Clade-Specific MPXV PCR Assays

Daniel Antonio Negrón,[a]# Nicholas Tolli,[b] Stephanie Guertin,[b] Suzanne Wollen-Roberts,[a]

Shane Mitchell,[a] Jared Haas,[a] Catherine Pratt,[c] Katharine Jennings,[a] Bradley Abramson,[a]

Lauren Brinkac,[a] David Ashford[b]

[a]Noblis, Inc. 2002 Edmund Halley Dr, Reston, VA, 20191, USA

[b]Noblis ESI 14425 Penrose Pl, Chantilly, VA, 20151

[c]University of Nebraska Medical Center, 984388 Nebraska Medical Center, Omaha, NE, 68198-

4388, USA

Running Head: Clade-Specific MPXV PCR Assays

#Address correspondence to Daniel Antonio Negrón, Daniel.Negron@noblis.org

Word Count: ~2900

Keywords: MPXV, mpox, monkeypox, clade, PCR, assay, diagnostics, limit of detection

Abstract

In an evolving infectious disease outbreak, there are two priorities: rapid and accurate detection of the causative agent and characterization of its spread. The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay is an effective and portable diagnostic method that can quickly provide information associated with virulence, transmissibility, and pathogenicity. Compared to genomic sequencing, PCR requires less infrastructure, funding, and training. However, the development of sensitive and specific primer sequences is costly, particularly those with subspecies resolution. The recent *mpox (monkeypox) virus* outbreak underscores the need for the rapid development of clade-specific primers, particularly when there are differences in morbidity and mortality rates. Current mpox assays use primer sequences that also bind to the broader *Orthopoxvirus* genus, resulting in suspect diagnoses, delays in treatment, and poor allocation of scarce healthcare resources. Additionally, these orthopox-based primer sets cannot distinguish between different mpox clades and cannot illuminate intra-clade evolution over the course of the outbreak. Here, we present the *in silico* design and *in vitro* testing of novel clade-specific mpox assays.

Importance

There is an ongoing global outbreak of Mpox disease, an illness with a characteristic blistering rash progression. The Mpox virus clusters into two clades with differing levels of virulence and mortality rates. Thus, proper sample identification is critical for surveillance and the public health response programs that rely on such data. Accordingly, the US government specifically lists Clade I under the Federal Select Agent Program. Current diagnostics may fail to identify the virus or its clade membership as the genome mutates. In this work, we demonstrate an end-to-end workflow to quickly evaluate existing PCR assays and design new ones for clade-based

42   identification with respect to large sequence databases in service of preventing a catastrophic

43   fog-of-war from forming during an outbreak.

Introduction

Mpox virus, also known as *monkeypox virus* (MPXV), is an enveloped, linear, double-stranded DNA virus in the *Orthopoxvirus* genus and *Poxviridae* family (1). To reduce geographical stigma, the former Congo Basin (Central African) clade is now referred to as Clade I, and the former West African clade as Clade II (2). There are two subclades within Clade II, IIa and IIb, with the latter corresponding to variants circulating during the 2022 global outbreak (2). Clade II was originally thought to be less severe with milder disease, less deaths, and limited human-to-human transmission compared to Clade I (3, 4).

The exact *mpox virus* reservoir is unknown, although multiple species are carriers, including rodents and primates (5, 6). Transmission to humans is typically related to direct contact with infected animals, body fluids, or respiratory droplets, with some evidence supporting aerosol and fomite transmission (7). Mpox was first identified in humans in 1970 in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) two years after the eradication of smallpox (8). The cessation of vaccinia vaccination, waning immunity following smallpox eradication, and increased human migration have increased the risk of mpox and catalyzed the recent global outbreak (9). As of February, 1, 2023, the United States has reported 30,123 cases and 28 associated deaths, with 85,777 total global cases since May 2022 (10). Historically, fatality rates were 10% for Clade 1 cases and 1% for Clade II cases, however Clade IIb cases have experienced a lower fatality rate of 0.1%. This difference may be due to several factors, such as healthcare access, divergence, and selection bias (11).

