Title: Rapid detection of DNA and RNA shrimp viruses using CRISPR-based diagnostics

Running title: CRISPR diagnostics detect DNA and RNA shrimp viruses

Samuel R. Major[a], Matthew J. Harke[a], Roberto Cruz-Flores[b*], Arun K. Dhar[b], Andrea G.

Bodnar[a], and Shelly A. Trigg[a#]

[a]Gloucester Marine Genomics Institute, Gloucester, MA, United States.

[b]Aquaculture Pathology Laboratory, School of Animal and Comparative Biomedical Sciences,

The University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, United States.

[*]Centro de Investigación Científica y de Educación Superior de Ensenada, (CICESE), Carretera

Ensenada-Tijuana No. 3918, Zona Playitas, 22860 Ensenada, Baja California, Mexico.

[#]Please address manuscript correspondence to Shelly A. Trigg (shelly.trigg@gmgi.org).

Abstract word count: 238

Main text word count: 4739

ABSTRACT

Timely detection of persistent and emerging pathogens is critical to controlling disease

spread, particularly in high-density populations with increased contact between individuals and

limited-to-no ability to quarantine. Standard molecular diagnostic tests for surveying pathogenic

microbes have provided the sensitivity needed for early detection, but lag in time-to-result

leading to delayed action. On-site diagnostics alleviate this lag, but current technologies are less

sensitive and adaptable than lab-based molecular methods. Towards the development of

improved on-site diagnostics, we demonstrated the adaptability of a loop-mediated isothermal

amplification-CRISPR coupled technology for detecting DNA and RNA viruses that have

greatly impacted shrimp populations worldwide; White Spot Syndrome Virus and Taura

Syndrome Virus. Both CRISPR-based fluorescent assays we developed showed similar

sensitivity and accuracy for viral detection and load quantification to real-time PCR.

Additionally, both assays specifically targeted their respective virus with no false positives

detected in animals infected with other common pathogens or in certified specific pathogen-free

animals.

IMPORTANCE

The Pacific white shrimp (*Penaeus vannamei*) is one of the most valuable aquaculture

species in the world, but has suffered major economic losses from outbreaks of White Spot

Syndrome Virus and Taura Syndrome Virus. Rapid detection of these viruses can improve

aquaculture practices by enabling more timely action to be taken to combat disease outbreaks.

Highly sensitive, specific, and robust CRISPR-based diagnostic assays such as those developed

here have the potential to revolutionize disease management in agriculture and aquaculture

helping to promote global food security.

INTRODUCTION

The ability to rapidly detect disease is a major challenge not just in human health but across all farmed and wild animal health monitoring. While methods for disease detection have advanced the field of molecular diagnostics to the global role it plays today, limitations posed by laboratory-based technologies hinder the ability to quickly respond to disease outbreaks. For example, culturing and molecular diagnostics using PCR-based methods provide the high sensitivity needed for early pathogen detection, but they require laboratory processing (e.g. sophisticated equipment, expensive reagents, and specialized training) leading to long turnaround times for results (several days) and delayed action for disease mitigation. Contrastingly, immunochromatographic antigen diagnostics are field-deployable, affordable and provide rapid results, but comparatively lack sensitivity and require more time for assay creation resulting in a longer time to respond to emerging pathogens. Alternative molecular diagnostics that require less sophisticated equipment like loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP) have recently been developed, but their superior amplification efficiency can stochastically yield false positive results (1). In human health, CRISPR-based molecular diagnostics, such as the SHERLOCK (Specific High sensitivity Enzymatic Reporter UnLOCKing) technology, have emerged to overcome the limitations of PCR and antigen tests to enable rapid, sensitive, inexpensive, and accurate on-site detection of viruses and other pathogens (2). SHERLOCK combines the efficiency of isothermal amplification with the specificity of CRISPR detection for highly sensitive, specific and robust diagnostics that can be used in low resource settings (3). A second-generation SHERLOCK assay that uses a heat tolerant Cas enzyme, Cas12b, coupled with LAMP showed highly sensitive, rapid, and robust detection of viral RNA from SARS-CoV-2 (4).

Applications beyond human health in veterinary pathology and disease diagnostics in agriculture

and aquaculture settings could have a tremendous impact on domestic and global food security.

Aquaculture is the fastest growing animal protein production sector globally, with

production expected to double by 2050 to meet the demand of the growing population (5, 6).

However, production is greatly impeded by infectious diseases highlighting the urgent need for

rapid, sensitive, and accurate diagnostics. For example, Pacific white shrimp (*Penaeus*

vannamei) production, that accounts for ~25% of all seafood products consumed annually, has

suffered major economic losses due to infections caused by viruses like White Spot Syndrome

Virus (WSSV) and Taura Syndrome Virus (TSV) (7–9). These diseases have resulted in up to

100% mortality in as few as seven days (10, 11). The DNA virus WSSV has been the leading

cause of economic losses in shrimp aquaculture globally since its emergence in 1991, costing

~$1 billion and reducing global shrimp production by ~10% annually (7). TSV, a single stranded

RNA virus, has caused mass mortality events on at least five continents since its emergence in

1991, with an estimated total loss of $2 billion from 1992-1996 (12–14). Although Taura

syndrome caused by TSV is no longer causing economic losses to the extent it has in the past,

with the current availability and farming of TSV-tolerant shrimp lines (15), WSSV-tolerant

shrimp are still under development and are not commercially available (16). The domestic

development and international import of specific pathogen-free (SPF) shrimp stocks has

mitigated some disease outbreaks. However, even with routine rigorous screening disease

continues to be a major threat. For instance, shrimp stocks in Brazil and Colombia were reported

to be contaminated from imported SPF shrimp with underlying TSV infection that went

undetected (17). The more recently documented spread of WSSV in Australia, India, and

Ecuador has resulted in the virus being labeled as the most devasting pathogen in the

aquacultural history of shrimp farming (18–20). To ensure globally distributed stocks are

disease-free and to mitigate production losses for improved food security, it is crucial that rapid,

accurate, and sensitive diagnostics are available to shrimp farmers (21, 22).

