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SARS-CoV-2 antibody seroprevalence and associated risk factors in an urban district of Cameroon

Kenechukwu Nwosu (Kenechukwu.Nwosu@unige.ch)
University of Geneva https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3245-4109

Joseph Fokam
Chantal BIYA International Reference Centre for Research on HIV/AIDS Prevention and Management, Yaoundé, Cameroon

Franck Wanda
Centre International de Recherches, d'Enseignements, et de Soins (CIRES), Akonolinga, Cameroon

Lucien Mama
Health District of Cite Verte, Regional Delegation of Public Health, Yaounde, Cameroon

Erol Orel
Institute of Global Health, University of Geneva, Switzerland

Nicolas Ray
University of Geneva https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4696-5313

Jeanine Meke
Centre International de Recherches, d'Enseignements, et de Soins (CIRES), Akonolinga, Cameroon;

Armel Tassegning
Centre International de Recherches, d'Enseignements, et de Soins (CIRES), Akonolinga, Cameroon

Desire Takou
Chantal BIYA International Reference Centre for Research on HIV/AIDS Prevention and Management, Yaoundé, Cameroon

Eric Mimbe
Site de Coordination ANRS Cameroun, Hopital Central de Yaounde, Yaounde, Cameroon

Beat Stoll
Institute of Global Health, University of Geneva, Switzerland

Josselin Guillebert
Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH, Cameroon

Eric Comte
Institute of Global Health, University of Geneva, Switzerland

Olivia Keiser
Institute of Global Health, University of Geneva, Switzerland

Laura Ciaffi

Site de Coordination ANRS Cameroun, Hopital Central de Yaounde, Yaounde, Cameroon

Article

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2, vaccine, antibodies, viral spread

Posted Date: April 16th, 2021

DOI: https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-411135/v1

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Version of Record: A version of this preprint was published at Nature Communications on October 6th, 2021. See the published version at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25946-0.

SARS-CoV-2 antibody seroprevalence and associated risk factors in an urban district in Cameroon

Kenechukwu Nwosu†[1]; Joseph Fokam†[2,3]; Franck Wanda[4]; Lucien Mama[5]; Erol Orel[1]; Nicolas Ray[1,6]; Jeanine Meke[4]; Armel Tassegning[4]; Desire Takou[2]; Eric Mimbe[7]; Beat Stoll[1]; Josselin Guillebert[8]; Eric Comte[1,9]; Olivia Keiser[1]; Laura Ciaffi[7,9]

1. *Institute of Global Health, University of Geneva, Switzerland;*
2. *Chantal BIYA International Reference Centre for Research on HIV/AIDS Prevention and Management, Yaoundé, Cameroon;*
3. *Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Buea, Buea, Cameroon;*
4. *Centre International de Recherches, d'Enseignements, et de Soins (CIRES), Akonolinga, Cameroon;*
5. *Health District of Cite Verte, Regional Delegation of Public Health, Yaounde, Cameroon;*
6. *Institute for Environmental Sciences, University of Geneva, Switzerland;*
7. *Site de Coordination ANRS Cameroun, Hopital Central de Yaounde, Yaounde, Cameroon;*
8. *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH, Cameroon;*
9. *Association de Soutien aux Centres de Recherches, d'Enseignements et de Soins (ASCRES), Geneva, Switzerland.*

† contributed equally

Corresponding author:
Kenechukwu Nwosu,
Institute of Global Health,
University of Geneva,
kenechukwu.nwosu@unige.ch
+41 0796 743 696

Abstract

The extent of SARS-CoV-2 circulation in many African countries remains unclear, underlining the need for antibody sero-surveys to assess the cumulative attack rate. Here, we present the results of a cross-sectional sero-survey of a random sample of residents of a health district in Yaoundé, Cameroon, conducted from October 14 to November 26, 2020. Among the 971 participants, the test-adjusted seroprevalence of anti-SARS-CoV-2 IgG antibodies was 29·2% (95%CI 24·3–34·1). This is about 323 times greater than the 0.09% nationwide attack rate implied by COVID-19 case counts at the time. Men, obese individuals and those living in large households were significantly more likely to be seropositive, and the majority (64·2% [58·7–69·4]) of seropositive individuals reported no symptoms. Despite the high seroprevalence, most of the population had not been infected with SARS-CoV-2, highlighting the importance of continued measures to control viral spread and quick vaccine deployment to protect the vulnerable.

Introduction

The 2019 coronavirus disease (COVID-19) has placed an unprecedented burden on health systems around the world. In resource-limited settings within sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), gaps in medical infrastructure, difficulties in implementing hygiene measures, and perceived public health vulnerabilities were projected to lead to overwhelming morbidity and mortality burdens.[1,2]

To date, however, official counts of COVID-19 cases and deaths suggest a relatively mild epidemic trajectory on the African continent. As of March 4, 2021, only two African countries, Egypt and South Africa, had reported more than 9 000 COVID-19 related deaths.[3] Cameroon, which reported its first case on March 6, 2020, had reported only 35 714 cases one year after, implying an attack rate of 1·43 cases per thousand residents (as compared with the 50·7 cases per thousand seen in the European Union).

Multiple hypotheses have been advanced to explain the seemingly mild trajectory of the COVID-19 epidemic in Africa: researchers have pointed to warm climate conditions across much of the continent, timely and effective preventive measures put in place by governments, the young and predominantly rural population, and cross-reactive immunity from other infections as potential mitigating factors.[2,4] However, the true scale of the epidemic in many African countries is still unclear, as the PCR and antigen-confirmed case counts that are commonly relied on may understate viral spread.[2,5]

In this context, the use of serological antibody tests to detect past exposure to the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is valuable. Serological assays can detect evidence of SARS-CoV-2 infection from two weeks to several months after the onset of symptoms, and can reveal past infection even in asymptomatic cases.[6,7] They are therefore valuable for accurately assessing the cumulative attack rate—the proportion of the population that has ever been infected with SARS-CoV-2.

However, only a few SARS-CoV-2 antibody serosurveys have been conducted in African countries to date,[8,9,10,11,12,13] and the majority of sero-surveys have been conducted on healthcare workers, convenience samples of blood donors and other non-representative populations; no published surveys have been performed on a random sample of the general population in an African country. Here, we report the results of a cross-sectional, community-based sero-survey of

a random sample of residents in a health district of Yaoundé, the capital city of Cameroon. We aimed to estimate the prevalence of anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibodies in this population, to assess risk factors for seropositivity, and to investigate the symptoms of seropositive respondents.