Mpox disease in humans manifests as an initial febrile prodrome 3-17 days after exposure, with headache and fatigue, potentially accompanied by enlarged lymph nodes (10). At rash onset, the fever often declines and lesions of varying distribution and number develop

through the macular, papular, vesicular, and pustular phases until scabbing for a period of 14-28

days (10, 12). In recent years, atypical presentations have included only genital lesions and

absence of fever (10). The key clinical characteristics of mpox disease present similarly to

smallpox disease and other illnesses associated with vesicular lesions, thereby complicating

diagnosis (12). Improved molecular diagnostics are critical to rapid, correct diagnoses, targeted

treatments, and controlling spread of the disease.

Orthopoxvirus infections are difficult to characterize by serology due to cross-reactivity

between other genus members, making molecular testing by polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

the preferred diagnostic method for mpox, given its accuracy and sensitivity (12). Mpox also

differs from other viral pathogens in that standard specimens needed for accurate diagnosis are

skin lesions, dry crusts, or biopsy, instead of the more typical and accessible blood, serum, and

sputum samples, meaning that PCR-based diagnostics are only effective when samples are taken

during the active rash phase of the illness (12).

The recent influx of mpox cases and the difficulty of diagnosing atypical infections

outside of endemic regions highlights the need for rapid identification to assist with diagnosis

and case management to decrease further community spread (6, 13). Molecular dating,

phylogenetic, and coding region analysis can assist with understanding potential transmission

chains and epidemiological factors (14, 15). Furthermore, sequencing data assists medical

countermeasure development, suitability, and effectiveness (16). However, the current laboratory

infrastructures where mpox is endemic need improvement for effective surveillance, treatment,

and prevention of the disease, including portable molecular testing capabilities (6, 9, 12). Here

we describe novel primer sets to identify mpox and discern between Clade I and Clade II variants

in the field.

Results

The protocol identified 55 generic (pan-clade), 690 Clade I, and 1,595 Clade II MPXV assay candidates from 60,702 pan-clade, 116,124 Clade I, and 161,989 Clade II BioVelocity-identified signature sequences respectively. Table S1 lists the complete set of control and candidate assay sequences and Table S2 and Table S3 list the corresponding alignment statistics and global-local alignments from the PSET evaluation. Figure 1 displays the amplicon and primer ranges of the tested PCR assays with reference genome context and variation and Table 1 lists the corresponding primer and probe sequences. Figure S1 similarly displays the ranges of all assays. Of the tested assays, no indels were observed to occur within primer regions, only very few SNPs.

Figure 1. Genomic context of tested assays with respect to NCBI RefSeq accession NC_063383.1. Amplicon color corresponds to

clade (10244 for generic mpox and a I or II suffix for each clade). Arrows and rectangles on each amplicon indicate primer and

probe regions. Variations (indels and SNPs) are reported as a percentage of the 4,652 mpox sequences queried against the

reference using nucmer.

Table 1 also lists the average cycle threshold (Ct) values and Figure 2 plots the

normalized reporter values (Rn) for the published and candidate assays. The five generic

candidate assays amplified both controls, but with less efficiency than the published assay. Two

notably weak assays were observed with Ct values exceeding 38: Noblis_MPXV-I-640 and

Noblis_MPXV-II-0483. All tested assays amplified their respective control targets except for

Noblis_MPXV-I-578 (Clade I) and Noblis_MPXV-II-0482 (Clade II). The LOD for each assay

tested was 5 copies/µL except for Noblis_MPXV-52 for Clade II, which was 50 copies/µL

(Table S4 & Table S5). Figure S2 plots Rn for the LOD analysis.

