



Editorial

# COVID-19 in Older Adults at the Time of the Omicron Variant

Maurizio Gabrielli

Department of Emergency, Fondazione Policlinico Universitario Agostino Gemelli IRCCS, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Largo Gemelli 8, 00168 Rome, Italy; maurizio.gabrielli@policlinicogemelli.it; Tel.: +39-06-30157014

Since its outbreak, COVID-19 has had a significant impact on older adults worldwide. In fact, either morbidity or mortality, often secondary to acute pulmonary failure, extrapulmonary manifestations, or sequelae, better known as long COVID, are significantly more common in the elderly [1–3]. They are at a high risk of poor prognosis, especially when age is associated with frailty and multimorbidity [1,4].

This worse outcome may be due to several factors that often influence each other: an age-related global dysfunction of the immune system, to describe which the terms “immunosenescence” and “inflammaging” have been created; the higher prevalence of diseases and medications, leading to immunosuppression; and a significantly greater prevalence of comorbidities such as diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular, pulmonary and renal disorders, and other chronic diseases [2,3,5,6].

To date, however, much has changed since the start of the pandemic regarding the clinical features and outcomes of SARS-CoV2 infection, especially in the elderly. A complex combination of several factors has contributed to this change across the multiple waves of the pandemic. A better understanding of the pathophysiology and clinical course of COVID-19, the growing and widespread knowledge of non-invasive respiratory support techniques, and the introduction of effective pharmacological treatments have led to the better management of these patients. Nevertheless, these measures will not be enough to prevent the death toll from increasing further. Two main reasons, acting in synergy, have completely changed the clinical scenario of COVID-19. First, the availability and large-scale administration of several specific vaccines that have been found to be substantially safe and effective. Second, the appearance of new variants: Delta before, and Omicron after. The latter, with its two sub-variants (BA.1 and BA.2) dividing the globe, now undisputedly dominates new infections worldwide [7].

Several points in both arguments deserve a more detailed analysis, especially regarding the elderly population and the current predominant variant.

In December 2020, the availability of vaccines to protect against the spike protein of SARS-CoV2 dramatically changed the outlook on the COVID-19 pandemic. All approved vaccines were administered to deal with the first variants of the virus and repeated doses were required to effectively protect against infection and worse clinical outcome, and to protect the elderly in particular [8]. However, the significant and rapid loss of protection against infection, symptomatic infection, hospitalization, severe/critical infection and mortality made it essential to administer booster doses [9]. Unfortunately, at present, only the most developed countries have achieved the goal of mass vaccination. It is well-known that the appearance of the last two variants, which emerged during a new wave of the pandemic following the introduction of the vaccines, changed the scenario again.

The Delta variant (B.1.617.2 lineage) alarmed health systems around the world because it combined superior infectivity to previous variants with poor clinical outcomes [10,11]. Fortunately, vaccination, especially after the booster dose, while not having a great effect on the mitigation of viral transmission, had a significant impact on morbidity and mortality, particularly in older adults with multimorbidity [11,12].

The Omicron variant (B.1.1.529 lineage) was identified for the first time in South Africa in November 2021. A few weeks later, the World Health Organization declared it a



**Citation:** Gabrielli, M. COVID-19 in Older Adults at the Time of the Omicron Variant. *J. Clin. Med.* **2022**, *11*, 5273. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm11185273>

