

Advancing Efficient and Timely Community Access to SARS-CoV-2 Serology Testing in Europe: a Multi-stakeholder Consensus

Rafael Cantón^{1,2,3}, Constance Delaugerre^{4,5}, Catherine Hankins⁶, Wame Jallow⁷, Uwe Gerd Liebert⁸, and Julieta Villegas⁹

¹Clinical Microbiology Department, University Hospital Ramón y Cajal, Madrid, Spain

²Ramón y Cajal Health Research Institute, University Hospital Ramón y Cajal, Madrid, Spain

³Department of Microbiology & Parasitology, Complutense University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain

⁴Virology, Vaccine Research Institute, Paris, France

⁵Virology Department Saint Louis Hospital, Université de Paris, Paris, France

⁶Amsterdam Institute for Global Health and Development, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

⁷Global Programs and Advocacy, International Treatment Preparedness Coalition, Johannesburg, Republic of South Africa

⁸Institute of Virology, Leipzig University, Leipzig, Germany

⁹Health Policy Division, Policy Wisdom LLC, Miami, (Florida,) United States

April 6, 2021

Abstract

Background: Currently there is no clear consensus on the use, value, benefits, and impact of serology testing as part of a comprehensive SARS-CoV-2 testing strategy. The lack of clarity on the use of this strategy in policies and guidelines may have serious implications on the efforts to curb the pandemic. The aim of this paper is to elaborate an experts and community consensus on the use of serology testing as an effective method to respond to and mitigate the impact of the pandemic. The recommendations herein can help build community awareness and guide advocacy strategies.

Methods: A desk review was conducted to inform a working document that was subject to a multistage process of validation and feedback by a group of renowned experts. The multi-stakeholder group of experts, representing the European and international levels, convened to inform and validate the recommendations.

Results: The consensus offered eight policy recommendations organized in two main themes. The first group of recommendations provides guidance on the role and value of serology testing to contain and understand the COVID-19 pandemic. The second group targets health system strengthening aspects necessary to support the appropriate delivery of serology testing.

Conclusions: Recommendations seek to indicate how SARS-CoV-2 serology testing may positively impact national health systems, country economies and local communities. The pertinence of the recommendations is to communities in Europe, and beyond, and relevant to multiple stakeholders. Given the rapidly changing scenario, this set of recommendations should be considered a live document.

Key words: COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, COVID-19 diagnostic testing, serologic tests, consensus, pandemics, health emergency, global health emergency, Europe

Introduction

On December 31, 2019, news released from the city of Wuhan in China, alerted of an outbreak of cases of an unknown type of viral pneumonia, later identified as a novel coronavirus and given the name of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2). The World Health Organization (WHO) declared SARS-CoV-2 a public health emergency of international concern on January 30, 2020 and a global pandemic on March 11. Shortly thereafter, the European region was officially pronounced one of the epicentres of the pandemic, amounting a death toll of 701,991 by January 28, 2021 [1].

The burden imposed by the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has directly and indirectly permeated all sectors of society, with diverse types or degrees of impact experienced among countries of varying income levels [2,3]. Morbidity and mortality rates have been especially elevated among the high-risk and vulnerable populations [4-6], with Europe being the world region at highest risk due the elevated percentage of people living with underlying health conditions [7]. Furthermore, socio-economic disparities may put segments of the population at higher risk [8-11].

In the absence of effective treatments or universal access to vaccines, alternatives used to suppress the virus transmission included public health measures such as nationwide lockdowns. Although strict non-pharmaceutical measures have been effective in controlling the spread of the virus [12], they are not viable long-term solutions given their negative socio-economic consequences, such as the loss on Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and development of human capital due to the disruption of economic and educational activities, respectively [13-15]. In this context, a key prevention and containment strategy is the detection of SARS-CoV-2 infection through various types of tests that can support important aspects like diagnosis, case management, and tracking the spread of the virus.

Among the proposed tests for SARS-CoV-2, there are two main types of approaches. The first is based on a reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), a molecular-based test method usually employed to detect an active pathogen in the body. The second is a serology test, based on an antibody/antigen reaction, which detects a body's humoral immune responses to a current and/or prior infection. This type of test shows that the body has produced antibodies following the exposure to the virus and can help to confirm prior infections even after the immune system has eliminated the virus.

Currently, there is no clear guidance supporting the use, value, benefits, and impact of serology testing as part of a comprehensive SARS-CoV-2 detecting strategy. The lack of clarity on policies and guidelines regarding the role of serology testing on decisions related to restriction measures may have serious implications on the efforts to curb the pandemic. Departing from a sound bibliographic review, this paper aims to provide an expert and community consensus on the effective use of serology testing as a method to respond to and mitigate the impact of the pandemic. Ultimately, the recommendations herein intend to enable the implementation of SARS-CoV-2 serology testing to support mitigation strategies at the regional, national, and local levels to build community awareness, and to guide advocacy strategies.

Methodology

Five renowned European and international experts on testing policies and strategies joined an online panel facilitated by Policy Wisdom, LLC. Their academic backgrounds included microbiology, infectious diseases, virology, epidemiology, and health policy. Throughout the three months from August to October 2020, a multistage validation and feedback process was carried out.