Table 1. Control and Noblis, Inc. PCR assay primer/probe set sequences and average cycle threshold (Ct) values for control and

no template control (NTC). Control I and Control II are controls for Clade I and Clade II. N.A. means no amplification. A copy

of this table is available in Table S6.

ID		Sequence			Average Ct		
		Forward Primer	Probe	Reverse Primer	Control I	Control II	NTC
Generic	G2R_G	GGAAAATGTAAAGACAACGAATACAG	AAGCCGTAATCTATGTTGTCTATCGTGTCC	GCTATCACATAATCTGGAAGCGTA	24.46	24.32	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-51	ACGGAAATATTTGTAGCACAACGA	ACTCCCAAACTGCATTCATGTTACACT	ACAGCATTCCATTCCAACACT	27.38	28.47	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-52	ACGGAAATATTTGTAGCACAACG	ACTCCCAAACTGCATTCATGTTACACT	ACAGCATTCCATTCCAACACT	27.18	28.39	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-53	ACGGAAATATTTGTAGCACAACGA	ACTCCCAAACTGCATTCATGTTACACT	AACAGCATTCCATTCCAACACT	27.37	28.54	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-54	ACGGAAATATTTGTAGCACAACGAA	ACTCCCAAACTGCATTCATGTTACACT	ACAGCATTCCATTCCAACACT	27.53	28.43	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-55	AACGGAAATATTTGTAGCACAACGA	ACTCCCAAACTGCATTCATGTTACACT	ACAGCATTCCATTCCAACACT	27.55	28.76	N.A.
Clade I	C3L	TGTCTACCTGGATACAGAAAGCAA	CCCATATATGCTAAATGTACCGGTACCGGA	GGCATCTCCGTTAATACATTGAT	26.36	N.A.	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-I-149	GATATCTCGAGGCGATGGGC	TGGGGCGTGACGGAATAGTACA	AGCGTGACGTTCCTGACATT	26.54	N.A.	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-I-202	CGCAAATAGGTGCCTCAGGA	CGAGGCGATGGGCATCTCCG	CTATTCCGTCACGCCCCATT	26.17	N.A.	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-I-578	CGGACATTTCAGTCATTGGCA	TGCTCGCTGCTTTACATGTTTCCCA	TCGGTCTTATGCGATACATTGC	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-I-634	TCACTACGGACATAAACCATTGT	GGAAGTAAGTTCCGGCTGCCATGT	TCATCATCTACTTGCTCTCCAGG	27.67	N.A.	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-I-640	TTAAGATCTACCCGCGATACG	ACATGTCTATTGTTAATCATGCCGCCA	ACCCATTACTCTCCTAGAACAGA	38.09	N.A.	N.A.
Clade II	G2R_WA	CACACCGTCTCTTCCACAGA	AACCCGTCGTAACCAGCAATACATTT	GATACAGGTTAATTTCCACATCG	N.A.	25.28	WA
	Noblis_MPXV-II-0430	GGAGGAGTTGCCAATGACGA	ACGCGATCAGGAGTCATCGTTGA	GCGTCGGTACATGTGTGTCA	N.A.	33.69	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-II-0482	CCCTGGCATTACCGAGTTCA	CCTCAGAAGATGCTCCGTTACCGT	GTTGAACGACTGCGGACGTA	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-II-0483	CGCGATCAGGAGTCATCGTT	GCGAACCAAAATGTGATATGGGGTTGC	GCGTCGGTACATGTGTGTCA	N.A.	38.64	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-II-1028	AACTCATAATTGCTGACGCGAT	ACAACGCCATCATGAATAGCAGTGA	TTCGGGAGGCTCCAGATAGGA	N.A.	26.03	N.A.
	Noblis_MPXV-II-1253	TGAGGGATTTCACCCCACTGA	ACACCAACCATGTACCGTCGAGT	CGTAGATTGAACTAACCAGTCGA	N.A.	25.47	N.A.

Figure 2. Amplification plots. Subplot rows indicate the intended target of each assay, with A, B, and C corresponding to generic pan-clade, Clade I, and Clade II.

