

1 **Scent dog identification of SARS-CoV-2 infections, similar across different body fluids**

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32 **Background:**

33 The main strategy to contain the current SARS-CoV-2 pandemic remains to implement a
34 comprehensive testing, tracing and quarantining strategy until vaccination of the population is
35 adequate.

36 **Methods:**

37 Ten dogs were trained to detect SARS-CoV-2 infections in beta-propiolactone inactivated
38 saliva samples. The subsequent cognitive transfer performance for the recognition of non-
39 inactivated samples were tested on saliva, urine, and sweat in a randomised, double-blind
40 controlled study.

41 **Results:**

42 Dogs were tested on a total of 5242 randomised sample presentations. Dogs detected non-
43 inactivated saliva samples with a diagnostic sensitivity of 84% and specificity of 95%. In a
44 subsequent experiment to compare the scent recognition between the three non-inactivated
45 body fluids, diagnostic sensitivity and specificity were 95% and 98% for urine, 91% and 94%
46 for sweat, 82%, and 96% for saliva respectively.

47 **Conclusions:**

48 The scent cognitive transfer performance between inactivated and non-inactivated samples as
49 well as between different sample materials indicates that global, specific SARS-CoV-2-
50 associated volatile compounds are released across different body secretions, independently
51 from the patient's symptoms.

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55

56

57 **Key words**

58 **COVID-19; SARS-CoV-2; Volatile organic compounds; Scent detection dogs; Olfactory**
59 **detection; Saliva; Urine; Sweat**

60

61 **Introduction**

62 **Current situation**

63 The recently emerged respiratory disease coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) broke out in
64 Wuhan, Hubei Province of the People's Republic of China, for the first time in December 2019
65 and was declared a global health emergency by the World Health Organization at the end of
66 January 2020^{1,2}. It rapidly developed into a global pandemic within just a few months. The
67 pandemic has led to enormous restrictions and sanctions affecting public as well as private life.
68 The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), which causes COVID-
69 19, infects the upper respiratory tract and in more serious cases may also cause severe
70 pneumonia and acute respiratory distress syndrome. The clinical presentation of SARS-CoV-2
71 infection is heterogeneous, ranging from asymptomatic infection to typical symptoms such as
72 fever, cough, fatigue, ageusia and anosmia, but may also present atypically and lead to
73 multiorgan dysfunction and death^{1,3,4}. Containing this global pandemic requires a high rate of
74 testing, as an effective tool to contain viral spread. Viral loads can be detected by reverse
75 transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assays and with slightly less sensitive and
76 usually more rapid antigen detection tests in nasal or pharyngeal swabs^{2,4} and saliva^{5,6,7} with a
77 peak at days three to ten after infection. The peak of infectiousness is around symptom onset⁸.
78 It remains unclear if sweat or urine are also sources of virus transmission^{9,10}.

79 **Odour detection**

80 Different infectious diseases may cause specific odours by emanating volatile organic
81 compounds (VOCs). These are metabolic products, primarily produced by cell metabolism and

82 released through breath, saliva, sweat, urine, faeces, skin emanations and blood¹¹. The VOC-
83 pattern reflects different metabolic states of an organism, so it could be used for medical
84 diagnosis by odour detection and disease outbreak containment¹².

85 Canines are renowned for their extraordinary olfactory sense, being deployed as a reliable tool
86 for real-time, mobile detection of, e.g., explosives, drugs and may identify certain pathogen-
87 and disease-specific VOCs produced by infected body cells. The limit of detection for canines
88 is at concentrations of one part per trillion, which is three orders of magnitude more sensitive
89 than currently available instruments¹². Consequently various studies have shown dogs' abilities
90 to detect with high rates of sensitivity and specificity¹³ infectious and non-infectious diseases
91 and conditions, such as different types of cancer¹⁴, malaria¹⁵, bacterial infections caused by e.g.
92 *Clostridium difficile* or mastitis causing pathogens^{16,17}, hypoglycaemia in diabetics¹⁸, and virus
93 infections in cell cultures^{12,19}. In addition, several research groups worldwide currently train
94 and deploy SARS-CoV-2 detection dogs^{20,21}. In a pilot study, our group showed that dogs were
95 able to detect inactivated saliva samples from COVID-19 patients with a sensitivity of 83% and
96 specificity of 96%²², which has been confirmed by other groups training dogs to detect either
97 respiratory secretions or sweat samples from COVID-19 patients^{20,21}. Despite these preliminary
98 promising results, it remains to be shown whether dogs detect VOCs which are biofluid-specific
99 or alternatively there is a more general change in odour of COVID-19 patients. To test the latter
100 hypothesis, the current study used the same training set-up with inactivated saliva samples as
101 the former study²² and investigated whether dogs could transfer their smell recognition to non-
102 inactivated saliva, urine or sweat samples from SARS-CoV-2 infected patients. Scent detection
103 dogs could be a reasonable option for a first line screening method in public facilities such as
104 airports or during major events as well as in retirement homes or medical institutions that would
105 be real-time, effective, economical, effortless and non-invasive.

