Open Forum Infectious Diseases

MAJOR ARTICLE

Genomic Surveillance of SARS-CoV-2 in a University Community: Insights Into Tracking Variants, Transmission, and Spread of Gamma (P.1) Variant

Ilinca I. Ciubotariu,[1] Jack Dorman,[1] Nicole M. Perry,[1] Lev Gorenstein,[2] Jobin J. Kattoor,[3] Abebe A. Fola,[1] Amy Zine,[4] G. Kenitra Hendrix,[3] Rebecca P. Wilkes,[3] Andrew Kitchen,[4] and Giovanna Carpi[1,5]

[1]Department of Biological Sciences, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA, [2]Information Technology Research Computing, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA, [3]Department of Comparative Biology, Animal Disease Diagnostic Laboratory, Purdue University College of Veterinary Medicine, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA, [4]Department of Anthropology, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, USA, and [5]Purdue Institute of Inflammation, Immunology and Infectious Disease, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA

Background. Using a combination of data from routine surveillance, genomic sequencing, and phylogeographic analysis, we tracked the spread and introduction events of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) variants focusing on a large university community.

Methods. Here, we sequenced and analyzed 677 high-quality SARS-CoV-2 genomes from positive RNA samples collected from Purdue University students, faculty, and staff who tested positive for the virus between January 2021 and May 2021, comprising an average of 32% of weekly cases across the time frame.

Results. Our analysis of circulating SARS-CoV-2 variants over time revealed periods when variants of concern (VOC) Alpha (B.1.1.7) and Iota (B.1.526) reached rapid dominance and documented that VOC Gamma (P.1) was increasing in frequency as campus surveillance was ending. Phylodynamic analysis of Gamma genomes from campus alongside a subsampling of >20 000 previously published P.1 genomes revealed 10 independent introductions of this variant into the Purdue community, predominantly from elsewhere in the United States, with introductions from within the state of Indiana and from Illinois, and possibly Washington and New York, suggesting a degree of domestic spread.

Conclusions. We conclude that a robust and sustained active and passive surveillance program coupled with genomic sequencing during a pandemic offers important insights into the dynamics of pathogen arrival and spread in a campus community and can help guide mitigation measures.

Keywords. SARS-CoV-2; whole-genome sequencing; phylodynamic analysis; COVID-19 testing; university transmission.

Since the first severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) cases were identified in Wuhan, Hubei Province, China, the pandemic has resulted in >404 million confirmed cases worldwide and >5.7 million deaths, with the United States surpassing 77 million cases and 912 000 deaths as of February 10, 2022 (https://coronavirus.jhu.edu/map.html) [1–3]. The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic continues to create public health challenges and stress societies across the globe, which makes sustained research into viral transmission and the efficacy of community interventions particularly important.

One of the tools that has contributed to rapid progress in studying SARS-CoV-2 is genomic sequencing. This technology has led to the examination of SARS-CoV-2 global diversity and the identification of genome variants that may affect viral transmission, particularly regarding increased transmission efficacy in humans [4–6]. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) undertook the task of monitoring emerging SARS-CoV-2 variants and, together with the SARS-CoV-2 Interagency Group (SIG), established a classification scheme for new variants—(1) variant of interest (VOI), (2) variant of concern (VOC), and (3) variant of high consequence (VOHC)—based on factors such as transmissibility, neutralization by antibodies, etc. [7]. As of September 23, 2021, the SIG has created a new class of variants designated as variants being monitored (VBM), which includes variants with substitutions of concern and variants that were previously designated as VOC or VOI that have decreased in prevalence in the United States [8]. Even so, reclassified VBMs like Gamma variant warrant continued surveillance as their roles in transmission have not yet been fully understood and thus may play important roles in the future emergence of SARS-CoV-2 variants of greater concern.

Received 09 May 2022; editorial decision 14 May 2022; accepted 24 May 2022; published online 26 May 2022

Correspondence: Giovanna Carpi, DVM, PhD, Department of Biological Sciences, Purdue University, 915 W. State St, West Lafayette, IN 47907 (gcarpi@purdue.edu).

Open Forum Infectious Diseases®

https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofac268

Early epidemiological studies identified that individuals with increased risk of developing severe illness or dying from COVID-19 include adults past the age of 65, individuals with preexisting conditions like cancer, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease, and pregnant people [9]. As public health efforts to mitigate the effects of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic were implemented in the public at large, significant efforts were made to protect the population of individuals at greatest risk for severe disease and death in particular. However, only a few months into the pandemic, during the summer of 2020, SARS-CoV-2 incidence was highest among individuals aged 20–29 years [10], possibly reflecting the efficacy of earlier interventions to protect high-risk populations. Concerningly, though the risk of severe COVID-19 in young adults is relatively low compared with vulnerable individuals, the increase in cases among the 20–29-year-old cohort coincided with the seasonal return of students to college campuses. Of particular concern was the potential for colleges and universities to be sites of increased viral transmission that could contribute to superspreading events and community transmission into previously protected high-risk populations through networks of close contacts.

Large universities like Purdue University were inevitably going to experience SARS-CoV-2 cases and transmission during the pandemic, as the campus has an enormous student population of >46 000 undergraduate, graduate, and professional students and >2400 instructional employees, as well as congregate living (eg, student housing) and hundreds of clubs with social activities [11]. After the university took immediate action in suspending international travel in early March 2020 per the CDC guidelines, remote learning was rapidly implemented to mitigate viral spread among students and staff [12]. With additional safe health protocols in place, the Fall 2020 semester offered students the option of transitioning to in-person classes or continuing remotely until the following Spring, with 88% of students choosing to return to campus. The large demand for in-person instruction presented a challenge to institutional efforts to halt viral spread on campus.

During the summer, the university devised a comprehensive surveillance program coined the "Protect Purdue Plan," with the ultimate goal of monitoring the health of the campus community and limiting the spread of COVID-19 [13]. This plan was comprised of multiple components including testing before arrival on campus, de-densification of academic and living spaces, and an ongoing passive surveillance testing program for on-campus students and employees via contact tracing and testing of symptomatic individuals. The plan also included active surveillance with weekly random testing by anterior nasal swabs and RT-PCR of ∼10% of the on-campus student and employee population—a combination of mitigation strategies that were readily applied in many institutions with some degree of in-person instruction [14]. Importantly, however, little genomic evidence has been collected to understand campus transmission in general and the effects of mitigation efforts in particular [14–17].

While rapid implementation of SARS-CoV-2 genome sequencing has proven useful in the investigation of COVID-19 dynamics in other institutional settings like health care, few studies have been conducted on university campuses [15–23]. Some studies in the university setting have evaluated testing programs to understand control of SARS-CoV-2 transmission, while others used modeling approaches to infer SARS-CoV-2 transmission or estimate the introduction and growth rate of particular variants [17, 24–26]. Limited studies of this scale so far have investigated the dynamics of variants in a campus population over the course of a semester of in-person instruction. Here, we attempt to fill that gap and monitor SARS-CoV-2 variants and, in particular, the introductions of variant Gamma (P.1), which emerged outside of the United States, in the university population as Purdue has a large international community. We also argue that there is need for enhanced genomic surveillance to monitor virus lineage circulation at the local scale, especially in campus communities, as the virus population will continue to evolve over time [27].

METHODS

Patient Consent

The Institutional Review Board from the Purdue University Human Research Protection Program determined that viral genome sequencing of remnant de-identified COVID-19 samples included in this study is not research involving human subjects, so no patient consent was required for this analysis (IRB-2021-438). All biospecimens and data were de-identified before sequencing and analysis.

Specimen Collection, RNA Extraction, Testing, and Sampling Strategies

In brief, individuals who were chosen for random campus surveillance, who had COVID-19-like symptoms, or who had been in contact with a positive case, presented themselves at various campus locations, and testing occurred by way of anterior nasal swabs. The anterior nasal swabs were collected in PrimeStore MTM (molecular transport media; Longhorn Vaccines & Diagnostics, Bethesda, MD, USA), which safely inactivates infectious agents and stabilizes and preserves the released RNA for further downstream molecular applications [28].