Discussion

This mpox study is the first to assess BioLaboro candidates *in vitro*. The objective was to demonstrate an enhanced ability to design PCR assays below the species level and to therefore identify clade-specific groupings. Previous work using the BioLaboro pipeline focused primarily on the PSET component to track predicted PCR assay performance over time and debug associated design issues. For example, a previous SARS-CoV-2 study demonstrated the sudden increase in failure rate of several assays related to deletions in the S gene as the virus evolved (17). This motivated the development of a new feature for PSET, which was the inclusion of

5'/3'-sequence context in the primer sequence query to increase local alignment quality and

detect additional, potentially deleterious mutations outside of the binding target.

The mpox primer sets from the literature and those developed through this study were

able to reliably detect *mpox virus*, except for Noblis_MPXV-I-578 and Noblis_MPXV-II-0483.

The failure of the former is likely due to the false negative rate of 60.91% reported by PSET.

This indicates that alignments failed immediately *in silico* at the local alignment step. Those

remaining 43 alignments that passed the global-local threshold exhibited perfect identity except

for one with an indel on the reverse primer. Noblis_MPXV-II-0483 had a near perfect true

positive rate of 98.90% with the majority of the 4,047 alignments to the target clade having one

substitution on the reverse primer. Remaining alignments exhibited several substitutions and

indels, predominantly on the reverse primer. It is likely that the alignment threshold may have

resulted in the calling of alignments with potentially deleterious mutations as true positives.

Nevertheless, the overall success is likely a result of using strict BioVelocity and PSET

thresholds.

In vitro tests showed that all assays amplified their respective clade targets, except for

Noblis_MPXV-I-578 (Clade I) and Noblis_MPXV-II-0482 (Clade II). Overall, there were at

least two Noblis generated primer sets per assay that produced comparable results to the

published CDC assays. Optimization of Noblis assays has yet to be performed and could lead to

better sensitivity than following the published protocols specific to the CDC assays. Outside of

the Noblis_MPXV-52 Clade II assay, LOD testing of the best candidates from the original

experiments were consistent with the results from the published assays. More testing is needed to

demonstrate reproducibility and, therefore, improved confidence of the LOD data. Developing a

multiplex PCR assay incorporating the optimal Generic, Clade I, and Clade II primer sets would

be beneficial in advancing detection capability while providing a more efficient diagnosis option

if made available to countries in need of this service.

As demonstrated in previous studies, clade-specific detection and resistance to false

negatives due to primer sequence drift are critical to understanding the dimensions of an

outbreak and coordinating a robust and effective public health response (17). The combination of

algorithms in BioLaboro creates specific primer candidates and reliably assesses their

performance *in silico* prior to in vitro testing which significantly contributes to a rapid diagnostic

and public health response. Future studies should include testing on clinical samples and

evaluation of assays in the field.

Our previous work focused primarily on the development of algorithms to calculate

conserved DNA regions, generate candidate PCR primers, and monitor predicted PCR assay

performance. This work demonstrates an end-to-end test of a workflow for the *in silico*

generation and *in vitro* validation of novel assays. As proof-of-concept, we focused on

developing generic and clade-specific *mpox virus* assays. The workflow was able to quickly

provide viable assays with efficiencies comparable to those currently deployed. The rapid

deployment of novel validated PCR assays benefits biosurveillance and pandemic response

programs.