Results

Out of the 255 households visited between October 14 and November 26, 2020, 180 (70·6%) agreed to participate, resulting in a final sample of 971 participants (full study profile in appendix 1 p 1). Table 1 shows the sociodemographic characteristics of the final sample. The median age of participants was 26 years (IQR: 14–38), and 56·5% of them were female (n = 549). The majority were students (39·3%, n = 402), informal workers (21·3%, n = 218) or traders (12·6%, n = 129). A total of 112 respondents (11·5%) reported suffering from a chronic condition, mainly hypertension (3·3%, n = 32), respiratory illnesses (1·7%, n = 17) or diabetes (1·1%, n = 11).

Of the 971 respondents tested for antibodies, 302 (31·1%) were IgG positive, 32 (3·3%) were IgM positive, and a combined 328 (35·1%) were positive for at least one antibody type (figure 1A). The overlap between IgG and IgM seropositivity was low, with only six individuals testing positive for both antibody types. Active COVID-19 infection was uncommon: only one PCR test was positive among the 21 tests performed on suspected cases, for an implied active infection rate of 0·1%.

The highest overall seroprevalence (IgG and/or IgM) was seen in the Briqueterie neighbourhood, where 43·8% (95% CI 30·7–57·7) of tested residents were seropositive (figure 1C). All neighbourhood-level seroprevalence estimates are reported in appendix 1 (p 3). Most households (73%, 131 of 180) had at least one seropositive resident but the range of household-level seroprevalence was broad: from 0 to 100%, with a median of 33% (IQR ± 25%). Notably, there were only two households (1·1%) in which everyone was seropositive; one of these was a single-resident household and the other had two residents. The detailed distribution of household seropositivity is reported in appendix 1 (p 4).

After population weighting and test performance adjustment, the overall seroprevalence of IgG antibodies was 29·2% (95% CI 24·3–34·1; table 2). Men had a higher seroprevalence than women (33·1% [27·6–40·5] versus 25.3% [20·0–31·2]), and seroprevalence increased with age, although

these differences were not statistically significant. The proportion of IgM-positive individuals was lower (3·3%) than the expected false positive rate of the IgM test (6·9%), so adjusted IgM seroprevalence estimates were statistically indistinguishable from zero. For this reason, IgM results were not considered in the analysis of symptoms or of seropositivity risk factors.

The multivariable risk factor analysis for IgG seropositivity revealed significantly higher odds of seropositivity for men (OR: 1·61 [95%CI 1·2–2·2]), residents of households with six or more residents (OR: 1·6 [1·1–2·4]; reference: households with three to five residents) and individuals with a BMI above 30 kg/m² (OR: 1·84 [1·1–3·0]; reference: 18·5–24.9 kg/m²). The highest stratified seroprevalence was seen in respondents who had been in contact with a known or suspected COVID-19 case: 45·7% (16 of 35) of these individuals were IgG positive.

Among the 302 IgG seropositive participants, 35·8% (n = 108) reported having had at least one COVID-19-related symptom; among the 669 IgG seronegative participants, this proportion was 28·0% (n = 187) (figure 3a). The most common symptoms reported among the IgG seropositive individuals were fever (18·5%, n = 56), headache (17·6%, n = 53), cough (17·9%, n = 54) and rhinorrhoea (12·3%, n = 37), and all four were significantly more common in seropositive than in seronegative individuals (figure 3c). Surprisingly, anosmia and/or ageusia was only experienced by 4·3% (n = 13) of the seropositive respondents. Cough alone and cough plus rhinorrhoea were the two most common symptom profiles among IgG seropositive participants (figure 3b). In terms of severity, 80% of IgG seropositive respondents with symptoms (83 of 104) graded these symptoms as mild or moderate.

Among the 302 IgG seropositive individuals, only 27 (8·9%) consulted any healthcare services over the pandemic period (appendix 1 p 5). The most common medications taken by this group were paracetamol (19·9%, n = 60), traditional medicines (14·6%, n = 44) and antibiotics (10·3%, n = 31; appendix 1 p 6), and these were most commonly self or family-prescribed.

A total of 46 respondents reported having been hospitalised between March 1, 2020 and the date of survey, but only one of these was reported to be COVID-19-related, implying a hospitalization rate of 0·3% (one out of 302 IgG seropositive respondents). Over the same period, 11 of the 180 surveyed households reported the death of a family member, but none of these deaths was reported to be COVID-19-linked.

Discussion

In this urban setting of Cameroon, the adjusted seroprevalence of SARS-CoV-2 IgG antibodies was found to be 29·2%, implying that around 126 000 of the district's 432 858 inhabitants had been infected with SARS-CoV-2 by the survey's end date, November 26, 2020. This proportion is about 323 times greater than the 0.09% nationwide attack rate implied by PCR and antigen-confirmed case counts at that time.[3] The large discrepancy suggests that the true cumulative incidence of COVID-19 in Cameroon may be far larger than the number of cases officially reported.

The underreporting of COVID-19 cases implied by our survey is not unique. In a recent systematic review, Chen et al. (2021) compared the number of infections estimated by seroprevalence surveys to the number of PCR-confirmed infections in a range of countries and found a pooled ratio of 11·1 (95% CI 8·3–14·9),[19] meaning that for each virologically-confirmed COVID-19 case, there were at least ten undetected infections in the community. Across individual settings, this ratio varied widely, from 2·0 in a Faroe Islands study,[20] to 103·0 in a study of Indian villages.[21] Taken together, these findings and ours suggest that PCR-confirmed case counts are poor proxies for the true attack rate of SARS-CoV-2, and that cross-national comparisons based on such case counts may be misleading.

We found that men and obese individuals (BMI > 30 kg/m^2) were significantly more likely to be seropositive, and we also observed higher seropositivity, although non-significant, among older age groups. It is uncertain whether the raised seroprevalence in these groups represents a greater risk of SARS-CoV-2 infection per se, or a greater probability of antibody detection. Older, male and obese individuals are known to experience more severe COVID-19 symptoms,[22] and severe illness is linked to stronger and longer-lasting antibody responses.[23] As a result, serosurveys performed several months after infection may detect antibodies more frequently in these groups because they experienced more severe illness and stronger antibody responses, not because they were infected at higher rates.

Alternatively, the physiological factors that predispose men, the obese and the elderly to more severe disease may also make them more susceptible to initial infection. Some studies have suggested that adults may be more likely to be infected with SARS-CoV-2 than young children,[24,25]

and a few point prevalence studies have found slightly raised viral attack rates in men.[26,27] If the risk factors for infection and those for severe illness overlap, then surveillance and prevention measures that focus on the higher-risk groups may be particularly appropriate, especially in contexts where stringent population-wide measures are not feasible.

