The Role of Saliva-based testing Programs in Reducing COVID-19 ICU Admissions in Disadvantaged Communities

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Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic exposed disparities in severe case management, particularly in disadvantaged communities during the Alpha, Delta, and Omicron waves. This study evaluates the impact of SHIELD Illinois test centers, a saliva-based testing initiative, on COVID-19 ICU admissions in greater Chicago, focusing on socioeconomic factors. We conducted a secondary analysis using data from a medical center’s Electronic Health Record (EHR) system and the SHIELD Illinois Testing Program, covering the Alpha, Delta, and Omicron waves. Using linear mixed-effects regression models, we examined the relationship between SHIELD center availability, ICU admissions, center density, and area deprivation index scores. Findings revealed that increased SHIELD center availability during the Omicron wave significantly reduced ICU admissions in disadvantaged zip codes. Each additional SHIELD center reduced ICU admission rates by 0.6%, equating to 0.38 fewer admissions per 1,000 population. Lag analyses indicated further reductions over time, with the incidence rate ratio dropping by 0.7% in underserved areas, translating to 0.45 fewer ICU admissions per 1,000 population. These results underscore the importance of strategically deploying SHIELD test centers to mitigate severe outcomes and promote healthcare equity. This approach offers valuable insights for improving responses to future pandemics in underserved communities.

Keywords

SHILED Illinois; COVID-19 ICU admission; Socioeconomic disparities; Linear mixed-effect model; Pandemic response strategies

Introduction

The World Health Organization declared COVID-19 a pandemic on March 11, 2020, resulting in over 7 million deaths globally1–3. COVID-19 symptoms range from mild to critical, with ICU admission rates varying widely, from 5% to 32%4–6. Among ICU patients, 99% require respiratory support, and 26% do not survive7,8. These statistics highlight the importance of understanding ICU admission drivers and examining the role of interventions, such as testing programs, in mitigating severe outcomes. Such efforts must account for the dynamic nature of the pandemic, as variants like Alpha, Delta, and Omicron have demonstrated varied impacts on ICU outcomes. The Alpha variant increased ICU rates by 2.72%, while Delta caused surges in ICU admissions and deaths, especially among the unvaccinated, who were five times more likely to be hospitalized and seven times more likely to die in areas like Chicago9,10. Omicron, though more transmissible, led to milder disease, shorter hospital stays, and fewer ICU admissions, particularly among vaccinated individuals11–19.

The COVID-19 pandemic disproportionately impacted disadvantaged communities, with higher COVID-19 prevalence and deaths driven by systemic inequities such as poverty, limited healthcare access, segregation, and occupational risks20–26. Studies show a strong link between COVID-19 outcomes and the area deprivation index (ADI), a measure of social disadvantage27–31. The National Institutes of Health emphasizes the importance of testing in vulnerable populations and high-ADI communities to enable early detection and curb the virus's spread in these disproportionately affected areas32. Targeted testing programs are essential for reducing adverse health outcomes in such populations.

One example is the University of Illinois System’s SHIELD Illinois testing program, which provides innovative saliva-based COVID-19 tests to K-12 schools, colleges, universities, businesses, and community centers across Illinois33. Initially, SHIELD focused on preserving lives by allowing businesses to stay open. As it expanded into schools, the program shifted towards ensuring students could remain in the classroom by maximizing access to testing and the number of students tested. A standout feature of the SHIELD program is its ability to provide schools with adequate test kits34. While the program has successfully increased testing rates across Illinois, its effectiveness in improving COVID-19 outcomes in disadvantaged communities remains unclear. The program has amassed extensive data on testing, encompassing the number and types of tests conducted, test results, and demographic information of those tested. This presents a unique opportunity to gain a comprehensive understanding of SHIELD Illinois's impact on the health of disadvantaged communities in Chicago, especially when combined with data from the Chicago Department of Public Health and Electronic Health Record (EHR).

Recent studies have assessed the effectiveness of SHIELD Illinois in managing COVID-19, but its specific impact on ICU admissions, particularly in socioeconomically disadvantaged areas, remains underexplored. This study aims to address this gap by investigating the relationship between SHIELD test center availability and COVID-19 ICU admission rates, with a focus on the moderating role of socioeconomic factors. Additionally, we evaluate the effect of SHIELD test centers in reducing ICU admissions across different COVID-19 waves, particularly in disadvantaged communities. This study highlights the benefits of expanding test center access to reduce severe COVID-19 cases and underscores the importance of ensuring equitable resource distribution in future pandemics.