To mitigate losses due to viral diseases in shrimp aquaculture, we recently developed a

CRISPR-based SHERLOCK diagnostic assay (SHERLOCKv1) that can detect WSSV in shrimp

tissue (23). Building upon this success, and incorporating second generation SHERLOCK

technology, we demonstrate the adaptability of this technology for both DNA and RNA viral

targets and present two second-generation SHERLOCK (SHERLOCKv2) assays that detect

WSSV and TSV. These robust, sensitive, and specific lab-based fluorescent assays can detect

viral target in shrimp tissue in under one hour. They also enable field-deployable conversion for

improved diagnostic capabilities of viral outbreaks in aquaculture settings. This demonstration of

assay adaptation for diverse shrimp diseases paves the way for next generation assay

development in veterinary pathology and animal diagnostics for improved disease management

in aquaculture and agriculture.

RESULTS

Diagnostic assay development

Combining the robustness of LAMP with the specificity of CRISPR and detection of

Cas12b collateral cleavage activity, we developed sensitive and specific one-pot SHERLOCKv2

assays for the detection of DNA and RNA viruses that negatively impact shrimp aquaculture

worldwide; WSSV and TSV (**Figure 1**). In an initial screen to identify an optimal LAMP primer

set targeting a conserved TSV genome region, we compared the amplification activity of three

primer sets as well as a previously published LAMP primer set (24). We found the previously

published set targeting the capsid protein gene between VP1 and VP3 domains showed the

fastest, most sensitive detection of TSV and selected this set for the SHERLOCKv2 assay

(**Figure S1a-b**). In designing the WSSV assay, the highly conserved viral protein 28 (VP28) was

targeted to limit the ability of WSSV strain to influence detection. Of the four LAMP primer sets

designed and screened, one set (VP28.31) showed superior speed (**Figure S1c-d**). The addition

of poly-T linkers between the two annealing sites within the FIP and BIP primers increased both

the speed and sensitivity of the primer set down to 100 copies (**Figure S1e**).

Of the 12 guide RNAs designed to target within the TSV LAMP target region, one guide

RNA (cr9225) produced cleavage signals before 30 minutes with low variance among replicate

reactions and minimal background signal, and was selected for the TSV SHERLOCKv2 assay

(**Figure S2a-b**). Of the 11 guide RNAs designed to target within the WSSV LAMP target region,

one guide RNA (VP28_27) showed the highest cleavage signal with the greatest signal-to-

background ratio and was selected for the WSSV SHERLOCKv2 assay (**Figure S2c-d**).

Furthermore, we found that the addition of glycine, a reaction temperature of 62°C, 2 µM

reporter concentration, and a guide RNA-to-Cas12b ratio of 1:1 consistently gave optimal signal-

to-background in the WSSV SHERLOCKv2 assay. Because the addition of carrier nucleic acid

has shown improvements to sensitivity and specificity in RT-LAMP reactions (25), we tested

this in the TSV SHERLOCKv2 assay and found that the addition of 5 or 10 ng of non-target

carrier RNA produced the highest signal with the least variance among replicates (**Figure S3a**).

For WSSV SHERLOCKv2 assay, we decided to use 20 ng of non-target carrier DNA because

that was the upper limit of input material reported in the WSSV SHERLOCKv1 limit-of-

detection experiment and this amount would allow input for subsequent experiments to be

standardized.

Assay sensitivity and specificity

To evaluate assay sensitivity, we generated standard curves using 10-fold dilutions of the

synthetic TSV target RNA, WSSV target DNA, or genomic DNA isolated from WSSV-infected

shrimp. Both assays consistently detected down to 100 copies with a strong correlation to the

amount of nucleic acid input (**Figure 2a-b and S4**). In comparing dilution series from 19

independent experiments, we found synthetic target to be comparable to genomic target isolated

from shrimp with high TSV and WSSV viral loads previously quantified by qPCR, confirming

that synthetic target can be used for estimating TSV and WSSV copy number quantity in

genomic samples (**Figure S4**). In experiments evaluating assay specificity, both SHERLOCKv2

assays showed high specificity for their target pathogen. Only TSV-infected and WSSV-infected

shrimp samples showed Cas12b collateral cleavage signal compared to samples from shrimp

infected with other common shrimp pathogens (IMNV, IHHNV, EHP and *Vibrio*

parahaemolyticus causing AHPND/EMS) (**Figure 2c-d**). Furthermore, both assays showed no

false positive detection in samples from specific pathogen-free shrimp (**Figure 2c-d**). While we

did observe stochastic non-specific LAMP signal in some true negative samples, this did not lead

to Cas cleavage and did not result in positive viral detection (**Figure S5**).

Assay validaiton

To estimate the diagnostic sensitivity of the SHERLOCKv2 assays, we tested shrimp

samples from different TSV and WSSV challenge experiments in SHERLOCKv2 assays and in

the OIE (World Organization for Animal Health) recommended real-time PCR diagnostic for

TSV and WSSV (26). Assays were run alongside standard curves to quantify and compare viral

copy number determined by each method (real-time PCR hereinafter referred to as qPCR). In the

TSV challenge experiments, because most commercially available genetic lines of shrimp being

tolerant to TSV, two different commercial lines of *P. vannamei* known to differ in their

susceptibility and two different TSV isolates known to differ in their virulence were used. The

Belize isolate used to infect the TSV-tolerant *P. vannamei* line is known to be highly virulent

and has led to TSV infection in TSV-tolerant commercial *P. vannamei* lines, where the TSV-

susceptible Kona line has shown high rates of infection regardless of the TSV isolate used in

challenge experiments (27). Following the challenge experiments, the TSV-susceptible line

showed pathognomonic lesions of TSV characterized by necrosis, pyknosis, and karyorrhexis of

the cuticular epithelium within the appendages, gills, and exocuticle (**Figure 3a**). In addition,

some of these showed mortalities during the course of the experiment. However, the TSV-

tolerant *P. vannamei* showed no TSV-associated pathognomonic lesions or mortalities (**Figure**

3b). Because of the wide dynamic range in viral load expected in these samples, we did a

titration experiment to determine an optimal amount of sample input for TSV detection with the