The rate of asymptomatic infection in our study is higher than usually described; approximately 70% of the IgG positive individuals in the sample did not report any COVID-19-related symptoms. In a recent meta-analysis by Byambasuren et al.,[28] the measured asymptomatic rate was much lower—a pooled estimate of 17% (95%CI 14%–20%). COVID-19-related hospitalisation was also relatively uncommon in our sample (0·3% among the IgG seropositive individuals), and no COVID-19-linked deaths were reported in any of the surveyed households.

These favourable outcomes could reflect the relatively young population in the region of study. As COVID-19 severity increases exponentially with age, the overall burden of disease in young populations is expected to be less severe.[22] Cameroon's median age of 18·6 years, and the African median of 19·7,[29] are therefore noteworthy, and may explain the limited COVID-19 mortality impact here as compared with the other regions; the median age in Europe, for example, is 40·2 years.[29]

However, caution should be exercised in interpreting the low hospitalisation and death rates implied by our study. The surveyed households reported a total of 46 hospitalisations and 11 family member deaths over the pandemic period. While only one hospitalisation and none of the deaths were known to be COVID-19-related, it is possible that the factors limiting testing in the general population also applied to those who were hospitalised and dying. Thus, we cannot rule out the possibility that some of these hospitalisations or deaths were actually COVID-19-linked. Of note, a study of deceased patients in a hospital morgue in Lusaka, Zambia found that 15% of those who died between June and September 2020 had COVID-19 at the time of death, although only 9% of these deceased individuals were tested for SARS-CoV-2 before death.[30] Further investigations are therefore required to assess the number of undiagnosed COVID-19-related deaths in countries within the SSA region.

Our study has several major strengths. This is one of the first studies to assess SARS-CoV-2 antibody seroprevalence in a random sample of residents in an African city. Our random selection procedure ensures representativeness of the target population and minimizes the risk of bias. The

study also demonstrates the feasibility of performing a geo-sampled door-to-door serological survey in an African city—a simple, effective study design that can be applied widely. Finally, we validated the performance of the chosen antibody test on local pre-pandemic sera, thus ruling out concerns about low test specificity in African populations.[31]

The study was also subject to a number of limitations. We registered a household refusal rate of 24%, which may be a source of bias if household refusal was correlated with seropositivity. Secondly, we asked participants to recall symptoms experienced over a period of seven to eight months, a possible source of recall bias. This long time interval also means that we were unable to directly link reported symptoms to COVID-19 infection: many of the reported symptoms may have been caused by other illnesses experienced over the same time period. Lastly, we were unable to validate the sensitivity of the antibody tests on local samples of known COVID-19 cases, relying instead on a validation study from a European population.

In conclusion, our sero-survey indicates that nearly one in three individuals in Yaoundé, Cameroon was exposed to SARS-CoV-2 by November 26, 2020. Together with similarly high seroprevalence estimates from other SSA studies—24·5% in Niger state, Nigeria,[8] 25·1% in Abidjan, Ivory Coast,[13] 19·7% in Brazzaville, Congo,[32] among others—these findings point to extensive and under-reported circulation of SARS-CoV-2 in settings across the African continent. As men, obese individuals, and those living in large households were found to be significantly more affected, it may be valuable to tailor public health interventions toward these groups. Despite the high seroprevalence, the data indicate that in Yaoundé, as in most other surveyed regions in Africa, the majority of the population has so far avoided SARS-CoV-2 infection, highlighting the importance of continued mitigation measures, tracing and testing, and quick vaccine deployment to curb further spread.

Figures and Tables

Table 1: Sociodemographic characteristics of the participants in the final sample of 1007 study participants. N is the number of individuals in each stratum. IQR: Interquartile range. BMI: Body mass index

Characteristic	N	%
Age groups (years)		
5 - 14	241	24.8
15 - 29	325	33.5
30 - 44	212	21.8
45 - 64	153	15.8
65 +	40	4.1
Sex		
Female	549	56.5
Male	422	43.5
BMI (kg/m²)		
< 18.5 (Underweight)	160	16.5
18.5 - 24.9	400	41.2
25 - 30 (Overweight)	247	25.4
> 30 (Obese)	160	16.5
Unknown	4	0.4
Education Level		
Secondary	433	44.6
Primary	318	32.7
University	145	14.9
No formal instruction	52	5.4
Doctorate	17	1.8
Other	6	0.6
Profession		
Student	402	39.3
Informal worker	218	21.3
Trader	129	12.6
Home-maker	74	7.2
Unemployed	70	6.8
Salaried worker	54	5.3
Retired	32	3.1
Other	43	4.2
Chronic conditions		
Hypertension	32	3.3
Respiratory illness	17	1.7
Diabetes	11	1.1
Other	52	5.3