Results

The preliminary analysis provides insight into how the COVID-19 ICU admissions rate and the effective number of test centers have evolved during the different COVID-19 waves. We examined the overall trends in the COVID-19 ICU admission rate and the availability of SHIELD test centers across all zip codes over the study period. Figure 3 illustrates the relationship between the effective number of SHIELD test centers and COVID-19 ICU admission rates, both averaged over time, across various zip codes categorized by their ADI levels.

Linear mixed-effect regression model

Table 2 summarizes regression models examining the relationship between the effective number of SHIELD test centers and COVID-19 ICU admission rates during the Alpha, Delta, and Omicron waves. While none of the models indicate a significant impact of SHIELD test centers in disadvantaged areas during the Alpha wave, Model 2 during the Delta wave shows that high-disadvantaged zip codes have a 1.6% increase in the IRR compared to those with low disadvantage. These findings indicate that higher ADI areas experienced elevated COVID-19 ICU admission rates, highlighting socioeconomic disparities in the burden of severe COVID-19 cases. During the Omicron wave, Model 3 shows a statistically significant effect of the effective number of SHIELD centers on COVID-19 ICU admission rates, with a 0.6% decrease in the incidence rate ratio (IRR) observed in zip codes with higher ADI.

Lag analysis

Table 3 displays a regression analysis investigating the influence of SHIELD test centers and ADI on COVID-19 ICU admission rates with a two-month delay. While none of the models indicate a significant impact of SHIELD test centers in disadvantaged areas during the Alpha wave, in the Delta wave, Model 1 presents a negative and statistically significant estimate which indicates a 0.2% decrease in IRR for effective number of SHIELD test centers per unit increase. This indicates a considerable reduction in the COVID-19 ICU admission rate two months after an increase in the effective number of SHIELD test centers. Also, Model 2 during the Delta wave shows that high-disadvantaged zip codes have a 1.6% increase in the IRR compared to low-disadvantaged areas. These findings indicate that higher ADI areas experienced elevated COVID-19 ICU admission rates, highlighting socioeconomic disparities in the burden of severe COVID-19 cases. During the Omicron wave, Model 3 demonstrates a statistically significant association between the effective number of SHIELD centers and COVID-19 ICU admission rates, with a 0.7% decrease in IRR observed in zip codes with higher ADI. For all models in the analysis, multicollinearity is assessed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), with all VIF values remaining below 4. This indicates that multicollinearity is not a concern in the models, ensuring reliable coefficient estimates.

Finally, the root mean square error (RMSE) between the average number of SHIELD test centers and the average effective number across all zip codes over time was 0.94, indicating a close alignment between these two metrics (see Appendix 4). While some variation exists, this small RMSE suggests that, in general, the centers were effective in serving their communities.

Discussion

Our study evaluated how SHIELD testing influences the severity of outcomes, particularly ICU admissions, with a focus on disadvantaged communities. This study demonstrates that the impact of the SHIELD testing program was not solely dependent on the number of testing centers but on their strategic deployment in reducing COVID-19 ICU admissions, particularly in socioeconomically disadvantaged areas. Our findings suggest that higher disadvantaged areas consistently experienced higher ICU admission rates despite an increase in test centers, emphasizing the importance of targeted resource allocation.

Other studies have leveraged SHIELD data to assess its role in managing COVID-19, focusing on optimizing resource allocation, reducing transmission rates, and improving testing outcomes in educational settings35–37.

To provide a more accurate understanding of the program’s impact, this study highlights the importance of the effective number of SHIELD test centers, which is defined as the proportion of a test center’s service to a given area. While test centers are located in facilities such as schools within specific zip codes, many students attend schools outside their residential areas. Since students represent their home communities, considering the effective number of centers better reflects the broader reach of testing across adjacent regions.

Our analysis indicates that as the overall number of SHIELD test centers increased during major pandemic waves, the proportion of centers effectively serving their respective zip codes was associated with reduced COVID-19 ICU admission rates. According to Figure 3, averaging overtime minimizes short-term fluctuations, enabling more reliable comparisons across zip codes and deprivation levels. The data shows that during the peaks of the pandemic, particularly during the Delta and Omicron waves, the number of SHIELD test centers increased significantly in both highly disadvantaged and low-disadvantaged areas. However, low-disadvantaged areas consistently maintained a higher number of effective test centers throughout the period. One possible explanation must be related to the unbalanced number of zip codes served by LUMC. Despite the rise in test centers, COVID-19 ICU admission rates remained notably higher in high disadvantaged zip codes, especially during these waves. This suggests that, even with increased access to testing, socioeconomically disadvantaged areas faced a disproportionately heavier burden of severe COVID-19 cases, underscoring the persistent health disparities in these communities during the pandemic.