Nucleic acid was extracted with the MagMAX Viral/Pathogen Nucleic Acid Isolation Kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with a KingFisher Flex Purification System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Individual status (symptomatic vs asymptomatic) based on individual report and other metadata, like travel history or vaccination status (when applicable), was noted at the time of sample collection. Collected samples were submitted to the Animal Disease Diagnostic Lab (ADDL) at Purdue University

for testing, which performed nucleic acid RT-PCR using the Thermo Fisher TaqPath COVID-19 Combo Kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific) on a 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The ADDL is Clinical Laboratory Improvement Amendments certified to perform high-complexity testing.

Viral whole-genome sequencing was performed in the Carpi Laboratory on a subset of TaqPath COVID-19 RT-PCR-positive samples, based on the following 2 sampling strategies: (1) weekly samples that showed RT-PCR results with SGTF (S-Gene Target Failure), specifically TaqPath COVID-19 RT-PCR-positive samples with N or ORF1AB Ct $<$30 and S gene undetermined, and randomly selected positive samples with Ct values of $\leq$30 and (2) retrospective sampling of randomly chosen positive samples that were not indicative of SGTF to achieve $\geq$20% of weekly cases. The overall goal was to conduct viral whole-genome sequencing of $\geq$20% of weekly TaqPath COVID-19 RT-PCR-positive samples from the active and passive campus surveillance schemes. The selected time frame was the first week of January 2021, through the first week of May 2021, for a total of 18 weeks. While earlier sampling could have potentially been done, testing was limited to the Fall semester of 2020, and most tests were saliva-based rather than anterior nasal swabs. During the first 14 weeks of this time frame, we included all identified SGTF samples in addition to random samples, while for the remaining 4 weeks we only included a subset of the identified SGTF samples. Retrospective sequencing included random sampling for the weeks during which we had not sequenced $\geq$20% of weekly cases.

Oxford Nanopore Library Preparation and Sequencing

The quality of a subset of the acquired RNA samples was assessed by examining any presence of RNA degradation using TapeStation High Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape (Agilent 4200, Santa Clara, CA, USA). RNA extracts from positive samples served as an input for an amplicon-based approach for SARS-CoV-2 whole-genome sequencing on the Oxford Nanopore Technologies platforms (ONT; Oxford, UK). In brief, cDNA and amplicon libraries were generated using the "PCR tiling of SARS-CoV-2 virus" protocol (version: PTC_9096_v109_revL_06Feb2020; Oxford Nanopore Technologies, ONT). This protocol employs ARTIC V3 primers (IDT) for generating 98 amplicons of 400 bp each [29]. Sequencing libraries were prepared using the ONT Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-LSK109) and the Native Barcoding Expansion 1–12 and 13–24 kits for multiplexing samples, following the remaining protocol outlined in "PCR tiling of SARS-CoV-2 virus." DNA yield following PCR amplification was assessed, with samples of concentration $>$20 ng/μL, as determined by the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), included in sequencing runs. No-template controls were introduced for each run at the cDNA synthesis and amplicon synthesis steps and were taken through the entire library preparation and sequencing protocol to detect any cross-contamination. The first libraries were sequenced using the MinION Mk1B platform, after which all other libraries were loaded and sequenced on the GridIONX5 on R9.4.1 flow cells (ONT) [38, 39].

Bioinformatics Processing

High-accuracy basecalling was performed with Guppy basecaller, version 3.1.5, on MinIT for the sequencing data generated on MinION and with Guppy, version 4.2.4, for sequencing runs performed on GridION5X. The resulting FASTQ files were input into the ARTIC Network bioinformatics pipeline, version 1.1.3 (https://github.com/artic-network/artic-ncov2019), to generate consensus genomes using a customized pipeline on the Purdue High Performance Computing cluster [30]. Repeatable and reproducible Anaconda-based software environments for data processing were created with the conda-env-mod tool (https://github.com/amaji/conda-env-mod) [31]. Coverage plots and BAM files were visually screened as a quality control measure on randomly selected samples, the latter using Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV), version 2.8.13 [32]. Customized scripts were used to calculate quality metrics, such as percentage of the genome sequenced and coverage depth, and a sequence quality check was performed (using https://clades.nextstrain.org/) [33]. Viral genome consensus sequences were classified, and lineages were assigned using PANGOLIN, version 3.1.17, on December 10, 2021 [34]. Viral genome sequences were considered adequate for further analyses and data released to GISAID if they had $>$94% of the genome with 50$\times$ coverage.

Selection of Other Data for Context Analyses

Data of positive cases for Tippecanoe County, Indiana, where Purdue University is located, were acquired from https://www.coronavirus.in.gov/indiana-covid-19-dashboard-and-map/ and summarized to place university cases in local context. Furthermore, to compare patterns of lineages from sequenced cases in the Purdue community, we searched on GISAID for publicly available sequences in another university in the same state of Indiana and a university in a contiguous state. Our search was performed using the "Location" identifier on GISAID for the respective state in the US and North American continent and simultaneously the "Collection date" to include the same 18-week period. We selected the sequences from Notre Dame University (virus names hCoV-19/USA/IN-UND-), which is in South Bend, Indiana, from the University of Michigan (virus names hCoV-19/USA/MI-UM-), and from the overall state of Indiana (virus names hCoV-19/USA/IN-).

Phylogeographic Analysis of P.1 and Selection of Context Samples

For this analysis, all samples from January to May 2021 that were assigned through the bioinformatics pipeline as P.1 variant from the campus population were used, yielding a total of 18 samples. We then placed these genomes in the context of all publicly available P.1 variant genomes from the GISAID at the time this analysis was started (July 2021), or ~21 000 genomes. All downloaded genomes were aligned to the Purdue P.1 sequences using MAFFT, with genomic data combined into a single multi-FASTA file using custom scripts [35, 36]. The collection of P.1 genomes from GISAID was then screened to identify those closest to the 18 Purdue P.1 genomes. A total of 916 P.1 genomes from GISAID were within 0 to 2 substitutions of the most similar Purdue P.1 genome. After removing GISAID P.1 genomes that were identical by both sequence and location or belonging to strongly supported monophyletic groups identified in preliminary analyses that did not include Purdue sequences, the resulting data set of 748 P.1 GISAID genomes from 41 US states, Washington, DC, and 2 other countries (Brazil and Colombia) was used to contextualize the Purdue genomes in subsequent phylogeographic analysis.

Bayesian analyses were conducted in BEAST, version 1.10.4, using discrete phylogeography, HKY + G nucleotide substitution, constant population size, and strict molecular clock models [37, 38]. Initial analyses were performed without biogeographic models to estimate substitution rate parameters, which, along with the overall substitution rate (8.1×10^{-3} sub/site/year), were fixed in the final phylogeographic inference [39]. Trees were visualized in FigTree, version 1.4.4 (https://github.com/rambaut/figtree/releases). Initial analyses of phylogeography were performed using the Bayesian Tip association Significance testing package (BaTS) [40]. The posterior distribution of trees from the initial runs were subjected to parsimony score calculations in BaTS, with each genome coded as either "Purdue" or "not-Purdue" to estimate the number of independent introductions to Purdue and as "Purdue," "non-Purdue," or "state X" to estimate whether sequences from state X are associated with P.1 sequences from Purdue. These were complemented by subsequent Bayesian phylogenetic analyses performed in BEAST with a discrete phylogeographic model and Bayesian stochastic search variable selection to determine migration rates between Purdue and other geographic areas represented in our final sample of closely related P.1 genomes.

