A large-scale serological survey in pets from October 2020 through June 2021 in France

shows significantly higher exposure to SARS-CoV-2 in cats

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Abstract

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) can infect many animals, including pets

such as dogs and cats. Many studies have documented infection in companion animals by bio-

molecular and serological methods. However, only a few have compared seroprevalence in cats and

dogs from the general population, and these studies were limited by small sample sizes and collections

over short periods. Our goal was to obtain a more accurate evaluation of seroprevalence in companion

animals in France and to determine whether cats and dogs differ in their exposure to SARS-CoV-2. For

this purpose, we conducted an extensive SARS-CoV-2 serological survey of 2036 cats and 3577 dogs

sampled by veterinarians during medical examinations in clinics throughout France. Sampling was

carried out from October 2020 through June 2021, a period encompassing the second and third waves

of SARS-CoV-2 infections in humans in the country. Using a microsphere immunoassay targeting

receptor binding domain and trimeric spike protein, we found 7.1% seroprevalence in pets, in a subset

of 308 seropositive samples, 26.3% had neutralizing antibodies. We found that cats were significantly

more likely to test positive than dogs, with seropositivity rates of 9.3% and 5.9% in cats and dogs,

respectively. Finally, data for both species showed that seroprevalence was lower in older animals and

was not associated with the date of sampling or the sex of the animal. Our results show that cats are

significantly more sensitive to SARS-CoV-2 than dogs, in line with experimental studies showing that

cats are more susceptible than dogs. This study reinforces that pets are commonly infected or exposed

to SARS-CoV-2, emphasizing the importance of a One-Health approach to the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic

and raising the question of vaccination of companion animals in close contact with humans.

Introduction

Two months after the onset of SARS-CoV-2 circulation in the human population, the first cases of

natural SARS-CoV-2 infection in pets were officially reported in Hong Kong in two dogs (Sit et al., 2020).

Since then, viral RNA and SARS-CoV-2 antibodies have been detected in several dogs and cats, mostly

belonging to COVID-19 infected owners (Barrs et al., 2020; Hamer et al., 2021; Jairak et al., 2021; Krafft

et al., 2021). Furthermore, several studies have demonstrated that the risk of pets testing seropositive

was higher in COVID-19+ households than for pets from households of unknown status (Barroso,

Vieira-Pires, Antunes, & Fidalgo-Carvalho, 2022; Colitti et al., 2021; Fritz et al., 2021; Patterson et al.,

2020; Stevanovic et al., 2021).

A recent study from Thailand reports a suspected case of SARS-CoV-2 transmission from a cat to a

human (Sila et al., 2022). Dog-to-human transmission has yet to be described. Given that 200 million

cats and dogs live in close proximity to humans in Europe (The European Pet Food Industry, 2020),

there is ample opportunity for such transmission, from cats or dogs, and the potential risks need to be

carefully considered.

Several population-based serological studies of dogs and cats have found SARS-CoV-2 antibodies. In

dogs, seroprevalence has ranged from 0% to 14.5% (Barroso-Arévalo et al., 2021; Barroso et al., 2022;

Barua et al., 2021; Dileepan et al., 2021; Laidoudi et al., 2021; Pomorska-Mól et al., 2021; Smith et al.,

2021; Stevanovic et al., 2021; Stevanovic et al., 2020; Udom et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). In cats,

seroprevalence has ranged from 0% to 21.7% (Barroso et al., 2022; Barua et al., 2021; Dileepan et al.,

2021; A. Michelitsch, Hoffmann, Wernike, & Beer, 2020; Anna Michelitsch, Schön, Hoffmann, Beer, &

Wernike, 2021; Schulz et al., 2021; Udom et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020). Among these studies, five

directly compared cat and dog seroprevalence. Some experimental and epidemiological studies

suggest that cats are more susceptible to infection than dogs (Barroso et al., 2022; Bosco-Lauth et al.,

2020; Colitti et al., 2021; Dileepan et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2020), although significant species differences

have not always been observed (Barroso-Arévalo et al., 2021; Pomorska-Mól et al., 2021; Stevanovic

et al., 2020). For both species, seroprevalence was highly dependent on the period of sampling (first,

second wave *etc.*), the assay used (ELISA, seroneutralization, etc.), and the country of sampling (China,

Croatia, Germany, Italy, Netherland, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Thailand, United-Kingdom, USA).

Moreover, most of these studies had important limitations (low number of enrolled animals, a short

sampling period, etc.), curtailing their ability to reach definitive conclusions on the frequency and

impact of pet infections on COVID-19 epidemiology.