TSV SHERLOCK assay. We determined that 10 ng of TSV-infected shrimp genomic DNA led

to the least variable and highest signal (**Figure S3b**), and this amount was used for subsequent

TSV SHERLOCKv2 and qPCR experiments. The qPCR detected TSV in all TSV-challenged

shrimp samples (**Figures 3c**, **Table S3**). The TSV SHERLOCK assay detected TSV in 26 out of

the 30 TSV-challenged shrimp samples (87% positive percent agreement) (**Table S3**). The four

samples for which SHERLOCK did not detect TSV had low viral load extrapolated from a

standard curve (three had < 1000 copies and one had ~5000 copies). Both qPCR or SHERLOCK

TSV assays showed a significant effect of challenge experiment on the viral load (Mann-

Whitney-U test $P = 0.006395$ and $P = 0.003415$, respectively). Viral copy concentration

predicted by SHERLOCK showed a statistically significant correlation with that predicted by

qPCR ($R = 0.93$, $p = 1.5 \times 10^{-11}$; **Figure 3d**) with SHERLOCK tending to underestimate viral

copies relative to qPCR (**Figure 4a**).

175  For WSSV, we tested the same WSSV-infected *P. vannamei* samples previously

176 quantified by the OIE-recommended WSSV qPCR and the SHERLOCKv1 assay (23). Given

177 that these samples previously showed high viral loads and material was limited, 1 ng of WSSV-

178 infected shrimp genomic DNA was used in each SHERLOCKv2 reaction. Of the 35 WSSV-

179 infected *P. vannamei* samples tested alongside standard curves, we detected infection in 33

180 samples (94% positive percent agreement) (**Table S3**). The two samples where no WSSV was

181 detected were expected to have low viral copies based on qPCR estimations (~40 copies and 800

182 copies). Moreover, viral copy concentrations measured by WSSV SHERLOCKv2 were mostly

183 similar to those quantified by qPCR (**Figure 4a**). Compared to the previous version WSSV

184 SHERLOCKv1 assay that used RPA and Cas13a enzymes (23), SHERLOCKv2 showed less

185 variation across technical replicates than SHERLOCKv1 (**Figure 4b**). There was a statistically

186 significant correlation between SHERLOCKv2 and qPCR viral copy quantifications ($R = 0.79$, P

187 $= 9.8\times10^{-8}$), and between SHERLOCKv2 and SHERLOCKv1 viral copy quantifications ($R =$

188 0.75, $P = 9.6\times10^{-7}$) (**Figure 5**).

190 **DISCUSSION**

191  With the goal of adapting cutting-edge human diagnostic technology to diseases

192 impacting food security, we developed two different rapid and highly specific lab-based one-pot

193 SHERLOCK fluorescent assays for the detection of common shrimp pathogens. We demonstrate

194 the adaptability of the SHERLOCK platform for targeting either a common RNA virus (TSV) or

195 a common DNA virus (WSSV) that have impacted shrimp aquaculture globally. We found the

196 TSV and WSSV SHERLOCKv2 assays to have a sensitivity and quantitative capability on par

197 with the OIE-recommended qPCR assays for these diseases. Moreover, both assays can assess

198 infection status for a variety of samples in as little as 30 minutes, improving upon the time-to-

result of qPCR. With the demonstrated ease of converting a one-pot fluorescent SHERLOCK

assay to a field-deployable assay (3, 23), these assays lay the foundation for rapid, specific field

diagnostics in shrimp aquaculture.

Building on an earlier iteration of a WSSV SHERLOCK assay, we were able to simplify

assay components leading to more robust and repeatable detection of both DNA and RNA viral

targets. The previous WSSV SHRELOCK assay used recombinase polymerase amplification

(RPA) to amplify DNA target, RNA polymerase to convert the amplified target from DNA to

RNA, and Cas13a to detect RNA target (23). The SHERLOCKv2 assays presented in this study

use LAMP (with or without reverse transcriptase) and Cas12b to detect DNA target from RNA

or DNA input, following the successful SARS-CoV-2 SHERLOCK assay design (4). By

eliminating the need for converting input material to RNA and relying on Cas13a for RNA

detection, these SHERLOCKv2 assays enable more stable and robust target detection. This is

supported by the reduced variation across technical replicates observed for WSSV

SHERLOCKv2 compared to WSSV SHERLOCKv1.

Pairing LAMP with CRISPR/Cas12b enabled these assays to overcome non-specific

signal that can occur in assays using LAMP alone. In the SHERLOCKv2 assays, stochastic non-

specific LAMP products did not lead to Cas cleavage signal. Although isothermal amplification-

based methods recently developed for aquaculture diagnostics have shown that sequence-specific

probes can enhance assay specificity (28, 29), the combination of primers and probes cannot

always be relied on for sequence-specific detection (30). Cas detection systems rely on sequence-

specific target binding to induce conformational change that triggers cleavage activity (31), and

combining isothermal amplification methods with this additional layer of specificity is becoming

more common in aquaculture molecular diagnostic approaches (23, 32). Despite reports of single

insertion and deletion tolerance in some Cas complexes (33), we found Cas12b to be highly

specific, supportive of previous reports of Cas12b specificity down to the single nucleotide level

(34).