106 **Methods**

107 **Samples - target scent, negative controls and distractors**

108 To acquire saliva samples, individuals had to salivate about 1-3 ml through a straw into sample
109 tubes. For the training phase, saliva samples from twelve subjects (hospitalised and non-
110 hospitalised SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals) suffering from asymptomatic to severe
111 COVID-19 symptoms were inactivated with beta-propiolactone (BPL) according to the
112 protocol described in Jendry et al. 2020 to provide safe training conditions for dogs and
113 handlers. To generate sweat samples, the test persons had to wipe their crook of the arm with a
114 cotton pad. Urine samples were collected from the test persons by urinating into a cup and
115 transfer of 5 ml into a sample tube. After acquisition, all of the samples were deep-frozen at -
116 80°C in the laboratory until usage. Samples from ninety-three participants were used in the
117 study (**suppl. table 1**). The SARS-CoV-2 status of each collected sample was determined by
118 the RT-PCR SARS-CoV-2-IP4 assay from Institut Pasteur including an internal control system
119 and protocol^{22,23}.

120 In contrast to our first study²⁴, which only included hospitalised COVID-19 patients suffering
121 from severe courses of disease, we now additionally included non-hospitalised asymptomatic
122 individuals as well as individuals with mild clinical signs. Inclusion criteria were either the
123 diagnosis of infection by positive SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR of nasopharyngeal swabs (positive
124 samples), negative SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR result and healthy condition (negative control
125 samples) or negative SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR result and symptoms of other respiratory disease
126 (distractor samples). Written consent from all participants were collected before sample
127 collection. The local Ethics Committees of *Hannover Medical School* (MHH) and the Hamburg
128 Medical Association (for the *University Medical-Center Hamburg-Eppendorf* (UKE))
129 approved the study (ethic consent number 9042_BO_K_2020 and PV7298, respectively).

130 To ensure safety for presentation of non-inactivated samples, glasses specially designed for
131 scent dog training (Training Aid Delivery Device (*TADD*), Sci-K9, USA) containing an odour-
132 permeable but hydro- and oleophobic fluoropolymer membrane were used. A 1 x 1 x 0.5 cm

133 cotton pad soaked with 100 µl of fluid sample material or a snippet of the cotton pad used for
134 sweat sampling was placed at the bottom of the *TADD*-glass and the glass was safely sealed in
135 the laboratory under biosafety level 3 laboratory conditions.

136 **Dogs**

137 All ten dogs were German armed forces' service dogs with a history of either protection work,
138 explosives detection or no previous training except for obedience (**suppl. table 2**). Involved
139 dog breeds were Malinois (n=5), Labrador Retriever (n=3), German Shepherd (n=1) and a
140 Dutch shepherd crossbreed dog (n=1) with ages ranging between one and nine years (median
141 age= 3.7 years). Six female and four male dogs were included.

142 **Testing device**

143 For the detection training and testing, a device called 'Detection Dog Training System' (DDTS,
144 Kynoscience UG, Hörstel, Germany) was utilised, which provided automated and randomised
145 sample presentations for the dogs as well as automatic rewards as described previously²⁴. The
146 recorded results were verified by manual video analysis.

147 **Training procedure**

148 The training procedure was exclusively based on positive reinforcement. Dogs were
149 familiarised to the DDTS for six days using a replacement odour, followed by specific training
150 for 8 days to condition them for the scent of SARS-CoV-2 infections in twelve inactivated
151 positive saliva samples and negative control samples from healthy individuals, respectively.
152 The final study was conducted on four days (four hours a day) and included non-inactivated
153 saliva samples as well as urine and sweat samples. All of the samples used in the final study
154 had not been presented to the dogs before.