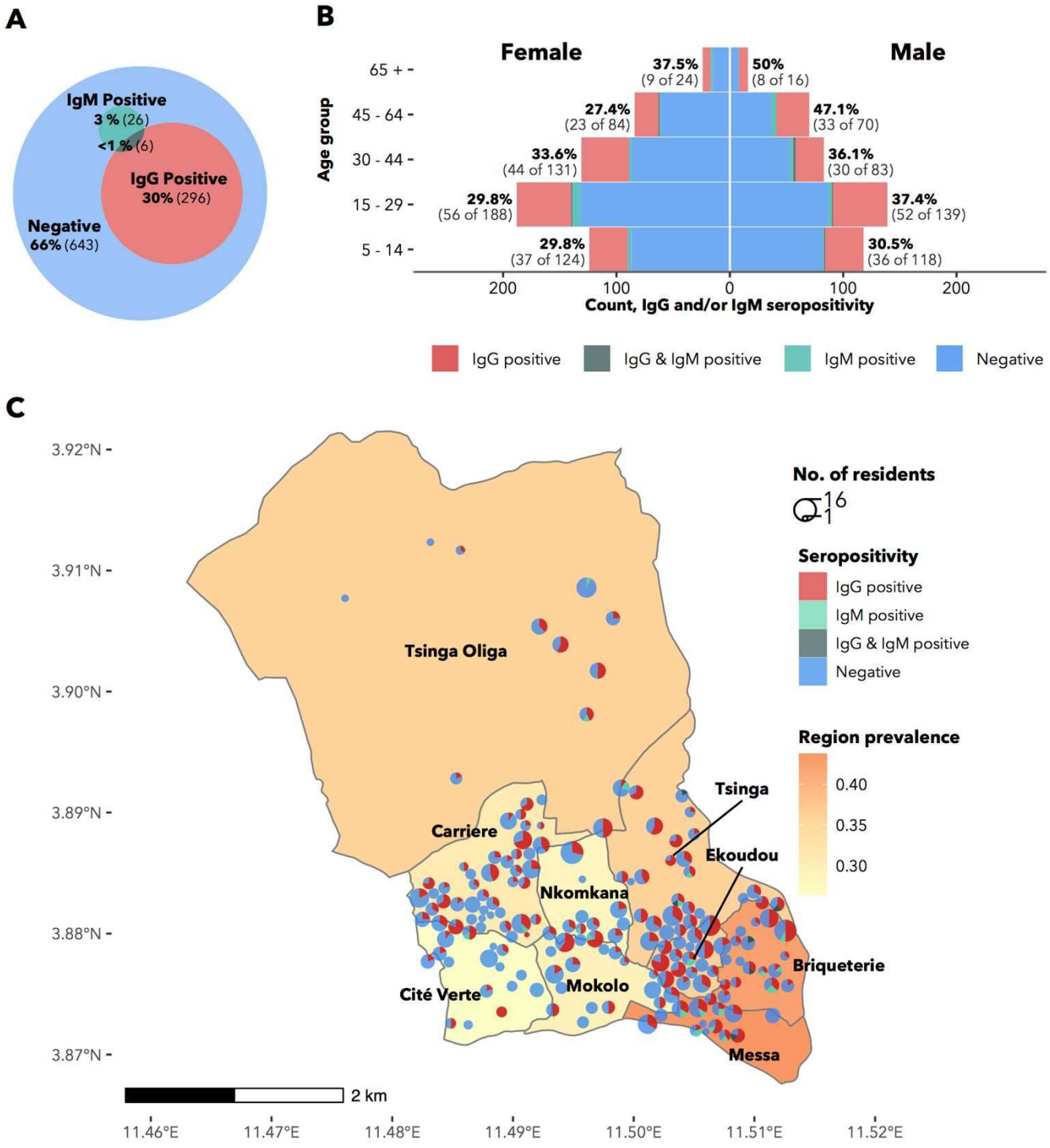

Figure 1: Crude IgG and IgM seroprevalence: A. Euler diagram showing seropositivity of respondents by antibody test. **B.** Seropositivity of respondents by antibody test and age-sex stratum. Percentage labels indicate the proportion of each stratum that is IgG and/or IgM seropositive. **C.** Household and geographic variation in seropositivity. Fill colour indicates the neighbourhood seroprevalence (IgG and/or IgM). Pie charts indicate household size, household location and the proportion of the household that is seropositive. Pie charts are dodged and jittered to avoid overlap and to preserve location anonymity. Five households are not shown due to improperly-coded or missing coordinates.

Table 2: Age-sex weighted and test-adjusted seroprevalence estimates for anti-SARS-CoV-2 IgG antibodies. When a variable was stratified it was removed from the weights. Confidence intervals for test-adjusted estimates are Lang-Reiczigel intervals, which take into account the sample size of the antibody test validation study. Other confidence intervals are Wilson score intervals.

	n	Pos.	Seroprevalence (95% confidence interval)		
			Crude	*Population-weighted*	*Population-weighted, test-adjusted*
Total	971	302	31.1% (28.3 - 34.1)	31.3% (28.4 - 34.3)	29.2% (24.3 - 34.1)
Female	549	154	28.1% (24.5 - 32.0)	28.0% (24.4 - 31.9)	25.3% (20.0 - 31.2)
Male	422	148	35.1% (30.7 - 39.7)	34.6% (30.2 - 39.3)	33.1% (27.6 - 40.5)
5 - 14	241	69	28.6% (23.3 - 34.6)	28.7% (23.3 - 34.7)	26.1% (18.9 - 34.1)
15 - 29	325	98	30.2% (25.4 - 35.4)	30.7% (25.9 - 35.9)	28.5% (21.4 - 35.1)
30 - 44	212	69	32.5% (26.6 - 39.1)	32.7% (26.7 - 39.3)	30.8% (22.9 - 39.5)
45 - 64	153	51	33.3% (26.4 - 41.1)	34.1% (27.0 - 41.9)	32.5% (22.8 - 41.8)
65 +	40	15	37.5% (24.2 - 53.0)	39.4% (25.8 - 54.8)	38.7% (20.5 - 55.8)