Table 1. Weekly Breakdown of Samples Tested by RT-PCR and Respective Results and Number of Positive Samples Successfully Sequenced From January 3, 2021, to May 8, 2021, at Purdue University

Week Starting Date	Collection Week No.	No. of Individuals Tested by RT-PCR	No. of Samples Positive by RT-PCR/(% Positive Samples)	No. of Positive Samples Sequenced/(% Positive Samples Sequenced)
1/3/21	1	4243	192 (4.53)	44 (22.92)
1/10/21	2	2969	145 (4.88)	33 (22.76)
1/17/21	3	1982	144 (7.27)	35 (24.31)
1/24/21	4	1809	197 (10.89)	42 (21.32)
1/31/21	5	6471	234 (3.62)	51 (21.79)
2/7/21	6	7796	198 (2.54)	44 (22.22)
2/14/21	7	6372	174 (2.73)	41 (23.56)
2/21/21	8	6857	154 (2.25)	29 (18.83)
2/28/21	9	7443	165 (2.22)	40 (24.24)
3/7/21	10	7463	106 (1.42)	27 (25.47)
3/14/21	11	6370	66 (1.04)	19 (28.79)
3/21/21	12	7488	146 (1.95)	39 (26.71)
3/28/21	13	7150	117 (1.64)	53 (45.30)
4/4/21	14	6546	122 (1.87)	46 (37.70)
4/11/21	15	6157	133 (2.16)	49 (36.84)
4/18/21	16	5830	69 (1.18)	44 (63.77)
4/25/21	17	2052	44 (2.14)	25 (56.82)
5/2/21	18	1821	30 (1.65)	16 (53.33)
	Total	96 819	2436 (2.52)	677 (27.79)

Abbreviation: RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction.

Statistical Analysis

To understand the relationship between sample CT values and success in sequencing based on our threshold, we compared CT values for aggregated variants between failed and successful samples. We also used the Wilcoxon rank-sum test to assess the relationship between CT and infection status. We corrected *P* values across the comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to decrease the false discovery rate [41]. When looking at the variation by US state in the number of genomes deposited in GISAID, we calculated Pearson correlation coefficients.

Data and Code Availability

All of the genomic data generated from our lab used in this research is available on GISAID (see Supplementary Table 3 for accession numbers). We also gratefully acknowledge the authors and submitting laboratories that generated and shared SARS-CoV-2 viral genomes via the GISAID Initiative, on which this research is based (Supplementary Table 4). Custom scripts are openly available on GitHub (https://github.com/drupiter/SARS-CoV-2_Purdue).

RESULTS

SARS-CoV-2 Molecular Testing and Sequencing

A total of 96 819 RT-PCR tests of in-person students and employees were performed by the ADDL facility between January 2021 and the first week of May 2021, with a positivity rate of 2.5% (2436 positive cases identified) (Table 1). Collection week 1 was defined as January 3–9, 2021, and this weekly enumeration continued until the last week of sample collection and sequencing, which was week 18, with

corresponding dates of May 2–8, 2021. There was a median (range) of 6371 (1809–7796) RT-PCR tests performed per week. As a result, the number of positive cases fluctuated per week, from a high of 234 during week 5 to a low of 30 positive cases in week 18 (the last week of campus active testing), as the semester ended and campus vaccination rates were picking up, although routine surveillance continued through the summer and fall for unvaccinated individuals (Table 1).

The positive SARS-CoV-2 cases by RT-PCR in the campus community were placed in local context with Tippecanoe County, and it was found that Purdue accounted for roughly 35% of all positive cases during the selected time frame, with a range from a low of 15.5% in the first week to a high of 69.0% during week 9 (Figure 1A).

We performed whole-genome sequencing on 735 samples, of which 677 (92.1%) generated high-quality whole-genome sequences (≥94% of the genome with 50×). Of the 677 samples, 431 samples were sequenced in real time on a weekly basis to provide Protect Purdue with variant classification, and 246 were sequenced retrospectively to achieve the goal of ≥20% weekly cases. The successfully sequenced samples were submitted to GISAID and accounted for a total of 27.8% of all samples characterized as positive by RT-PCR tested by ADDL during the 18-week period (Table 1).

We aimed to contribute to the sequencing efforts of the state of Indiana, especially in the early weeks of this study when few laboratories were conducting weekly SARS-CoV-2 whole-genome sequencing (Figure 1B). Specifically, in the first 3 weeks, we conducted about 32% of the sequencing in the state, though there were notably fewer positive SARS-CoV-2 cases during this time (Figure 1B). As the rate of sequencing picked up in the state, we still contributed ∼10% of the sequencing weekly, until the last 2 weeks when campus cases decreased (Figure 1B). During this time frame, there were no other publicly available sequences in the GISAID database from this area, so we concluded that we performed the only sequencing of samples from Tippecanoe County, where the university is located. Accounting for all weeks included in this study, we sequenced an average (range) of 32% (19%–64%) positive cases per week (Figure 1C).

Although we successfully sequenced >90% of the samples we attempted, we performed a closer analysis to understand potential reasons for failure. Here, we analyzed CT values of the ORF1ab and N genes (S target values were not included here due to SGTF, and thus some RT-PCR results from variants like Alpha presented with values of 0) and identified 2 trends. First, when comparing the failed and successful samples, we found that the unsuccessful samples had higher median CT values (27.5) of the ORF1ab genes than the samples that generated high-quality (17.6) genomes ($P < .05$), which translates to the presence of a lower viral load (Supplementary Figure 1A). Second, we analyzed the median N gene CT values and made a similar observation that the overall median was higher ($P < .05$) for samples that failed (27.8) to generate what we considered high-quality sequences on a threshold designated as ≥94% of the genome with 50× coverage when compared with successful sequences (18.2) (Supplementary Figure 1B).

Asymptomatic vs Symptomatic Infection Status

To further understand campus transmission of SARS-CoV-2, we compared asymptomatic vs symptomatic patient status as it relates to the proportion of positive tests. Among the successfully sequenced samples, there were 41% (278) asymptomatic cases and 57% (389) symptomatic cases, with 10 cases that had unreported patient status. This pattern held true for most weeks of the study, with only 3 weeks (2, 11, and 15) having a greater percentage of asymptomatic cases than symptomatic cases (Supplementary Figure 2A). We also compared the prevalence of asymptomatic and symptomatic cases among lineages identified by the World Health Organization (WHO) as variants of concern, variants of interest, or variants being monitored (Supplementary Figure 2B). For all of the identified lineages, there were more observed symptomatic cases than asymptomatic cases, although the differences in each respective variant were not significant (Supplementary Figure 2B). We assumed an equal probability of an infected individual displaying symptoms (or not) and examined a binomial distribution with a success rate of 0.5 to analyze the distribution of cases that were asymptomatic vs symptomatic. We noted that there was an observed deviation ($P < .05$), indicating that there was asymmetry in the distribution and more symptomatic cases. This is likely due to more symptomatic cases being identified through individuals presenting themselves at the testing facility and further undercounting asymptomatic cases as these individuals are not routinely screened. It is of note that here we aggregated all data from both sampling efforts of the active and passive surveillance.

Temporal Trends of Lineages in the Campus Community and in Context

Among the 677 samples successfully sequenced from campus, we observed a total of 36 lineages as identified by Pangolin, including some singleton lineages [42]. Overall, the most common lineage identified on campus was B.1.2, which accounted for 35.4% (240) of all sequenced infections, followed by B.1.1.7 at 16.1% (109). There were 8 lineages (B.1.2, B.1.1.7, B.1.526, B.1.623, B.1.429, B.1.1.519, P.1, and B.1.234), which accounted for 90% (610) of the sequenced cases on campus. The remaining 28 identified lineages each presented in the population with a prevalence of <10 cases during the study period.