Although disease diagnosis typically only requires a binary result, the ability to quantify

viral load can be useful. The significant correlations we found between SHERLOCKv2 assays

and qPCR assays suggest SHERLOCKv2 can be semi-quantitative. The TSV SHERLOCKv2

assay tended to underestimate viral copies relative to qPCR while the WSSV SHERLOCKv2

assay mostly showed similar viral copies to qPCR. These discrepancies could be explained by

differences in amplification efficiencies of different genomic target sequences. The TSV qPCR

assay targets near the beginning of the ORF1 (TSVgp1) region whereas the TSV SHERLOCK

assay targets near the end of the ORF2 region. The primers used for the OIE-recommended

WSSV qPCR protocol were designed to target a genomic region ~20 kb upstream of the VP28

gene region, while the LAMP primers and guide RNA for the WSSV SHERLOCK assay target

within the VP28 gene region itself. As amplification efficiency is affected by differences in

structure and sequence length in target regions as well as primers, it can be expected that

quantifications would differ between methods targeting different regions. Additionally, the

structural differences in the synthetic target standards used in the SHERLOCK assays (200-300

DNA or RNA fragments) and qPCR assays (plasmids) could have contributed to discrepancies in

results (35). Differences in data analysis between qPCR and SHERLOCKv2 methods could have

also contributed to discrepancies in viral detection among the infected shrimp samples. Samples

assessed in the qPCR assays were run in triplicate and required 2 of 3 replicates to have a Ct

value ≤ 40 for diagnosis, while samples assessed in the SHERLOCKv2 assays more strictly

required 3 of 5 replicates pass a baseline and an outlier threshold. Despite the differences in

analysis methods and in the nature of template used to optimize the SHERLOCK assay

compared to the qPCR assay, the binary qualitative results in detecting virus in shrimp tissue

showed positive percent agreements (87% for TSV SHERLOCKv2 and 94% for WSSV

SHERLOCKv2) and negative percent agreements (100% for both assays) within or close to the

strict range required by the FDA for clinical SARS-CoV-2 assays (90% positive percent

agreement and 95% negative percent agreement) (36). Moreover, the quantitative loads of the

corresponding viruses as measured by the two assays were also comparable. This gives validity

to the SHERLOCKv2 assays when compared to the current gold standard of TSV and WSSV

detection recommended by the OIE.

With molecular diagnostics rapidly advancing alongside outbreaks of existing and

emerging disease, the transfer of technology from human diagnostics to animal fields is critical,

particularly to those that support global food security. With a growing need to support

aquaculture production, we demonstrated the ability to adapt a SHERLOCK assay developed for

human diagnostics for detecting RNA and DNA shrimp pathogens. This development of novel ($\pm$

RT)-LAMP + CRISPR/Cas diagnostic assays for TSV and WSSV monitoring in *P. vannamei*

and potential for field-deployable conversion will accelerate biomonitoring for shrimp

aquaculture and pave the way for the developing rapid, efficient diagnostics across the

agriculture field.

METHODS

Viral challenge experiments

For TSV, two independent challenge experiments were conducted using *P. vannamei*

lines that differ in TSV susceptibility and TSV isolates that differ in virulence. The purpose of

this was to generate tissues with a wide dynamic range of viral load. In one experiment, TSV-

susceptible specific pathogen free (SPF) *P. vannamei* shrimp (Kona line) were injected with TSV

inoculum (El Salvador isolate) intramuscularly and reared until animals were moribund. In a

second experiment, individuals from a commercial line of TSV-tolerant *P. vannamei* were

injected with a TSV inoculum (Belize isolate) intramuscularly. Shrimp tissues were preserved in

Davidson's AFA fixative after which they were embedded, sectioned, stained with hematoxylin

and eosin, and examined under a light microscope. Histopathological evaluations were

performed using a subset of samples from the experimentally infected tolerant *P. vannamei* (N =

6) and susceptible *P. vannamei* (N = 5). The severity of the TSV infection was graded based on a

semi-quantitative scale ranging from Grade 0 to Grade 4: Grade 0 showing no signs of infection;

Grade 1 showing signs of infection by the pathogen but at levels that may be below those needed

for clinical disease classification; Grade 2 showing moderate signs of infection based on the

number and severity of pathogen-caused lesions; Grade 3 showing moderate to high signs of

infection based on the number and severity of pathogen-caused lesions; and Grade 4 showing

high signs of infection based on a high number of pathogen-caused lesions and tissue destruction

(37). Total RNA from experimentally TSV-challenged shrimp (N = 35) was extracted with the

Total RNA Purification Kit (NORGEN BIOTEK CORP) following the manufacturer's

recommendations. Quality and quantity were assessed using a NanoDrop™ (Thermo Fisher).

The RNA concentrations of all samples were normalized to approximately 30 ng μl^{-1} and TSV

was detected and quantified using a TaqMan™ Fast Virus 1-Step Master Mix (Applied

Biosystems™) following the OIE recommended protocol (38). All samples were run in triplicate

alongside plasmid standards with known copy numbers (100 - 1,000,000 copies). TSV load in

the experimentally challenged shrimp was calculated by extrapolating Ct values in the standard

curve generated using plasmid DNA template.

Unlike TSV, all commercially available *P. vannamei* lines are highly susceptible to

WSSV with shrimp mortality occurring 2-3 days post-challenge in routine bioassays conducted

in the Aquaculture Pathology Laboratory at University of Arizona. Details of the viral challenge

experiment with WSSV of *P. vannamei* are reported in Sullivan et al. 2019 (23). Briefly, specific

pathogen free shrimp were challenged by feeding WSSV infected tissue, and infection was

confirmed in moribund animals by histology. Genomic DNA was extracted with DNeasy spin

kits (Qiagen), quantified using a NanoDrop™ (Thermo Fisher), and quantified by qPCR using

TaqMan Fast Virus 1-Step Master Mix run on an ABI StepOne Plus system and following the

OIE protocol (39).

TSV and WSSV SHERLOCK assay development

To identify genomic targets for TSV and WSSV viral detection, publicly available viral

genome sequences were searched for consensus regions. For TSV, eight genomes were retrieved

from GenBank (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/; JF966384.1 (40), NC_003005.1 (41),

JX094350.1 (42), AF277675.1 (43), GQ502201.1 (44), DQ104696.1 (45), AY997025.1 (46),

DQ212790.1 (47)) and aligned with MAFFT (48) using the default parameters to generate a

consensus sequence (**Table S1**). For WSSV, the highly conserved viral envelope protein 28 (49)

was selected as a target and conservation across multiple strains was confirmed by surveying a

consensus genome compiled from 10 different isolates as previously reported (23).

To generate candidate LAMP primer sets, target sequences were input into the NEB

LAMP Primer Design tool (https://lamp.neb.com). For TSV, three LAMP primer sets were

selected as well as a previously published LAMP primer set (24) for screening. For WSSV, four

different candidate LAMP primer sets were selected and the primer set was optimized by testing

sets containing different combinations of primers as well as primer modifications including the

addition of a poly-T linker between the F1c/B1c and F2/B2 annealing sites of the FIP and BIP

primers (**Table S1**).