To provide more data about SARS-CoV-2 infection in companion animals, we have conducted a large-

scale serological survey of SARS-CoV-2 infections in cats and dogs from October 2020 through June

2021 living in French households.

Materials and Methods

Sampling

Nation-wide sampling was possible thanks to a network of veterinary clinics spread across France

working with VEBIO, a veterinary diagnostic laboratory. No inclusion and exclusion criteria were

applied for the selection of blood samples, except that they came only from veterinary clinics working

with VEBIO. VEBIO notified the veterinary clinics that serum remaining following requested biomedical

analyses could be used in a SARS-CoV-2 research project. No specific request for samples was

addressed to the vets. Thus, the SARS-CoV-2 analysis is based on samples collected during the regular

activities of the vets.

In detail, sample collection was done as follows. Blood samples were collected in dry/EDTA tubes from

dogs and cats during routine healthcare visits or for diagnostic purposes at veterinary clinics. After

centrifugation, the serum/plasma was kept at +4 °C until it was sent to VEBIO. Shipping was conducted

under safe and rapid conditions to avoid contamination and ensure samples reached VEBIO within 48

h. Next, an aliquot was taken from the sample to perform the requested biomedical analyses. Another

aliquot was stored at +4 °C until being sent to the MIVEGEC lab, Montpellier, where serological

analyses were carried out. For shipping to the MIVEGEC lab, all samples were placed at +4 °C and

transported by an approved professional carrier to ensure optimal safety conditions. Finally, the

samples were stored at the MIVEGEC lab at −20 °C until testing (Figure 1). For shipping to the CIRI lab,

SARS-CoV-2 positive samples detected by MIA were transported by an approved professional carrier

at -20°C to ensure optimal safety conditions. Data (age, sex, clinical history, region localization when

available) from dogs and cats were provided anonymized by VEBIO to the MIVEGEC lab.

Figure 1. Logistics of sample collection and distribution in the study. Sera collected during routine

healthcare visits by veterinarians throughout France were first sent to VEBIO in Ile-de-France. Aliquots

of the samples were then made and sent to the IRD in Montpellier (Hérault) via an approved

transporter.

Ethics

According to the act governing the "use of live animals for scientific purposes" effective in France on

14 January 2022, ethical approval was not sought or required since all pets were sampled by a

veterinarian during a health care visit. All applicable international and national guidelines for the care

of pets were followed.

Microsphere Immunoassay (MIA)

Dog and cat serum samples were tested using a multiplex microsphere immunoassay (MIA). Ten µg of

two recombinant SARS-CoV-2 antigens, receptor-binding domain (RBD) and trimeric spike (tri-S) both

derived from the Whuhan-Hu-1 strain (The Native Antigen Company, Kidlington United-Kingdom),

were used to capture specific serum antibodies. Distinct MagPlex microsphere sets (Luminex Corp,

Austin, TX, USA) were respectively coupled to viral antigens using the amine coupling kit (Bio-Rad

Laboratories, Marnes-la-Coquette, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Microsphere

mixtures were successively incubated with serum samples (1:400), biotinylated protein A and

biotinylated protein G (4 µg/mL each) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France), and streptavidin-R-

phycoerythrin (4 µg/mL) (Life technologies, Illkirch, France) on an orbital shaker and protected from

light. Measurements were performed using a Luminex 200 instrument (Luminex Corp, Austin, TX, USA),

and at least 100 events were read for each bead set. Binding events were displayed as median

fluorescence intensities (MFI). Specific seropositivity cut-off values for each antigen were set at three

standard deviations above the mean MFI of pre-pandemic serum from 53 dogs and 30 cats sampled

before 2019. These samples were stored in biobanks at the IRD and VetAgro Sup. MIA specificity was

set for each antigen at 96.2% for dogs and 100% for cats based on the pre-pandemic populations. MIA

was first validated using sera from two COVID-19 PCR+ humans, kindly provided by Meriadeg Ar Gouilh,

and then with sera from SARS-CoV-2 PCR+ cats and dogs, provided by several veterinarians.