To understand transmission patterns over time, we assessed the prevalence of lineages each week (Supplementary Figure 3). These results should be interpreted taking into account that B.1.1.7 was prioritized for sequencing until week 14 (as mentioned in the "Methods"), and then random sampling was

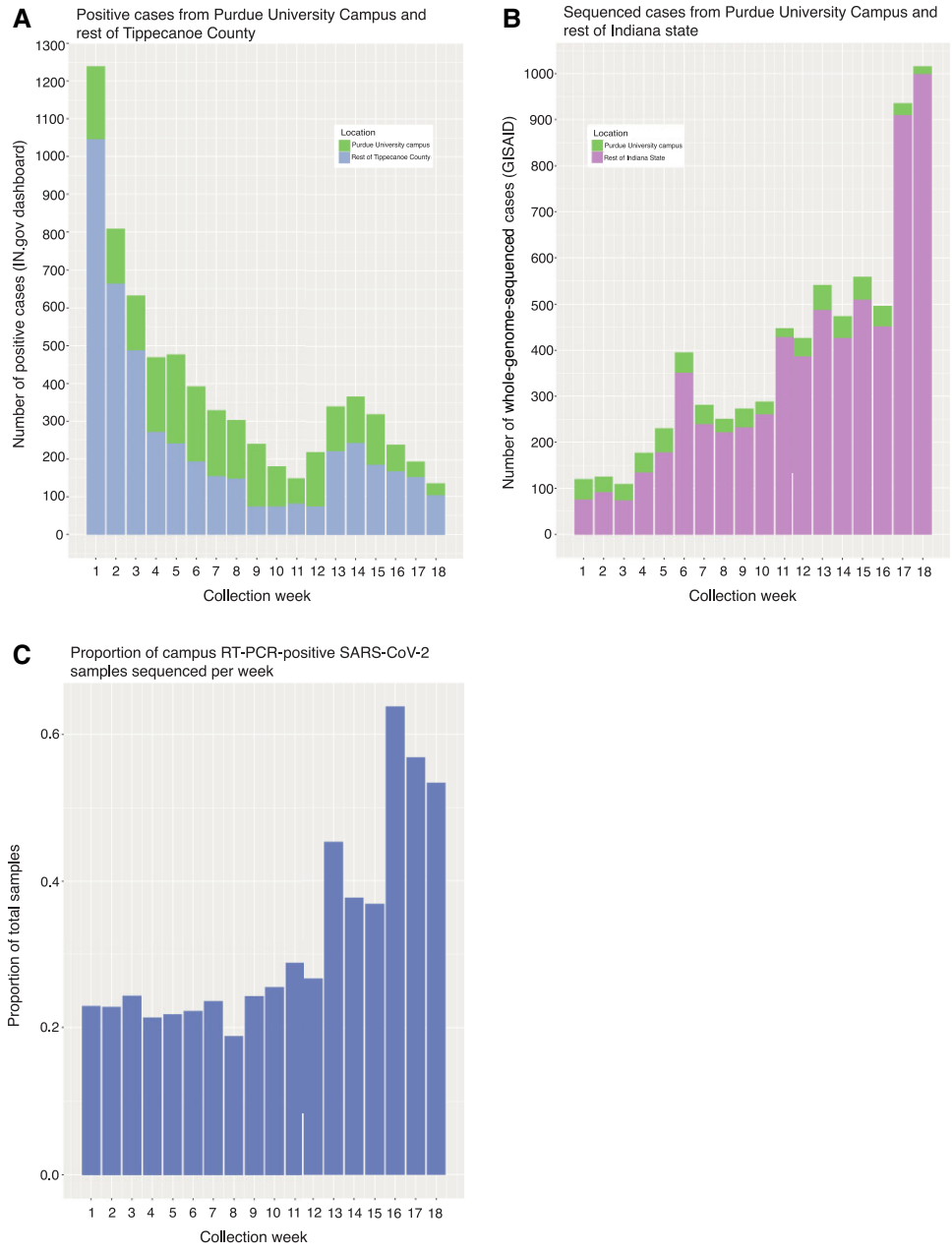

Figure 1. Positive cases and whole-genome-sequenced samples in the laboratory in the context of county positive cases, campus positive cases, and cases sequenced in the state of Indiana. A, Distribution of positive SARS-CoV-2 cases from the laboratory placed in the context of all positive cases in the same area as the university, Tippecanoe County, during the 18-week time frame. B, Number of whole-genome-sequenced SARS-CoV-2 cases from the laboratory placed in the context of all sequenced cases in the state of Indiana during the 18-week time frame. C, Proportion of campus RT-PCR-positive SARS-CoV-2 samples among students and employees on campus from the first week of January through the first week of May 2021 that were successfully whole-genome sequenced. Abbreviations: RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2.

prioritized. The most common lineage over the study period, B.1.2, accounted for >50% of sequenced cases in the first 8 weeks of this study, after which its prevalence drastically decreased (Supplementary Figure 3). Similarly, lineages B.1.1.7 and B.1.526 accounted for the majority of cases in the last 7 weeks of the study period (Supplementary Figure 3). Some lineages like B.1.623 maintained low prevalence throughout the population over the course of the 18 weeks and did not increase to levels of high prevalence or ≥50% of weekly sequenced cases (Supplementary Figure 3). Week 4 showed the presence of 12 distinct SARS-CoV-2 lineages, which was the greatest number observed in a single week (Supplementary Figure 3).

The role of less prevalent lineages in overall virus transmission and spread is not well understood, so we took a closer look