Guide RNAs for Cas12b collateral cleavage were designed using a sliding window of 20

bases in length and advancing one base at a time across the region between the F2 and B2

annealing sites of the LAMP FIP and BIP primers. To synthesize guide RNAs, a gBlock™

containing the *Aap* Cas12b sgRNA scaffold sequence (IDT) was first amplified using a forward

primer containing the T7 promoter sequence and reverse primers containing each different spacer

sequence. Amplification reaction conditions were as follows: 1X HF Buffer (NEB), 200 µM

dNTPs (NEB), 0.5 µM forward primer, 0.5 µM reverse primer, 0.01 ng template DNA, and 1

unit Phusion DNA polymerase (NEB) in 50 µL. Reactions were run on a thermocycler (Applied

Biosystems) with the following parameters: 98°C for 2 minutes, 30 cycles of 98°C for 10

seconds, 58°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 15 seconds, 72°C for 5 minutes, and a hold at 10°C.

Products were gel purified using the QIAquick Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen) with a 2% agarose 1x

TAE gel and products were eluted in 30 µL of Buffer EB prewarmed to 50°C. Concentrations

were measured using the Qubit Broad Range dsDNA kit (Life Technologies). Next, *in vitro*

transcription reactions were performed using the Ampliscribe T7 flash transcription kit (Lucigen)

in a 40 µL reaction with 50 ng of DNA template, 9 mM of each ribonucleotide, 9 mM of DTT, 1

µL of RiboGuard RNase inhibitor, 4 µL of T7 RNA polymerase, and 1X transcription reaction

buffer. Reactions were run at 42°C for 4 hours, incubated with 2 µL of DNase I (Lucigen) at

37°C for 15 minutes, and purified using the RNA Clean and Concentrate Kit (Zymo Research).

Guide RNAs were quantified using the Qubit Broad Range RNA assay kit (Life Technologies)

and molarity was estimated using the NEB copy number converter

(https://nebiocalculator.neb.com/). All sequences from the consensus genome, gBlocks™,

primers, and guide RNAs are listed in **Table S1**.

Evaluating LAMP primers

For TSV, primer sets were screened against a synthetic TSV RNA target *in vitro*

transcribed from gBlock™ DNA (IDT, **Table S1**) using the Ampliscribe T7-Flash Transcription

kit (Lucigen Corporation) and purified using the RNA Clean and Concentrator kit (Zymo

Research) following manufacturer's instructions. For WSSV, primer sets were screened against

either a synthetic WSSV DNA target (gBlock™, IDT; **Table S1**) or genomic DNA isolated from

shrimp with a high WSSV load. Target nucleic acid was diluted in background nucleic acid from

SPF shrimp as detailed in **Table S2** to improve the specificity of the LAMP primers. Total RNA

from SPF shrimp was isolated using the RNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen) and genomic

DNA from SPF shrimp was isolated using the DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen). LAMP

reactions were prepared as detailed in **Table S2** and run at 60°C and 62°C (TSV and WSSV;

respectively) for 1 hour on a thermocycler for real-time PCR (QuantStudio 12K flex, Thermo

Fisher) with fluorescent measurements taken at 2-minute intervals. Successful primers were

determined by their ability to start amplification before 30 minutes.

Evaluating guide RNAs and Cas12b detection

Guide RNAs were systematically evaluated with Recombinant *Aap* Cas12b (GenScript)

for efficacy using TSV LAMP product or synthetic WSSV target DNA (gBlock™, IDT) in 20

μL (TSV) or 10 μL (WSSV) reactions described **Table S2**. Prior to adding template and reporter,

reaction mixtures were incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature to facilitate the formation

of the CRISPR/Cas ribonucleoprotein complex. For each guide RNA, a negative control was run

that did not contain target nucleic acid to measure background collateral cleavage, and all

reactions were run in triplicate. Reactions were run in a 384-well black clear bottom plate

(Corning) at 60°C for 1 hour with measurements recorded every 2 minutes using a Spectramax

iD3 plate reader (Molecular Devices). Effective guide RNAs were identified as those that

generate a signal well-distinguished from the negative control in less than 30 minutes.

Evaluating sensitivity and standard curve generation

To produce standard curves for each assay, one-pot LAMP-Cas12b SHERLOCK

reactions were run using either *in vitro* transcribed synthetic TSV RNA target, synthetic WSSV

DNA target (gBlock™, IDT; **Table S1**), or genomic DNA isolated from shrimp with a high viral

load. Ten-fold dilution series of synthetic DNA or RNA were made ranging from 10^1 to 10^6

copies μL^{-1} (TSV) or 10^1 to 10^{10} copies μL^{-1} (WSSV) with all samples diluted in specific

pathogen free shrimp genomic RNA (5 ng per 20 µL reaction for TSV) or DNA (20 ng per 20

µL reaction for WSSV). Negative control reactions that did not contain any target nucleic acid

were included in each experiment. Reactions were run with 5 replicates per sample prepared as

detailed in **Table S2** and run at 60°C (TSV) or 62°C (WSSV) using a QuantStudio 12k Flex

thermocycler for real-time PCR (Applied Biosystems) for 60 minutes, with fluorescence readings

every 2 minutes. Prior to adding dNTPs, Bst, primer mix, fluorescent reporter, SYTO-82 dye, or

DNA, other reaction components were combined and incubated for 15 minutes at room

temperature to facilitate the formation of the CRISPR/Cas ribonucleoprotein complex.