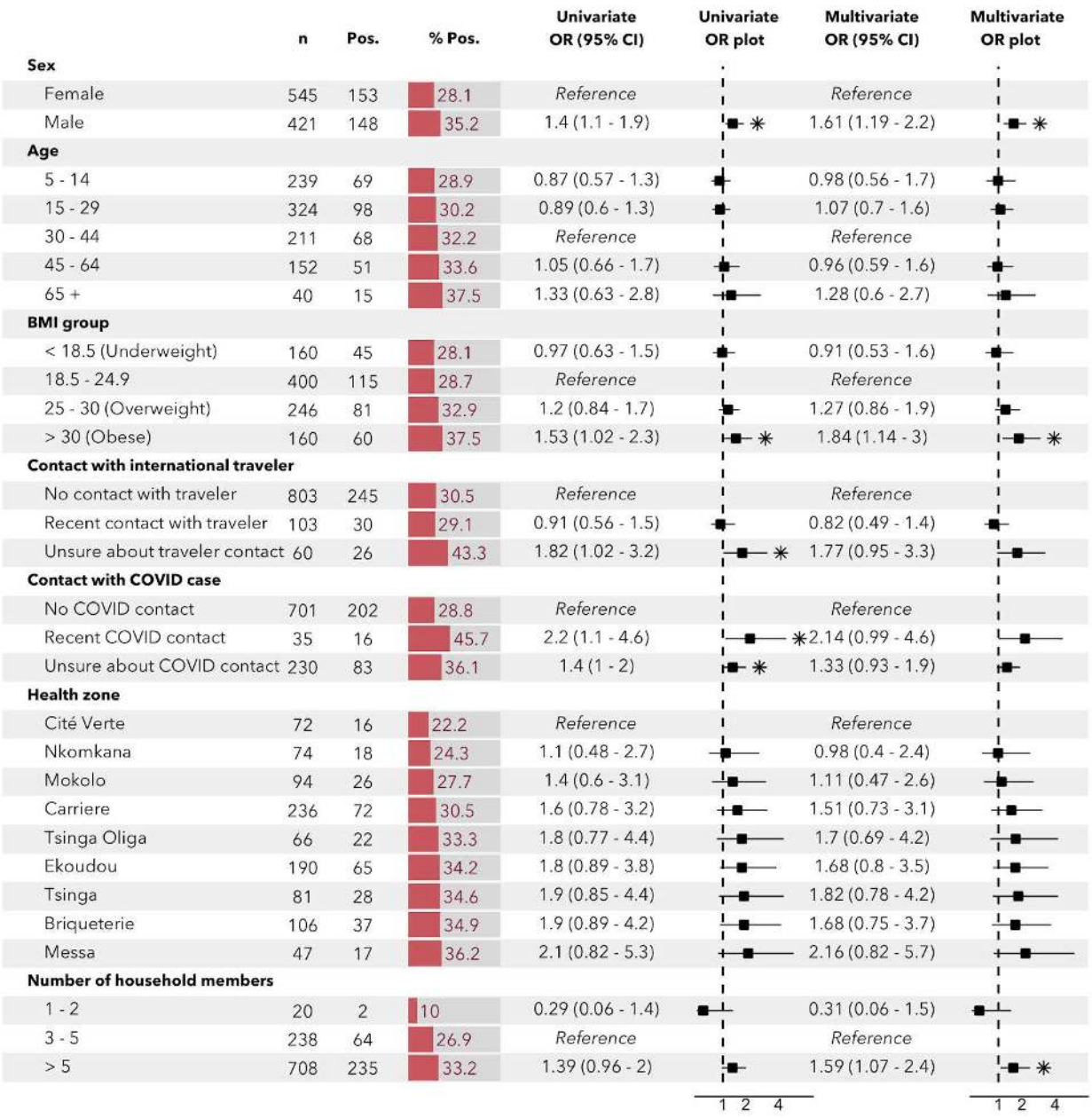

Figure 2: Risk factor analysis for IgG seropositivity n = 966. Based on logistic models with household random intercepts. Asterisks indicate significance at a 0.05 alpha level. OR: Odds ratio. 41 individuals (4%) were dropped due to missing covariables. Recent contact indicates contact since March 1st, 2020. A "COVID case" is a confirmed or suspected COVID-19 case. Variables that were found to be not significant at a 0.30 alpha level, and which were not controlled for in the multivariable regression, include presence of comorbidities, breadwinner status, adherence to social distancing rules, household neighbourhood and presence of children in the household.

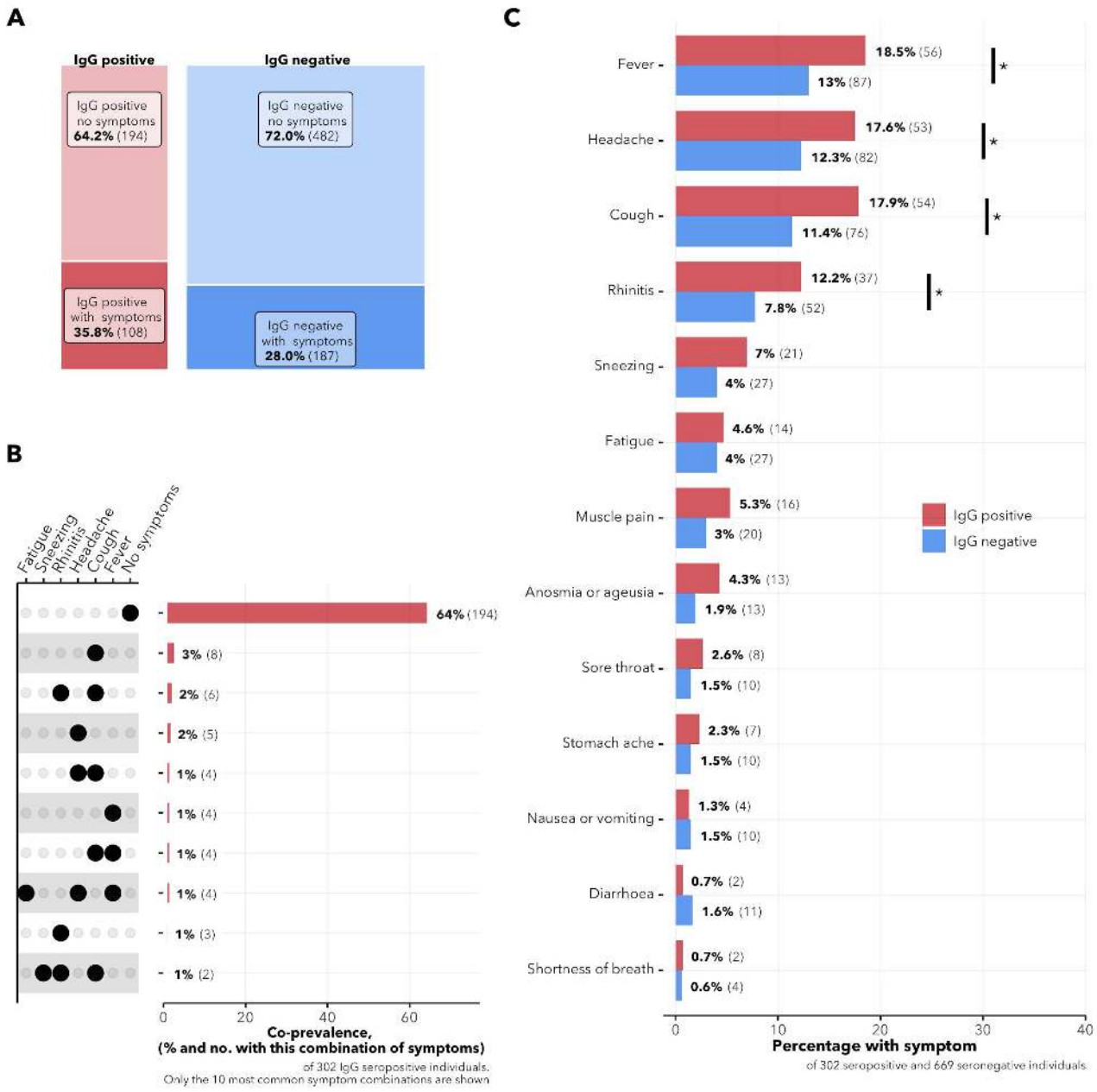

Figure 3: COVID-compatible symptoms of survey participants. Participants reported any COVID-compatible acute symptoms (all shown in panel C), which were experienced between March 1, 2020 and the date of survey. **A.** Matrix plot showing the intersection of symptomaticity with IgG seropositivity. The area of each rectangle is proportional to the number of respondents in the category. **B.** The ten most common symptom profiles among IgG seropositive individuals. **C.** Comparison in frequency of symptoms between IgG seropositive and seronegative individuals. χ- square: * $p < 0.05$

Methods

Population and sampling

The study was conducted in Cité Verte, a health district of Yaoundé, Cameroon with an estimated population of 432 858 inhabitants.