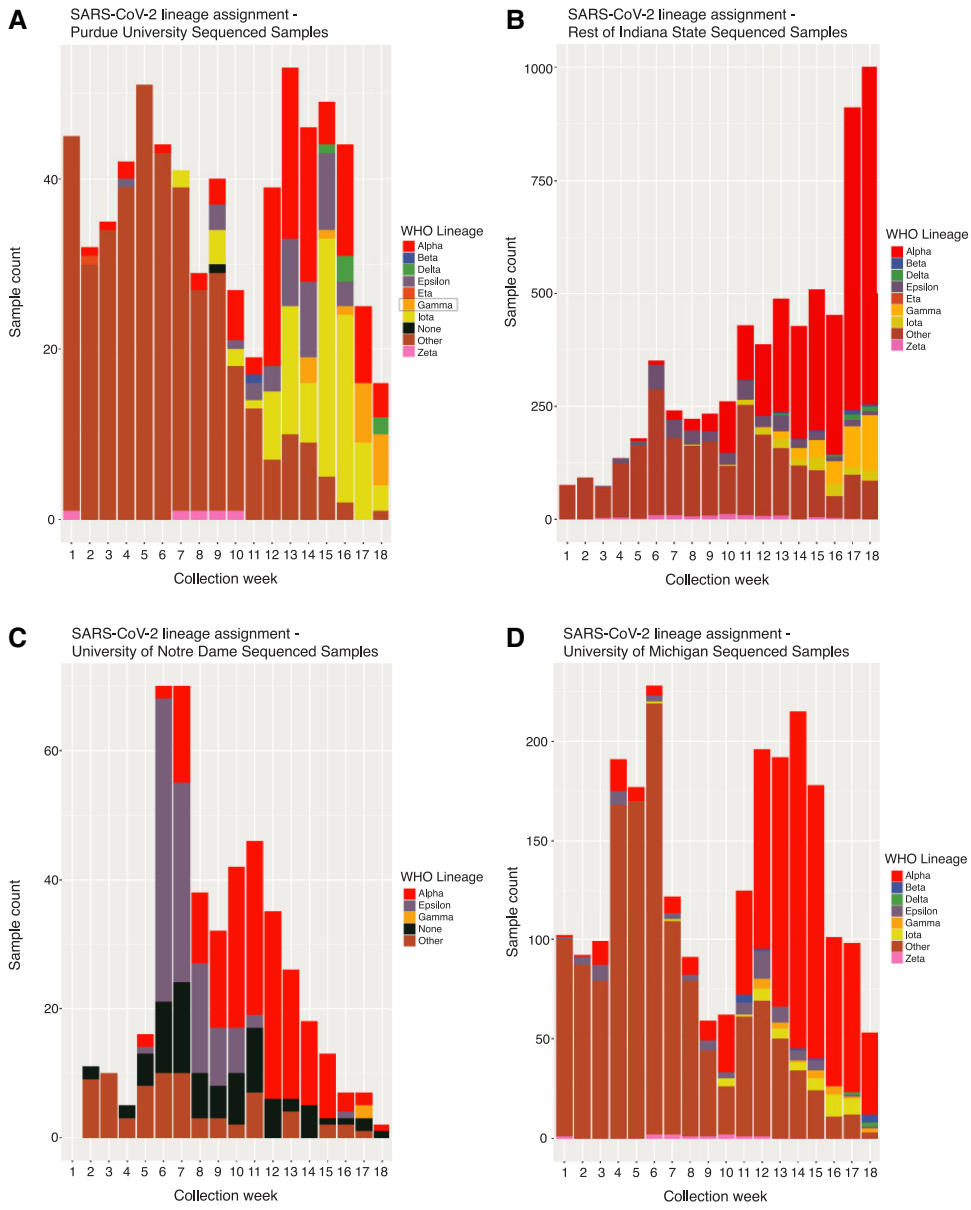

Figure 2. Distribution of SARS-CoV-2 WHO lineages classified as VOC and VBM (previously VOI or VOC) identified weekly from the first week of January through the first week of May 2021 in 4 different locations. Each color and shade represent a distinct variant. The asterisk denotes week 14, when our sampling changed from a focus on SGTF cases to all random sampling. Gamma variant is highlighted in the key as subsequent phylogeographic analyses focused on this variant. A, Number of cases of variants classified as VOC and VBM (previously VOI or VOC) per week in sequenced samples from Purdue University. Each distinct color represents 1 variant, while the brown color represents all "other" variants that do not fall in the category of VOC or VBM as of September 23, 2021, per the CDC. B, Number of cases of variants classified as VOC and VBM in sequenced samples from the rest of the state of Indiana as available on GISAID from the same time period. C, Number of cases of variants classified as VOC and VBM in sequenced samples from the University of Michigan as available on GISAID from the same time period. D, Number of cases of variants classified as VOC and VBM in sequenced samples from the University of Notre Dame as available on GISAID from the same time period. Note that y-axis scales are different due to varying weekly testing numbers, and samples identified as "None" by GISAID are likely due to lower quality in sequencing. Abbreviations: CDC, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; SGTF, S-gene target failure; VBM, variants being monitored; VOC, variants of concern; VOI, variants of interest; WHO, World Health Organization.

at variants that have previously been characterized as VOC and VOI, and some that have transitioned to VBM (Figure 2). The early weeks of the study presented with limited cases of VOC or VBM, but beginning with week 12, VOC and VBM variants accounted for most of the sequenced cases. Specifically, variants Alpha and Iota were the overwhelming majority of cases in

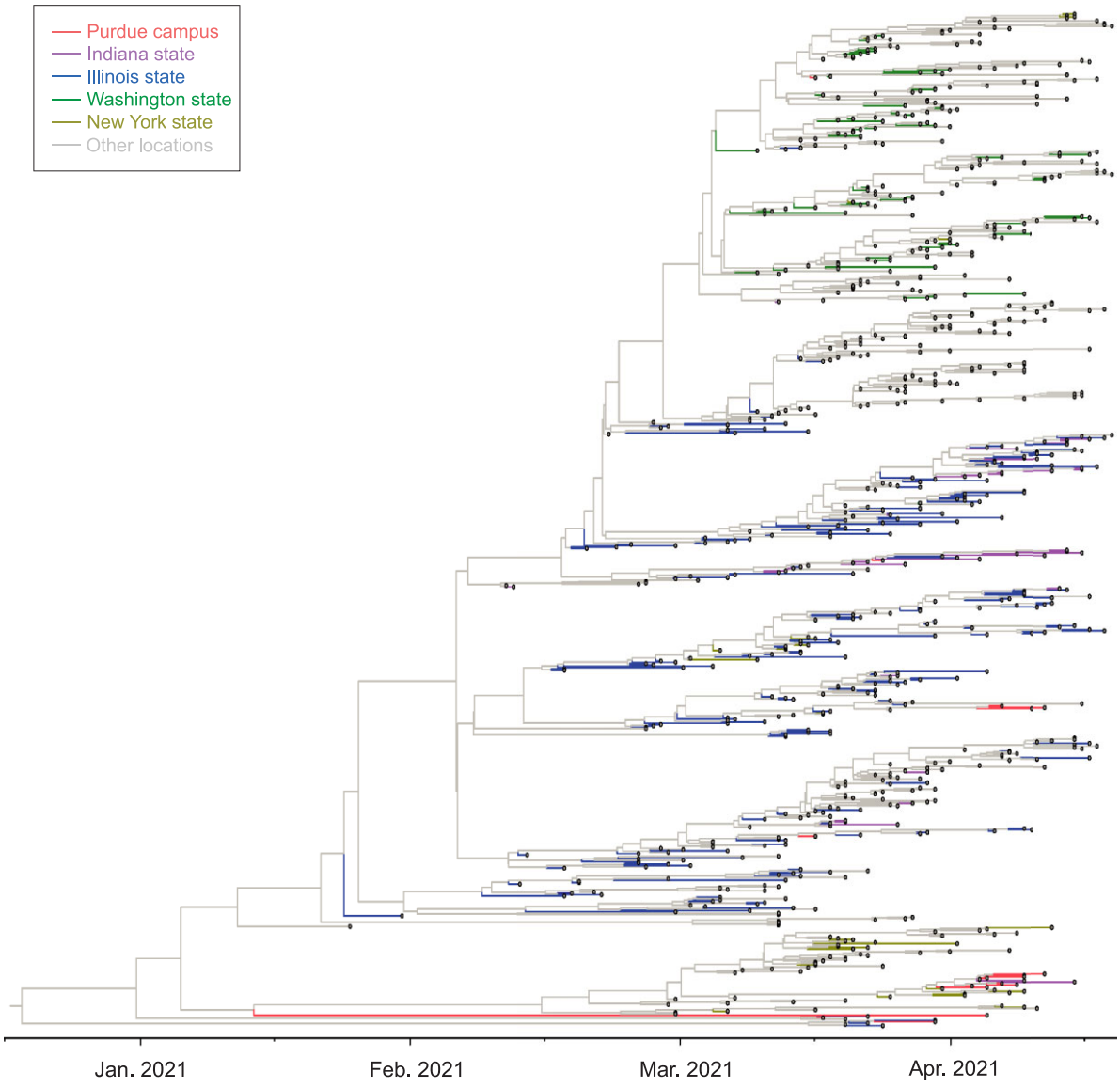

Figure 3. Multiple introductions, domestic spread of P.1 SARS-CoV-2 in the campus community. Time-informed Maximum Clade Credibility tree of Gamma variant (P.1) from Purdue genomes and circulating P.1 genomes from the United States and parts of South America. Included samples outside Purdue campus were downloaded from GISAID. The 5 colors shown (red, purple, blue, green, and yellow-green) are indicative of samples from Purdue, Indiana, Illinois, Washington, and New York, respectively, with gray denoting samples from all other locations included in analysis. The 5 colors represent the locations that had strongly supported migration rates connecting Purdue from the full model-based symmetrical discrete phylogeographic analysis. Abbreviation: SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2. A color version of this figure appears in the online version of this article.

these weeks (we focused on B.1.1.7 sequencing until week 14). While Figure 2A may be interpreted as showing a decrease in Alpha variant in the last weeks of sequencing, our results are consistent with those of the rest of the state of Indiana, as SGTF cases (and hence, Alpha) continued to increase during this time, but we did not continue sequencing with a focus on B.1.1.7 cases. Lastly, Gamma variant started to make an appearance in the last weeks of surveillance.

A comparison of lineage prevalence was conducted to place Purdue patterns in context with the broader state of Indiana, with another university in the state of Indiana (Notre Dame), and with another university in a contiguous Midwestern state (University of Michigan) from publicly available sequences on GISAID (Figure 2B and D). The overall pattern of sequenced cases was similar with that of the University of Michigan, especially during weeks 12–18, as cases reached a low peak during the middle weeks of the testing period (Figure 2D).

Phylogenetic Analysis of Gamma Variant of Purdue Sequences and in Migration Context

Bayesian phylogenetic analysis using BEAST, version 1.10, was performed to place the Purdue P.1 genomes in context with

circulating P.1 genomes from the wider community, specifically the United States and parts of South America (Figure 3). Initial analysis was used to estimate substitution model parameters for Bayesian phylogeographic analysis. Parsimony score–based analysis, performed on the posterior distribution of trees from the initial BEAST analyses in BaTS, was used to estimate the number of introductions to Purdue. The parsimony score (PS) is the number of character changes in a tree, and thus it is useful for identifying the number of transitions between geographic states. Coding the sequences as either non-Purdue or Purdue, the PS calculated was 10.0 (95% highest probability density = 10–10), suggesting 10 introductions of P.1 to the Purdue community.