The LMER models’ results demonstrate the evolving relationships between SHIELD test centers and ICU admission throughout the pandemic. During the Alpha wave, the presence of test centers showed limited association with ICU admissions, likely to reflect early-stage testing efforts that were not yet fully optimized or widespread. By the Delta and Omicron waves, the data indicate stronger associations between the effective use of test centers and reduced ICU admissions, particularly in disadvantaged areas (higher ADI scores). The positive association observed during the Delta wave indicates that socioeconomically disadvantaged zip codes experienced disproportionately higher ICU admission rates, highlighting ongoing disparities in the pandemic’s burden. Notably, the reduction in ICU admissions during the Omicron wave, correlated with an increase in the effective number of SHIELD test centers, suggests that improved access and utilization of these centers may have contributed to mitigating severe outcomes. Our data showed that the average COVID-19 ICU admission rate was 0.063 per 1,000 population during the Omicron wave. Analyses revealed that adding one SHIELD test center in high-disadvantaged zip codes could reduce the ICU admission rate by 0.38 per 1,000 population, highlighting the effectiveness of targeted interventions in addressing disparities in these communities. This finding underscores the importance of not just the availability of test centers but also their active utilization and accessibility in reducing COVID-19’s most severe effects, particularly in vulnerable populations.

The lag analysis further illustrates the evolving relationship between SHIELD test centers and COVID-19 ICU admissions, especially when considering a two-month delay. During the Alpha wave, the presence of SHIELD test centers showed limited association with ICU admissions in disadvantaged areas, likely reflecting early-stage testing infrastructure that was not yet fully optimized. By the Delta wave, however, an increase in the effective number of SHIELD test centers was associated with a significant reduction in ICU admissions two months later. This delayed association suggests that expanded testing efforts may have played a role in alleviating severe outcomes over time. Specifically, a higher number of effective SHIELD test centers corresponded with a reduced burden on healthcare systems during the Delta wave, emphasizing the importance of sustained and targeted testing initiatives. Despite these improvements, disadvantaged zip codes continued to face disproportionately higher ICU admission rates, as reflected in the positive association found during Delta wave. This highlights the persistent challenges faced by these communities, where broader socioeconomic barriers may have limited the immediate benefits of increased testing. Nonetheless, the reduction in ICU admissions associated with an increase in the effective number of SHIELD test centers during the Omicron wave, particularly in high-ADI areas, suggests that targeted testing interventions can make a substantial difference over time. Our data showed that during the Delta wave, adding one SHIELD test center was estimated to reduce the COVID-19 ICU admission rate by 0.1 per 1,000 population. Also, adding one SHIELD test center was estimated to lower the COVID-19 ICU admission rate in highly disadvantaged zip codes by 0.45 per 1,000 population. These findings demonstrate that by strategically increasing testing in disadvantaged communities, significant reductions in severe outcomes can be achieved, even with a delayed effect.

The main limitation of this study is that it relies on ICU data from a single hospital, which may affect the generalizability of the findings. However, the hospital serves a racially, economically, and linguistically diverse population, reflecting the demographics of its surrounding area, Cook County (Appendix 5). This includes a significant proportion of individuals from underrepresented groups and economically disadvantaged backgrounds, providing valuable insights into the impact of SHIELD test centers on diverse communities. Despite this, future studies should incorporate data from multiple hospitals to capture a broader and more representative perspective.

The SHIELD Illinois program was conducted solely within Illinois, primarily near urban areas, without consideration of data from other states or more rural regions. This restricts the ability to evaluate SHIELD’s effectiveness in different geographic contexts. Future research should assess similar programs across multiple states to provide more generalizable findings. Furthermore, key factors such as comorbidities, vaccination status, and early treatment interventions were not accounted for in this study, which may influence ICU outcomes. Including these variables in future research would offer a more comprehensive understanding. Lastly, the voluntary nature of SHIELD participation may have introduced selection bias, as wealthier districts were more likely to adopt the program early. Addressing these limitations will provide a clearer assessment of SHIELD’s overall impact and help guide equitable resource allocation in future pandemic responses.