Received: 2 September 2022

Accepted: 6 September 2022

Published: 7 September 2022

**Publisher's Note:** MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



**Copyright:** © 2022 by the author. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

variant of concern [13]. Between December 2021 and January 2022, Omicron spread rapidly worldwide, becoming today the cause of >99% of new infections. The high transmissibility (Omicron is three times more transmissible than Delta) is clearly the cause of its rapid spread in several countries, even in the presence of a complete vaccination course and previous infection with other variants [10]. The genome of B.1.1.529 lineage has more than 55 mutations, most of them related to the spike protein. The substantial modification of the characteristics of this protein may enhance viral fitness and enable antibody evasion [14]. In their refined in vitro research on the serum of patients infected by the B.1.1.529 lineage, Planas et al. demonstrated that Omicron escapes vaccine-induced antibodies and is not neutralized by sera from convalescent COVID-19 patients collected  $\geq 6$  months after clinical recovery [14]. On other hand, Omicron is neutralized by antibodies generated by a booster vaccine dose or by the vaccination of previously infected individuals. However, the titers of neutralizing antibodies against Omicron are much lower than those against Delta [14]. These results agree with the findings of several clinical studies, all confirming the further increased transmissibility of the actual prevalent variant. A meta-analysis by Madewell showed that household secondary attack rate was higher for Omicron than for Delta: 42.7% (95% CI, 35.4% to 50.4%) with respect to 29.7% (95% CI, 23.0% to 37.3%) [15]. The total vaccine effectiveness on infection was 64.4% (95% CI, 58.0% to 69.8%) for Delta and 35.8% (95% CI, 13.0% to 52.6%) for Omicron [15]. Receiving three doses of an mRNA vaccine was associated with significantly higher protection against symptomatic infection by the Omicron variant than being unvaccinated or receiving two doses. However, the higher odds ratios (OR) for Omicron shown in the study by Accorsi et al. are indicative of less protection for Omicron than for Delta [16]. The results are similar for patients of an older age [17].

A few studies have assessed the effect of a fourth dose on the transmissibility of B.1.1.529 lineage, mostly in patients  $\geq 60$  years of age. Compared to the third dose, the additional vaccine booster provides additional protection, but this result is weak and transient, as it peaks 2–3 weeks after administration and drops dramatically after about 10 weeks [18,19].

Fortunately, according to the literature data, Omicron is associated with a better clinical outcome than Delta. The likelihood of a visit to the emergency room, admission to hospital, intensive care unit admission, and the need for mechanical ventilation was significantly lower for Omicron [20–22]. Furthermore, vaccines have strong protection against severe illness from this variant. Booster vaccination with an mRNA vaccine was highly protective against hospitalization and death in Omicron cases, which was not affected by the vaccine used for the first two doses [20,23]. Even in the Omicron era, older age, frailty and multimorbidity remain significant risk factors for a worse clinical outcome [24]. The good news is that booster vaccination also significantly improves the clinical outcome of older adults, even more if they are frail and have comorbidities [17,24].

Administration of a fourth dose of the mRNA vaccine was associated with a further significant improvement in the clinical outcome, ensuring good protection against severe forms of COVID-19 [18,19,25,26]. Most of these studies enrolled subjects  $\geq 60$  years of age, and the results were confirmed in patients with more advanced age, frailty and multimorbidity [25,26]. Among patients with a mean age of 80 years admitted to hospital for symptoms of SARS-CoV2 infection, recent fourth dose administration was associated with significant protection against mechanical ventilation or death, compared to three doses (OR 0.51; 95% CI 0.3–0.87) [25]. In a large study of over 60,000 long-term care facility (LTCF) residents aged  $\geq 60$  years, vaccine effectiveness, compared with unvaccinated, increased with each additional dose. The effectiveness of the fourth dose against severe outcomes was 86%, with a marginal effect of up to 40% compared to the third dose [26]. These results are similar to those of another large prospective study of LTCF residents  $\geq 60$  years of age in Israel [27].

To date, little is known about Omicron's response to monoclonal and antiviral drugs, which can be used in the treatment of COVID-19 in the elderly at different times in the natural history of symptomatic infection. Monoclonal antibodies, alone or in combination, act against the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. They are indicated for adult patients at high risk

of progression to severe disease, and, as is well known, age is one of the most important risk factors. Planas et al. showed that the Omicron variant was completely or partially resistant to neutralization by nine different monoclonal antibodies [14]. In a similar study, Takashima et al. showed that only some monoclonal antibodies (casirivimab, tixagevimab, cilgavimab, sotrovimab) or one combination (tixagevimab–cilgavimab) had neutralizing ability against the serum of a patient infected by Omicron. However, this susceptibility was partial and extremely lower than that observed against previous variants, including Delta [28].

