Identification of Pathogens from the Upper Respiratory Tract of Adult Emergency Department Patients at High Risk for Influenza Complications

Justin Hardick¹, Kathryn Shaw-Saliba¹, Breana McBryde¹, charlotte gaydos², Yu-Hsiang Hsieh³, and Richard Rothman¹

¹Johns Hopkins Medicine School of Medicine ²Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine ³Affiliation not available

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Abstract

Acute upper respiratory infections (URIs) represent a major source of annual emergency department (EDs) visits in the United States. However, the definitive etiology of symptoms is generally not determined as testing has historically been prioritized for influenza virus and recently, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV). To elucidate the prevalence, rates of co-infections, and etiologic composition of URIs from symptomatic adult ED patients, we evaluated specimens from four geographically diverse EDs in the United States from 2013-2014 utilizing a multiplex molecular diagnostic assay. 1941 ED patients who had signs and/or symptoms of an acute URI and were considered 'high-risk' for influenza related complications according to CDC criteria, were consecutively enrolled and tested for influenza; influenza prevalence was 9.4% (183/1941). Among them, 799 nasopharyngeal swab specimens with sufficient residual volumes were subsequently tested for additional respiratory pathogens. The overall positivity rate was 30.1% (241/799), of which 6.6% (16/241) were co-infected. Non-influenza pathogens from most to least common were: rhinovirus/enterovirus, coronavirus, human metapneumovirus and RSV, respectively. The ratio of co-infection to mono-infection was highest amongst those with adenovirus, versus mon-infections (2.0). Broad differences in disease prevalence and pathogen distributions were observed across geographic regions; the site with the highest detection rate (for both mono and co-infections) demonstrated the greatest pathogen diversity. Adult ED patients at high-risk for influenza complications were observed. Further research is required to evaluate the clinical relevance of these findings.

Keywords

Emergency Department, Influenza, Multiplex Diagnostics, Respiratory Infection, Respiratory Virus

Background

Acute upper respiratory tract infections (URIs) that are caused by a diverse range of viral and bacterial pathogens are one of the most common illnesses observed in humans.¹, The morbidity, mortality and economic burden associated with all types of URIs have been demonstrated significant, with influenza virus being the focus of identification as a causative pathogen for URIs in ambulatory clinical settings.^{1,2} Traditional diagnostic testing methods for URIs including antigenic methods, cell culture, and serology have limitations with regard to sensitivity, specificity, and/or turn-around-times, rendering them relatively limited for routine use in ambulatory care settings.³⁻⁵

Recent technological advances have led to the development of multiplexed molecular amplification assays that are capable of detecting multiple common causes of URI pathogens from a single nasopharyngeal swab (NP). Although these methods have been shown to be rapid, highly sensitive, and specific, $^{6-9}$ uptake for routine practice remains relatively limited to research studies, due in part to lack of available treatment options for non-influenza respiratory viruses and added expense of employing multiplex molecular methods.⁶ On the other hand, these assays afford new opportunities to better understand the etiologic distribution, prevalence, and rates of co-infections associated with URIs. Several recent studies employing multiplex technologies have been conducted with specific select populations, including patients with community-associated pneumonia (CAP), $^{10-12}$ hospitalized patients, $^{10-14}$ military personnel, $^{15-17}$ relatively healthy outpatients^{7, 18-20} and selected pediatrics cohorts. $^{21-23}$

To date, there is limited data regarding the etiology of non-influenza, non-RSV, URI viral and bacterial pathogens in unselected ambulatory populations considered at high risk for respiratory virus related complications. Such research could be helpful not only for understanding the epidemiology and etiology of acute URIs, but also could help inform future research to address antibiotic stewardship.^{7, 22, 23}

Our aim was to contribute to the existing knowledge regarding the epidemiology and etiology of acute URIs in a broad ambulatory population of patients considered to be at high-risk of influenza complications,^{24, 25} who were tested for influenza, but were not tested for other respiratory pathogens. We collected residual waste samples from patients who presented to 4 geographically disparate EDs, who had already been tested for influenza with a single target influenza assay²⁴ and subsequently tested them utilizing the multiplex Genmark ePlex respiratory panel (RP) research use only (RUO) platform.