Based on power calculations with an assumed prevalence of 20%, a precision of 5% and a confidence level of 95%, we estimated a required sample of 245 participants. The final target population was increased to 1000 people (250 households) to further increase statistical power.

Households were randomly selected from a pre-processed set of residential buildings based on OpenStreetMap data (full procedure in appendix 1 p 7).[14] Data collection took place between October 14 and November 26, 2020 (sampling timeline in appendix 1 p 2). In the field, each sampled household was visited by study investigators, who either interviewed residents on the first meeting, or arranged an appointment for a future interview if household members were not all present.

In each household, all individuals between five and 80 years of age were included if they (a) had been present in the household for at least 14 days prior to the survey, and (b) could give written informed consent (or had an adult guardian who could give consent).

Testing procedure

The Abbott Panbio™ COVID-19 IgG/IgM Rapid Test Device was used to screen for SARS-CoV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies in capillary blood collected from a finger prick. This is an immunochromatographic, lateral flow test for the qualitative detection of IgG and IgM antibodies to the nucleocapsid (N) protein of SARS-CoV-2. Test results were classified into one of five categories: negative, IgG positive alone (indicating past infection), IgM positive alone (indicating recent infection), IgG and IgM positive (also indicating recent infection), or invalid/inconclusive. Invalid/inconclusive results were repeated and classified accordingly.

The test has a manufacturer-estimated sensitivity and specificity of 95·8% and 94% respectively. However, since test specificity varies across populations, externally-assessed specificity values

may be misleading. Thus, we also validated the test specificity on a panel of 246 pre-pandemic (2017) samples from individuals living in Yaounde. The IgG test correctly diagnosed 230 of these samples (93·5% specificity), while the IgM test correctly diagnosed 229 samples (93·1% specificity). For IgG sensitivity, an estimate of 91·5% was used, as obtained from a validation study on hospitalized COVID-19 patients 14–56 days post symptom onset.[15]

Alongside serological testing, a questionnaire was administered on disease symptoms experienced since March 1, 2020, and on health-seeking behaviour over the same pandemic period.

Data analysis

To arrive at final seroprevalence estimates, crude proportions were re-weighted to match the age-sex distribution of the Yaounde population, as sourced from the 2018 Cameroon DHS.[16] We used the Rogan-Gladen formula to adjust IgG seroprevalence estimates to account for test performance,[17] and we used Lang-Reiczigel intervals for confidence intervals around these estimates.[18] We did not apply test performance corrections to the IgM seroprevalence estimates due to the inherently uncertain sensitivity of IgM tests; as IgM antibodies decline rapidly after infection, sensitivity varies widely with time since infection.

For the seropositivity risk factor analysis, we used logistic regression models with household random intercepts to account for within-household clustering. The following risk factors were analysed: sex, age (categorised as 5–14, 15–29, 30–44, 45–64 or 65+ years), highest education level (no formal instruction, primary, secondary, university, doctorate), BMI group (< 18·5, 18·5–24·9, 25–30 or > 30 kg/m²), contact with an international traveller since March 1, 2020 (recent contact, no contact or unsure about contact), contact with a suspected or confirmed COVID-19 case since March 1, 2020 (recent contact, no contact or unsure about contact), presence of comorbidities (combining hypertension, respiratory illness, diabetes, tuberculosis, HIV, cardiovascular illness and/or "other illnesses" which were not explicitly listed in the questionnaire), whether or not the respondent was the breadwinner, adherence to social distancing rules ("Yes", "No", or "Partly"), location of the household (one of nine neighbourhoods), number of household members, and whether or not there were children in the household. Each variable was first analysed in a univariate model. A Wald chi-square test was then carried out on each univariate model, and all variables below a relaxed p-value cut-off of 0·30 were entered into the

multivariable analysis. This full multivariate model was presented. Individuals with missing covariables were not included in the regression analysis.

Data were processed and analysed using R version 4·0·2.

Ethical considerations

The study protocol obtained the ethical clearance (N°2020/09/1292/CE/CNERSH/SP) and the administrative authorization of the Ministry of Health of Cameroon (N°D30-845/L/MINSANTE/SG/DROS). Every adult participant (21 years or above) signed an informed consent form and, for minors, a person with parental authority was asked to sign the consent form. Minors who were able to sign were also asked to sign a special assent form. In cases where active COVID-19 was suspected (based on the result of the IgG antibody test and self-reported symptoms), a nasopharyngeal swab test was offered to the respondent and sent for analysis at the study reference laboratory, the Chantal BIYA International Reference Centre (CIRCB) in Yaoundé. All members of the survey team were trained in health research ethics and good clinical practice.

Role of the funding source

The sponsors of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report.

Data availability

The anonymized participant data can be shared with investigators upon signing of a data access agreement. Requests should be addressed to the corresponding author.

Code availability

The code used to generate all tabular, graphical and other analytic outputs in the paper is available at the following repository: https://github.com/kendavidn/yaounde_serocovpop_shared

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the participants who accepted the study staff in their homes and generously offered their time during a difficult period. We thank all the interviewers, the Cameroonian Ministry of Health, the Cameroonian National Ethics Committee and all the staff of the health district of Cité Verte. We are also grateful to: Miss Thomas Eyinga, Evelyne Boyomo and the community health staff for field support; Wingston Ng'ambi and other members of the UNIGE Institute of Global Health for helpful feedback and suggestions; the virology laboratory at CIRCB, especially the Director, Prof. Alexis Njolo, for laboratory support; and Dr Hermine Abessolo, Dr Ngo Nsonga Marie Thèrese and Mr Talom Calice of the Scientific Committee for their valuable guidance.

Funding

This study was supported by the UHC Program and Bilateral Health Project in Cameroon of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH, the P4H Health Financing Network, and the Canton of Geneva.