As the first step, we created a working document from a desk review of literature, policies, and epidemiological data. The search was guided by five pre-established topics:

- Medical and scientific perspectives on SARS-CoV-2 serology testing,
- The impact of the SARS-CoV-2 outbreak on recipients of care within society, health systems, and vulnerable communities,
- The implications of serology testing in Europe, including resource-limited settings,
- The economic and labour force impact of the pandemic on various sectors such as tourism, trade industries, and education, and how serology testing might support decision-making to mitigate the adverse effects of resuming activities,
- Existing limitations of SARS-CoV-2 serology tests and barriers to their widespread application, and
- Opportunities and advantages of an effective serology testing strategy.

Experts convened in a two-session meeting to inform and validate the contents of the working document and to discuss and propose a set of recommendations. The paper was then updated using this and subsequent written feedback. After reaching a consensus, the final document was approved by all panellists.

Results

Impact on population health

Morbidity and mortality rates have been especially elevated among the high-risk and vulnerable populations, while the pandemic has also worsened conditions for those who regularly need to access health facilities. Among the highest risk populations for the disease are (1) the elderly, particularly in long term care facilities (LTCF), (2) those with comorbidities, including communicable and non-communicable diseases, (3) vulnerable communities, which include those in outbreak-prone settings, and (4) healthcare workers. Europe has documented higher rates of infections among individuals over 70 years old and higher mortality rates in those above 65 [4,5]. Regional reports show figures of up to 88% mortality among those 65 years of age and above [16]. Furthermore, several countries including Italy, France, Germany, Sweden, Belgium, and the U.K., reported outbreaks in nursing homes, which accounted for a considerable fraction of their recorded fatalities [6].

Patients with comorbidities or underlying health-compromising conditions, such as diabetes, cancer, HIV, cardiovascular, chronic kidney, and chronic respiratory disease as well as other risk factors, such as obesity or smoking have also been shown to be disproportionately affected. Europe is the world region with the highest percentage of population that could be at risk due to underlying health conditions [7]. Additionally, those with chronic illnesses and other health-compromising conditions have had reduced access to healthcare services and medicines due to the burden on the health system imposed by the pandemic. Simultaneously, many patients may hesitate to visit health centres either for fear of infection, unclear communication on whether they can, and lack of understanding about which type of facility is safest to visit.

Moreover, socio-economic disparities may carry additional risks to certain sections of the population, particularly those of lower-income and/or marginalized communities [8]. Many low-income individuals live on daily wages and simply cannot forego employment and/or their economic livelihood depends on what are deemed as essential jobs. This situation exposes them to potential infection leading to an increased risk of outbreaks. Likewise, vulnerable or marginalized communities face extreme disparities that lead to increased difficulties in accessing healthcare (including laboratory testing) whether it be for economic reasons, literacy, transportation, language, cultural, or other barriers [9]. Among the most vulnerable populations are migrants (including seasonal workers that migrate between east and west Europe, and North Africa), correctional institution inmates, and the homeless [10,11].

Secondary effects of the pandemic may exacerbate the clinical situation of those who are already suffering mental health conditions, such as depression, anxiety, and other similar disorders, as well as a surge in new mental health cases [17,18]. Stay-at-home measures, loss of employment as well as the stress associated

with a pandemic situation and risk of infection have contributed to this effect [16]. Multiple sources identify healthcare workers among the most affected, including risk for suicide [11,17,19]. Lastly, preliminary reports have also suggested an increase in intimate partner violence in Europe during the outbreak. [20].

Broader Socio-Economic Impact

Although essential, imposing stringent non-pharmaceutical interventions has severe negative effects on country economies. According to the OECD, it is estimated that for every month that a country is in total lockdown, it loses up to approximately 2% of its GDP [13]. With most of the workforce under lockdown, unemployment rates have soared causing a domino effect in which almost all sectors of the economy have suffered [21,22]. International trade has slowed significantly and areas such as travel and tourism, as well as sports, food and entertainment have been especially affected. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), tourism generates 10,3% of global GDP, making it an important driver of the global economy. For countries such as Spain and Italy the contribution of tourism to their GDP is even higher than the global average, 14,3% and 13,0% of their GDP in 2019, respectively. It is predicted that 13 million jobs in the travel and tourism sector will be lost in Europe due to the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, resulting in a tourism GDP loss of 633 billion [23].

The closure of schools and universities has also had great impact, limiting access to quality education, and sometimes resulting in students being unable to continue their studies. The disruption of classes at schools and universities has also placed an extra burden on society, causing concern for the short and long-term impact on the development of human capital and workforce [14,15]. Women and girls have been particularly affected by physical distancing measures, with a heavy loss in employment and lack of access to education. As the UN reported, decades of progress in women's rights have been scaled back in a matter of months [24,25].