Neutralization activity measurement

An MLV-based pseudoparticle carrying a GFP reporter pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein

(Wuhan-Hu-1 strain) (SARS-CoV-2pp) was used to measure the neutralizing antibody activity in cat and

dog sera. Each SARS-CoV-2 positive sample detected by MIA was processed according to a

neutralization procedure as previously described (Legros et al., 2021). Briefly, for neutralization assays,

a sample of ~1×10^3 pseudoparticles was incubated with a 100-fold dilution of sera or control

antibodies for 1 h at 37 °C before infection of Vero-E6R cells. At 72 h post-transduction, the percentage

of GFP-positive cells was determined by flow cytometry (at least 10 000 events recorded). The level of

infectivity is expressed as the percentage of GFP-positive cells and compared to cells infected with

SARS-CoV-2pp incubated without serum. As a control, the same procedure was done using RD114

pseudoparticles to identify sera with unspecific neutralization. Sera exhibiting more than 30% SARS-

CoV-2pp neutralization were considered positive. Pre-pandemic serum from France was used as a

negative control, and an anti-SARS-CoV-2 RBD antibody was used as a positive control.

Statistical analyses

Fisher's exact test and binomial generalized linear models have been used. All computations were

performed with the R software (R Development Core Team, 2018).

Results

Blood collection

Blood samples of 2036 cats and 3577 dogs were collected during routine healthcare visits by

veterinarians from October 2020 through June 2021. Samples came from all 13 regions of metropolitan

France. Corsica was then excluded due to too few samples. Almost half of the samples came from Ile-

de-France, the region including Paris, reflecting population density and proximity to the Veterinary

diagnostic laboratory (VEBIO), where all samples for biomedical analyses requested by the

veterinarians were handled (Materials and Methods). The number of remaining samples received from

the other French regions largely depended on the number of veterinarians working with VEBIO in those

regions (Figure 2). When available, each animal's age, sex, and location were provided anonymized by

VEBIO. Unfortunately, we could not study the clinical history of the animals due to variability in how

each veterinarian reported this information.

Figure 2. (a). Map of France showing the number of SARS-CoV-2-positive cat sera per region. The total number of sera samples collected per region is indicated. Seroprevalence in each region is indicated as a percentage. Regions are shaded in green according to seroprevalence. The total number of sera samples and global seroprevalence for France is provided in the top left corner. **(b). Map of France showing the number of SARS-CoV-2-positive dog sera per region.** The total number of sera samples collected per region is indicated. Seroprevalence in each region is indicated as a percentage. Regions are shaded in orange according to seroprevalence. The total number of sera samples and global seroprevalence for France is provided in the top left corner

Global seroprevalence

All 5613 sera samples were tested by Microsphere Immunoassay (MIA) against Receptor-binding domain (RBD) and trimeric Spike (tri-S) antigens. Specific seropositivity cut-offs were established for each antigen and species (Materials and Methods). To account for isotypic variability and the excellent specificity observed for both antigens, an animal was determined to be positive for SARS-CoV-2 antibodies following a positive result for at least one of the two tests.

For the sera samples, 401 (7.1%) showed a positive result either against RBD, tri-S, or both (Supplementary Table 1). We next determined the presence of antibodies with neutralizing activity among the positive sera. To save time, we randomly tested approximately 75% (308) of positive sera samples using a retrovirus-based pseudoparticle assay detecting SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies (Materials and Methods). Pets were considered positive if they showed at least 30% of neutralization. Seroneutralizing activity was detected in 81 (26.3%) of the 308 pet sera samples. Among them, 39 (48%) are positive for both RBD and tri-S, 39 (48%) are positive only for tri-s and 3 (04%) are only positive for RBD. Previous studies have shown that some pets did not develop neutralizing antibodies (Ferasin et al., 2021; Krafft et al., 2021) therefore, only the seroprevalence from MIA assays was analyzed in the remainder of the study.

Seroprevalence in cats and dogs

We observed a significantly greater proportion of cats were positive (189/2036, 9.3%) than dogs

(212/3577, 5.9%; Fisher's test: p = 4.2e-08, Table 1). In addition, sera from MIA-positive animals were

more likely to show neutralizing activity in cats (49/144, 34%) than in dogs (32/164, 19.5%; Fisher's

test: p = 0.0044). Species differences were not always significant within each region, likely due to

reduced power. However, when differences were significant, it was always the case that cats were

more likely to be positive than dogs. (Table 1).

Table 1. Seroprevalence of IgG SARS-CoV-2 antibodies in blood samples from cats and dogs by French

region from October 2020 through June 2021.