Author contributions

LC, FW and EC conceived and designed the study. FW, LM, AT and JM participated in data collection. NR designed the spatial sampling methodology. KN and EO analysed and interpreted

the data and produced the output figures. KN and JF wrote the initial manuscript, and all authors contributed to subsequent revisions and approved the final version submitted for publication. LC, EM and FW had full access to all the data in the study and KN and LC had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

Declarations of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures

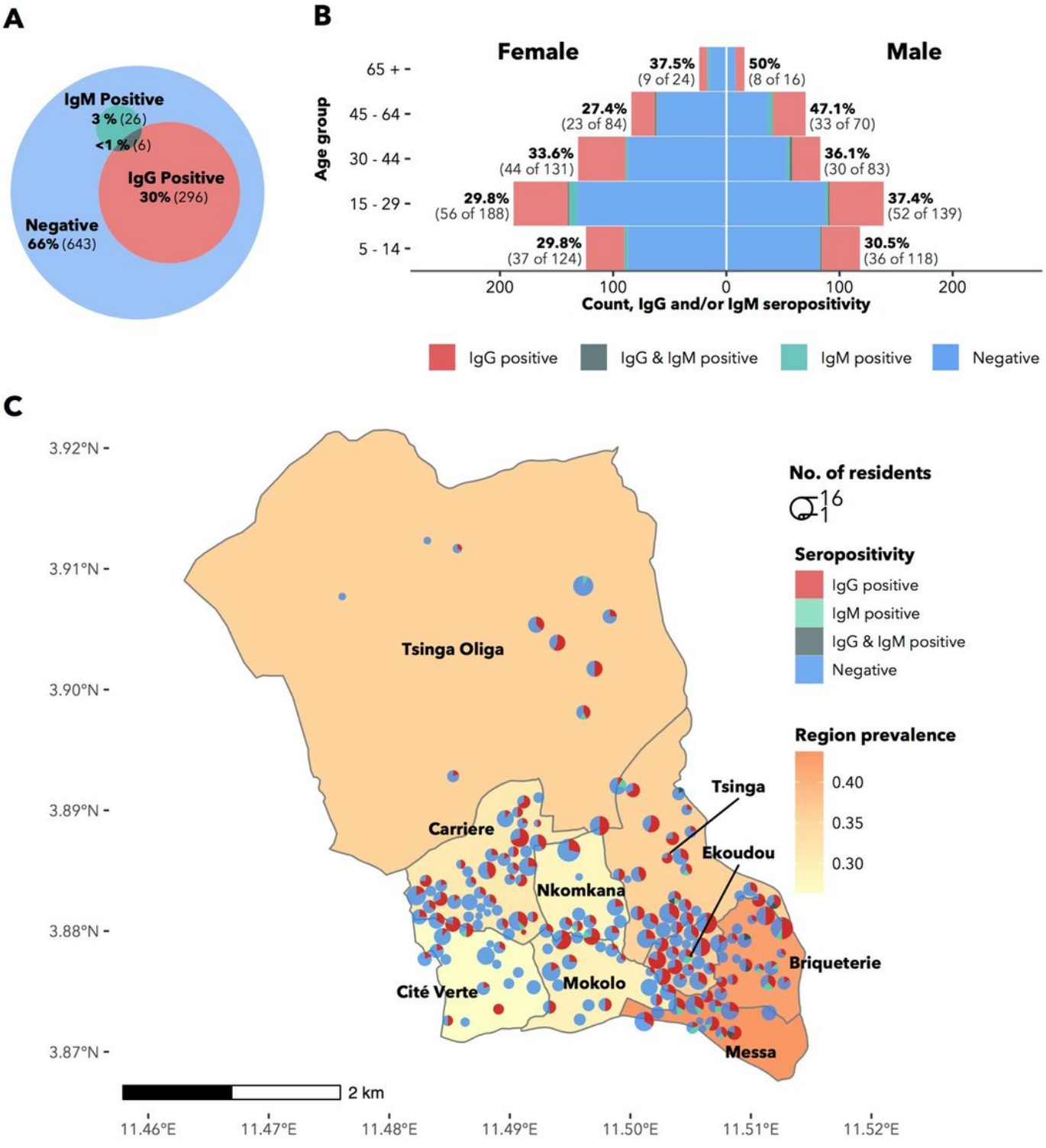

Figure 1

Crude IgG and IgM seroprevalence: A. Euler diagram showing seropositivity of respondents by antibody test. B. Seropositivity of respondents by antibody test and age-sex stratum. Percentage labels indicate the proportion of each stratum that is IgG and/or IgM seropositive. C. Household and geographic variation in

seropositivity. Fill colour indicates the neighbourhood seroprevalence (IgG and/or IgM). Pie charts indicate household size, household location and the proportion of the household that is seropositive. Pie charts are dodged and jittered to avoid overlap and to preserve location anonymity. Five households are not shown due to improperly-coded or missing coordinates.