Evaluating SHERLOCK quantification

To compare quantification of viral loads estimated by the OIE-recommended qPCR and

SHERLOCK, one-pot TSV SHERLOCK reactions were run on the same RNA samples from 30

TSV-infected shrimp quantified by qPCR described above. For WSSV, one-pot SHERLOCK

reactions were run on the same DNA samples from 35 WSSV-infected shrimp previously

quantified by qPCR (23). To standardize input across samples, 10 ng of RNA (TSV) or 1 ng of

DNA (WSSV) was added per 20 µL SHERLOCK reaction. SHERLOCK reactions were

prepared as detailed in **Table S2**, and all samples were run alongside standard curves as

described above. A linear regression analysis was performed on Ct values from the standard

curve samples calculated from fluorescent measurements that were corrected to a baseline

defined by cycles 1-2 for WSSV and 1-4 for TSV, and viral copies were estimated for each

sample from the extrapolated standard Ct values. For each sample, including standards, any

replicate outlier based on a Ct value beyond the sample median Ct ± one cycle was excluded and

only samples with at least three out of five replicates were considered in downstream analyses.

Viral copies estimated by SHERLOCK one-pot reactions were then compared to those estimated

by qPCR using a Pearson correlation analysis.

Evaluating specificity

The specificity of each one-pot SHERLOCK assay was tested against either RNA or

DNA extracted from shrimp tissue infected with infectious myonecrosis virus (IMNV; muscle

tissue), infectious hypodermal and haematopoietic necrosis virus (IHHNV; muscle tissue), *V.*

parahaemolyticus causing acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease/early mortality syndrome

(AHPND/EMS; hepatopancreas tissue), and *Enterocytozoon hepatopenaei* (EHP; hepatopancreas

tissue). RNA was extracted using RNeasy mini plus kit (Qiagen) and DNA was extracted using

the Qiagen DNeasy blood and tissue kit following manufacturer's protocols. One-pot reactions

were prepared as detailed in **Table S2** with a total of 10 ng of sample RNA (TSV) or 1 ng of

sample DNA (WSSV) in each reaction. To estimate false positive rates, one-pot reactions were

prepared as detailed in **Table S2** and run as described above with 5 ng of total RNA or 20 ng of

genomic DNA isolated from muscle tissue from 10 individual specific pathogen-free shrimp.

Data availability

Raw fluorescence data from all qPCR and SHERLOCK experiments, and R code used to

generate plots and statistics is publicly available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7438263 (50).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Veronica L. Pereira and Zachary G. Dench (Gloucester Marine Genomics Institute) for

their contributions towards previous iterations of assay development that inspired the assay

design described here. We also thank New England BioLabs and Sherlock Biosciences for

helpful discussions and advice.

FUNDING

This work was supported by the United States Department of Agriculture NIFA AFRI

Exploratory Research Program (grant # 2018-08980)

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.R.M. and S.A.T. designed and performed molecular experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote

the manuscript; M.J.H provided input throughout the project and edited the manuscript; R.C.-F.

conducted histopathology and preliminary qPCR experiments; A.K.D. provided all laboratory

challenge samples, developed the experimental design, managed the histopathology verification,

provided input throughout the project, and contributed to manuscript revisions; A.G.B.

conceived the project, provided input throughout its progress, and edited the manuscript.

REFERENCES

1.   Cammilleri G, Ferrantelli V, Pulvirenti A, Drago C, Stampone G, del Rocio Quintero

429   Macias G, Drago S, Arcoleo G, Costa A, Geraci F, di Bella C. 2020. Validation of a

430   Commercial Loop-Mediated Isothermal Amplification (LAMP) Assay for the Rapid

431   Detection of Anisakis spp. DNA in Processed Fish Products. Foods 9.

2.   Gootenberg JS, Abudayyeh OO, Lee JW, Essletzbichler P, Dy AJ, Joung J, Verdine V,

Donghia N, Daringer NM, Freije CA, Myhrvold C, Bhattacharyya RP, Livny J, Regev A,

Koonin E v., Hung DT, Sabeti PC, Collins JJ, Zhang F. 2017. Nucleic acid detection with

CRISPR-Cas13a/C2c2. Science (1979) 356:438–442.

3.   de Puig H, Lee RA, Najjar D, Tan X, Soekensen LR, Angenent-Mari NM, Donghia NM,

Weckman NE, Ory A, Ng CF, Nguyen PQ, Mao AS, Ferrante TC, Lansberry G, Sallum

H, Niemi J, Collins JJ. 2021. Minimally instrumented SHERLOCK (miSHERLOCK) for

CRISPR-based point-of-care diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2 and emerging variants. Sci Adv 7.

4.   Joung J, Ladha A, Saito M, Kim N-G, Woolley AE, Segel M, Barretto RPJ, Ranu A,

Macrae RK, Faure G, Ioannidi EI, Krajeski RN, Bruneau R, Huang M-LW, Yu XG, Li JZ,

Walker BD, Hung DT, Greninger AL, Jerome KR, Gootenberg JS, Abudayyeh OO, Zhang

F. 2020. Detection of SARS-CoV-2 with SHERLOCK one-pot testing. N Engl J Med

383:1492–1494.

5.   FAO. 2020. The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020. Sustainability in action.

1–244.

6.   Naylor RL, Kishore A, Sumaila UR, Issifu I, Hunter BP, Belton B, Bush SR, Cao L,

Gelcich S, Gephart JA, Golden CD, Jonell M, Koehn JZ, Little DC, Thilsted SH,

Tigchelaar M, Crona B. 2021. Blue food demand across geographic and temporal scales.

Nat Commun 12:1–14.

7.   Stentiford GD, Neil DM, Peeler EJ, Shields JD, Small HJ, Flegel TW, Vlak JM, Jones B,

Morado F, Moss S, others. 2012. Disease will limit future food supply from the global

crustacean fishery and aquaculture sectors. J Invertebr Pathol 110:141–157.

8.   National Marine Fisheries Service. 2022. Fisheries of the United States, 2020. US

Department of Commerce, NOAA Current Fishery Statistics No. 2020.

9.   Lafferty KD, Harvell CD, Conrad JM, Friedman CS, Kent ML, Kuris AM, Powell EN,

Rondeau D, Saksida SM. 2015. Infectious diseases affect marine fisheries and aquaculture

economics. Ann Rev Mar Sci 7:471–496.

10.   Hasson KW, Lightner D V, Mohney LL, Redman RM, Poulos BT, White BM. 1999.

Taura syndrome virus (TSV) lesion development and the disease cycle in the Pacific white

shrimp *Penaeus vannamei*. Dis Aquat Organ 36:81–93.