SARS-CoV-2 Serology Testing

Several types of serology tests exist and each one has a different use depending on the setting and application. Currently available serology tests, or immunoassays, to detect SARS-CoV-2 antibody responses are designed for the detection of antigens or antibodies. Tests to detect the two main isotypes of antibodies, immunoglobulin M (IgM) and immunoglobulin G (IgG), are those most used to determine subject immunity. IgM represents an early antibody response during the acute phase of infection and may indicate current or recent infection. On the other hand, IgG, which are usually produced at a later stage, may indicate that a patient has been exposed, but was/may also still be infected, with or without symptoms. Immunoglobulin A (IgA) antibodies can also be detected in mucosal secretions or in serum samples but are often associated with earlier production of antibodies, shortly before IgM, and not associated with longer term immunity. SARS-CoV-2 antibody production, however, seems to differ from the typical scenario in that IgM and IgG tend to appear at the same time, while other models depict IgA and IgM developing simultaneously, with IgA even outlasting IgM antibodies in some instances [26].

Testing methods and setting needed to take and process samples, may also influence access and turnaround time of results. Antibody tests can be carried out either by laboratory-based assays or with rapid diagnostic tests (RDT). While the processing of samples for laboratory-based assays are more centralized, laboratories can analyse a higher number of samples. RDTs usually take 15-30 minutes to complete and are easily conducted and processed in decentralized settings. In general, laboratory-based assays generate more accurate results as they can provide qualitative (whether antibodies are present) and quantitative (amount of antibodies present) data as opposed to RDTs that only provide qualitative results [9]. The choice will depend on the application setting and on the scope of testing. Convenience and easier access to patients at point-of-care (POC) could be a preferable option of RDTs, yet it may require additional confirmation from more reliable laboratory-based assays.

Certain limitations of antibody tests have raised concerns, including their reliability or accuracy for detecting

SARS-CoV-2 infection due to possible cross-reactivity [27]. Antibody test accuracy is evaluated by its specificity and sensitivity. While specificity measures a test’s ability to correctly generate a negative result (true negative rate), sensitivity measures how often a test correctly generates a positive result (true positive rate). In clinical settings no assays reach 100% accuracy in both specificity and sensitivity. Based on the prevalence of infection in a determined population, the specificity and sensitivity of tests are used to determine the positive predictive value (PPV) and negative predictive value (NPV). Predictive values permit assessment of the effectiveness of a specific testing strategy to determine the accuracy and reliability of serology tests at the individual and at population levels [9]. Choosing a test with higher specificity may be preferable in populations with low prevalence of the disease. Nevertheless, if not possible, the use of tests with lower specificity could be accompanied by orthogonal testing algorithms [28].

Additional concerns arise from the fact that some individuals may produce very low levels of antibodies, which may be missed by serological tests [29]. Furthermore, there is some indication that a classic long-term immunity may not exist for SARS-CoV-2 infection. In fact, some studies have documented reinfections [9,30], and others suggest neutralizing antibodies may wane after two to three months, especially for those who experience mild or asymptomatic cases [29,31]. These ambiguities have implications for determining herd immunity and understanding the proportion of the population that must be immune at the community level to cease high rates of transmission.

Benefits of SARS-CoV-2 Serology Testing

Serology testing can help enrich epidemiological data through sero-surveillance to inform policymaking at different levels, especially when asymptomatic cases seem to be high. While some preliminary studies estimated the proportion of asymptomatic cases at 17.9%, others go as high as 40% [32,33]. Although serology tests cannot replace RNA tests in hospital settings, they may provide additional information to support decision making on patient clinical diagnosis [34]. Hence, conducting serology tests in the clinical setting, when the index of suspicion is high, but SARS-CoV-2 cannot be detected, represents an opportunity to determine if a patient had been infected, providing relevant data that can help complete datasets and enhance preparedness. Finally, implementation of systematic serology testing and sero-surveillance could also provide an alternative method to less accessible and affordable lab RNA testing [35]. To summarize, evidence suggests that serology testing can be used as one of the tools to control virus transmission, prevent community spread, and meet public health and community needs and demands.

Serology testing might also be beneficial for research purposes, especially under scenarios where the virus is still new and less prone to mutations and genetic diversification. The use of serological tests to assist the development of effective treatments and/or vaccines is prescribed in this context [36], as so is research to identify the role of neutralizing antibodies [37,38].

Challenges of SARS-CoV-2 Serology Testing

Although WHO has acknowledged the importance of serology testing for epidemiological surveillance and research purposes, it provides limited guidance and support on implementation, and lacks emphasis on the value of other possible benefits. The existing WHO interim guidelines on the use of POC immunodiagnostic tests recommends molecular testing as a gold standard [37], and in the latest interim guideline indicates serology testing as complementary in specific cases [39].

At the regional level, the European Commission has acknowledged the overall utility of serology testing [40], releasing its guidelines on SARS-CoV-2 testing in April 2020 [41]. That same month, the ECDC published its Strategies for the Surveillance of COVID-19 [42]. However, neither of these documents set a clear plan for rolling out serology testing across the region. Meanwhile, some European countries have independently implemented serology testing strategies, while others are still lagging [9,43] (see Supplementary Material 1). A list of sero-epidemiological studies conducted in the region can also be found on the ECDC’s website [44]. The fragmented initiatives across the region might result in the loss of opportunities to gather critical

information in an organized manner at a crucial time. Furthermore, in absence of comprehensive guidance, access to quality testing might be hindered due to insufficient supply and availability, and, in some cases, limited health systems capacity (effective infrastructure and a trained health workforce) [45].

