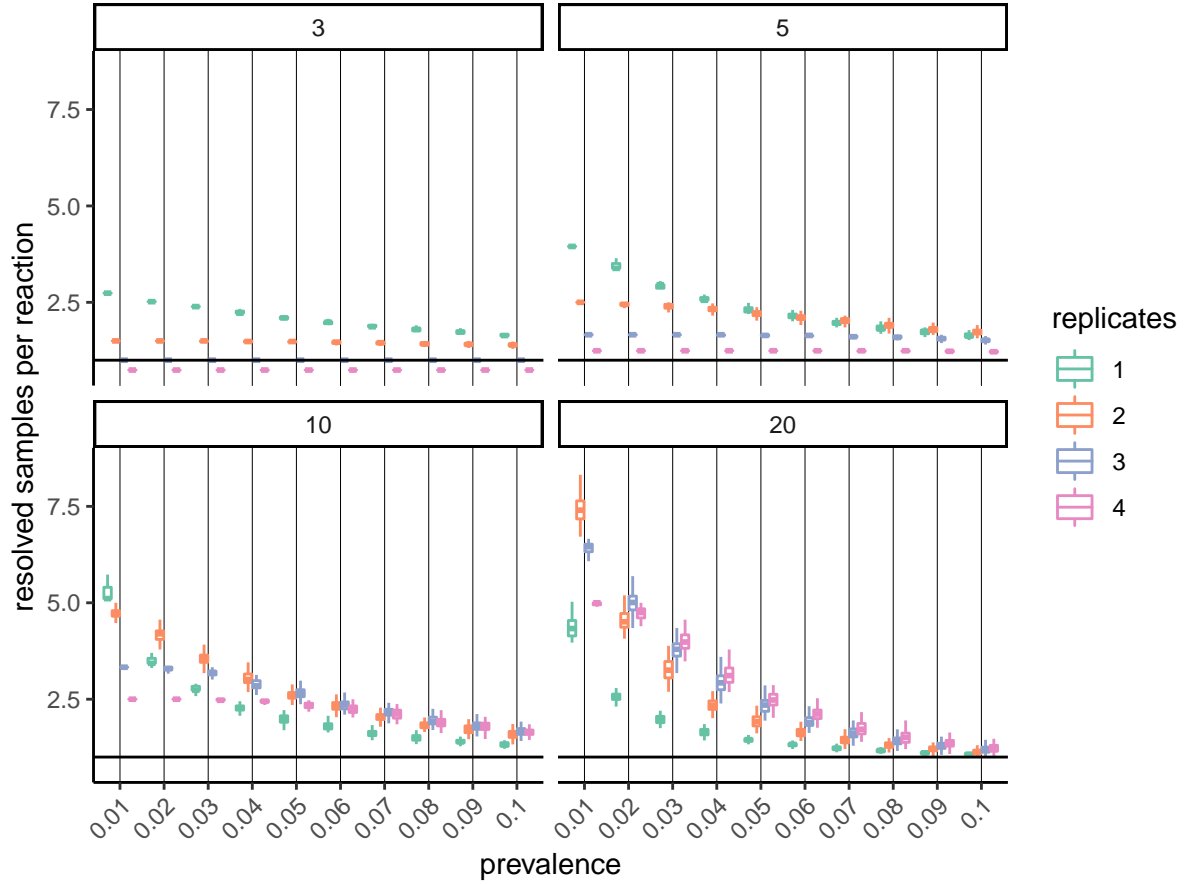


Figure 2: Simulation results for different percentages of positive samples (x-axis), replicates (colors), and pool sizes (panels). The target metric is the effective number of samples per PCR reaction, which includes the individual retesting of samples that cannot be resolved in the first pooling run.

66 the 2-replicate scheme.² Using two replicates increases the effective number of samples per reaction by
67 31% compared to pooling without replicates. At 2% prevalence and 20 samples per pool – a scenario
68 more akin to screening large populations – 5.01 times the number of samples can be screened compared to
69 individual testing (SD 0.28), and the increase over no replicate pooling is 193%. These presented values
70 correspond to *in silico* simulations, and require further validation in the laboratory.

71 In conclusion, our pooling protocol based on sample replicates can substantially increase the number of
72 samples per PCR reaction when screening large populations during pathogen outbreaks, such as SARS-
73 CoV-2. The protocol can be tuned to local laboratory conditions such as pool size and proportion of
74 positive samples. The accompanying software supports the protocol’s implementation and routine use.

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