Methods

Pipeline

Noblis BioLaboro is a three-stage pipeline consisting of the BioVelocity, Primer3, and

PSET (PCR Signature Erosion Tool) programs for the design and evaluation of PCR assays

against reference DNA sequence data (18). BioVelocity calculates conserved genomic regions

for a given set of sequence accessions or taxonomic identifiers. The algorithm builds a perfect-

hash data structure mapping k-mer sequences to accessions. Conserved, overlapping k-mers

unique to the target accessions are then extended with a mismatch threshold and combined into

template sequences for use with Primer3 (2.6.1), which generates candidate PCR assays based on

positional constraints, thermodynamic models, and secondary structure stability (19). Next,

PSET further evaluates the assays via two-phased alignment

(https://github.com/biolaboro/PSET). First, the workflow queries the amplicon against subjects

using the blastn program of the BLAST+ suite (2.12.0+) and filters them with a combined

percent identity and coverage threshold (20). Second, a global-local alignment step runs the

glsearch36 program of the FASTA suite (36.3.8e) to check primer identity and orientation

against the filtered set of subjects (21). The workflow outputs a confusion matrix based on

alignment statistics and subject taxonomy. A true positive (TP) occurs when all assay primers

align above the threshold with the correct arrangement on a subject bearing the targeted

taxonomic identifier or descendant. If the taxonomy is incorrect, then a false positive (FP) is

called. A true negative (TN) occurs when an assay fails alignment to a non-targeted subject and

is a false negative (FN) otherwise. Note that sometimes these are estimates since the number of

hittable subjects in the database is unknown due to the inconsistent usage of NCBI Taxonomy

identifiers and varying levels of completeness and lengths of subject accessions.

In silico Protocol

BioVelocity was run against the Bacterial (BCT) and Viral (VRL) database divisions of

NCBI GenBank to map 50-mers and determine regions conserved within the mpox species

(those bearing NCBI Taxonomy identifier 10244). Clade-specific regions were also targeted by

selecting corresponding accessions provided by the Nextstrain monkeypox build (22). Primer3

was run using the conserved sequence output from BioVelocity and the configuration listed in

Table S7. Prior to running PSET, an additional 10 nucleotides of 5'/3'-sequence context from a

reference accession was added to the amplicon queries to enhance local alignment near the ends.

PSET queried the context-padded amplicons using blastn against the NCBI nucleotide (nt)

BLAST+ database and another built from exported GISAID EpiPox™ sequences (accession

ranges listed in Table S8) (23). Assay primers were realigned using glsearch36 against the

subject hits with ≥85% sequence similarity. Subsequent hits to subjects with ≥90% sequence

similarity and correct taxonomy were considered TPs. PSET also evaluated assays from the

literature, including one pan-orthopox (E9L), two mpox assays (B6R and G2R_G), one Clade I

(C3L), and one Clade II (G2R_WA) with the same procedure (24, 25) (Table S1).

Confusion matrix values were calculated by taxon (species) and clade based on results

from NCBI nt and GISAID EpiPox™. For the former, no assumptions were made about the total

number of potential positive hits. This was done for the latter since only high-quality, complete

sequences were downloaded. Accordingly, there were 110 and 4,454 potential positives for

Clade I and Clade II and 4,652 for generic assays (including those subjects with unknown clade).

Note that the FP rate (FPR) and TN rate (TNR) for generic assays are undefined with respect to

the GISAID EpiPox™ database since no negative hits are possible. Candidate assays for testing

were selected based on Primer3 penalty point values, confusion matrix results, and alignments.

Genomic variation was calculated using the nucmer program of the MUMMER4 suite to

determine single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and insertions/deletions (indels) (26). NCBI

RefSeq accession number NC_063383.1 served as the reference and the exported GISAID

EpiPox™ sequences comprised the query (Table S8). The program was run with default

parameters.