Policy Recommendations

The eight policy recommendations offered in this paper focus on two main themes: the first four recommendations address the role and value of serology testing to contain and understand the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, and the last four address issues around health system strengthening. As shown in Fig. 1, serology testing might be a valuable resource and should be considered as part of a larger comprehensive pandemic preparedness and mitigation strategy. Currently serology testing is primarily recommended for sero-surveillance and research purposes; however, this study found the need to define targeted pathways and a framework for ultimate introduction of serology testing to complement the existing strategies along with new scientific and clinical data as it becomes available. Active promotion of well-designed projects should facilitate this goal. Moreover, evidence suggests - and this paper recommends - to prioritize by geographic hotspots and to consider serology testing as part of national containment strategies to jumpstart the economy for full control of epidemics.

| |
|--|
| <p>1. Serology testing should be considered as part of a larger comprehensive pandemic preparedness and mitigation plan for SARS-CoV-2 pandemic</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In the absence of specific pharmaceutical interventions and considering the high number of mild/asymptomatic cases, national plans should rely on different types of strategies and diagnostic tests available with serology testing recognized as a key component of the plan and take into consideration human rights and individual freedom. Immediate and rapid action is necessary to scale up the coordinated use of antibody tests to add knowledge to better understand the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic and the body's immune response. This can be established through the development and implementation of clear and thorough guidelines at the regional, national, and local levels. A robust testing policy, with capacity building and institutional strengthening as well as sufficient budget allocated to support it, will contribute to improve preparedness for upcoming waves of SARS-CoV-2 infection. It will also help countries plan for any future epidemics, ensuring greater national security. |
| <p>2. There is a need to define targeted pathways and a framework for ultimate introduction of serology testing to complement the existing strategies along with new scientific and clinical data as they become available. Active promotion of well-designed projects should facilitate this goal</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> European and national plans to obtain sero-surveillance data should be reinforced and promoted. Sero-surveillance data can be used to help strengthen the health system and understand where resources need to be allocated. Data gathered from serology testing should be collected at all levels, from the broader national level to the community level, to conduct sero-surveillance and identify sectors of the population that are especially at risk, in efforts to provide tailored interventions. Random samples gathered should be used to assess antibody prevalence and to conduct research on SARS-CoV-2 antibodies that will help inform the future development of vaccines and treatments. This includes the future use to distinguish between vaccine versus natural immunities and see if, in these conditions, measurable levels of antibodies can be detected. Epidemiological information collected from serology testing should continue to be systematically added to national surveillance systems as these data are vital to monitor trends and inform public health measures and control strategies. Countries can join global efforts [46] to improve further guidance and contribute to the global information pool on SARS-CoV-2. A matrix should be defined to help monitor and evaluate implementation of serology testing strategies, ensuring that information is properly collected and that the system is consistently improved; in addition to quantitative data, qualitative data should also be gathered in the community environment. Currently RT-PCR testing is the primary recommended tool for diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2; however, in the rare case of the lack of availability and affordability of such tests, or suspicion of infection with negative RT-PCR tests, serology tests can be used within the proper timeframe to support clinical decision-making and patient management. |
| <p>3. More active serology testing at the community level should be prioritized for geographic hotspots</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> As countries begin to lift physical distancing measures, testing in communities most at risk is essential to better understand how the virus acts as well as to possibly prevent and control community transmission. There should be a careful selection and prioritization of groups for sero-surveys based on risk-levels. Health disparities should be assessed and based on available data, while prioritization should consider including the following populations: healthcare workers, the elderly (especially in LTCFs, as well as personal support workers in these facilities), those with co-morbidities and people living in geographic hotspots. Tests should be free of charge and/or affordable in the context of public testing. Test results and what they mean in terms of protection and its durability should also be accessible to individuals. Community preparedness, through increased knowledge, awareness and understanding of serology testing and how it can benefit the community, should be considered to reduce stigma and facilitate access to diagnosis and treatment. Data privacy should be guaranteed, and testing conditions and confidentiality standards should be communicated to individuals prior to testing. |
| <p>4. National containment strategies to jumpstart the economy for full control of epidemics should also rely on serology testing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Serology tests should not be used to determine when employees can go back to work safely, or people can/cannot travel. Issuing of so-called immunity "passports" or "certificates" would have many associated risks, including creation of a false sense of security and perceptions of reduced risk leading to less use of personal protective measures. This may lead to further spread of the virus, possible stigmatization, limitations for employment and freedom of movement, and potentially a black market for immunity passes. Serology testing is essential to better understand antibody prevalence, which would allow for an increased level of safely returning to a pre-pandemic level of activity, even if we are still far from such a scenario. Consequently, there is a need to continue implementing all safety measures for infection prevention and control across different sectors of society, while ensuring protection in accordance with human rights and ethical standards. |

Figure 1: Recommendations on the role and value of serology testing to contain and understand SARS-CoV-2 pandemic