In the same study, the authors tested the effectiveness of three different antiviral molecules: remdesivir, molnupiravir, and PF-07304814. All three showed similar efficacy to the previous strains [28]. These findings on antivirals appear to be confirmed by clinical studies carried out on older adults. In patients infected with Omicron, nirmatrelvir significantly reduced hospitalization and death from COVID-19 only in subjects  $\geq 65$  years of age and not in younger ones [29]. Among patients with a median age of 80 years admitted to hospital for severe COVID-19 from Omicron variant, remdesivir was associated with protection against mechanical ventilation or death (OR 0.65; 95% CI 0.44–0.96) [25].

Finally, according to the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, Long COVID is defined as the presence of new or ongoing symptoms  $\geq 4$  weeks after the start of acute symptoms of SARS-CoV2 infection. Again, age proved to be an independent risk factor for sequelae, and vaccination of previously infected patients was associated with the relief of symptoms of long COVID, at least in the median follow-up of about 2 months [30,31]. Long COVID was significantly less prevalent after Omicron than after Delta infection (4.5% versus 10.8%, OR ranging from 0.24 to 0.50 accordingly with the vaccine status). These results were also confirmed after stratification by age group [32].

In conclusion, the available literature on the clinical outcome of older adults with COVID-19 and the effects of vaccination on them seems to reassure that, to date, the B.1.1.529 lineage is probably the best variant that could be expected. Indeed, the Omicron variant is associated with reduced disease severity, and full vaccination, even more after the fourth dose, offers strong protection against severe/critical COVID-19. However, it is not well known how long the efficacy of repeated doses remains valid on these endpoints, and therefore how often to repeat the vaccination. This is extremely important in the elderly, in whom, as already mentioned, the immune system is less robust or even dysfunctional. Another problem that remains is the high transmissibility of Omicron, which the available vaccines seem to effect only slightly and transiently. The third and fourth doses seem to do better, but the results remain unsatisfactory. The reduced effectiveness of current vaccines in preventing Omicron infection have underlined the urgent need to develop new ones in line with viral evolution. Higher Omicron neutralizing antibody titers have been observed with Omicron-containing mRNA vaccines compared to the Prototype one [33]. These preliminary but encouraging results have recently prompted several national pharmaceutical regulatory agencies to approve the Moderna and Pfizer-BioNTech bivalent COVID-19 vaccines for use as a booster dose. It will be interesting to verify on large samples, in different age groups, and with longer follow-up, the efficacy and safety of these new vaccines.

Finally, all the mutations involving the spike protein seem to significantly reduce the effectiveness of several monoclonal antibodies, which, in the case of the previous variants, have been shown to be effective in preventing the progression of COVID-19 towards severe forms. Obviously, this could mean the loss of an excellent preventative measure for older adults. However, in this regard, there are a lack of clinical trials that are equally urgent and aimed at verifying the results of in vitro studies. If confirmed, these data would suggest developing new monoclonal antibodies targeting the Omicron variant.

I hope that these insights can stimulate valuable contributions from other authors to be shared with the international scientific community.

