







Concise Communication

Estimating severe acute respiratory coronavirus virus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) seroprevalence from residual clinical blood samples, January–March 2021

Daniel S. Graciaa MD, MPH¹ , Hans P. Verkerke BS², Jeannette Guarner MD², Ana Maria Moldoveanu MPH¹, Narayanaiah Cheedarla PhD² , Connie M. Arthur PhD³, Cheryl L. Maier MD, PhD² , Andrew Neish MD², Sara C. Auld MD, MSc⁴, Angie Campbell MA⁵ , Neel R. Gandhi MD^{1,5}, John D. Roback MD, PhD²  and N. Sarita Shah MD, MPH^{1,5} 

¹Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia, ²Department of Pathology & Laboratory Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia, ³Department of Pathology, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, ⁴Division of Pulmonary, Allergy, Critical Care, and Sleep Medicine, Department of Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia and ⁵Departments of Epidemiology and Global Health, Rollins School of Public Health, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia

Abstract

We describe severe acute respiratory coronavirus virus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) IgG seroprevalence and antigenemia among patients at a medical center in January–March 2021 using residual clinical blood samples. The overall seroprevalences were 17% by infection and 16% by vaccination. Spent or residual samples are a feasible alternative for rapidly estimating seroprevalence or monitoring trends in infection and vaccination.

(Received 5 July 2022; accepted 23 August 2022)

Traditional serosurveys are time- and resource-intensive, making them challenging to conduct repeatedly in short periods to evaluate trends in seroprevalence.¹ Spent or residual clinical blood samples, which are collected for clinical testing and then routinely discarded, provide an alternative method for conducting serosurveys and have been conducted on a large scale, particularly early in the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic.² To understand population immunity to severe acute respiratory coronavirus virus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), however, serosurveys must differentiate individuals with infection and vaccine-induced immunity.³ After deployment of SARS-CoV-2 vaccines, individuals in a population may have detectable antibodies to the SARS-CoV-2 receptor binding domain (RBD) from either infection or vaccination. Spent samples offer a readily available source of specimens for testing of multiple targets such as antibodies to the RBD or nucleocapsid or, alternatively, SARS-CoV-2 antigens to identify prior infection, active infection, or vaccination. The objective of this study was to determine SARS-CoV-2 antibody prevalence and

antigenemia in spent samples from an urban medical center during the initial stages of vaccine implementation.

Methods

Spent samples were collected weekly from January 22 to March 12, 2021, from the clinical laboratory of a medical center in Atlanta composed of a 500-bed hospital and multispecialty outpatient clinics. The clinical laboratory processed all blood specimens from inpatient and outpatient laboratory collection, including from medical-surgical wards, intensive care units, obstetrics units, the emergency department, and infusion centers. After processing, blood chemistry specimens were stored up to 5 days prior to being discarded. The same day weekly, a convenience sample of discarded specimens representing ~400 unique patients from that day was transported to the research laboratory for SARS-CoV-2 testing. Patient samples were matched to clinical data from the electronic medical record and assessed for both SARS-CoV-2 antigen and antibody. Antigenemia was assessed on the Quanterix platform by ultrasensitive quantitative immunoassay for SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein.⁴ SARS-CoV-2 RBD and nucleocapsid antibodies were detected by single-dilution serological assays that were developed and validated using pre-pandemic and polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-confirmed COVID-19 patient serum and plasma samples.⁵ ELISA optical density cutoffs for seroconversion were chosen using receiver

Author for correspondence: Daniel S. Graciaa, MD, Woodruff Memorial Research Building, 101 Woodruff Circle, Suite 2101, Atlanta, GA 30322. E-mail: dsgracci@emory.edu
PREVIOUS PRESENTATION. Preliminary findings of this study were presented as an abstract at IDWeek 2021 on September 29–October 3, 2021, held virtually.

Cite this article: Graciaa DS, *et al.* (2022). Estimating severe acute respiratory coronavirus virus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) seroprevalence from residual clinical blood samples, January–March 2021. *Antimicrobial Stewardship & Healthcare Epidemiology*, <https://doi.org/10.1017/ash.2022.298>

© The Author(s), 2022. Published by Cambridge University Press on behalf of The Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America. This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike licence (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/>), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the same Creative Commons licence is used to distribute the re-used or adapted article and the original article is properly cited. The written permission of Cambridge University Press must be obtained prior to any commercial use.