155 **Study design of the double-blinded study**

156 The study was conducted in compliance with safety and hygiene regulations according to the
157 recommendations of the Robert Koch Institute (Berlin, Germany), and approved by local
158 authorities (regional health department and state inspectorate's office; Hannover, Germany).

159 All samples were handled by the same person with personal protective equipment including
160 powder-free nitrile gloves to prevent odour contamination which may irritate the dogs. In the
161 first session non-inactivated saliva samples were used to assess whether dogs were able to
162 transfer their trained sniffing performance from inactivated to non-inactivated saliva samples.
163 In the following sessions, the detection performances for non-inactivated sweat, urine, and,
164 again, saliva samples were evaluated. There were four possibilities for the dogs to respond to
165 the presented odours:

- 166 1. True positive (TP): the dog correctly indicates a SARS-CoV-2 positive sample
- 167 2. False positive (FP): the dog incorrectly indicates a negative control or distractor
- 168 3. True negative (TN): the dog sniffs shortly at a negative sample but correctly does not
169 indicate it
- 170 4. False negative (FN): the dog sniffs shortly at a positive sample but does not indicate it

171 A detection trial was considered accomplished if the dog left his snout in the target scent
172 presenting hole for ≥ 2 sec, initiating automatically the next trial. In each trial, the device's
173 software randomly assigned the target scent's position between the seven different positions
174 without the dog or its handler knowing which hole was next positive. The results were
175 recorded electronically for subsequent analysis and verified by manual time-stamped video
176 analysis. The standard temperature in the dog training laboratory was controlled at $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$.

177 Although the samples were presented to the dogs in safe specimen vessels (*TADD*-glasses), the
178 detection experiments with infectious material were performed in a biosafety level 2 laboratory
179 to prevent any risk of infection. After leaving the test room, the canines were washed with 4%
180 chlorhexidine shampoo with at least ten min contact time to prevent any potential
181 environmental contamination and virus spread. The equipment was disinfected after each test

182 day with suitable disinfectant wipes soaked in limited virucidal disinfectant solution. In
183 addition, swab samples of the dogs' noses and from the outside of *TADD*-membranes were taken
184 after each day of testing and examined with RT-PCR-assays at the Central Institute of the
185 Bundeswehr Medical Service or Research Center for Emerging Infections and Zoonoses to
186 exclude contamination and replication with infectious viral particles in the dogs' noses or an
187 escape of virus-containing material from the vessel (**suppl. table 3**).

188 **Analysis of sensitivity and specificity**

189 The diagnostic sensitivity as well as diagnostic specificity, positive predictive values (PPV),
190 and negative predictive values (NPV) were calculated according to Trevethan²⁵. 95%
191 confidence intervals (CIs) for sensitivity and specificity were calculated with the Wilson
192 Score Method²⁶. In addition, medians of sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, and accuracy with
193 corresponding 95% CIs of median were calculated. All calculations were done with the Prism
194 9 software from GraphPad (La Jolla, CA, USA).

195 **Results**

196 When non-inactivated saliva samples were presented to the dogs after training with inactivated
197 saliva samples, dogs were able to discriminate between samples of infected (RT-PCR positive),
198 non-infected (RT-PCR negative) individuals and distractor samples (RT-PCR negative but
199 respiratory symptoms) with a diagnostic sensitivity of 84% (95% CI: 62.5–94.44%) and
200 specificity of 95% (95% CI: 93.4–96%). During the following detection sessions, when the
201 device was equipped with non-inactivated samples with the same body fluid (saliva, sweat or
202 urine), the corresponding values for diagnostic sensitivity and specificity for saliva samples
203 were 82% (95% CI: 64.29–95.24%) and 96% (95% CI: 94.95–98.9%), for sweat samples 91%
204 (95% CI: 71.43–100%) and 94% (95% CI: 90.91–97.78%), and for urine samples 95% (95%
205 CI: 66.67–100%) and 98% (95% CI: 94.87–100%) respectively (**Fig. 1, suppl. table 4**).