In vitro Protocol

Previously published primer sets were run alongside Noblis, Inc. candidates to confirm

successful real-time PCR tests, including G2R_G (generic), C3L (Clade I), and G2R_WA (Clade

II) (Table 1) (24, 25). Synthetic human monkeypox (hMPXV) controls from Twist Bioscience

were used for the validation of the Noblis assay candidates, with Control 1 (Part No. 106056)

and Control 2 (Part No. 106059) specific to Clade I and Clade II strains respectively. Stock

concentration for each control was 10^5 copies/μL. Dilutions of 1:20 were performed (5 μL

control into 95 μL molecular grade water) to give a final concentration of $5 \cdot 10^3$ copies/μL. The

fifteen final candidates and published sets for each assay were ordered as PrimeTime Std qPCR

Assays through Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) and used with the PrimeTime Gene

Expression Master Mix. PrimeTime Std qPCR Assays were resuspended in 500 μL TE for a 20X

stock concentration. 200 μL of reference dye was added to the PrimeTime Gene Expression 2X

Master Mix per IDT's instruction for use with the Applied Biosystems StepOnePlus

thermocycler. Master mix setup for each reaction included 10 μL of the PrimeTime Gene

Expression 2X Master Mix, 1 μL of the appropriate PrimeTime Std qPCR Assay and 4 μL of

molecular grade water. 96-well plates were used with the 15 μL master mix added to the

necessary wells. 5 μL of the appropriate template was then added to the wells and all samples

were tested in triplicate. Conditions were 1 cycle at 95°C for 3 min, 45 cycles at 95°C for 5 sec,

and 60°C (62°C for Clade II) for 30 sec. Limit of detection (LOD) was determined for the best

assays based on average Ct from the original tests using the aforementioned parameters. Ten-fold

serial dilutions were created from the 1:20 initial dilution of each control out to 1:2,000,000.

Data Availability

This study relied on genomic DNA sequence data and metadata available at NCBI GenBank

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/), GISAID EpiPox™ (https://gisaid.org/), and Nextstrain

(https://nextstrain.org/monkeypox/hmpxv1). Table S8 lists the GISAID EpiPox™ accession

numbers. Code, sequence, and raw PCR data are also available on Figshare

(10.6084/m9.figshare.23800629). Please contact the corresponding author with requests for

additional information.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: DN, NT, SG, CP, BA, & DA; Data Curation: DN, NT, & SM; Formal

analysis: DN, NT, & SM; Funding acquisition: KJ & DA; Investigation: DN, NT, & SM;

Methodology: DN, NT, CP, BA, & DA; Project administration: DN, NT, KJ, & DA; Resources:

SG, SWR, JH, KJ, BA, & DA; Software: DN, SM, & BA; Supervision: KJ & DA; Validation:

DN, NT, SG, & DA; Visualization: DN, NT, SG, & SWR; Writing - Original Draft: DN, NT,

SWR, & BA; Writing - Review & Editing: DN, NT, SG, SWR, CP, KJ, BA, LB, & DA.

Contributions and contact information are listed in Table SA and Table SB.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge all data contributors, i.e., the Authors and their Originating

laboratories responsible for obtaining the specimens, and their Submitting laboratories for

generating the genetic sequence and metadata and sharing via the GISAID Initiative, on which

this research is based. Noblis, Inc. funded this study as part of the internal Noblis Sponsored

Research (NSR) program. Many thanks to Dr. Shanmuga Sozhamannan (ORCiD:0000-0002-

6762-7874) for feedback on the PSET algorithm and its development. We also thank Dr. Michael

262   Wiley (ORCiD:0000-0001-6688-007X) for feedback on the results and ideas for continued

263   development and deployment.

References

1. Lefkowitz EJ, Dempsey DM, Hendrickson RC, Orton RJ, Siddell SG, Smith DB. 2018. Virus

taxonomy: the database of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV).

Nucleic Acids Res 46:D708–D717.

2. Happi C, Adetifa I, Mbala P, Njouom R, Nakoune E, Happi A, Ndodo N, Ayansola O,

Mboowa G, Bedford T, Neher RA, Roemer C, Hodcroft E, Tegally H, O'Toole Á, Rambaut

A, Pybus O, Kraemer MUG, Wilkinson E, Isidro J, Borges V, Pinto M, Gomes JP, Freitas

L, Resende PC, Lee RTC, Maurer-Stroh S, Baxter C, Lessells R, Ogwell AE, Kebede Y,

Tessema SK, de Oliveira T. 2022. Urgent need for a non-discriminatory and non-

stigmatizing nomenclature for monkeypox virus. PLoS Biol 20:e3001769.