**Funding:** This research received no external funding.

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## References

1. Kokkoris, S.; Gkoufa, A.; Maneta, E.; Doumas, G.; Mizi, E.; Georgakopoulou, V.E.; Sigala, I.; Dima, E.; Papachatzakis, I.; Ntaidou, T.K.; et al. Older adults with severe coronavirus disease 2019 admitted to intensive care unit: Prevalence, characteristics and risk factors for mortality. *Minerva Anesthesiol.* **2022**. [CrossRef]
2. Gilis, M.; Chagrot, N.; Koeberle, S.; Tannou, T.; Brunel, A.S.; Chirouze, C.; Bouiller, K. Older adults with SARS-CoV-2 infection: Utility of the clinical frailty scale to predict mortality. *J. Med. Virol.* **2021**, *93*, 2453–2460. [CrossRef]
3. Chudasama, Y.V.; Zaccardi, F.; Gillies, C.L.; Razieh, C.; Yates, T.; Kloecker, D.E.; Rowlands, A.V.; Davies, M.J.; Islam, N.; Seidu, S.; et al. Patterns of multimorbidity and risk of severe SARS-CoV-2 infection: An observational study in the U.K. *BMC Infect. Dis.* **2021**, *21*, 908. [CrossRef]
4. Changal, K.; Veria, S.; Mack, S.; Paternite, D.; Sheikh, S.A.; Patel, M.; Mir, T.; Sheikh, M.; Ramanathan, P.K. Myocardial injury in hospitalized COVID-19 patients: A retrospective study, systematic review, and meta-analysis. *BMC Cardiovasc. Disord.* **2021**, *21*, 626. [CrossRef]
5. Pietrobon, A.J.; Teixeira, F.M.E.; Sato, M.N. Immunosenescence and Inflammaging: Risk Factors of Severe COVID-19 in Older People. *Front. Immunol.* **2020**, *11*, 579220. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
6. Chen, Y.; Klein, S.L.; Garibaldi, B.T.; Li, H.; Wu, C.; Osevala, N.M.; Li, T.; Margolick, J.B.; Pawelec, G.; Leng, S.X. Aging in COVID-19: Vulnerability, immunity and intervention. *Ageing Res. Rev.* **2020**, *65*, 101205. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
7. Viana, R.; Moyo, S.; Amoako, D.G.; Tegally, H.; Scheepers, C.; Althaus, C.L.; Anyaneji, U.J.; Bester, P.A.; Boni, M.F.; Chand, M.; et al. Rapid epidemic expansion of the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant in southern Africa. *Nature* **2022**, *603*, 679–686. [CrossRef]
8. Bar-On, Y.M.; Goldberg, Y.; Mandel, M.; Bodenheimer, O.; Freedman, L.; Kalkstein, N.; Mizrahi, B.; Alroy-Preis, S.; Ash, N.; Milo, R.; et al. Protection of BNT162b2 Vaccine Booster against Covid-19 in Israel. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **2021**, *385*, 1393–1400. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
9. Feikin, D.R.; Higdon, M.M.; Abu-Raddad, L.J.; Andrews, N.; Araos, R.; Goldberg, Y.; Groome, M.J.; Huppert, A.; O'Brien, K.L.; Smith, P.G.; et al. Duration of effectiveness of vaccines against SARS-CoV-2 infection and COVID-19 disease: Results of a systematic review and meta-regression. *Lancet* **2022**, *399*, 924–944. [CrossRef]
10. Long, B.; Carius, B.M.; Chavez, S.; Liang, S.Y.; Brady, W.J.; Koyfman, A.; Gottlieb, M. Clinical update on COVID-19 for the emergency clinician: Presentation and evaluation. *Am. J. Emerg. Med.* **2022**, *54*, 46–57. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
11. Sheikh, A.; McMenamin, J.; Taylor, B.; Robertson, C. SARS-CoV-2 Delta VOC in Scotland: Demographics, risk of hospital admission, and vaccine effectiveness. *Lancet* **2021**, *397*, 2461–2462. [CrossRef]
12. Song, X.-C.; Zhou, X.-H.; Cheng, J.-H.; Zhang, W.-H.; Shen, X.; Xu, H.; Nie, S.; Xiao, J.-L.; Sun, F.; Shu, C.; et al. The roles of inactivated vaccines in older patients with infection of Delta variant in Nanjing, China. *Ageing* **2022**, *14*, 4211–4219. [CrossRef]