We also performed pairwise estimates of PS scores to assess the association of Purdue sequences with sequences from other states as potential sources. The difference between parsimony scores estimated when Purdue and state X sequences are considered independently (ie, coded separately as "Purdue" and "state X" categories) and when they are considered jointly (ie, merged into 1 hybrid "Purdue-state X" category) is an indicator of their association and evidence that state X may be a source for Purdue P.1 sequences. These values were calculated for each discrete geographic state assigned to the final sequence alignment (Table 2). The only states with large deviations from 0 of PS values calculated independently and jointly were Illinois (4.48) and Indiana (2.78), though Washington (0.83) and New York (0.80) also had elevated PS differences; the PS differences of all other states were in the range of 0.0–0.25 (Table 3; Supplementary Table 1).

To complement the parsimony analysis of migration, we conducted full model-based symmetrical discrete phylogeographic analysis in BEAST, version 1.10.4. We coded all sequences as "Purdue," "US," "non-US," or "state X" to calculate migration rates between Purdue and specific geographic states in a pairwise fashion without the computationally costly overhead of estimating a full 41 × 41 migration matrix. Using Bayesian stochastic search variable selection and Bayes factors (BFs), we were able to identify migration rates between Purdue and particular states that had the strongest support (Table 4) [38]. The only strongly supported migration rates connecting Purdue to individual geographic states were Purdue–Illinois (BF = 1165.01) and Purdue–Indiana (BF = 1165.01) [43]. All other migration rates between Purdue and individual states were associated with BF scores <1.00, including Purdue–New York and Purdue–Washington, indicating no support for migration between Purdue and these regions in our data set.

Table 2. BaTS Parsimony Score

	Two State			
	Indiana (State)	Purdue	Indiana/Purdue	Three State
Replicate 1	22.51 (21–24)	10.00 (10–10)	27.41 (26–29)	30.19 (28–32)
Replicate 2	22.49 (21–24)	10.00 (10–10)	27.38 (26–29)	30.17 (28–32)
Replicate 3	22.51 (21–24)	10.00 (10–10)	27.40 (26–29)	30.19 (28–32)
Replicate 4	22.50 (21–24)	10.00 (10–10)	27.39 (26–29)	30.18 (28–32)
Replicate 5	22.51 (21–24)	10.00 (10–10)	27.40 (26–29)	30.18 (28–32)

Abbreviation: BaTS, Bayesian Tip association Significance testing package.

DISCUSSION

Genomic sequencing has been vital for SARS-CoV-2 surveillance and monitoring of virus spread and evolution [44]. Our

Table 3. BEAST Discrete Phylogeography 4 Rate Analysis

		Purdue State Indicator		
State	No.	Posterior	Bayes Factor	PS3–PS2
Alabama	1	0.289	0.47	0.00
Alaska	4	0.272	0.44	0.00
Arizona	3	0.263	0.42	0.00
Arkansas	1	0.287	0.47	0.00
California	82	0.188	0.27	0.00
Colorado	3	0.270	0.43	0.00
Connecticut	3	0.270	0.43	0.00
Delaware	1	0.304	0.51	0.00
Florida	78	0.156	0.22	0.03
Georgia	11	0.255	0.40	0.02
Hawaii	3	0.283	0.46	0.00
Idaho	4	0.288	0.47	0.00
Illinois	**212**	**0.999**	**1165.01**	**4.48**
Indiana	**36**	**0.999**	**1165.01**	**2.78**
Iowa	2	0.285	0.46	0.00
Kansas	5	0.269	0.43	0.00
Kentucky	1	0.288	0.47	0.00
Maryland	3	0.279	0.45	0.02
Massachusetts	29	0.230	0.35	0.00
Michigan	14	0.214	0.32	0.00
Minnesota	23	0.226	0.34	0.02
Nebraska	4	0.276	0.44	0.07
Nevada	2	0.284	0.46	0.00
New Hampshire	1	0.282	0.46	0.00
New Jersey	7	0.254	0.40	0.05
New Mexico	1	0.291	0.48	0.00
New York	27	0.270	0.43	0.80
North Carolina	4	0.261	0.41	0.00
Ohio	23	0.249	0.39	0.00
Oregon	2	0.270	0.43	0.00
Pennsylvania	11	0.237	0.36	0.00
Rhode Island	4	0.255	0.40	0.00
South Carolina	10	0.262	0.41	0.00
Tennessee	7	0.261	0.41	0.00
Texas	27	0.214	0.32	0.17
Vermont	1	0.284	0.47	0.00
Virginia	1	0.286	0.47	0.00
Washington	68	0.325	0.56	0.83
Wisconsin	25	0.209	0.31	0.18
Washington, DC	2	0.277	0.45	0.00

Bolded rows represent the only two individual geographic states which had strongly supported migration rates connecting Purdue to them.

Table 4. BaTS Maximum Clade Size

	Two State			
	Indiana (State)	Purdue	Indiana/Purdue	Three State
Replicate 1	6.09 (6–7)	3.25 (3–5)	11.00 (11–11)	Not independent
Replicate 2	6.09 (6–7)	3.24 (3–5)	11.00 (11–11)	Not independent
Replicate 3	6.09 (6–7)	3.25 (3–5)	11.00 (11–11)	Not independent
Replicate 4	6.08 (6–7)	3.25 (3–5)	11.00 (11–11)	Not independent
Replicate 5	6.09 (6–7)	3.24 (3–5)	11.00 (11–11)	Not independent

Abbreviation: BaTS, Bayesian Tip association Significance testing package.

university-based SARS-CoV-2 genomic study helps inform a better understanding of community transmission at a public university with a huge population amid a pandemic. This work provides an important baseline of a SARS-CoV-2 community surveillance study following the first US COVID-19 outbreak and before mass vaccination was implemented. Overall, we were able to successfully achieve viral genomic sequencing of an average of 32% of weekly cases confirmed SARS-CoV-2 positive by RT-PCR throughout the study period. This percentage is consistent with other studies conducted in a university setting, and higher than other studies done in similarly localized population- or state-level sequencing efforts in states like New York, which aims to sequence 15% of weekly samples to pick up trends over time, although it is important to keep in mind the large difference in population and thus overall positive case counts in the latter setting [16, 19, 20, 45]. A total of 677 whole genomes were successfully sequenced from the Purdue campus over the course of the 18-week study period, taking into account differences in actual case number positivity and testing per week in the community.

Our study undoubtedly provided situational awareness of virus lineages that circulated on campus during the study period. In addition, we believe it provided more guidance with respect to some transmission mitigation measures that were implemented; for instance, generally within 72 hours of receiving the samples, we shared the findings of variant detection with the CDC and concurrently with local authorities and the Protect Purdue task force, which then conducted contact tracing. As many students live in congregate housing and university residences, this is essential to limit transmission. Moreover, due to its increased transmissibility, the Alpha variant prompted the actionable measure of extending the isolation time for individuals located on campus with the aim of further preventing transmission.

We then compared our observed WHO-denoted lineage patterns with those of other communities during the same 18 weeks based on publicly available sequences on GISAID: first, to the state of Indiana; second, to the University of Notre Dame in South Bend, Indiana; and third, to the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, Michigan. We selected these 3 scenarios to place the Purdue lineage patterns in a broader picture and to draw comparisons with 2 other universities that have performed some campus sequencing. This study sequenced 677 samples from the university from the first week of January through the first week of May 2021, the University of Notre Dame provided 448 samples, the University of Michigan had 2381 sequences, and the rest of the state of Indiana had 6467. The number of sequenced cases for Purdue University, the University of Notre Dame, and the University of Michigan decreased greatly in the last 2 weeks as the semester was ending in all 3 locations, while the state of Indiana continued to increase the number of sequenced weekly cases. While we cannot directly compare due to a lack of details regarding specific sampling strategies used in the sequencing of the samples found in GISAID, we can observe patterns based on the publicly available data. For instance, the overall picture of lineage patterns is similar among all 4 settings in that during the early weeks of the study period, the most dominant variants were non-VOC or VBM as characterized by the CDC. The University of Notre Dame saw the earliest shift from this pattern, with the sequenced samples showing a high percentage of VBM (namely Epsilon) in week 6. In contrast, both the state of Indiana and the University of Michigan started showing the majority presence of VBM Alpha in week 10, while Purdue University followed suit in week 12. While the overall picture of Purdue University's lineage distribution was like that of the university of Michigan, much of the latter's distribution was dominated by Alpha variant and other non-VBM or -VOC variants, while Purdue had a great proportion of multiple VBM variants such as Iota, especially in weeks 12–18. Purdue University saw the earliest case of Alpha variant due to increased surveillance and a focus on sequencing SGTF samples, followed by the University of Michigan, which saw the first sequenced Alpha case during the third week of the study period. It is possible, however, that these observed patterns are driven by individual study group sampling schemes (eg, if 1 cohort focused only on sequencing specific samples rather than random selection).