Region	Cats	Cats seroprevalence		Dogs	Dogs seroprevalence		P-value
Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes	4/92	4.3%	(1.2-10.8)	25/298	8.4%	(5.5-12.1)	0.26
Bourgogne-Franche-Comté	3/49	6.1%	(1.3-16.9)	4/91	4.4%	(1.2-10.9)	0.70
Bretagne	3/38	7.9%	(1.7-21.4)	5/113	4.4%	(1.5-10.0)	0.42
Centre-Val de Loire	7/26	26.9%	(11.6-47.8)	3/53	5.7%	(1.2-15.7)	0.012
Grand Est	8/42	19.0%	(8.6-34.1)	5/172	2.9%	(1.0-6.7)	0.00072
Hauts-de-France	6/91	6.6%	(2.5-13.8)	16/211	7.6%	(4.4-12.0)	1.0
Île-de-France	104/1193	8.7%	(7.2-10.5)	98/1248	7.9%	(6.4-9.5)	0.46
Normandie	3/62	4.8%	(1.0-13.5)	8/144	5.6%	(2.4-10.7)	1.0
Nouvelle-Aquitaine	21/213	9.9%	(6.2-14.7)	20/611	3.3%	(2.0-5.0)	0.00037
Occitanie	8/92	8.7%	(3.8-16.4)	12/386	3.1%	(1.6-5.4)	0.036
Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur	19/86	22.1%	(13.9-32.3)	12/182	6.6%	(3.5-11.2)	0.00040

Pays de la Loire	3/52	5.8% (1.2-15.9)	4/68	5.9% (1.6-14.4)	1.0
Total	**189/2036 9.3%**	**(8.0 ; 10.6)**	**212/3577 5.9%**	**(5.2 ; 6.8)**	**4.2.10⁻⁶**

Data are presented as No. positive, percentage (95 % exact binomial confidence intervals). P-values

correspond to the Fisher exact test comparing seroprevalence in cats vs dogs.

Seroprevalence by sex

We found no significant sex differences in seropositivity rates, either for all animals (females: 6.9%;

163/2361; males 7.5%; 212/2842; p = 0.45) or among cats (females 9.4%; 78/827, males 9.8%;

99/1009, p = 0.81) and dogs (females: 5.5%; 85/1534, males: 6.2%; 113/1833) tested separately (Table

2).

Table 2. Seroprevalence of IgG SARS-CoV-2 antibodies in blood samples from cats and dogs by sex

from October 2020 through June 2021.

Sex	Cats	Cat seroprevalence	Dogs	Dog seroprevalence	Cats + Dogs	Cats + Dogs seroprevalence
Female	78/827	9.4% (7.5-11.5)	85/1534	5.5% (4.4-6.8)	163/2361	6.9% (5.9-8.0)
Male	99/1009	9.8% (8.0-11.8)	113/1833	6.2% (5.1-7.4)	212/2842	7.5% (6.5-8.5)
Total	**177/1836**	**9.6% (8.3-11.1)**	**198/3367**	**5.9% (5.1-6.7)**	**375/5203**	**7.2% (6.5-7.9)**
P-value		0.81		0.46		0.45

Data are presented as No. positive, percentage (95 % exact binomial confidence intervals). P-values

correspond to the Fisher exact test comparing seroprevalence in cats vs dogs.

Seroprevalence by age

The age of 1657 cats (age range 0.2 – 22yr) and 2781 dogs (age range 0.1 – 18.5yr) was known. Among

cats, 18.4% aged 0-3 years, 10.4% aged 4-9 years, and 6.4% aged over nine years, tested positive.

Among dogs, 8.8% aged 0-3 years, 5.8% aged 3-9 years, and 5.1% aged over 9 years tested positive.

Using a binomial model with age entered as a continuous variable, we observed a significant decrease

in seroprevalence with age in cats (p-value = 3.9e-08) and dogs (p-value = 0.016) (Figure 3)

(Supplementary Table 2).

Figure 3. (a). The number of cat blood samples tested by age group for anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibodies

by MIA from October 2020 through June 2021. Samples testing negative are shaded grey, and

seropositive samples are in orange. Seroprevalence is represented by black dots, with 95 % binomial

confidence interval. The red line represents the linear regression. **(b). The number of dog blood**

samples tested by age group for anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibodies by MIA from October 2020 through June

2021. Samples testing negative are shaded grey, and seropositive samples are in orange.

Seroprevalence is represented by black dots, with 95 % binomial confidence intervals. The red line

represents the linear regression.

Seroprevalence over time

We next examined whether seroprevalence was associated with the time of sampling. For this analysis,

we selected animals at least one year old at the date of sampling (Figure 4). Seroprevalence was not

associated with the time of sampling (linear trend, cats : p-value = 0.88, dogs : p-value = 0.057).