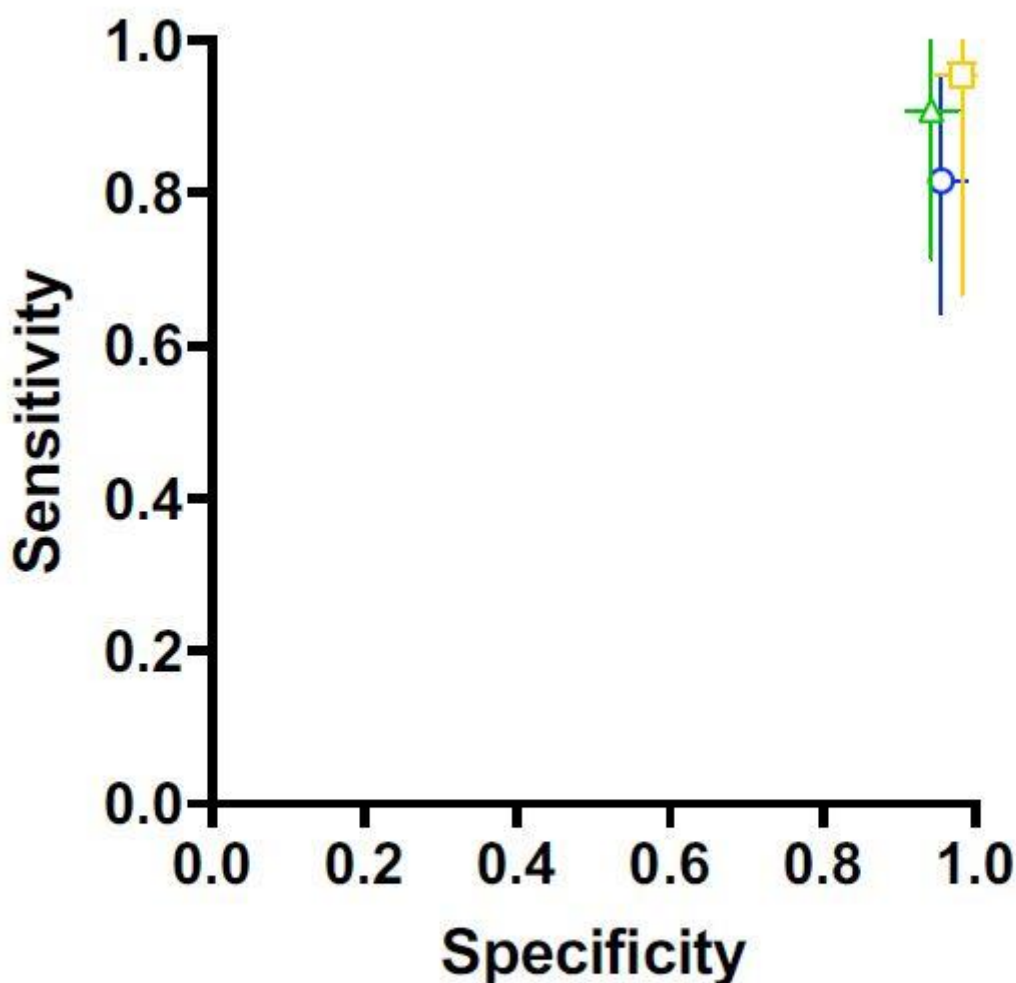


Figure 1. Median diagnostic specificity and sensitivity for all dogs for non-inactivated sweat (green triangle), urine (yellow square), and saliva (blue circle) samples, respectively. The 95% confidence intervals of the medians for specificity and sensitivity are shown with horizontal and vertical bars, respectively.

206

207 During the presentation of 5308 randomised sample presentations, the overall success rate was
208 92% with 723 correct indications of positive, 4140 correct rejections of negative or distractors,
209 214 incorrect indications of negative and incorrect rejections of 231 positive sample
210 presentations (**Suppl. table 5**). The RT-PCR results of the sample material from participants
211 with a diagnosed SARS-CoV-2 infection via nasopharyngeal swab and RT-PCR were only
212 positive in twelve cases. Nasopharyngeal swabs from each dog, as well as from the outside of
213 the membranes taken after each day of testing were all negative.