The introduction of serology testing would also require the reinforcement of the national health system infrastructure and capacity for optimal test performance and guarantee supply. Attention needs to be paid to ensure the use of high-quality serology assays considering both the analytical (i.e., high-level specificity and sensitivity) and clinical characteristics of patients. Finally, governments should clearly communicate

and engage with different stakeholders to raise awareness and ensure access to testing opportunities (see Fig. 2).

| |
|---|
| <p>1. National health system infrastructure and capacity building should be enforced for optimal test performance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investment in the appropriate equipment and set up, especially for conducting laboratory assays, should be ensured, particularly in remote and/or resource-poor regions of Europe. Operating procedures for testing should be standardized and proper training of health personnel reinforced to achieve optimal test performance and avoid mishandling of equipment or samples, and lack of consideration of the full context of the patient clinical status, etc. When POC systems are implemented, users should receive guidance (e.g., in-person or audio-video guidance) on how to obtain specimens, with serology test results always analyzed and communicated to the individual by a qualified health professional. In rare settings where laboratory assays may not be accessible and where a clinical decision is necessary, the use of antibody RDTs could be considered. |
| <p>2. Supply of serology tests should be guaranteed</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> National authorities should guarantee robust procurement of serology tests rapidly filling in the void of information required to better understand spread of the virus, as well as to prepare for potential future waves and re-emergence in the form of population-based sub-epidemics and outbreaks. Scale up of investment in and manufacturing of close-to-communities testing tools used at the POC should be ensured by national authorities to better understand the virus spread at the community level, especially in at-risk populations. Continued availability of and access to serology testing should be ensured, with lab and other equipment necessary for quality testing made available in all economic settings. Systems using different types of samples (i.e., DBS, saliva, whole blood, plasma, or serum) should be available to offer less invasive testing methods for different populations. Setting up local systems to gather information to inform a quantification process and ensure that tests are readily available, can help avoid supply gaps that may cause disturbances. |
| <p>3. It is imperative to ensure the use of high-quality serology assays considering both analytical (i.e., high-level specificity and sensitivity) and clinical characteristics of patients</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quality of serology tests is of utmost importance and must be ensured especially when used in clinical settings or when relying on tests to help guide national public health policy decisions. For this, independent/external evaluations should be supported in addition to manufacturer-led evaluations to validate the reliability and accuracy of these tests. The existing limitations of tests should be taken into consideration for individuals who may have been exposed to other types of potentially conflicting viruses, including seasonal coronaviruses or with other clinical factors that may influence results. Cross-validation and the optimization of sensitivity and specificity with consideration of PPVs and NPVs of selected assays should be assessed. Because regulatory approval alone does not guarantee that an assay is of high quality and sufficient to produce accurate enough results, it is important to ensure that the best quality ones are most widely used, especially if the information is added into sero-survey data surveillance systems and used to make policy decisions and community-level interventions. Manufacturers should be proactive in furthering research and development to define new antigens and epitopes that will help close the gap between immune reactivity and protective immunity. This will allow for less dependence on epidemiological studies and will assist in identifying protective immunity. In settings with low prevalence of SARS-CoV-2 infection and where serology tests with high specificity are not available, orthogonal testing algorithms can be considered, providing that the assay used in the first algorithm step assures a high sensitivity. |
| <p>4. National governments should clearly communicate and engage with different stakeholders and sectors across communities to raise awareness about serology testing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Continuity of care and follow-up with patients should be included in the testing strategies implemented, regardless of where the testing has been conducted. This should ensure the provision of post-test advice for the patient on the best possible actions the individual can take to safeguard his/her health, and their community's health (e.g., self-isolation, use of PPE, further testing, etc.). Patients should be able to access their results and receive advice to help better interpret the results by a qualified healthcare professional and understand that there is a current lack of knowledge on what an immune response really means for SARS-CoV-2. There should be clear communication and education plans to reach out to communities aiming at raising awareness and understanding about the available testing opportunities. The plan should communicate how testing is being conducted, improve health literacy, and provide any other information an individual should be aware of. Community engagement should include involvement of community leaders (e.g., social club, small business, or religious leaders), and civil society organizations (e.g., NGOs, including women's organizations) to increase understanding and support of prevention, on-the-ground service delivery, and control measures. The community should be mobilized and empowered to implement community-led information gathering and monitoring of local serology testing activities to help address any access barriers. |

Figure 2: Recommendations for health system strengthening to support appropriate serology testing within the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic

Discussion

Non-pharmaceutical measures taken by countries have varied depending on specific situation and socio-cultural context. As countries begin to lift some of these restrictions, different strategies have been considered. While some European countries are currently only contemplating occupational health and safety measures in the workplace and/or learning environments as part their exit strategy, other countries have recognized the positive role that serological testing might play. Given the inconsistencies in how serology testing strategies are being carried out, aligned guidance and a more coherent approach are necessary to support policy-level decision-making.