Table 1. Estimated Seroprevalence of SARS-CoV-2 IgG in Spent Samples From a Clinical Laboratory by Sampling Week and Comparison With CDC Laboratory Surveillance Estimates for the Preceding Week for the State of Georgia in January–March 2021

Sampling Week ^a	1 Jan 22 (N = 301)	2 Jan 29 (N = 338)	3 Feb 5 (N = 243)	4 Feb 12 (N = 336)	5 Feb 19 (N = 371)	6 Feb 26 (N = 291)	7 Mar 5 (N = 426)	8 Mar 12 (N = 100)
IgG RBD+, N+ (infected), no. (%)	57 (18.9)	81 (24.0)	34 (14.0)	61 (18.2)	36 (9.7)	39 (13.4)	84 (19.7)	17 (17.0)
CDC lab surveillance estimate, % (95% CI)	21.0 (18.0–24.1)	26.3 (23.0–29.8)		17.1 (14.9–19.6)		17.3 (14.9–19.9)	17.8 (15.4–20.4)	
IgG RBD+, N-(vaccinated), no. (%)	23 (7.6)	15 (4.4)	20 (8.2)	32 (9.5)	110 (29.7)	93 (32.0)	81 (19.0)	16 (16.0)

Note. RBD, receptor binding domain; N, nucleocapsid; CDC, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

^aAverage of 4-day lag from date of blood sample draw from patient to date of collection for study.

operating characteristic analysis with areas under the curve >0.95 after 14 days after symptom onset. IgG profiles were defined as natural infection when both RBD and nucleocapsid antibodies were positive or vaccinated when RBD antibody was positive but nucleocapsid antibody was negative. SARS-CoV-2 antigenemia was measured in serum and plasma samples initially at 1:3 dilution, with retesting at higher sample dilutions triggered if the nucleocapsid protein concentration was outside the linear range of the assay. Statistical methods included the χ^2 test and Clopper-Pearson confidence limits for proportions. Serosurvey data are available via the Emory Dataverse (<https://dataverse.unc.edu/dataverse/Emory>). The study was approved by the Emory University Institutional Review Board.

Results

Among 2,406 samples collected, 1,186 (49%) originated from inpatient units, 586 (24%) originated from outpatient labs, 403 (17%) originated from the emergency department, and 231 (10%) originated from infusion centers. Matching with the medical record identified 2,132 unique patients: 55% were female; the median age was 58 years (IQR, 40–70); and 36% were aged >65 years. Also, 63% self-reported as Black or African American, 27% as white, and 3% as Hispanic or Latino. For this cohort overall, the median body mass index was 25 kg/m² and the median Elixhauser comorbidity index was 6. Clinical data indicated that 210 (9.9%) ever had SARS-CoV-2 detected by PCR and that 191 (9.0%) had received a COVID-19 vaccine within the health system.

Among 2,406 samples, 409 (17%, 95% confidence interval [CI], 15.5%–18.6%) had serologic evidence of natural infection and 390 (16%; 95% CI, 14.7%–17.7%) had evidence of vaccination without infection. These estimates were consistent when excluding resampled patients. Inpatients (21%) were more likely than patients from other settings to have evidence of infection (14% for outpatients, 11% for infusion center, 15% for emergency department, $\chi^2 P < 0.001$). Outpatients (20%) and those in the infusion center (20%) were more likely to have evidence of vaccination (15% for inpatients, 12% for emergency department; $P = .001$).

Seroprevalence and antigenemia were reported by week from January 22 to March 12 (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Over the sampling period, estimates of serologic evidence of vaccination varied but generally increased from 7.6% in January to 16% in March. Estimates of serologic evidence of infection ranged from 9.7% to 24%, and the prevalence of antigenemia, suggestive of current infection, gradually decreased from 18% to 4%.

Discussion

In this serosurvey, spent samples were used to estimate SARS-CoV-2 IgG seroprevalence from infection and vaccination as well

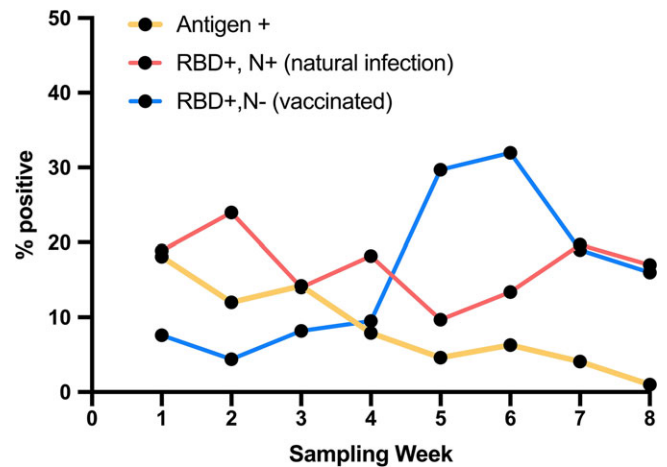


Fig. 1. Estimated prevalence of SARS-CoV-2 IgG and antigenemia in spent samples from a clinical laboratory, January–March 2021. Note. RBD, receptor binding domain; N, nucleocapsid.