214

215 **Discussion**

216 Fast, rapid, affordable and accurate identification of SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals remains
217 pivotal not only for limiting the spread of the current pandemic, but also for providing a tool to
218 limit the impact on public health and the economy. Data from the current scent dog detection
219 study confirm our former pilot study (sensitivity 84% versus 83% and specificity 95% versus
220 96%, respectively). In the current study, dogs were after only eight days of training not only
221 able to immediately transfer their scent detection abilities from inactivated to non-inactivated
222 saliva samples, but also to sweat and urine, with urine having the highest sensitivity of 95% and
223 specificity of 98%. These results suggest a general, non-cell specific, robust VOC-pattern
224 generation in SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals and provide further evidence that detection
225 dogs could provide a reliable screening method providing immediate results.

226 In the former pilot study from our group²⁴, only BPL-inactivated samples of COVID-19 patients
227 and controls were used. The first step in the current trial was therefore to evaluate if dogs can
228 transfer scent recognition to non-inactivated saliva samples, even when trained only with
229 inactivated samples. The inactivation process with BPL did not impair the SARS-CoV-2-
230 associated scent of the samples, as dogs were able to discriminate with a similar accuracy
231 between inactivated and non-inactivated saliva samples from SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals
232 and controls. This has huge implications for the training of dogs, as the health and safety
233 measures other groups had to follow when using non-inactivated samples can be overcome by
234 using BPL-inactivation. Data from the current study indicate that dogs can familiarise to a
235 training device and be safely trained within little more than a week by using inactivated saliva
236 samples from SARS-CoV-2 positive individuals and controls and become reliable SARS-CoV-
237 2 detection dogs for untreated samples. Furthermore, the safety of working with the TADD-
238 glasses was also confirmed by negative PCR results of the samples attained (canine
239 nasopharynx and outer TADD-glas-membrane).

240

241 In a second step, untreated (non-inactivated) saliva, sweat and urine samples were presented to
242 the dogs separately to evaluate if they can transfer scent recognition from saliva samples to
243 other untreated body fluids. The detection rate for this experiment was also high, especially
244 considering the dogs having not been trained with sweat or urine samples before. In order to
245 eliminate the risk of recognizing an individual odour from a specific subject, samples used were
246 different for each session.

247 The sample material of the individuals with positive SARS-CoV-2 status (nasopharyngeal swab
248 tested positive via RT-PCR) was predominantly RT-PCR negative which means that dogs are
249 able to detect the changes in metabolism of non-infectious secretions of SARS-CoV-2 infected
250 individuals. This could explain some of the anecdotal reports from the scent detection work at
251 Helsinki airport that dogs were able to detected asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infected
252 individuals prior of them shedding virus.

253 The fact that dogs were able to discriminate successfully between positive, negative samples
254 and distractors represents evidence of a successful discrimination process, whereas the
255 detection ability across three bodyfluids from 93 different individuals indicates a successful
256 generalisation process. Several research groups that currently also train SARS-CoV-2 sniffer
257 dogs achieved good results, which support this work and consolidate the reliability of the
258 canines' olfactory sense for medical purposes. Grandjean et al. (2020) trained six dogs in one
259 to three weeks using sweat samples and achieved success rates between 76 to 100%²⁰. In
260 addition to their work, where only sweat samples from hospitalised patients were used, the
261 current study suggests that also asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals can be
262 detected by the dogs. Our dogs were able to identify different COVID-19 disease phenotypes
263 and phases of disease expression (sore throat, cough, cold, headache and aching limbs, fever,
264 loss of smell and taste and/or severe pneumonia). Another scent dog detection study conducted
265 by Vesga et al. (2020) achieved promising results (95.5% average sensitivity and 99.6%