Whether a country is experiencing no burden of cases, sporadic cases, a cluster of cases/outbreaks, or community transmission, it should be continuously vigilant. Different testing strategies will yield different outcomes in understanding the true spread and severity of the virus sub-epidemics between countries and different populations at risk. Since mild/moderate or asymptomatic cases may go untested, the complete picture of the epidemiological situation cannot be fully understood in the absence of tests that can capture these cases. It is important to generate reliable and comprehensive information by conducting well-designed, scientifically, and ethically sound studies.

Sero-epidemiological population-based studies on antibody prevalence in defined communities would be essential for generating supportive data (such as prevalence, incidence, and fatality rates), and improve

surveillance, monitoring, and forecasting of SARS-CoV-2 infection in populations, which could support the development of effective public health intervention strategies. At the community level, sero-epidemiological information could provide a basis for better understanding of viral spread in terms of the geographic mechanisms behind the emergence of local and regional outbreaks. Additionally, it can provide data on selective distribution among diverse populations, such as those most vulnerable and sub-populations with higher risk due to comorbidities. Factors such as race, ethnicity, socio-economic status, and other aspects that can lead to marginalization or vulnerabilities, should be considered when performing sero-epidemiological studies and developing health policies. Conducting serology testing on vulnerable subsets of the population should be approached in a carefully planned manner so as not to place such populations at greater risk.

Serological testing can also post additional benefits to control the pandemic. Detection of mild or asymptomatic cases can provide better clarity to authorities, identifying true attack and mortality rates, as well as the potential role of immunity (including herd immunity), which can help better define and adapt policies to respond to viral patterns and develop effective prevention and control strategies. Furthermore, it could help assess the effectiveness of using non-pharmaceutical interventions in suppressing and containing the virus transmission.

Challenges may also arise from the inclusion of serological testing among testing strategies. Europe is a heterogeneous region with different social, economic, political, and cultural ethos and perspectives that can influence the use and uptake of serology testing. Further constrains may arise from insufficient supply and availability of quality tests and health workforce. An increase in demand could also outweigh the test production capacity, having further cost implications. A guidance on the role of serological testing must include actions directed at bringing awareness among policymakers and regulatory authorities. Dialogue is an essential factor that can enhance community engagement and coordinated policy action.

Conclusions

Due to this lack of comprehensive guidance at the global and European levels, there has been a diverse approach to SARS-CoV-2 testing policies, weakening the potential benefits that serology testing can bring to addressing the challenges posed by the pandemic. Europe is a heterogeneous region that can influence the use and uptake of serology testing. The global challenge demands the generation of reliable and accurate epidemiological information that can timely inform policy making, whether for diagnostic, treatment, and prevention strategies. Serological testing is critical to respond to this demand.

The policy recommendations offered in this paper intend to enable the implementation of SARS-CoV-2 serology testing to support mitigation strategies at the regional, national, and local levels, to build community awareness and guide advocacy strategies. With the situation evolving rapidly, it is important to notice that this paper should be considered a “live” document that must be updated as new evidence emerges.

Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge Katya Nogales for her role in helping finalize the manuscript. Her assistance was covered by her regular function in Policy Wisdom LLC.

Conflict of Interest Statement

While Abbott Laboratories has sponsored the production of this manuscript, it is fully independent of any influence from the company on the contributing authors. The included recommendations are based on a review of literature and publicly available evidence, as well as the subsequent expert deliberations to reach consensus on the subject matter.

Funding Sources

The authors disclosed receipt of financial support from Abbott Laboratories for the research, authorship, and publication of this article.

Author Contributions

All author contributed equally to this work.

References

1. The European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Data on 14-day notification rate of new COVID-19 cases and deaths [Internet]. 2020 [cited 28 Jan 2021]. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications-data/data-national-14-day-notification-rate-covid-19>
2. Nicola M, Alsafi Z, Sohrabi C, Kerwan A, Al-Jabir A, Iosifidis C, et al. The socio-economic implications of the coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19): A review. *Int J Surg*. 2020;78:185. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijsu.2020.04.018>
3. Chi Y-L, Regan L, Nemzoff C, Krubiner C, Anwar Y, Walker D. Beyond COVID-19: A Whole of Health Look at Impacts During the Pandemic Response. Policy Paper No. 117 [Report]. Washington DC: Center for Global Development; 2020 p. 1-19. <https://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/PP177-Beyond-COVID-scoping-paper.pdf>
4. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in the EU/EEA and the UK –eighth update. Rapid Risk Assessment Report [Report]. Stockholm: ECDC; 2020 p. 1-21. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/covid-19-rapid-risk-assessment-coronavirus-disease-2019-eighth-update-8-april-2020.pdf>
5. World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe. COVID-19 weekly surveillance report: Data for the week of 20-26 July (Epi week 30) [Internet]. 2020 [cited 26 July 2020]. <https://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/health-emergencies/coronavirus-covid-19/weekly-surveillance-report>
6. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. OECD Policy responses to coronavirus (COVID-19): Workforce and safety in long-term care during the COVID-19 pandemic. Updated 22 June 2020 [Report]. OECD; 2020 p. 1-5. <http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/workforce-and-safety-in-long-term-care-during-the-covid-19-pandemic-43fc5d50/>
7. London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine. One in five people globally could be at increased risk of severe COVID-19 disease through underlying health conditions [Internet]. 2020. [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.lshtm.ac.uk/newsevents/news/2020/one-five-people-globally-could-be-increased-risk-severe-covid-19-disease>