11.   Zhan W-B, Wang Y-H, Fryer JL, Yu K-K, Fukuda H, Meng Q-X. 1998. White spot

syndrome virus infection of cultured shrimp in China. J Aquat Anim Health 10:405–410.

12.   Brock JA. 1997. Taura syndrome, a disease important to shrimp farms in the Americas.

World J Microbiol Biotechnol 13:415–418.

13.   Lightner D v., Redman RM, Pantoja CR, Tang KFJ, Noble BL, Schofield P, Mohney LL,

Nunan LM, Navarro SA. 2012. Historic emergence, impact and current status of shrimp

pathogens in the Americas. J Invertebr Pathol 110:174–183.

14.   Tu C, Huang H-T, Chuang S-H, Hsu J-P, Kuo S-T, Li N-J, Hsu T-L, Li M-C, Lin S-Y.

1999. Taura syndrome in Pacific white shrimp *Penaeus vannamei* cultured in Taiwan. Dis

Aquat Organ 38:159–161.

15.   Argue BJ, Arce SM, Lotz JM, Moss SM. 2002. Selective breeding of Pacific white shrimp

(*Litopenaeus vannamei*) for growth and resistance to Taura Syndrome Virus. Aquaculture

204:447–460.

16.   Lillehammer M, Bangera R, Salazar M, Vela S, Erazo EC, Suarez A, Cock J, Rye M,

Robinson NA. 2020. Genomic selection for white spot syndrome virus resistance in

whiteleg shrimp boosts survival under an experimental challenge test. Sci Rep 10.

17.   Eswaran S. 2021. Specific Pathogen Free (SPF) Shrimps in Aquaculture, p. 465–470. *In*

Pandey, P, Parhi, J (eds.), Advances in Fisheries Biotechnology. Springer, Singapore.

18.   Sivakumar S, Vimal S, Abdul Majeed S, Santhosh Kumar S, Taju G, Madan N, Rajkumar

T, Thamizhvanan S, Shamsudheen K v., Scaria V, Sivasubbu S, Sahul Hameed AS. 2018.

A new strain of white spot syndrome virus affecting *Litopenaeus vannamei* in Indian

shrimp farms. J Fish Dis 41:1129–1146.

19.   Restrepo L, Reyes A, Bajaña L, Betancourt I, Bayot B. 2018. Draft genome sequence of a

White Spot Syndrome Virus isolate obtained in Ecuador. Genome Announc 6.

20.   Oakey HJ, Smith CS. 2018. Complete genome sequence of a white spot syndrome virus

associated with a disease incursion in Australia. Aquaculture 484:152–159.

21.   Jacobson RH, Wright P. 2022. Principles and methods of validation of diagnostic assays

for infectious diseases, p. 11–26. *In* Manual of Diagnostic Tests for Aquatic Animals.

World Organization of Animal Health (Office International des Epizooties).

22.   Flegel TW. 2019. A future vision for disease control in shrimp aquaculture. J World

Aquac Soc 50:249–266.

23.   Sullivan TJ, Dhar AK, Cruz-Flores R, Bodnar AG. 2019. Rapid, CRISPR-based, field-

deployable detection of White Spot Syndrome Virus in shrimp. Sci Rep 9:1–7.

24.   Kiatpathomchai W, Jareonram W, Jitrapakdee S, Flegel TW. 2007. Rapid and sensitive

detection of Taura syndrome virus by reverse transcription loop-mediated isothermal

amplification. J Virol Methods 146:125–128.

25.   Wei S, Suryawanshi H, Djandji A, Kohl E, Morgan S, Hod EA, Whittier S, Roth K, Yeh

R, Alejaldre JC, Fleck E, Ferrara S, Hercz D, Andrews D, Lee L, Hendershot KA,

Goldstein J, Suh Y, Mansukhani M, Williams Z. 2021. Field-deployable, rapid diagnostic

testing of saliva for SARS-CoV-2. Sci Rep 11:1–9.

26.   Tang-Nelson F-J, Lo C-F. 2021. Manual of Diagnostic Tests for Aquatic Animals 2021,

8th ed. World Organization of Animal Health (Office International des Epizooties).

Retrieved 22 June 2022.

27.   Srisuvan T, Noble BL, Schofield PJ, Lightner D v. 2006. Comparison of four Taura

syndrome virus (TSV) isolates in oral challenge studies with *Litopenaeus vannamei*

unselected or selected for resistance to TSV. Dis Aquat Organ 71:1–10.

28.   Zhang T, Liu X, Yang X, Liu F, Yang H, Li X, Feng H, Wu X, Jiang G, Shen H, Dong J.

2022. Rapid on-site detection method for White Spot Syndrome Virus using Recombinase

Polymerase Amplification combined with lateral flow test strip technology. Front Cell

Infect Microbiol 12:1008.

29.   Kampeera J, Dangtip S, Suvannakad R, Khumwan P, Senapin S, Kiatpathomchai W.

2021. Reverse transcription loop-mediated isothermal amplification (RT-LAMP)

combined with colorimetric gold nanoparticle (AuNP) probe assay for visual detection of

tilapia lake virus (TiLV) in Nile and red hybrid tilapia. J Fish Dis 44.

30.   Hardinge P, Murray JAH. 2019. Lack of specificity associated with using molecular
beacons in loop mediated amplification assays. BMC Biotechnol 19.

31.   Saha A, Arantes PR, Hsu R v., Narkhede YB, Jinek M, Palermo G. 2020. Molecular
dynamics reveals a DNA-induced dynamic switch triggering activation of CRISPR-
Cas12a. J Chem Inf Model 60.

32.   Naranitus P, Aiamsa-at P, Sukonta T, Hannanta-anan P, Chaijarasphong T. 2022.
Smartphone-compatible, CRISPR-based platforms for sensitive detection of acute
hepatopancreatic necrosis disease in shrimp. J Fish Dis 45:1805–1816.