13. W.H.O. Classification of Omicron (B.1.1.529): SARS-CoV-2 Variant of Concern. 2021. Available online: [https://www.who.int/news/item/26-11-2021-classification-of-omicron-\(b.1.1.529\)-sars-cov-2-variant-of-concern](https://www.who.int/news/item/26-11-2021-classification-of-omicron-(b.1.1.529)-sars-cov-2-variant-of-concern) (accessed on 1 September 2022).
14. Planas, D.; Saunders, N.; Maes, P.; Guivel-Benhassine, F.; Planchais, C.; Buchrieser, J.; Bolland, W.H.; Porrot, F.; Staropoli, I.; Lemoine, F.; et al. Considerable escape of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron to antibody neutralization. *Nature* **2022**, *602*, 671–675. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
15. Madewell, Z.J.; Yang, Y.; Longini, I.M.; Halloran, M.E.; Dean, N.E. Household Secondary Attack Rates of SARS-CoV-2 by Variant and Vaccination Status: An Updated Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Netw. Open* **2022**, *5*, e229317. [CrossRef]
16. Accorsi, E.K.; Britton, A.; Fleming-Dutra, K.E.; Smith, Z.R.; Shang, N.; Derado, G.; Miller, J.; Schrag, S.J.; Verani, J.R. Association Between 3 Doses of mRNA COVID-19 Vaccine and Symptomatic Infection Caused by the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron and Delta Variants. *JAMA* **2022**, *327*, 639–651. [CrossRef]
17. Young-Xu, Y.; Zwain, G.M.; Izurieta, H.S.; Korves, C.; Powell, E.I.; Smith, J.; Balajee, A.; Holodniy, M.; Beenhouwer, D.O.; Rodriguez-Barradas, M.C.; et al. Effectiveness of mRNA COVID-19 vaccines against Omicron and Delta variants in a matched test-negative case-control study among US veterans. *BMJ Open* **2022**, *12*, e063935. [CrossRef]
18. Gazit, S.; Saciuk, Y.; Perez, G.; Peretz, A.; Pitzer, V.E.; Patalon, T. Short term, relative effectiveness of four doses versus three doses of BNT162b2 vaccine in people aged 60 years and older in Israel: Retrospective, test negative, case-control study. *BMJ* **2022**, *377*, e071113. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
19. Magen, O.; Waxman, J.G.; Makov-Assif, M.; Vered, R.; Dicker, D.; Hernán, M.A.; Lipsitch, M.; Reis, B.Y.; Balicer, R.D.; Dagan, N. Fourth Dose of BNT162b2 mRNA Covid-19 Vaccine in a Nationwide Setting. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **2022**, *386*, 1603–1614. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
20. Nyberg, T.; Ferguson, N.M.; Nash, S.G.; Webster, H.H.; Flaxman, S.; Andrews, N.; Hinsley, W.; Bernal, J.L.; Kall, M.; Bhatt, S.; et al. Comparative analysis of the risks of hospitalisation and death associated with SARS-CoV-2 omicron (B.1.1.529) and delta (B.1.617.2) variants in England: A cohort study. *Lancet* **2022**, *399*, 1303–1312. [CrossRef]
21. Wang, L.; Berger, N.A.; Kaelber, D.C.; Davis, P.B.; Volkow, N.D.; Xu, R. Comparison of outcomes from COVID infection in pediatric and adult patients before and after the emergence of Omicron. *medRxiv* **2022**. [CrossRef]
22. Menni, C.; Valdes, A.M.; Polidori, L.; Antonelli, M.; Penamakuri, S.; Nogal, A.; Louca, P.; May, A.; Figueiredo, J.C.; Hu, C.; et al. Symptom prevalence, duration, and risk of hospital admission in individuals infected with SARS-CoV-2 during periods of omicron and delta variant dominance: A prospective observational study from the ZOE COVID Study. *Lancet* **2022**, *399*, 1618–1624. [CrossRef]