(a)

(b)

Figure

4. (a). The number of cat blood samples tested each month for anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibodies by MIA

from October 2020 through June 2021. Samples testing negative are shaded grey, and seropositive

samples are in orange. Seroprevalence is represented by black dots, with 95 % binomial confidence

interval. The red line represents the linear regression. **(b). The number of dog blood samples tested**

each month for anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibodies by MIA from October 2020 through June 2021. Samples

testing negative are shaded grey, and seropositive samples are in orange. Seroprevalence is

represented by black dots, with 95 % binomial confidence interval. The red line represents the linear

regression.

Discussion

This study reports a large-scale serological survey of pet (cats and dogs) sera to detect anti-SARS-

CoV-2 IgG antibodies. The samples were collected in metropolitan France from October 2020

through June 2021, a period including peaks of the second and third waves of SARS-CoV-2 infections

in France. From a sample of nearly 6000 pets, we report a seroprevalence of anti-SARS-CoV-2

antibodies of 7.1%. We observed that only a small percentage of samples (28%) is positive for both

tri-s and RBD, indicating that our RBD assay seems to be less sensitive than the tri-s assay. This may

be explained by the fact that the full trimeric spike antigen might detect a broader range of

antibodies than the receptor-binding domain which represent only a small part of the spike protein.

Furthermore, we demonstrated that only 26% of seropositive pets demonstrated neutralizing

antibody activity. Moreover, we have shown that cats are more likely to produce neutralizing

antibodies. This is likely associated with a more prolonged and intense immune stimulation than

dogs. In humans, a study has shown that disease severity is positively correlated with neutralizing

antibody levels (Garcia-Beltran et al., 2021).

In cats, we found a higher seroprevalence (9.3%) than previously observed in other European

countries, which ranged from 0% to 6.4% (Barroso-Arévalo et al., 2021; A. Michelitsch et al., 2020;

Anna Michelitsch et al., 2021; Pomorska-Mól et al., 2021; Schulz et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2021;

Stevanovic et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021). However, most of these studies were done before the

second wave, a period of relatively lower viral circulation than our sampling period. In addition, most

of these studies used a seroneutralisation assay.

In dogs, the observed seroprevalence (5.9%) is in accord with a previous study in France showing a

prevalence of 4.8% in companion and military working dogs sampled between February 2020 and

February 2021 (Laidoudi et al., 2021). Other studies looking for SARS-CoV-2 antibodies in dogs have

reported seroprevalences ranging from 0% to 14.5% (Barroso-Arévalo et al., 2021; Pomorska-Mól et

al., 2021; Smith et al., 2021; Stevanovic et al., 2021; Stevanovic et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021).

Importantly, we observed a significantly higher seroprevalence of anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibodies in cats

than in dogs (p = 4.2e-08). The statistical significance of this difference varied among regions, likely

due to the reduced power and perhaps some unintended sampling bias by veterinarians. For example,

the smallest sample size was in the Bourgogne-Franche-Comté region, where we observed no

significant difference between dogs and cats. Furthermore, for a region like Ile-de-France, where

people live mostly in apartments, we can also hypothesize that dogs live in closer contact with owners

than in the rest of France. Previous studies with fewer samples have either found no significant

difference between species (Barroso-Arévalo et al., 2021; Calvet et al., 2021; Fritz et al., 2021;

Patterson et al., 2020; Pomorska-Mól et al., 2021; Stevanovic et al., 2020) or that cats have significantly

higher seroprevalence than dogs (Barroso et al., 2022; Colitti et al., 2021; Hamer et al., 2021).

Our study of a very large population of dogs and cats in natural conditions provides some evidence

that cats are more susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 infection than dogs, at least during the time frame of our

sampling period. Potential causes of species differences in susceptibility between cats and dogs are

numerous, likely including biological (ACE-2 shows greater similarity between cat and human than

between dogs and humans orthologs (Damas et al., 2020)) and behavioural parameters. The absence

of data such as the neuter status, pet lifestyle (Indoor/Outdoor), or the frequency and nature of

contacts with humans and other animals restricts our ability to identify a potential cause of the

observed difference. In previously published cases, most infected pets were epidemiologically linked

to humans who tested positive for COVID-19 (Maurin et al., 2021).