Additionally, based on the sequenced samples, Purdue University saw a greater prevalence of VOC when compared with the rest of the state of Indiana. While we cannot say with certitude why this was observed, we can provide a few suppositions: (1) as VOCs were much more transmissible, it is possible that the congregate and dorm-style living on campus contributed to transmission on campus once the variants were introduced; (2) the sequencing facilities had different sample selection strategies, which led to detection of other variants; and (3) the campus population experienced more travel in the community than the individuals who tested positive from the state.

Variant Gamma, first documented in Brazil in November 2020, was recognized as a VOC by the US CDC and WHO and has been associated with increased transmissibility and

reinfection [46–48]. We chose to conduct an in-depth phylogeographic analysis of Gamma because we wanted to investigate a VOC that emerged internationally as Purdue has a large international population. We recognize that other variants like Iota reached higher prevalence in our study community and further investigation of such variants could be conducted, but we decided to focus on Gamma, which was rising in prevalence toward the end of the 18-week study. In this study, it was observed that Gamma started to appear on campus in greater prevalence toward the last weeks of the surveillance period, and we sought to understand source and introduction events. Parsimony score–based phylogenetic analysis indicated that there were 10 independent introductions of Gamma variant into the Purdue community during this period. Further analysis looking at other states as potential sources for Purdue Gamma variant sequences showed that the sole supported sources of introductions to the Purdue community were Illinois, Indiana, Washington, and New York. These results were also supported by a complimentary discrete phylogeographic analysis, with the highest levels of support in migration rates for Illinois and Indiana, with lower levels of support for New York and Washington. Moreover, these results are consistent with an epidemiological link, with 3 of these cases having confirmed travel history in Illinois. However, due to the limited travel history provided by the tested individuals, we are unable to correlate all the multiple introductions as determined by the phylogeographic analysis with epidemiological and travel data. Domestic spread and multiple introductions of Gamma variant are also consistent with results from another study investigating transmission of P.1 in New England [49]. Overall, our finding reflects the fact that Purdue University has a high rate of in-state and Midwestern students who likely traveled home immediately before or during the sampling period.

This study had some limitations, including the fact that we used 2 sampling schemes, as our first goal was to ensure that we were tracking active cases of SGTF for proper case and contact isolation, and the second was to sequence more cases to gain a better understanding of transmission. Moreover, it was not possible to compare our results with other sequencing data within the county or neighboring counties as no data were available on GISAID. Due to inadequacies of SARS-CoV-2 genomic surveillance in many places across the United States, our estimates of introductions of Gamma variant to the campus may be biased toward states that had higher sequencing efforts and enhanced genomic surveillance.

Indeed, there is substantial variation by US state in the number of genomes deposited in the GISAID database (total n = 714 368 through June 2021 with assigned US state origin) (Supplementary Table 2). Through June 2021, the median number of total genome sequences deposited for US states was 6910.5, with a mean of 14 287 and a range of 732 (South Dakota) to 102 988 (California). The collection of GISAID P.1/Gamma genomes available as of July 2021 was also skewed by US state, with a median of 60 P.1 sequences (range of 3 [South Dakota] to 2035 [Illinois]). However, the correlation between the total number of SARS-CoV-2 sequences with state of origins data through June 2021 in GISAID and state population sizes (US Census Bureau; https://data.census.gov) is substantial (Pearson's $r = 0.91$); this may indicate that variation in sequenced genomes per state is the direct product of proportional differences in state population or that proportional differences in state population size drove differences in sample collection and sequencing. The correlation with state population also holds for the total number of P.1 genomes in GISAID through June 2021 (Pearson's $r = 0.58$). Interestingly, the number of samples from each state in our contextual P.1 genome data set is also highly correlated with the number of samples from each state in the data set of all P.1 genomes (Pearson's $r = 0.90$); this is so despite the exclusion of all genomes not closely related to the sampled genomes from Purdue, which constituted only ~4% of all P.1 sequences in GISAID. This may reflect the rapid spread of P.1 through the United States by the summer of 2021, during which the P.1 lineage accumulated diversity at a pace (0.0008 sub/site/year or ~2 sub/month) relative to its geographic diffusion that precluded the establishment of sublineages associated with particularly narrow geographic distributions. Despite this, we were able to identify clear geographic patterns of relatedness between viral genomes indicative of geographic sources for P.1 genomes sampled from the Purdue community.

CONCLUSIONS

By implementing SARS-CoV-2 genomic sequencing nested within passive and active surveillance over the course of 1 semester at Purdue University, we were able to investigate SARS-CoV-2 transmission dynamics in a university setting. We identified variants of differing levels of concern in the 677 newly sequenced viral genomes and compared variant temporal trends with other similar university settings and in a broader context using publicly available data. Further phylodynamic analysis of Gamma (P.1) genomes from campus revealed multiple introductions into the Purdue community, predominantly from states within the United States. We show that robust surveillance programs coupled with viral genomic sequencing and phylogenetic analysis can provide critical insights into SARS-CoV-2 transmission dynamics and variant arrival and spread in universities and can help inform mitigation strategies for future waves, especially as SARS-CoV-2 continues to circulate and evolve.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary materials are available at *Open Forum Infectious Diseases* online (http://jpids.oxfordjournals.org). Supplementary materials consist

of data provided by the author that are published to benefit the reader. The posted materials are not copyedited. The contents of all supplementary data are the sole responsibility of the authors. Questions or messages regarding errors should be addressed to the author.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Purdue University for conducting on-campus SARS-CoV-2 testing and surveillance. We also thank the ADDL staff for performing RT-PCR on all samples. Lastly, we thank the groups that continuously make their sequencing data available to the public.

Financial support. This work was supported by funds to G.C. from the Department of Biological Sciences at Purdue University and partially by Protect Purdue funds to G.C. This work was also supported by the Puskas Memorial Fellowship and the Frederick N. Andrews Fellowships from the Purdue University Graduate School awarded to I.C.

Potential conflicts of interest. All authors: no reported conflicts of interest. All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

Author contributions. I.C., J.D., and G.C. designed the research study. G.C., G.K.H., and R.P.W. coordinated the sample selection. G.K.H. and R.P.W. provided samples and epidemiological data. J.D., I.C., N.P., and J.K. generated sequencing data. G.C., J.D., and L.G. performed bioinformatics analysis. A.K., I.C., A.Z. and G.C. analyzed sequencing data and performed the phylogenetic analyses. I.C. drafted the initial manuscript. All authors read, reviewed, and approved the final manuscript.