Methods

Study design

Adults at high risk for influenza complications according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) definition²⁴reporting to four U.S. EDs (Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, MD (JHH), Truman Medical Center, Kansas City, MO (TMC), Maricopa Medical Center, Phoenix, AZ (MMC), and Olive View-UCLA Medical Center, Sylmar, CA (OMC)) were systematically screened by trained research coordinators, who assessed consecutive ED patients. All adult patients (age [?]18 years) were assessed for the presence of fever and/or respiratory symptoms, including documented fever (defined as >100.4°F) measured in the ED and any of the following, self-reported symptoms beginning within the previous 7 days: subjective fever, cough, nasal congestion, sinus congestion, rhinorrhea, sore throat, or shortness of breath. A patient who reported 1 or more of the above complaints was further evaluated to determine whether he or she met at least 1 of the 2011 CDC high-risk for influenza antiviral treatment, spoke English, had not had a diagnosis of influenza within the last 2 weeks, had not been previously enrolled, and had the ability for follow-up were offered participation in the study and signed written consent forms. The Institutional Review Boards at each site approved the study protocol.

Clinical specimen and data collection

NPs were collected by trained clinical coordinators. Specimens were transported immediately to the laboratory in viral transport media, aliquoted, and stored at -80°C. Clinical data were collected by the trained clinical coordinators from patient questionnaires, and review of the electronic health record (EHR).

Molecular detection of respiratory pathogens

NPs underwent testing for influenza virus utilizing Prodesse ProFlu+ (Hologic, Bedford, MA) according to manufacturer instructions. A total of 41% (799/1941) had sufficient residual volumes to permit further testing with the ePlex RP RUO cartridge (Genmark Diagnostics, Carlsbad, CA). This multiplex assay detects: adenovirus (AdV); coronavirus HKU1, NL63, OC43, 229E, MERs (CoV); human metapneumovirus (hMPV); influenza A, A/H1N1, A/H1N1pdm 2009, A/H3N2 (IAV); influenza B (IBV), parainfluenza 1-4 (PIV), rhinovirus/enterovirus (RhV/EV), RSV A/B (RSV), Bordetella pertussis, Chlamydia pneumoniae, Legionella pneumophila, Mycoplasma pneumoniae (M. pneumo). Testing was performed per manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 200 μ l of NP was added to the specimen delivery device (SDD), vortexed for 10 seconds

and added to the RP RUO cartridge. RP RUO cartridges were run on the ePlex platform. The complete assay time was 1 hour and 40 minutes.

Statistical analysis

Categorical variables were analyzed by Fisher's exact using R software and GraphPad Prism v 8.0.1. and a p value of < 0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Molecular detection of respiratory pathogens

The ePlex results demonstrated that 30.1% (241/799) of patients tested positive for any respiratory pathogen, with 2% of the total specimens having co-infections (16/799) (Fig 1A). The composition of different pathogens detected is summarized in Figure 1B. RhV/EV was the most common pathogen detected (32.7% of the total detections: mono- or co-infections), followed by IAV (26.1%), CoV and hMPV (both 10.9%), and RSV (9.3%). Overall, 28.4% (69/241) of positives were infected with influenza (IAV or IBV). Less common pathogens were AdV (3.5%), PIV (3.1%), IBV (2.3%), and *M. pneumo* (1.2%).

Sixteen patients had co-infections (32 detections total), the composition of which is shown in Fig 1B and C. IAV (7/16, 43.8%), RhV/EV (7/16, 43.8%), and AdV (6/16, 37.5%) were the most frequently detected pathogens in individuals with co-infections. For individuals infected with AdV, co-infections (N=6, 66.6%) were more common than mono-infections (N=3, 33.3%), ratio of 2.0 (Fig 1B).

Geographical analysis

The prevalence of pathogens at the four sites were compared (Figure 2). The lowest rate of any pathogen detection was seen at JHH; 22.9% (60/262) of specimens positive (Fig 2A). This was significantly different than those seen at MMC, 39.3% (59/150, p = 0.007, Fig 2B), TMC 31.5% (53/168, p = 0.003, Fig 2C), and OVM 31.5% (69/219, p = 0.04, Fig 2D). Co-infections were most commonly found at MMC: 5.3% of specimens compared to approximately 1% at other sites.