This study demonstrates that the impact of the SHIELD testing program was not solely dependent on the number of testing centers but on their effectiveness in reducing COVID-19 ICU admissions, particularly in socioeconomically disadvantaged areas. Our findings suggest that higher disadvantaged areas consistently experienced higher ICU admission rates despite an increase in test centers, emphasizing the importance of targeted resource allocation. The strategic placement and utilization of SHIELD centers in these communities were crucial for mitigating severe health outcomes. Future public health strategies should prioritize not only the expansion of testing facilities but also their optimal placement and operation in vulnerable areas to maximize their effectiveness in reducing severe outcomes during pandemics. Further research will focus on refining the placement of testing centers to improve both coverage and equity in disadvantaged regions.

Methods

Study design and population

This cohort study was a secondary analysis using deidentified data from the EHR data of ICU patients at Loyola University Medical Center, and the SHIELD Illinois Testing Program. The Loyola University Chicago Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved the study.

Loyola University Medical Center (LUMC) is a regional academic health system and a nationally ranked quaternary care facility with 547 licensed beds, located in Chicago’s western suburbs38,39. LUMC’s extensive catchment area and the high number of ICU admissions make it an ideal representative for examining the effectiveness of SHIELD testing and its correlation with COVID-19 ICU outcomes.

We used datasets from the ICU at LUMC and the SHIELD testing data covering January 2020 to December 2023. To ensure a relevant and accurate analysis of COVID-19 ICU outcomes, a filtration process was applied to the original ICU dataset. This filtration was necessary to focus on the zip codes most affected by ICU admissions, thereby improving the reliability of the analysis. The dataset includes 29,779 patient visits from 585 zip codes across Illinois, providing a robust sample for analysis. The initial dataset was refined by selecting the top 25% of zip codes with the highest frequency of patients served by LUMC. Figure 1 illustrates the data filtration process used to refine the ICU dataset, focusing on COVID-19 ICU admission rates. This reduction to 147 zip codes, depicted in Figure 2, allowed for a more targeted examination of the areas that experienced the greatest impact from ICU admissions during the pandemic. Selecting the top 25% helps to reduce noise in the dataset by excluding zip codes with lower patient volumes at LUMC, where the data might be less representative of broader trends. This strategic selection allowed us to focus on the areas that were most significantly affected by ICU admissions at LUMC, thereby enhancing the robustness and reliability of our analysis of COVID-19 ICU admission rates. The next step involved refining the dataset to focus exclusively on patients treated for COVID-19, achieved by filtering out non-COVID-19 cases using the appropriate ICD-10 codes for COVID-19 diagnoses (see Appendix 1), standardized codes used to identify and classify COVID-19 cases. The final dataset included only COVID-19 patients from the 147 selected zip codes, spanning the same 2020-2023 timeframe. This refined dataset was then used for further analysis in the study.

Area deprivation index

This index uses publicly available data to assess factors such as income, education, employment, and housing quality. ADI ranks neighborhoods by comparing their socioeconomic conditions to state and national averages, with higher rankings indicating greater disadvantage40. This tool helps identify neighborhoods facing significant socioeconomic challenges, making them potential priorities for future investment and support initiatives41,42. We consider low disadvantaged zip codes to be scores 1 through 4 (*N = 86*) and high disadvantaged zip codes to be scores 5 through 9 (*N = 61*).

Number of SHIELD test centers

The effective number of SHIELD test centers defined as the proportion of a test center’s service to a given area. To calculate the effective number of SHIELD test centers each month, we determined the proportion of samples from each center and aggregated these proportions to find the effective number of SHIELD test centers per zip code (see Appendix 2). Furthermore, we use the COVID-19 ICU admission rate as the dependent variable in this study, calculated as the number of ICU admissions per zip code per month, normalized by the population of each zip code, and multiplied by 1,000 for scaling. This measure allows us to standardize the ICU admission data across zip codes of varying population sizes (see Appendix 3). Table 1 provides a brief description of each variable included in the dataset.

Statistical analysis

Three linear mixed-effects Poisson regression (LMER) models were employed to investigate the association between the effective number of SHIELD test centers and the COVID-19 ICU admission rate. We focused on data from March 2021 to June 2021 for the Alpha wave, August 2021 to November 2021 for the Delta wave43, and December 2021 to March 2022 for the Omicron wave2. The Beta and Gamma COVID-19 waves are not considered because of the small number of patients involved44. The models include fixed effects such as the effective number of SHIELD centers per zip code per month and the ADI category. We incorporate a zip code-level random intercept for the monthly COVID-19 ICU admission rate clustering. The details of the models are as follows:

* Model 1 evaluates the direct effect of the effective number of SHIELD centers on ICU admission rates without considering any additional covariates or interaction terms.
* Model 2 introduces the ADI (High Disadvantaged) variable to examine how socioeconomic deprivation influences ICU outcomes, allowing for a deeper understanding of disparities across zip codes.
* Model 3 builds on the previous models by incorporating an interaction term between the effective number of SHIELD centers and ADI (High Disadvantaged). This interaction term helps identify whether the presence of SHIELD centers has a differential impact in highly disadvantaged areas compared to low disadvantaged ones.