References

1. Dong E, Du H, Gardner L. An interactive web-based dashboard to track COVID-19 in real time. Lancet Infect Dis **2020**; 20:533–4.
2. Wu F, Zhao S, Yu B, et al. A new coronavirus associated with human respiratory disease in China. Nature **2020**; 579:265–9.
3. Zhu N, Zhang D, Wang W, et al. A novel coronavirus from patients with pneumonia in China, 2019. N Engl J Med **2020**; 382:727–33.
4. Morais IJ, Polveiro RC, Souza GM, Bortolin DI, Sassaki FT, Lima ATM. The global population of SARS-CoV-2 is composed of six major subtypes. Sci Rep **2020**; 10:18289.
5. Brufsky A. Distinct viral clades of SARS-CoV-2: implications for modeling of viral spread. J Med Virol **2020**; 92:1386–90.
6. Wang C, Liu Z, Chen Z, et al. The establishment of reference sequence for SARS-CoV-2 and variation analysis. J Med Virol **2020**; 92:667–74.
7. CDC. Variants of the virus. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/variants/about-variants.html. Accessed December 22, 2021.
8. CDC. SARS-CoV-2 variant classifications and definitions. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/variants/variant-classifications.html. Accessed December 13, 2021.
9. CDC. COVID-19 information for specific groups of people. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/need-extra-precautions/index.html. Accessed December 14, 2021.
10. Boehmer TK, DeVies J, Caruso E, et al. Changing age distribution of the COVID-19 pandemic United States, May–August 2020. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep **2020**; 69:1404–9.
11. Oates M. Purdue announces fall enrollment numbers. Available at: https://www.purdue.edu/newsroom/releases/2020/Q3/purdue-announces-fall-enrollment-numbers.html. Accessed August 7, 2021.
12. Purdue. Protect Purdue COVID-19 dashboard. Available at: https://protect.purdue.edu/timeline/. Accessed August 12, 2021.
13. Purdue. Protect Purdue plan. Available at: https://protect.purdue.edu/plan/. Accessed August 12, 2021.
14. Walke HT, Honein MA, Redfield RR. Preventing and responding to COVID-19 on college campuses. JAMA **2020**; 324:1727–8.
15. Hamer DH, White LF, Jenkins HE, et al. Assessment of a COVID-19 control plan on an urban university campus during a second wave of the pandemic. JAMA Netw Open **2021**; 4:e2116425.
16. Avendano C, Lilienfeld A, Rulli L, et al. SARS-CoV-2 variant tracking and mitigation suring in-person learning at a Midwestern university in the 2020–2021 school year. JAMA Netw Open **2022**; 5:e2146805.
17. Petros BA, Turcinovic J, Welch NL, et al. Early introduction and rise of the Omicron SARS-CoV-2 variant in highly vaccinated university populations. Clin Infect Dis **2022**:ciac413. doi:10.1093/cid/ciac413.
18. Meredith LW, Hamilton WL, Warne B, et al. Rapid implementation of SARS-CoV-2 sequencing to investigate cases of health-care associated COVID-19: a prospective genomic surveillance study. Lancet Infect Dis **2020**; 20:1263–71.
19. Valesano AL, Fitzsimmons WJ, Blair CN, et al. SARS-CoV-2 genomic surveillance reveals little spread from a large university campus to the surrounding community. Open Forum Infect Dis **2021**; 8:1–8.
20. Aggarwal D, Fieldman T, Warne B; COVID-19 Genomics UK (COG-UK) Consortium UK and the University of Cambridge Asymptomatic COVID-19 Screening Programme Consortium. Genomic epidemiology of SARS-CoV-2 in the University of Cambridge identifies dynamics of transmission: an interim report, 10 December 2020. Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/genomic-epidemiology-of-sars-cov-2-in-the-university-of-cambridge-identifies-dynamics-of-transmission-an-interim-report-10-december-2020. Accessed September 6, 2021.
21. Ramirez E, Wilkes RP, Carpi G, et al. SARS-Cov-2 breakthrough infections in fully vaccinated individuals in a university setting. J Infect Dis Ther **2021**; 9:468.
22. Rebmann T, Loux TM, Arnold LD, Charney R, Horton D, Gomel A. SARS-CoV-2 transmission to masked and unmasked close contacts of university students with COVID-19 - St. Louis, Missouri, January-May 2021. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep **2021**; 70:1245–8.
23. Nixon E, Thomas A, Stocks D, et al. Impacts of vaccination and asymptomatic testing on SARS-CoV-2 transmission dynamics in a university setting. medRxiv 2021.11.22.21266565 [Preprint]. 15 December 2021. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.11.22.21266565. Accessed January 4, 2022.
24. Weil AA, Sohlberg SL, O'Hanlon JA, et al. SARS-CoV-2 epidemiology on a public university campus in Washington State. Open Forum Infect Dis **2021**; 8:1–13.
25. Johnson KE, Woody S, Lachmann M, et al. Early estimates of SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.7 variant emergence in a university setting. Emerg Infect Dis **2021**; 27:3188–90.
26. Hill EM, Atkins BD, Keeling MJ, Tildesley MJ, Dyson L. Modelling SARS-CoV-2 transmission in a UK university setting. Epidemics **2021**; 36:100476.
27. CDC. Emerging SARS-CoV-2 variants. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/science/science-briefs/scientific-brief-emerging-variants.html. Accessed December 7, 2021.
28. CDC. Longhorn PrimeStore® molecular transport medium fact sheet. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/downloads/lab/Longhorn-Molecular-Transport-Medium.pdf. Accessed December 7, 2021.
29. Quick J. nCoV-2019 sequencing protocol. Version 3 (LoCost). **2020**. Available at: https://www.protocols.io/view/ncov-2019-sequencing-protocol-v3-locost-bp2l6n26rgqe/v3. Accessed March 3, 2021.
30. Hacker T, Yang B, McCartney G. Empowering faculty: a campus cyberinfrastructure strategy for research communities. Educause Review 2014.
31. Maji AK, Gorenstein L, Lentner G. Demystifying Python package installation with conda-env-mod. Paper presented at: 2020 IEEE/ACM International Workshop on HPC User Support Tools (HUST) and Workshop on Programming and Performance Visualization Tools (ProTools). 18 November 2020. Georgia, USA.
32. Robinson JT, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Winckler W, et al. Integrative genomics viewer. Nat Biotechnol **2011**; 29:24–6.
33. Aksamentov I, Roemer C, Hodcroft EB, Neher RA. Nextclade: clade assignment, mutation calling and quality control for viral genomes. J Open Source Softw **2021**; 6:3773.
34. Rambaut A, Holmes EC, O'Toole Á, et al. A dynamic nomenclature proposal for SARS-CoV-2 lineages to assist genomic epidemiology. Nat Microbiol **2020**; 5: 1403–7.
35. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. Mol Biol Evol **2013**; 30:772–80.
36. Katoh K, Misawa K, Kuma K-i, Miyata T. MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. Nucleic Acids Res **2002**; 30:3059–66.
37. Suchard MA, Lemey P, Baele G, Ayres DL, Drummond AJ, Rambaut A. Bayesian phylogenetic and phylodynamic data integration using BEAST 1.10. Virus Evol **2018**; 4:vey016.
38. Lemey P, Rambaut A, Drummond AJ, Suchard MA. Bayesian phylogeography finds its roots. PLoS Comput Biol **2009**; 5:e1000520.
39. Ghafari M, du Plessis L, Pybus O, Katzourakis A. Time dependence of SARS-CoV-2 substitution rates. **2020**. Available at: https://virological.org/t/time-dependence-of-sars-cov-2-substitution-rates/542. Accessed November 18, 2021.
40. Parker J, Rambaut A, Pybus OG. Correlating viral phenotypes with phylogeny: accounting for phylogenetic uncertainty. Infect Genet Evol **2008**; 8:239–46.
41. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. J R Stat Soc Series B Stat Methodol **1995**; 57:289–300.
42. O'Toole Á, Scher E, Underwood A, et al. Assignment of epidemiological lineages in an emerging pandemic using the pangolin tool. Virus Evol **2021**; 7:veab064.

43. Kass RE, Raftery AE. Bayes factors. J Am Stat Assoc **1995**; 90:773–95.
44. Morris CP, Luo CH, Amadi A, et al. An update on severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 diversity in the US National Capital Region: evolution of novel and variants of concern. Clin Infect Dis **2022**; 74:1419–28.
45. Constantino AK, Kopecki D, Kimball S. New York officials confirm 5 cases of COVID Omicron variant in NYC metro area. *CNBC*. 2 December 2021.
46. Imai M, Halfmann PJ, Yamayoshi S, et al. Characterization of a new SARS-CoV-2 variant that emerged in Brazil. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **2021**; 118:e2106535118.
47. Faria NR, Mellan TA, Whittaker C, et al. Genomics and epidemiology of a novel SARS-CoV-2 lineage in Manaus, Brazil. Science **2021**; 372:815–21.
48. Fujino T, Nomoto H, Kutsuna S, et al. Novel SARS-CoV-2 variant in travelers from Brazil to Japan. Emerg Infect Dis **2021**; 27:1243–45.
49. Brown C, Doucette M, Fink T, et al. Detection of a large cluster and multiple introductions of the P.1 SARS-CoV-2 variant of concern in Massachusetts. **2021**. Available at: https://virological.org/t/detection-of-a-large-cluster-and-multiple-introductions-of-the-p-1-sars-cov-2-variant-of-concern-in-massachusetts/671. Accessed October 17, 2021.