8. Mikolai J, Keenan K, Kulu H. Household level health and socio-economic vulnerabilities and the COVID-19 crisis: An analysis from the UK. Epub ahead of print 2 May 2020. <https://doi.org/10.31235/osf.io/4wtz8>
9. Gronvall G, Connell N, Kobokovich A, West R, Warmbrod KL, Shearer M, Inglesby T. Developing a National Strategy for Serology (Antibody Testing) in the United States [Report]. The Johns Hopkins Center for Health Security; 2020 p. 1-29. https://www.centerforhealthsecurity.org/our-work/pubs_archive/pubs-pdfs/2020/200422-national-strategy-serology.pdf
10. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Guidance on infection prevention and control of COVID-19 in migrant and refugee reception and detention centres in the EU/EEA and the UK – June 2020 [Report]. Stockholm: ECDC; 2020 p.1-17. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications-data/covid-19-guidance-prevention-control-migrant-refugee-centres>
11. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Guidance on the provision of support for medically and socially vulnerable populations in EU/EEA countries and the United Kingdom during the COVID-19 pandemic – July 2020 [Report]. Stockholm: ECDC; 2020 p.1-25. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/Medically-and-socially-vulnerable-populations-COVID-19.pdf>
12. Flaxman S, Mishra S, Gandy A, Unwin HJT, Mellan TA, Coupland H, et al. Estimating the effects of non-pharmaceutical interventions on COVID-19 in Europe. *Nature*. 2020;584(7820):257–61. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2405-7>.
13. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. OECD Policy responses to coronavirus (COVID-19): Evaluating the initial impact of COVID-19 containment measures on economic activity. Updated 10 June 2020 [Report]. OECD; 2020 p. 1-5. <http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/evaluating-the-initial-impact-of-covid-19-containment-measures-on-economic-activity-b1f6b68b/>
14. Reimers FM, Schleicher A. Schooling disrupted, schooling rethought. How the Covid-19 pandemic is changing education [Report]. OECD; 2020 p. 1-42. https://read.oecd-ilibrary.org/view/?ref=133_133390-1rtuknc0hi&title=Schooling-disrupted-schooling-rethought-How-the-Covid-19-pandemic-is-changing-education
15. World Bank. World Bank Education and COVID-19. Update 30 April 2020 [Internet]. 2020 [cited 26 July 2020]. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/data/interactive/2020/03/24/world-bank-education-and-covid-19>
16. World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe COVID-19 weekly surveillance report [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/health-emergencies/coronavirus-covid-19/weekly-surveillance-report>
17. Hamblin M. Is Everyone Depressed?. *The Atlantic*. 2020 May 22. <https://www.theatlantic.com/health/archive/2020/05/depression-coronavirus/611986>
18. World Health Organization. Substantial investment needed to avert mental health crisis [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.who.int/news-room/detail/14-05-2020-substantial-investment-needed-to-avert-mental-health-crisis>
19. United Nations. Policy Brief: COVID-19 and the Need for Action on Mental Health [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. https://www.un.org/sites/un2.un.org/files/un_policy_brief-covid_and_mental_health_final.pdf
20. Chandan JS, Taylor J, Bradbury-Jones C, Nirantharakumar K, Kane E, Bandyopadhyay S. COVID-19: a public health approach to manage domestic violence is needed. *Lancet Public Heal* [Internet]. 2020 Jun 1;5(6):e309. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(20\)30112-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(20)30112-2)

21. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. OECD Policy responses to coronavirus (COVID-19): COVID-19 and International Trade: Issues and actions. Updated 12 June 2020 [Report]. OECD; 2020 p. 1-12. <https://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/covid-19-and-international-trade-issues-and-actions-494da2fa/>
22. International Labour Organization. ILO Monitor: COVID-19 and the world of work. 5th Edition. Update 30 June 2020 [Report]. ILO; 2020 p. 1-22. https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/coronavirus/impacts-and-responses/WCMS_749399/lang-en/index.htm
23. European Data Portal. The impact of COVID-19 on the International Tourism Industry [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.europeandataportal.eu/en/covid-19/stories/impact-covid-19-international-tourism-industry>
24. Andrews A. The Coronavirus Recession is a “She-cession”. Institute for Women’s Policy Research. 2020 May 15. <https://iwpr.org/media/press-hits/the-coronavirus-recession-is-a-she-cession/>
25. United Nations. Generations of progress for women and girls could be lost to COVID pandemic, UN chief warns. UN News. 2020 August 31. <https://news.un.org/en/story/2020/08/1071372>
26. Yu H, Sun B, Fang Z, Zhao J, Liu X, Li Y, et al. Distinct features of SARS-CoV-2-specific IgA response in COVID-19 patients. *Eur Respir J* [Internet]. 2020;56(6):2001526. <https://doi.org/10.1183/13993003.01526-2020>
27. Deeks JJ, Dinnes J, Takwoingi Y, Davenport C, Spijker R, Taylor-Phillips S, et al. Antibody tests for identification of current and past infection with SARS-CoV-2. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2020;(6). <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD013652>
28. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Interim Guidelines for COVID-19 Antibody Testing. Update 1 August 2020 [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/lab/resources/antibody-tests-guidelines.html>
29. Van Caesele P, Bailey D, Forgie SE, et al. SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) serology: implications for clinical practice, laboratory medicine and public health. *Can Med Assoc J* [Internet]. 2020;192(34):E973 LP-E979. <https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.201588>
30. To KK-W, Hung IF-N, Ip JD, Chu AW-H, Chan W-M, Tam AR, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) Re-infection by a Phylogenetically Distinct Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 Strain Confirmed by Whole Genome Sequencing. *Clin Infect Dis* [Internet]. 2020 Aug 25:ciaa1275. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1275>
31. Lei Q, Li Y, Hou H-Y, Wang F, Ouyang Z-Q, Zhang Y, et al. Antibody dynamics to SARS-CoV-2 in asymptomatic COVID-19 infections. *Allergy* [Internet]. 2020 Oct 10:all.14622. <https://doi.org/10.1111/all.14622>
32. Mizumoto K, Kagaya K, Zarebski A, Chowell G. Estimating the asymptomatic proportion of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) cases on board the Diamond Princess cruise ship, Yokohama, Japan. *Euro Surveill*. 2020;25(10):pii=2000180. <https://doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.10.2000180>
33. Byambasuren O, Cardona M, Bell K, Clark J, McLaws M-L, Glasziou P. Estimating the extent of true asymptomatic COVID-19 and its potential for community transmission: systematic review and meta-analysis. *medRxiv*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.05.10.20097543>.
34. Spicuzza L, Montineri A, Manuele R, Crimi C, Pistorio MP, Campisi R, et al. Reliability and usefulness of a rapid IgM-IgG antibody test for the diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2 infection: A preliminary report. *J Infect* [Internet]. 2020;81(2):e53–54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.04.022>
35. Peeling RW, Wedderburn CJ, Garcia PJ, Boeras D, Fongwen N, Nkengasong J, et al. Serology testing in the COVID-19 pandemic response. *Lancet Infect Dis* [Internet]. 2020;20(9):e245–49. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(20\)30300-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(20)30300-0)

[//doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(20\)30517-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(20)30517-X)

36. Kuehn BM. Genetic Analysis Tracks SARS-CoV-2 Mutations in Human Hosts. JAMA [Internet]. 2020;323(23):2363. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.9825>
37. World Health Organization. Advice on the use of point-of-care immunodiagnostic tests for COVID-19: scientific brief - 8 April 2020 [Report]. Geneva: WHO; 2020 p. 1-3. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/advice-on-the-use-of-point-of-care-immunodiagnostic-tests-for-covid-19-scientific-brief>
38. European Commission. Current performance of COVID-19 test methods and devices and proposed performance criteria - Working document of Commission services – 6 April 2020 [Report]. European Commission; 2020 p. 1-30. <https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/40805>
39. World Health Organization. (2020). Diagnostic testing for SARS-CoV-2: interim guidance - 11 Sep 2020 [Report]. Geneva: WHO; 2020 p. 1-20. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/diagnostic-testing-for-sars-cov-2>
40. European Commission. Coronavirus response: Public Health [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. https://ec.europa.eu/info/live-work-travel-eu/health/coronavirus-response/public-health_en
41. European Commission. Guidelines on COVID-19 in vitro diagnostic tests and their performance. Brussels: European Commission; 2020 p. 1-20. https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/testing_kits_communication.pdf
42. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. (April 09, 2020). Strategies for the surveillance of COVID-19. Technical Report - 9 April 2020 [Report]. Stockholm: ECDC; 2020 p. 1-6. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/COVID-19-surveillance-strategy-9-Apr-2020.pdf>
43. Gronvall G., Connell N., Farley J.E., Inglesby T., Jennings J., Mehta S., West R., Kobokovich A. Developing a National Strategy for SARS-CoV-2. Sero-surveys in the United States [Report]. The Johns Hopkins Center for Health Security; 2020 p. 1-32. Available at: https://www.centerforhealthsecurity.org/our-work/pubs_archive/pubs-pdfs/2020/200618-sero-survey-strategy.pdf
44. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Immune responses and immunity to SARS-CoV-2 [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/covid-19/latest-evidence/immune-responses>
45. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. (June 15, 2020). Laboratory support for COVID-19 in the EU/EEA [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/novel-coronavirus/laboratory-support>
46. World Health Organization. Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) technical guidance: The Unity Studies: Early Investigations Protocols [Internet]. 2020 [cited 23 Dec 2020]. <https://www.who.int/emergencies/diseases/novel-coronavirus-2019/technical-guidance/early-investigations>

Hosted file

Supplementary Material 1.pdf available at <https://authorea.com/users/405114/articles/516136-advancing-efficient-and-timely-community-access-to-sars-cov-2-serology-testing-in-europe-a-multi-stakeholder-consensus>