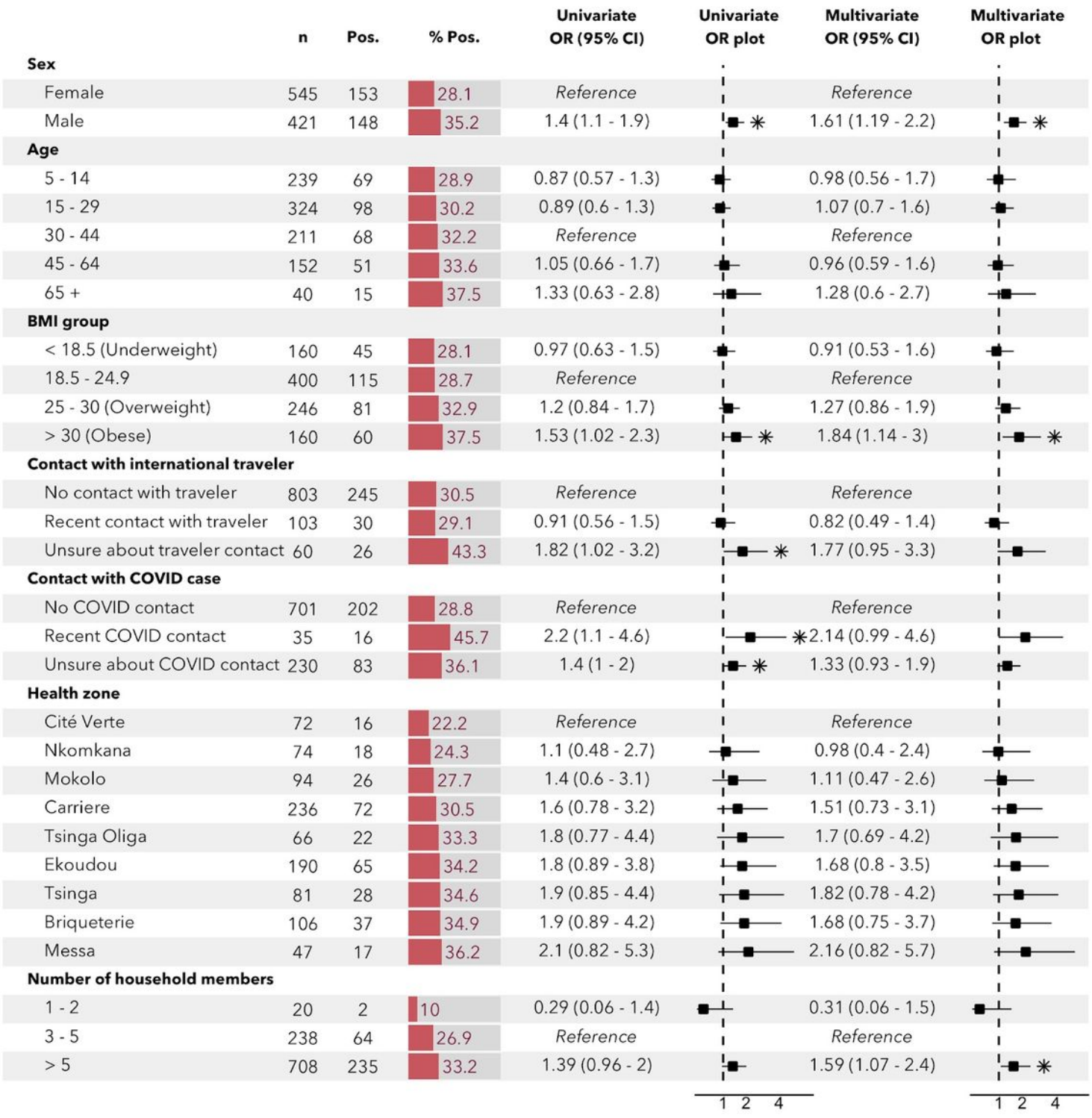

Figure 2

Risk factor analysis for IgG seropositivity n = 966. Based on logistic models with household random intercepts. Asterisks indicate significance at a 0.05 alpha level. OR: Odds ratio. 41 individuals (4%) were dropped due to missing covariables. Recent contact indicates contact since March 1st, 2020. A “COVID case“ is a confirmed or suspected COVID-19 case. Variables that were found to be not significant at a 0.30 alpha level, and which were not controlled for in the multivariable regression, include presence of comorbidities, breadwinner status, adherence to social distancing rules, household neighbourhood and presence of children in the household.

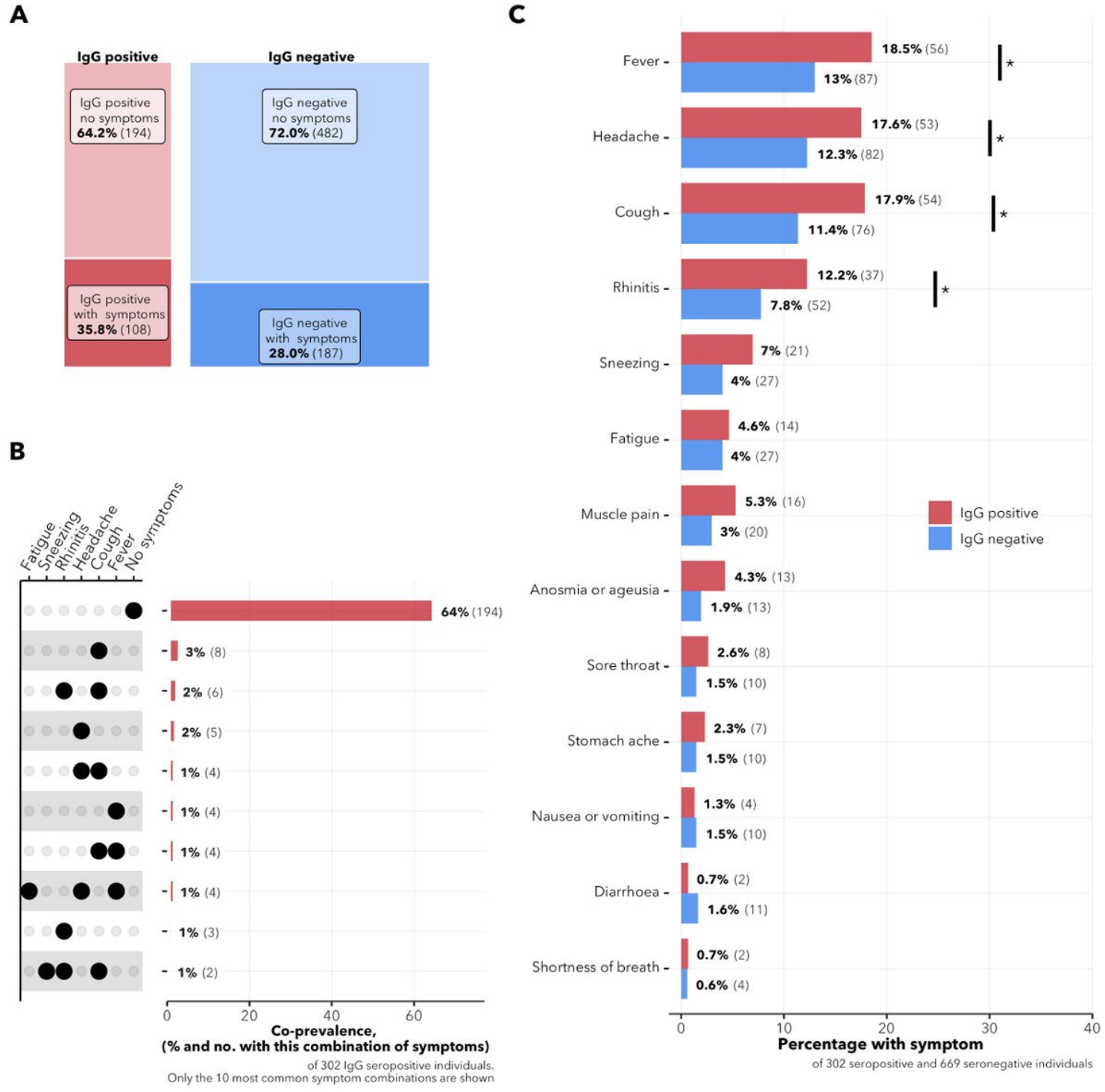

Figure 3

COVID-compatible symptoms of survey participants. Participants reported any COVID-compatible acute symptoms (all shown in panel C), which were experienced between March 1, 2020 and the date of survey. A. Matrix plot showing the intersection of symptomaticity with IgG seropositivity. The area of each rectangle is proportional to the number of respondents in the category. B. The ten most common symptom profiles among IgG seropositive individuals. C. Comparison in frequency of symptoms between IgG seropositive and seronegative individuals. - square: * $p < 0.05$

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- Appendix1.pdf