23. Adams, K.; Rhoads, J.P.; Surie, D.; Gaglani, M.; Ginde, A.A.; McNeal, T.; Ghamande, S.; Huynh, D.; Talbot, H.K.; Casey, J.D.; et al. Vaccine Effectiveness of Primary Series and Booster Doses against Omicron Variant COVID-19-Associated Hospitalization in the United States. *medRxiv* **2022**. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Lu, G.; Zhang, Y.; Zhang, H.; Ai, J.; He, L.; Yuan, X.; Bao, S.; Chen, X.; Wang, H.; Cai, J.; et al. Geriatric risk and protective factors for serious COVID-19 outcomes among older adults in Shanghai Omicron wave. *Emerg. Microbes Infect.* **2022**, *11*, 2045. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
25. Brosh-Nissimov, T.; Hussein, K.; Wiener-Well, Y.; Orenbuch-Harroch, E.; Elbaz, M.; Lipman-Arens, S.; Maor, Y.; Yagel, Y.; Chazan, B.; Hershman-Sarafov, M.; et al. Hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19 during the Omicron wave in Israel—Benefits of a fourth vaccine dose. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* **2022**. [[CrossRef](#)]
26. Grewal, R.; Kitchen, S.A.; Nguyen, L.; Buchan, S.A.; Wilson, S.E.; Costa, A.P.; Kwong, J.C. Effectiveness of a fourth dose of covid-19 mRNA vaccine against the omicron variant among long term care residents in Ontario, Canada: Test negative design study. *BMJ* **2022**, *378*, e071502. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Muhsen, K.; Maimon, N.; Mizrahi, A.Y.; Boltyansky, B.; Bodenheimer, O.; Diamant, Z.H.; Gaon, L.; Cohen, D.; Dagan, R. Association of Receipt of the Fourth BNT162b2 Dose with Omicron Infection and COVID-19 Hospitalizations among Residents of Long-term Care Facilities. *JAMA Intern. Med.* **2022**, *182*, 859–867. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Takashita, E.; Kinoshita, N.; Yamayoshi, S.; Sakai-Tagawa, Y.; Fujisaki, S.; Ito, M.; Iwatsuki-Horimoto, K.; Chiba, S.; Halfmann, P.; Nagai, H.; et al. Efficacy of Antibodies and Antiviral Drugs against Covid-19 Omicron Variant. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **2022**, *386*, 995–998. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
29. Arbel, R.; Sagy, Y.W.; Hoshen, M.; Battat, E.; Lavie, G.; Sergienko, R.; Friger, M.; Waxman, J.G.; Dagan, N.; Balicer, R.; et al. Nirmatrelvir Use and Severe Covid-19 Outcomes during the Omicron Surge. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **2022**, *387*, 790–798. [[CrossRef](#)]
30. Sugiyama, A.; Miwata, K.; Kitahara, Y.; Okimoto, M.; Abe, K.; Ouoba, S.; Akita, T.; Tanimine, N.; Ohdan, H.; Kubo, T.; et al. Long COVID occurrence in COVID-19 survivors. *Sci. Rep.* **2022**, *12*, 6039. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
31. Ayoubkhani, D.; Bermingham, C.; Pouwels, K.B.; Glickman, M.; Nafilyan, V.; Zaccardi, F.; Khunti, K.; Alwan, N.A.; Walker, A.S. Trajectory of long covid symptoms after covid-19 vaccination: Community based cohort study. *BMJ* **2022**, *377*, e069676. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
32. Antonelli, M.; Pujol, J.C.; Spector, T.D.; Ourselin, S.; Steves, C.J. Risk of long COVID associated with delta versus omicron variants of SARS-CoV-2. *Lancet* **2022**, *399*, 2263–2264. [[CrossRef](#)]
33. Branche, A.R.; Roupheal, N.G.; Diemert, D.D.; Falsey, A.R.; Losada, C.; Baden, L.R.; Frey, S.E.; Whitaker, J.A.; Little, S.J.; Anderson, E.J.; et al. SARS-CoV-2 Variant Vaccine Boosters Trial: Preliminary Analyses. *medRxiv* **2022**. [[CrossRef](#)]