3. Faye O, Pratt CB, Faye M, Fall G, Chitty JA, Diagne MM, Wiley MR, Yinka-Ogunleye AF,

Aruna S, Etebu EN, Aworabhi N, Ogoina D, Numbere W, Mba N, Palacios G, Sall AA,

Ihekweazu C. 2018. Genomic characterisation of human monkeypox virus in Nigeria. The

Lancet Infectious Diseases 18:246.

4. Whitehouse ER, Bonwitt J, Hughes CM, Lushima RS, Likafi T, Nguete B, Kabamba J,

Monroe B, Doty JB, Nakazawa Y, Damon I, Malekani J, Davidson W, Wilkins K, Li Y,

Radford KW, Schmid DS, Pukuta E, Muyamuna E, Karhemere S, Tamfum J-JM,

Okitolonda EW, McCollum AM, Reynolds MG. 2021. Clinical and Epidemiological

Findings from Enhanced Monkeypox Surveillance in Tshuapa Province, Democratic

Republic of the Congo During 2011–2015. The Journal of Infectious Diseases 223:1870–

1878.

5. Khodakevich L, Jezek Z, Kinzanzka K. 1986. ISOLATION OF MONKEYPOX VIRUS

FROM WILD SQUIRREL INFECTED IN NATURE. The Lancet 327:98–99.

6. Durski KN, McCollum AM, Nakazawa Y, Petersen BW, Reynolds MG, Briand S, Djingarey

MH, Olson V, Damon IK, Khalakdina A. 2018. Emergence of Monkeypox — West and

Central Africa, 1970–2017 67.

7. Hammarlund E, Lewis MW, Carter SV, Amanna I, Hansen SG, Strelow LI, Wong SW,

Yoshihara P, Hanifin JM, Slifka MK. 2005. Multiple diagnostic techniques identify

previously vaccinated individuals with protective immunity against monkeypox. Nat Med

11:1005–1011.

8. Ladnyj ID, Ziegler P, Kima E. 1972. A human infection caused by monkeypox virus in

Basankusu Territory, Democratic Republic of the Congo. Bull World Health Organ

46:593–597.

9. McCollum AM, Shelus V, Hill A, Traore T, Onoja B, Nakazawa Y, Doty JB, Yinka-Ogunleye

A, Petersen BW, Hutson CL, Lewis R. 2023. Epidemiology of Human Mpox —

Worldwide, 2018–2021. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 72:68–72.

10. CDC. 2023. Mpox in the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

https://www.cdc.gov/poxvirus/mpox/response/2022/index.html. Retrieved 9 March 2023.

11. Vogel L. 2022. Making sense of monkeypox death rates. CMAJ 194:E1097.

12. McCollum AM, Damon IK. 2014. Human Monkeypox. Clinical Infectious Diseases

58:260–267.

13.   Thornhill JP, Barkati S, Walmsley S, Rockstroh J, Antinori A, Harrison LB, Palich R, Nori

A, Reeves I, Habibi MS, Apea V, Boesecke C, Vandekerckhove L, Yakubovsky M,

Sendagorta E, Blanco JL, Florence E, Moschese D, Maltez FM, Goorhuis A, Pourcher V,

Migaud P, Noe S, Pintado C, Maggi F, Hansen A-BE, Hoffmann C, Lezama JI, Mussini C,

Cattelan A, Makofane K, Tan D, Nozza S, Nemeth J, Klein MB, Orkin CM. 2022.

Monkeypox Virus Infection in Humans across 16 Countries — April–June 2022. N Engl J

Med 387:679–691.

