

1 **Validity of self-testing at home with rapid SARS-CoV-2 antibody detection by lateral flow**  
2 **immunoassay**

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4 Christina J Atchison<sup>1,2</sup>, Maya Moshe<sup>3</sup>, Jonathan C Brown<sup>3</sup>, Matthew Whitaker<sup>1</sup>, Nathan C K Wong<sup>4</sup>,  
5 Anil A Bharath<sup>4</sup>, Rachel A McKendry<sup>5,6</sup>, Ara Darzi<sup>2,7</sup>, Deborah Ashby<sup>1</sup>, Christl A. Donnelly<sup>1,8,9</sup>, Steven  
6 Riley<sup>1,9</sup>, Paul Elliott<sup>1,2,10,11,12,13</sup>, Wendy S Barclay<sup>3</sup>, Graham S Cooke<sup>2,3,10</sup>, Helen Ward<sup>1,2,9,10</sup>

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8 1 School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, UK

9 2 Imperial College Healthcare NHS Trust, London, UK

10 3 Department of Infectious Disease, Imperial College London, London, UK

11 4 Department of Bioengineering, Imperial College London, London, UK

12 5 London Centre for Nanotechnology & Division of Medicine, University College London, London, UK

13 6 Division of Medicine, University College London, London, UK

14 7 Institute of Global Health Innovation at Imperial College London, London, UK

15 8 Department of Statistics, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

16 9 MRC Centre for Global infectious Disease Analysis and Abdul Latif Jameel Institute for Disease and  
17 Emergency Analytics, Imperial College London, London, UK

18 10 National Institute for Health Research Imperial Biomedical Research Centre, London, UK

19 11 MRC Centre for Environment and Health, School of Public Health, Imperial College London,  
20 London, UK

21 12 Health Data Research (HDR) UK London at Imperial College, London, UK

22 13 UK Dementia Research Institute at Imperial College, London, UK

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24 **Corresponding author:** Dr Christina Atchison, Patient Experience Research Centre, Imperial College  
25 London, St Mary's Campus, Paddington, London W2 1PG, UK. [christina.atchison11@imperial.ac.uk](mailto:christina.atchison11@imperial.ac.uk)

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27 **Running title:** Rapid SARS-CoV-2 antibody detection

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background:** We explore SARS-CoV-2 antibody lateral flow immunoassay (LFIA) performance under  
3 field conditions compared to laboratory-based electrochemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA) and  
4 live virus neutralisation.

5 **Methods:** In July 2021, 3758 participants performed, at home, a self-administered Fortress LFIA on  
6 finger-prick blood, reported and submitted a photograph of the result, and provided a self-collected  
7 capillary blood sample for assessment of IgG antibodies using the Roche Elecsys® Anti-SARS-CoV-2  
8 ECLIA. We compared the self-reported LFIA result to the quantitative ECLIA and checked the reading  
9 of the LFIA result with an automated image analysis (ALFA). In a subsample of 250 participants, we  
10 compared the results to live virus neutralisation.

11 **Results:** Almost all participants (3593/3758, 95.6%) had been vaccinated or reported prior infection.  
12 Overall, 2777/3758 (73.9%) were positive on self-reported LFIA, 2811/3457 (81.3%) positive by LFIA  
13 when ALFA-reported, and 3622/3758 (96.4%) positive on ECLIA (using the manufacturer reference  
14 standard threshold for positivity of  $0.8 \text{ U ml}^{-1}$ ). Live virus neutralisation was detected in 169 of 250  
15 randomly selected samples (67.6%); 133/169 were positive with self-reported LFIA (sensitivity  
16 78.7%; 95% CI 71.8, 84.6), 142/155 (91.6%; 86.1, 95.5) with ALFA, and 169 (100%; 97.8, 100.0) with  
17 ECLIA. There were 81 samples with no detectable virus neutralisation; 47/81 were negative with self-  
18 reported LFIA (specificity 58.0%; 95% CI 46.5, 68.9), 34/75 (45.3%; 33.8, 57.3) with ALFA, and 0/81  
19 (0%; 0.0, 4.5) with ECLIA.

20 **Conclusions:** Self-administered LFIA is less sensitive than a quantitative antibody test, but the  
21 positivity in LFIA correlates better than the quantitative ECLIA with virus neutralisation.

22  
23 **Keywords:** SARS-CoV-2, COVID-19, lateral flow immunoassay, home-testing, antibodies  
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## 1 **Introduction**

2 In April 2020 the REal-time Assessment of Community Transmission-2 (REACT-2) study of at-home  
3 SARS-CoV-2 antibody testing using self-administered finger prick lateral flow immunoassays (LFIAs)  
4 was initiated to provide community prevalence estimates of antibodies to SARS-CoV-2 in England (1-  
5 4). As COVID-19 vaccination programmes are rolled out worldwide, large-scale LFIA antibody testing  
6 could have an important additional role in monitoring immune responses to vaccinations and  
7 informing policy regarding booster doses (5).

8

9 The REACT-2 programme conducted extensive clinical and laboratory evaluation of SARS-CoV-2  
10 antibody LFIA performance (6-10), summarised in Supplementary Table S1. The LFIA selected  
11 (Fortress, Northern Ireland) was initially evaluated in a healthcare worker cohort known to have  
12 been infected with SARS-CoV-2, with a sensitivity 84.0% (95% confidence interval [CI] 70.5, 93.5) and  
13 specificity 98.6% (95% CI 97.1, 99.4) (6).