as antigenemia among patients at a medical center early in the COVID-19 pandemic. Our study demonstrates that spent samples are a feasible alternative for obtaining a rapid estimate of seroprevalence or for monitoring trends in a population during periods of disease spread or vaccine implementation. As might be expected, the estimated IgG seroprevalence due to infection was more common in inpatients, whereas vaccination was more common in patients presenting to outpatient settings. The increasing prevalence of the vaccination signature likely reflects vaccine uptake early in the implementation of SARS-CoV-2 vaccines in the first months of 2021 as community vaccine coverage increased from ~5% to 20%.^{6,7} In contrast, the infection seroprevalence is fairly stable over the sampling period, consistent with IgG antibody remaining detectable for months after infection.⁸ This estimate of infection prevalence is comparable to CDC-reported laboratory surveillance estimates for Georgia during the study period (Table 1).⁹ A household-based survey from August to December 2020 estimated a seroprevalence of 7.8% (95% CI, 5.1–11.7) in the core Atlanta counties of Fulton and DeKalb.¹⁰ The higher estimate in our study likely reflects incident infections during the winter 2020–2021 surge.

Spent or residual samples represent a feasible alternative serosurvey sample method, particularly for obtaining repeated estimates over time in a defined population. As demonstrated by the analysis of antigenemia, the same samples can be used for multitarget surveillance, improving detection of acute infections.⁴ This rapidly available information could inform infection control practices at the healthcare facility or system level by capturing data from

patients seeking care in both inpatient and outpatient settings without additional sample collection. This would be useful as a surveillance method both during periods of presumed low SARS-CoV-2 transmission, to potentially identify an increase in infections in the patient population, and during periods of influenza-like illness activity to target patient testing, care, and isolation resources. The spent sample approach could also be applied to public-health case-finding and vaccination activities, including monitoring for waning vaccine-induced antibody response in a vaccinated population. The limitations of this study include the convenience sampling method that yielded a varying number of unique patients per week, a study period before breakthrough infections were common, and a care setting distribution that may not reflect the actual distribution of patients seeking care at the medical center.

In conclusion, spent samples provide a feasible alternative for a rapid estimate of seroprevalence or for monitoring trends in infection and vaccination over time in a defined population. This approach has potential impactful applications for patient care, infection control, and public health to monitor epidemiologic changes as the COVID-19 pandemic persists.

Acknowledgments.

Financial support. This study was supported by an Emory University Woodruff Health Sciences Center CURE Award and by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) National Cancer Institute (grant no. 1U54CA260563-01). S.C.A. was supported by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID grant no. K23AI134182). N.R.G. was supported in part by the NIAID (grant nos. K24AI114444 and P30AI168386).

Conflicts of interest. All authors report no conflicts of interest relevant to this article.

References

1. Population-based age-stratified seroepidemiological investigation protocol for coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) infection. World Health Organization website. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/WHO-2019-nCoV-Seroepidemiology-2020.2>. Published May 26, 2020. Accessed September 12, 2022.
2. Havers FP, Reed C, Lim T, *et al*. Seroprevalence of antibodies to SARS-CoV-2 in 10 sites in the United States, March 23–May 12, 2020. *JAMA Intern Med* 2020;180:1576–1586.
3. Duarte N, Yanes-Lane M, Arora RK, *et al*. Adapting serosurveys for the SARS-CoV-2 vaccine era. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2022;9:ofab632.
4. Verkerke HP, Damhorst GL, Gracia DS, *et al*. Nucleocapsid antigenemia is a marker of acute SARS-CoV-2 infection. *J Infect Dis* 2022. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jiac225.
5. Verkerke H, Horwath M, Saeedi B, *et al*. Comparison of antibody class-specific SARS-CoV-2 serologies for the diagnosis of acute COVID-19. *J Clin Microbiol* 2021;59:e02026–20.
6. Diesel J, Sterrett N, Dasgupta S, *et al*. COVID-19 vaccination coverage among adults—United States, December 14, 2020–May 22, 2021. *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2021;70:922–927.
7. COVID-19 vaccine dashboard. Georgia Department of Public Health website. <https://dph.georgia.gov/covid-vaccine>. Accessed August 17, 2022.
8. Swartz MD, DeSantis SM, Yaseen A, *et al*. Antibody duration after infection from SARS-CoV-2 in the Texas Coronavirus Antibody Response Survey. *J Infect Dis* 2022. doi: 10.1093/infdis/jiac167.
9. COVID data tracker. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention website. <https://covid.cdc.gov/covid-data-tracker>. Accessed April 19, 2022.
10. Chamberlain AT, Toomey KE, Bradley H, *et al*. Cumulative incidence of SARS-CoV-2 infections among adults in Georgia, United States, August to December 2020. *J Infect Dis* 2022;225:396–403.