266 specificity) and also planned real-life experiments²¹. These studies support the evidence of
267 canines offering a reliable screening method for SARS-CoV-2 infections. Future studies are
268 important to address some remaining limitations such as the low number of distractor samples
269 with specified pathogens (differentiation to other lung diseases or pathogens such as infections
270 with other seasonal respiratory viruses, like influenza viruses, rhinoviruses, respiratory
271 syncytial virus, human metapneumovirus, adenovirus, and coronaviruses other than SARS-
272 CoV-2). This was however not within the scope of the current study. The laboratory
273 identification of the specific VOC pattern is still in its infancy, but some current studies under
274 review and also a peer-reviewed one showed SARS-CoV-2 specific biomarkers in breath
275 samples detectable by gas chromatography-ion mobility spectrometry^{27,28}, which also support
276 our hypothesis. Scent dogs should be considered an addition to the gold standard RT-PCR, for
277 rapid testing in situations where great numbers of people from different origins come together.
278 The accuracies may be increased by extending the training phase and selecting individual dogs
279 with better scent detection accuracy. As with any testing scenario, human and in this case dog
280 daily performance could vary. This also applies to the most accurate diagnostic performance
281 of the gold standard RT-PCR that can only be achieved under ideal conditions, which does not
282 always reflect the real life situation. Peer reviewed and preliminary systematic reviews indicate
283 PCR sensitivities ranging from 71 to 100%^{29,30} implying false negative results ranging up to
284 29% under real-life conditions.

285 In order to generate rapid test results, a large number of over-the-counter rapid antigen tests are
286 currently used. Test results are generated within about 15 minutes. According to the
287 manufacturers, the tests approved in Germany have diagnostic sensitivities between 91 and 98%
288 and specificities between 98 and 100%³¹. However, the diagnostic accuracy under real-life
289 conditions is estimated to be much lower under these conditions (pre-prints^{32,33}). The Paul
290 Ehrlich Institute (Langen, Germany) specified minimum criteria for approved rapid antigen test

291 for SARS-CoV-2 infections. They require a diagnostic sensitivity of above 80% and specificity
292 above 97%³⁴. The scent dog method would meet these criteria.

293

294 **Conclusions**

295 Detection dogs were able to transfer the conditioned scent detection of BPL-inactivated saliva
296 samples to non-inactivated saliva, urine and sweat samples, with a sensitivity >80% and
297 specificity >94%. All three fluids were equally suited for SARS-CoV-2 detection by dogs and
298 could be used for disease specific VOCs' pattern recognition. Detection dogs may provide a
299 reliable screening method for SARS-CoV-2 infections in various settings to generate immediate
300 results that can be verified by the gold standard (RT-PCR). Further work, especially under real-
301 life conditions in settings where many individuals have to be screened is needed to fully
302 evaluate the potential of the dog detection method.

303

304 **List of abbreviations**

305 RT-PCR: reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction test

306 VOCs: volatile organic compounds

307 DDTS: Dog Detection Training System

308 BPL: beta-propiolactone

309 TP: true positive

310 FP: false positive

311 TN: true negative

312 FN: false negative

313 CI: confidence interval

314 TADD: Training Aid Delivery Device

315

316 **Declarations**

317 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

318 The study was conducted according to the ethical requirements established by the Declaration
319 of Helsinki. The local Ethics Committee of *Hannover Medical School* (MHH) and Hamburg
320 Medical Association for the *University Medical-Center Hamburg-Eppendorf* (UKE) approved
321 the study (ethic consent number 9042_BO_K_2020 and PV7298, respectively). Written
322 consent from all participants was collected before sample collection.

323 **Competing interests**

324 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

325 **Authors' contributions**

326 PJ participated in the planning of the study, carried out the main practical work, data analyses
327 and drafted the manuscript. FT, SM and HAV designed and coordinated the study, drafted the
328 manuscript, conducted and coordinated (FT) the sample acquisition and were responsible for
329 data analyses. MvKB and AbO participated in the planning of the laboratory part of the study
330 and were in charge for the legal permission for sample processing. CS and VP carried out the
331 laboratory work including sample preparation, virus inactivation and RT-PCR. JE and HE
332 programmed the DDTS software and HE was also supporting the dog training. IP, TW, MPM,
333 AF and MMA were in charge for the ethical approval, patient recruitment and sample
334 collection (IP, AF) at Hannover Medical School (IP, TW, MPM) and University Medical-
335 Center Hamburg-Eppendorf (AF, MMA). CE was responsible for the special research
336 proposal of the German Armed Forces whereas WS was responsible for the general medical
337 care of the dogs. As project manager on the part of the German Armed Forces, ME
338 coordinated the cooperation with the University of Veterinary Medicine Hannover. ES was
339 responsible for the dog training and helped with data analyses. ME and ES were also involved
340 in designing and coordinating the study. AP, KM and US established and validated the RT-

341 PCR-assays including sampling, sample storage and sample preparation and did the
342 diagnostics. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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360 pandemic.

361

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