All respiratory pathogens detected were observed at each site, with the exception of M. *pneumoniae* (N=2), which was only detected at MMC (Fig 2G). While not statistically significant, other differences were observed in the composition of pathogens between sites (Fig 2E-H). MMC had the greatest number of unique pathogens detected. RSV was the greatest at TMC (14.9%). hMPV was identified in greater numbers and proportion at the Western EDs (14.9% at MMC and 12.7% at OVM) compared to the Eastern ED (6.3% at JHH).

Temporal analysis

Specimens were collected from November-April 2013-2014, the traditional time period for influenza/respiratory virus season. Graphing pathogens with >20 total detections (CoV, hMPV, IAV, and RhV/EV) across the 4 sites, temporal differences at the sites were observed (Fig 3). Trends in RhV/EV detection at all 4 sites were consistent over time. CoV, hMPV, and IAV showed similar trends at JHH, MMC, and OVM, but were distinct at TMC. TMC had an early IAV peak and later peaks of CoV and hMPV than the other sites.

Patient characteristics

Patient characteristics are described in Table 1. Briefly, a total of 799 specimens from 799 unique patients were analyzed. The range of ages was 18 to 93 years of age, median was 50 years and 60.6% (484/799) were females. 67.3% (538/799) had more than one condition of high-risk for influenza complication criteria, with the median being 2 conditions. Comparisons of patient demographics and outcomes with no detection, influenza detection, or other respiratory pathogen detections are shown in Table 1. While results were not statistically significant, there was a trend for a greater number of influenza-positive patients being admitted to the ICU and having radiographic diagnosis of pneumonia, compared to those with no pathogen or other pathogen.

Conclusions

The recent emergence of SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) has demonstrated the important of surveillance for noninfluenza respiratory viruses. Here we present descriptive findings from non-influenza surveillance and how it can provide meaningful information regarding their composition and prevalence. Our goal was to add to the knowledge generated by other studies^{7, 10-23} regarding viral etiologies associated with URIs aside from influenza viruses in a population of adults characterized as high-risk for influenza complications.

A few studies focusing on high-risk populations have employed multiplex molecular methods. For example, one study illustrated that there was a high incidence of complications related to non-influenza respiratory viruses, and that disease severity was similar to influenza, indicating that surveillance of these viruses is important.¹⁰ A large longitudinal retrospective study highlighted that picornaviruses, specifically RhV/EV, are potentially neglected as a significant contributor to the development of disease severity and can lead to lower respiratory infections.¹⁴ Lastly, other studies utilizing multiplex molecular methods have highlighted the importance of coinfections¹⁵ and diversity of non-influenza respiratory viruses.¹⁷

In this population of adults at high-risk for influenza complications, we identified a viral or bacterial respiratory pathogen etiology in 30.1% (241/799) of the total specimens with a co-infection detection rate of 6.6% (16/241). Overall, the pathogens identified, AdV, CoV, hMPV, IV, PIV, RhV/EV, RSV and M. pneumo, are consistent with known causes of URIs, regardless of the specific population.²⁶ We found that RhV/EV was the most common single pathogen detected in high-risk adult ED patients, and other studies have presented similar findings, albeit in military personnel.^{16, 17}

We found that AdV was more commonly associated with coinfections and this finding is supported by previous studies in military recruits¹⁵ and a study in hospitalized children that suggested that AdV may play a larger role than previously thought in the development of more severe disease, such as bronchitis and pneumonia.²² The pathogen detection rate and time of year for varied across the sites. The lowest detection rate was observed at JHH, while the highest detection (both mono- and co-infections) observed at MMC. MMC also had the greatest pathogen diversity and was the only site where atypical bacteria were found. While the RhV/EV proportion of pathogens was fairly consistent across the sites, the peak detections for pathogens varied based on time of year. TMC had an early peak of influenza activity, with shifted peak detections of CoV and hMPV observed as compared to the other three sites. Similar results, in terms of temporal variation have been observed in other studies and each of these studies^{15, 20, 22} illustrated the temporal nature of respiratory virus infections. Situational awareness from broad surveillance may impact patient management.