We did not observe significant sex differences in seroprevalence in either species (p = 0.45). However,

in the absence of data about the neuter status of the animals, strong inferences concerning potential

sex differences are not possible. Our findings are consistent with most previous studies also reporting

an absence of sex differences in dogs and cats (Barroso et al., 2022; Calvet et al., 2021; Jairak et al.,

2022; Pomorska-Mól et al., 2021). A smaller study of 188 dogs and 61 cats found higher seropositivity

in male dogs and an absence of a sex difference in cats (Patterson et al., 2020). Another study found

that male dogs sampled from the general population were more likely to test positive than females,

but this difference was not observed in dogs from COVID-19+ households (Stevanovic et al., 2021).

There is little evidence of a significant sex difference in susceptibility in humans. However, men are

more likely to be affected by severe forms of COVID than women due to a variety of reasons

(Bechmann et al., 2022).

In terms of age, we observed a higher seroprevalence among younger animals (between 0-3 years) for

both species that then decreased with age. A study of dogs sampled from the general population found

seroprevalence was highest in animals aged 5-6 years and that in COVID-19+ households,

seroprevalence peaked in slightly younger dogs, aged between one and five years (Stevanovic et al.,

2021). Other studies have reported no significant associations with age in cats and dogs (Barroso et

al., 2022; Pomorska-Mól et al., 2021). An experimental study in cats found that juveniles appear more

vulnerable than subadults (Shi et al., 2020). The decreasing seroprevalence with age that we observed

could also arise from age-dependent behavioural changes. For example, young animals (< 3 years old)

are more active and curious and may be in greater contact with their owners than older animals that

prefer to remain quieter. The decrease could also reflect immunosenescence in older animals, as

observed in humans.

Interestingly, we did not observe a significant increase in seroprevalence over the eight months of our

study. We expected such an increase because antibodies have a longer persistence in the organism

than viral RNA; thus, animals sampled at later dates would represent an accumulation of cases. This

finding has also been observed in two other studies in Europe, but conclusions were limited by the

small number of samples collected over just a few months (Adler et al.; Schulz et al., 2021). The absence

of a positive association between seroprevalence and the time of sampling could be explained by the

limited persistence of antibodies in pets. Few studies have investigated the persistence of antibodies

in animals. For example, a study carried out on seven dogs and two cats infected in natural conditions

showed persistence of neutralizing antibodies up to 10 months after infection in four of the dogs and

the two cats, but also that persistence was markedly reduced in two of the dogs after three months

(Decaro et al., 2021). Moreover, a study of two cats found that neutralizing antibodies had disappeared

by 110 days (Zhang et al., 2020). Based on these data, one possible reason for the lack of increase in

seroprevalence during our study period could be a progressive seroreversion of infected animals that

is equally compensated by the number of new infections, i.e. seroconversion. If so, this would mean

that the observed seroprevalence is not an accurate reflection of the total number of infections in cats

and dogs during the whole epidemic but rather a snapshot of a time period that remains to be defined

by longitudinal serological studies involving a larger number of animals. This also suggests that the

seroprevalence observed in our study may underestimate the actual proportion of animals infected

during the entirety of the epidemic.

Human-to-pet transmission may promote viral adaptation facilitating re-infection with novel viral

strains in humans (Bashor et al., 2021). While one case of infection from cat to human has recently

been reported, the large number of pet cats and their frequent close interaction with humans provides

ample opportunity. This possibility raises the question of a vaccination strategy for animals susceptible

to SARS-CoV-2 infection. While pets do not currently seem to play a role in the ongoing pandemic, our

results emphasize the magnitude of SARS-CoV-2 infection in pets is not trivial. Combined with the size

of domestic cat and dog populations and the close contact with their human companions, our results

highlight the importance of collecting more data on SARS-CoV-2 transmissibility and pathogenicity in companion animals, especially with the emergence of new variants. Also, when a SARS-CoV-2 infection is suspected in a pet, we suggest collecting a sample for RT-qPCR confirmation of infection, followed by whole-genome sequencing to identify new mutations, particularly in antigenic sites targeted by the immune system. Finally, similar public health recommendations applied to humans should also be implemented for animals to prevent human-to-animal transmission, such as not having contact with animals when a household member is COVID-19 positive.

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Author Contributions:

M.F., P.B., S.G.R., A.B.-M., V.L., and E.M.L. conceived and designed the study.

M.F., E.E., D.d.R.d.F., D.G., S.D., B.B., and V.L designed and performed the experiments.

All authors analyzed the data and interpreted and discussed the results.

M.F. and E.L. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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