Additionally, we conducted robust checks using lag analysis to assess the impact of SHIELD testing on the COVID-19 ICU admission rate across different waves. We examined the effects with two-month lags to determine whether the timing of testing influenced subsequent COVID-19 ICU admissions45. All analyses were conducted using R statistical software version 2024.04.1, and the data analysis period spanned from March 1, 2024, to August 9, 2024.

Assistance from ChatGPT, a large language model developed by OpenAI, is used for language editing and clarity improvements. The authors have reviewed and approved all final content to ensure accuracy and integrity.

Data availability

The datasets used and analyzed in this study was under a data use agreement between SHIELD Illinois and Loyola University Chicago. More information about the data is available upon request to the corresponding author.

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Author contributions

A.K. led the study design, data analysis, and manuscript drafting. A.W. contributed to data analysis and provided critical insights into the results. S.A. and S.T. conceptualized the study and provided additional analytical input. A.K., A.W., S.A., S.T., W.P., M.S., and N.S. reviewed the manuscript and provided valuable feedback. F.I. and M.S. handled data preprocessing and graphic design. S.A., S.T., W.P., and M.S. contributed to funding acquisition (PI: S.T.).

Additional information

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Consent for publication

The authors affirm that all participants involved in this study, or their legal guardians, have given their consent for the publication of any potentially identifying information contained within the manuscript. No personal or sensitive data (such as images, personal health information, or identifiable demographics) will be included that could compromise the privacy or anonymity of the participants. Where applicable, participants provided informed consent in accordance with ethical guidelines and institutional policies. Furthermore, this manuscript does not contain any individual-level data or other content requiring consent for publication.

Figure legends

A flowchart of a patient

Description automatically generated

**Fig. 1.** Data Exclusion Diagram: This figure presents the data filtration process for the ICU dataset (2020–2023). Starting with 585 zip codes (20,779 patients), the dataset was reduced by excluding the top 75% of zip codes with the lowest frequency of patients served by LUMC ICU, resulting in 147 zip codes (17,120 patients). Subsequently, non-COVID patients were excluded using COVID-19 ICD-10 codes, leading to the final dataset comprising 147 zip codes and 5,779 patients.

A map of a city

Description automatically generated

**Fig. 2.** Distribution of 147 zip codes with COVID-19 patients frequently served by LUMC: This map illustrates the geographic distribution of zip codes classified by the Area Deprivation Index (ADI) in the region served by LUMC (indicated by the yellow marker). Zip codes with high disadvantage (pink) and low disadvantage (blue) are highlighted to showcase disparities in socio-economic conditions. The map provides a visual context for analyzing the spatial relationship between disadvantaged communities and healthcare access.

**Omicron Wave**

**Delta Wave**

**Alpha Wave**

**Fig. 3.** Trends in COVID-19 ICU admission rates and SHIELD test centers across zip codes over time: This figure displays the trends in the average effective number of SHIELD test centers and average COVID ICU rates across zip codes with low and high ADI scores over time, segmented by major COVID-19 waves: Alpha, Delta, and Omicron. It highlights the disparity in ICU rates and access to SHIELD test centers between socioeconomically advantaged and disadvantaged communities during different pandemic phases.

Tables

**Table 1.** Variable description

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable | Type | Class | Description | Mean | SD |
| COVID-19 ICU admission rate | Dependent | Continuous | The rate of ICU admission for COVID-19 per zip code, adjusted for population size. It is calculated by dividing the total COVID-19 ICU admissions by the zip code’s population and multiplying by 1000 to standardize the rate per 100,000 people. | 0.044 | 0.091 |
| Zip code | Independent | Categorical | 147 unique zip codes across Illinois, where LUMC frequently treated COVID-19 patients |  |  |
| Total COVID-19 ICU admission per zip code per month | Independent | Continuous | Total number of COVID-19 ICU admissions recorded each month for each zip code | 1.152 | 1.961 |
| Zip code population | Independent | Continuous | The population of each zip code | 35,432.58 | 20,722.64 |
| Effective number of SHIELD test centers | Independent | Continuous | the proportion of a zip code served by a test center | 1.59 | 2.676 |
| State ADI | Independent | Categorical | The ADI score for each zip code | Median = 4 | Q1:Q4 = 3:9 |
| *NOTE:* Several control variables were considered to account for factors that may also influence COVID-19 ICU admission rates. These include population density, gender distribution, age distribution, racial and ethnic composition, pre-existing health conditions (such as diabetes and heart disease), insurance status, and marital status across different zip codes. | | | | | |