This study had several limitations. First, it was only conducted over a single season and the numbers of positive tests was too low to make major comparisons. Additionally, because the population had many underlying conditions, there were not many differences found in the clinical outcomes and many confounders exist. Larger scale studies would be needed to make major conclusions on the impact of multiplex methods. However, this study does provide a description of the variety of pathogens found in adults at high-risk of influenza infections who report with influenza symptoms to the ED.

The value and meaningfulness of applying multiplex molecular methods for respiratory viruses aside from influenza virus has been under debate.^{27, 28} For influenza virus, and in some cases RSV, studies utilizing point-of-care (POC) diagnostic tests for these specific organisms have shown value in terms of patient management, patient cohorting and droplet precautions, and appropriate anti-viral therapy.²⁹⁻³¹ However, for large, molecular multiplex methods, it is unclear whether or not they should be employed broadly for general surveillance purposes, or restricted to specific populations, i.e., pediatric patients, high risk ED patients, and the immunocompromised.²⁷ Coinfections are more readily detected on molecular panels, however, clinical consequences of coinfections are not totally clear.²⁷ It has been noted that there are various barriers to utilizing these methods for general surveillance and specific diagnosis. These include difference in testing phase requirements,²⁸ cost to the laboratory, the patient and insurer,²⁷ and level of complexity for the multiplex method.²⁷ Strategies have been suggested to mitigate some of these barriers.²⁸ Surveillance of non-influenza

viruses in these populations can aid in differentiating the cause of illness, which can be potentially antibiotic sparing.^{7, 13, 18-20} Newly developed multiplex diagnostic technologies can aid in non-influenza surveillance and expand the etiology of URIs beyond influenza.^{7, 18-20}

Overall, the applicability, clinical value and value to surveillance efforts of employing multiplex molecular methods may be specific to certain populations, such adults at high-risk for influenza complications, or may be of more benefit when applied locally, to identify small outbreaks of specific viruses not routinely surveyed for, in specific location.

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Table 1. Patient characteristics across all sites

	Total
N	799
Demographics	
Age	50 (18-93)
Gender	
Female	484~(60.6%)
Ethnicity	
Hispanic or Latino	259 (32.7%)
Race	
Black	348~(43.6%)
White	199(24.9%)
Asian	10 (1.3%)
American Indian	12 (1.5%)
Other	224 (28.0%)
CDC high risk	
Greater than 1	538~(67.3%)
Disease severity	
Oxygen supplementation	214 (26.8%)
Admitted	348~(43.6%)
Hospital length of stay (days)	3(.5-29)
ICU	45~(13%)
ICU length of stay (days)	3(1-21)
Pneumonia	158 (19.8%)
Death	1 (0%)
Values shown as N (%). For length of stay = median (range)	Values shown as N (%). For length of stay = median (range

Figure 1. Detection of pathogens. A. Total detections in the 799 specimens. Blue = mono-infections and red = co-infections. B. Specific pathogens detected. Graph shows percent detected in mono- (blue) versus co-infections (red). The total number of detections (N) for each pathogen (inclusive of mono- and co-infections). C. 16 specimens had co-infections detected (32 pathogens total). The heatmap shows the number of co-infections. Each pathogen is plotted with all other pathogens detected from the 799 specimens. Number of co-infections detected white = 0, grey = 1, black = 2, red = 3.

Figure 2. Geographic analysis. A-D. Detections at each site. A. Johns Hopkins Hospital (JHH), B. Truman Medical Center (TMC), C. Maricopa Medical Center (MMC), D. Olive-View UCLA Medical (OVM). Top pie charts show total detections broken down by mono-infections (blue) and co-infections (red). Bottom pie charts show the distribution of pathogens detected at each site.

Figure 3. Temporal analysis. Graphs show each pathogen that had N > 20 detections across all 4 sites. X-axis is time, Y-axis is % of the total pathogens. JHH = blue lines, TMC = red lines, MMC = black lines, and OVM = purple lines