33.   Zhang W, Shi R, Dong K, Hu H, Shu W, Mu Y, Yan B, Li L, Xiao X, Wang H. 2022. The
off-target effect of CRISPR-Cas12a system toward insertions and deletions between target
DNA and crRNA sequences. Anal Chem 94:8596–8604.

34.   Teng F, Guo L, Cui T, Wang XG, Xu K, Gao Q, Zhou Q, Li W. 2019. CDetection:
CRISPR-Cas12b-based DNA detection with sub-attomolar sensitivity and single-base
specificity. Genome Biol 20:132.

35.   Bowers RM, Dhar AK. 2011. Effect of template on generating a standard curve for
absolute quantification of an RNA virus by real-time reverse transcriptase-polymerase
chain reaction. Mol Cell Probes 25:60–64.

36.   Brooks ZC, Das S. 2020. COVID-19 testing impact of prevalence, sensitivity, and
specificity on patient risk and cost. Am J Clin Pathol 154:575–584.

37.   Lightner DV (ed.). 1996. A handbook of shrimp pathology and diagnostic procedures for
diseases of cultured penaeid shrimp. Baton Rouge, LA (USA) World Aquaculture Society.

38.   Tang KFJ, Wang J, Lightner D V. 2004. Quantitation of Taura syndrome virus by real-

time RT-PCR with a TaqMan assay. J Virol Methods 115:109–114.

39.   Durand S v., Lightner D v. 2002. Quantitative real time PCR for the measurement of

white spot syndrome virus in shrimp. J Fish Dis 25:381–389.

40.   Aranguren LF, Salazar M, Tang K, Caraballo X, Lightner D. 2013. Characterization of a

new strain of Taura syndrome virus (TSV) from Colombian shrimp farms and the

implication in the selection of TSV resistant lines. J Invertebr Pathol 112:68–73.

41.   Mari J, Poulos BT, Lightner D v., Bonami JR. 2002. Shrimp Taura syndrome virus:

genomic characterization and similarity with members of the genus Cricket paralysis-like

viruses. J Gen Virol 83:915–926.

42.   Tang KFJ, Navarro SA, Pantoja CR, Aranguren FL, Lightner D v. 2012. New genotypes

of white spot syndrome virus (WSSV) and Taura syndrome virus (TSV) from the

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Dis Aquat Organ 99:179–185.

43.   Mari J, Poulos BT, Lightner D v., Bonami JR. 2002. Shrimp Taura syndrome virus:

genomic characterization and similarity with members of the genus Cricket paralysis-like

viruses. J Gen Virol 83:915–926.

44.   Dhar AK, Lakshman DK, Amundsen K, Robles-Sikisaka R, Kaizer KN, Roy S, Hasson

KW, Allnutt FCT. 2010. Characterization of a Taura syndrome virus isolate originating

from the 2004 Texas epizootic in cultured shrimp. Arch Virol 155:315–327.

45.   Huang XX, Lu CP. 2005. The molecular diagnosis and phylogenetic analysis of Taura

Syndrome Virus isolated in China. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/DQ104696.1.

46. Srisuvan T, Tang KFJ, Lightner D v. 2005. Experimental infection of *Penaeus monodon*

with Taura syndrome virus (TSV). Dis Aquat Organ 67:1–8.

47. Côté I, Navarro S, Tang KFJ, Noble B, Lightner D v. 2008. Taura syndrome virus from

Venezuela is a new genetic variant. Aquaculture 284:62–67.

48. Katoh K, Misawa K, Kuma KI, Miyata T. 2002. MAFFT: a novel method for rapid

multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. Nucleic Acids Res 30:3059–

3066.

49. You Z, Nadala ECB, Yang J, Loh PC. 2004. Conservation of the DNA sequences

encoding the major structural viral proteins of WSSV. Dis Aquat Organ 61:159–163.

50. Trigg SA. 2022. shellytrigg/paper-TSV_WSSV_SHERLOCKv2: TSV-WSSV-

SHERLOCKv2_ms (v5.0). Zenodo. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7438263.

569
570

571
572

Figure 1. Schematic for CRISPR-based DNA and RNA detection in a one-pot reaction with simultaneous isothermal amplification of target sequence and detection by CRISPR-Cas target binding and collateral cleavage of a fluorescent reporter.

Figure 2. Sensitivity and specificity of SHERLOCK assays. SHERLOCK assay 10-fold standard

curve showing Ct values (mean +/- s.d. of five technical replicates) for synthetic (**a**) TSV RNA

and (**b**) WSSV DNA target with the dashed line indicating linear regression. Ct values (mean +/-

s.d.).; n.d., not detected) from SHERLOCK specificity tests evaluating shrimp samples for the

detection of (**c**) TSV and (**d**) WSSV against other common white shrimp diseases including

Vibrio spp. (causing EMS), EHP, IHHNV, IMNV, and pathogen-free shrimp (SPF). (+) and (-)

indicate assay results.

Figure 3. TSV SHERLOCK validation. (**a**) H & E-stained representative section from *P.*
vannamei susceptible line after TSV exposure showing focal acute-phase infection in the gill
characterized by spherical intracytoplasmic inclusions bodies (black arrows), pyknosis (red
arrows) and karyorrhexis. (**b**) H & E-stained representative section from *P. vannamei* resistant
line after TSV exposure showing no pathological signs characteristic of TSV infection. (**c**) TSV
load quantified by qPCR in resistant (coral) and susceptible animals (teal). (**d**) Correlation
between qPCR and TSV SHERLOCK quantification.

Figure 4. Comparison of SHERLOCKv2 assays to existing molecular assays. (**a**) Fold change in

viral copies estimated by SHERLOCKv2 assays relative to qPCR assays for commonly tested

samples. (**b**) Variation across technical replicates for WSSV samples commonly assayed in

SHERLOCKv1 and SHERLOCK v2 assays.

603 **Figure 5.** WSSV SHERLOCK assay validation. (**a**) Correlation between qPCR and WSSV

604 SHERLOCKv2 assay quantification (error bars, +/- s.d.). (**b**) Correlation between WSSV

605 SHERLOCKv2 and WSSV SHERLOCKv1 assays.