14.   Berthet N, Descorps-Declère S, Besombes C, Curaudeau M, Nkili Meyong AA, Selekon B,

Labouba I, Gonofio EC, Ouilibona RS, Simo Tchetgna HD, Feher M, Fontanet A, Kazanji

M, Manuguerra J-C, Hassanin A, Gessain A, Nakoune E. 2021. Genomic history of human

monkey pox infections in the Central African Republic between 2001 and 2018. Sci Rep

11:13085.

15.   Sadeuh-Mba SA, Yonga MG, Els M, Batejat C, Eyangoh S, Caro V, Etoundi A, Carniel E,

Njouom R. 2019. Monkeypox virus phylogenetic similarities between a human case

detected in Cameroon in 2018 and the 2017-2018 outbreak in Nigeria. Infection, Genetics

and Evolution 69:8–11.

16.   Mucker EM, Hartmann C, Hering D, Giles W, Miller D, Fisher R, Huggins J. 2017.

Validation of a pan-orthopox real-time PCR assay for the detection and quantification of

viral genomes from nonhuman primate blood. Virol J 14:210.

17.   Negrón DA, Kang J, Mitchell S, Holland MY, Wist S, Voss J, Brinkac L, Jennings K,

Guertin S, Goodwin BG, Sozhamannan S. 2022. Impact of SARS-CoV-2 Mutations on

PCR Assay Sequence Alignment. Front Public Health 10:889973.

18. Holland M, Negrón D, Mitchell S, Dellinger N, Ivancich M, Barrus T, Thomas S, Jennings

KW, Goodwin B, Sozhamannan S. 2020. BioLaboro: A bioinformatics system for detecting

molecular assay signature erosion and designing new assays in response to emerging and

reemerging pathogens. bioRxiv https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.08.031963.

19. Untergasser A, Cutcutache I, Koressaar T, Ye J, Faircloth BC, Remm M, Rozen SG. 2012.

Primer3—new capabilities and interfaces. Nucleic Acids Res 40:e115.

20. Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, Madden TL. 2009.

BLAST+: Architecture and Applications. BMC Bioinformatics 10:421.

21. Pearson WR, Lipman DJ. 1988. Improved Tools for Biological Sequence Comparison.

Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 85:2444–2448.

22.   2022. nextstrain.org/monkeypox. Python. Nextstrain.

23. Khare S, Gurry C, Freitas L, B Schultz M, Bach G, Diallo A, Akite N, Ho J, Tc Lee R, Yeo

W, Core Curation Team G, Maurer-Stroh S, GISAID Global Data Science Initiative

(GISAID), Munich, Germany, Bioinformatics Institute, Agency for Science Technology

and Research, Singapore, Oswaldo Cruz Foundation (FIOCRUZ), Rio de Janeiro, Brazil,

Institut Pasteur de Dakar, Dakar, Senegal, National Institutes of Biotechnology Malaysia,

Selangor, Malaysia, Smorodintsev Research Institute of Influenza, St. Petersburg, Russia,

Genome Institute of Singapore, Agency for Science Technology and Research, Singapore,

China National GeneBank, Shenzhen, China, A*STAR Infectious Disease Labs (ID Labs),

Singapore, National Public Health Laboratory, National Centre for Infectious Diseases,

Ministry of Health, Singapore, Department of Biological Sciences, National University of

Singapore, Singapore. 2021. GISAID's Role in Pandemic Response. China CDC Weekly

3:1049–1051.

24. Li Y, Olson VA, Laue T, Laker MT, Damon IK. 2006. Detection of monkeypox virus with

real-time PCR assays. Journal of Clinical Virology 36:194–203.

25. Li Y, Zhao H, Wilkins K, Hughes C, Damon IK. 2010. Real-time PCR assays for the

specific detection of monkeypox virus West African and Congo Basin strain DNA. J Virol

Methods 169:223–227.

26. Marçais G, Delcher AL, Phillippy AM, Coston R, Salzberg SL, Zimin A. 2018. MUMmer4:

A fast and versatile genome alignment system. PLOS Computational Biology 14:e1005944.