**Table 2.** Impact of SHIELD test centers and ADI on COVID-19 ICU admission rates

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Dependent Variable: COVID-19 ICU Admission Rate | | | | | | | | |
| Independent Variable | Model 1  (Alpha) | Model 1  (Delta) | Model 1  (Omicron) | Model 2  (Alpha) | Model 2  (Delta) | Model 2  (Omicron) | Model 3  (Alpha) | Model 3  (Delta) | Model 3  (Omicron) |
| Effective Number of SHIELD Centers | 0.994 (0.005) | 1.000  (0.001) | 0.997  (0.002) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ADI (High vs Low Disadvantaged) |  |  |  | 1.008  (0.008) | 1.016\*  (0.009) | 1.021  (0.012) |  |  |  |
| Effective Number of SHIELD Centers by ADI (Low Disadvantaged) |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0.991  (0.009) | 1.000  (0.001) | 1.000  (0.002) |
| Effective Number of SHIELD Centers by ADI (High Disadvantaged) |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0.995  (0.007) | 0.998  (0.002) | 0.994\*  (0.002) |
| Number of observations | 573 | 588 | 588 | 573 | 588 | 588 | 573 | 588 | 588 |
| Mean of the dependent variable in the control group | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.04 |
| Conditional R squared | 0.59 | 0.60 | 0.76 | 0.59 | 0.60 | 0.76 | 0.60 | 0.59 | 0.76 |
| Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.76 | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.76 | 0.60 | 0.59 | 0.76 |
| *NOTE*: The LMER model included fixed effects such as the effective number of SHIELD centers per zip code per month and the ADI category. A random effect for zip code was also included. The unit of observation is the number of zip codes that have patients in LUMC ICU. All numbers in the table represent exponentiated coefficients (IRR) with 95% Confidence Intervals, and Standard Errors are shown in parentheses.  \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.1 | | | | | | | | | |

**Table 3**. Impact of SHIELD test centers and ADI on COVID-19 ICU admission rates (two-month lag)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Dependent Variable: COVID-19 ICU Admission Rate | | | | | | | | |
| Independent Variable | Model 1  (Alpha) | Model 1  (Delta) | Model 1  (Omicron) | Model 2  (Alpha) | Model 2  (Delta) | Model 2  (Omicron) | Model 3  (Alpha) | Model 3  (Delta) | Model 3  (Omicron) |
| Effective Number of SHIELD Centers | 0.998 (0.003) | 0.998**\*** (0.001) | 0.997 (0.001) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ADI (High vs Low Disadvantaged) |  |  |  | 1.008 (0.008) | 1.016**\*** (0.009) | 1.020 (0.012) |  |  |  |
| Effective Number of SHIELD Centers by ADI (Low Disadvantaged) |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1.000  (0.003) | 0.999  (0.002) | 1.000  (0.002) |
| Effective Number of SHIELD Centers by ADI (High Disadvantaged) |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0.992 (0.005) | 0.996 (0.002) | 0.993\*\* (0.002) |
| Number of observations | 570 | 588 | 588 | 570 | 588 | 588 | 570 | 588 | 588 |
| Mean of the dependent variable in the control group | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.04 |
| Conditional R squared | 0.59 | 0.59 | 0.76 | 0.59 | 0.60 | 0.76 | 0.59 | 0.59 | 0.77 |
| Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) | 0.59 | 0.59 | 0.76 | 0.59 | 0.60 | 0.76 | 0.60 | 0.59 | 0.76 |
| *NOTE*: The LMER model included fixed effects such as the effective number of SHIELD centers per zip code per month and the ADI category. A random effect for zip code was also included. The unit of observation is the number of zip codes that have patients in LUMC ICU. All numbers in the table represent exponentiated coefficients (IRR) with 95% Confidence Intervals, and Standard Errors are shown in parentheses.  \*\*\*p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.1 | | | | | | | | | |