14

15 Prevalence studies based on self-administered LFIA have generally produced a lower estimate of  
16 population SARS-CoV-2 antibody positivity than those using quantitative laboratory assays, despite  
17 adjustment for test performance (11). As a threshold test, it is likely that the LFIA is predominantly  
18 missing people with low antibody titres. To investigate the utility of the Fortress LFIA under field  
19 conditions, we compare results of self-reported qualitative LFIA results against a quantitative  
20 laboratory-based electrochemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA) performed on simultaneously  
21 self-collected capillary blood. We also explore the relationship between LFIA results and antibody  
22 titres with viral neutralisation.

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## 24 **Methods**

### 25 ***Study design and sampling***

26 The study was conducted between 1<sup>st</sup> July 2021 and 10<sup>th</sup> August 2021.

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This study recruited participants from round 6 of the REACT-2 study of SARS-CoV-2 antibody prevalence in the community in England, UK. Methods for the REACT-2 study are published elsewhere (1, 12). Briefly, REACT-2 is a series of cross-sectional population surveys. At each round, we contacted a random sample of the population by sending a letter to named individuals aged 18 or over from the National Health Service (NHS) patient list (covering almost the whole population) and respondents were sent an LFIA self-testing kit to perform at home. The LFIA used (Fortress, Northern Ireland) detects antibody against the spike (“S”) protein of the virus (contained in, or coded by, all UK licensed vaccines).

For this follow-up study, purposeful random sampling was carried out by re-contacting 7000 participants who had participated in round 6 of REACT-2 in May 2021, aiming to achieve a sample size of 4000. We invited equal numbers in each of the following categories based on results from round 6 – unvaccinated and LFIA negative, double vaccinated (>20 days previously) and LFIA negative, unvaccinated and LFIA positive, and double vaccinated and LFIA positive. This sampling frame was chosen to recruit sufficient people with positive and negative self-test results post-infection and post-vaccination, recognising that many people would have received further vaccination in the interim.

People were invited by post to register until approximately 4000 had signed up. Registration was undertaken online or by telephone. Those who registered were sent a further LFIA test kit to carry out at home, and asked to report the result online, upload a photograph of the result, and complete a short online questionnaire. In addition, participants were asked to take a 400 to 500µl capillary blood sample at the same time-point using an at-home self-collection blood device (Tasso-SST (13)) and return the sample for serological assessment of antibodies.

1 **ALFA (Automated Lateral Flow Analysis): machine learning algorithm for automated analysis of**  
2 **LFIA images**

3 We have shown previously that participant reported LFIA interpretation is consistent with clinician  
4 interpreted results (9, 10). However, we developed a computational pipeline (ALFA) which used  
5 machine learning algorithms to analyse participant-submitted images of the Fortress LFIA from  
6 REACT-2 rounds 1 to 5. Methods for development of ALFA are published elsewhere (14). Automated  
7 analysis showed substantial agreement with human experts and performed consistently better than  
8 study participants, particularly for weak positive IgG results (14).

9  
10 **Laboratory Methods**

11 Serological assessment was performed in a commercial laboratory on the Roche Elecsys® Anti-SARS-  
12 CoV-2 ECLIA which reports a quantitative anti-Spike (anti-S) antibody titre. This assay has been  
13 previously validated by Public Health England who reported a specificity of 100% (95% CI 99.1, 100),  
14 and a sensitivity of 98.5% (95% CI 96.9, 99.4) in samples 21 days post-onset in people with PCR-  
15 confirmed infection (15). In addition, the Roche ECLIA demonstrates prolonged antibody detection  
16 compared to many other SARS-CoV-2 laboratory-based assays (16, 17). The threshold value for  
17 antibody positivity for the Roche ECLIA is 0.8 U ml<sup>-1</sup> based on manufacturer instructions (15). The  
18 lower limit of quantification is 0.4 U ml<sup>-1</sup> (18). Measurements below this value were truncated at 0.4  
19 U ml<sup>-1</sup>. The assay was analysed in its original scale (U ml<sup>-1</sup>). WHO international standard units are  
20 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> for anti-spike IgG to allow comparison across studies and platforms (19). The conversion  
21 factor for U ml<sup>-1</sup> to BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> for the Roche Elecsys® Anti-SARS-CoV-2 assay:

$$\text{BAU ml}^{-1} = \text{U ml}^{-1} / 0.972 \text{ (18)}$$

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23  
24 In addition, we selected 250 serum samples at random for assessment on a live virus neutralisation  
25 assay. Serum samples were heat-inactivated and a 2-fold dilution series was performed in 96-well  
26 plates. Serum dilutions were incubated with 100 TCID<sub>50</sub> SARS-CoV-2 (WT D614G) for 1 hour at 37°C.

1 Vero E6 cells modified to overexpress ACE2 and TMPRSS2 (VAT cells) were then added to the wells  
2 and incubated at 37°C for 72 hours before assessing the cells for the presence or absence of virus-  
3 induced cytopathic effect (CPE). The neutralisation titre of a serum sample was defined as the  
4 reciprocal of the highest serum dilution at which CPE was not observed, demonstrating antibody-  
5 mediated protection from virus, e.g. protection of cells at a 1:20 dilution of serum gives a  
6 neutralisation titre value of 20. Serum samples were titrated 2-fold in duplicate with a starting  
7 dilution of 1:10 meaning if 1 of the 2 replicate wells were protected at this first dilution, the titre was  
8 expressed as 7.1, halfway to the 1:10 dilution on a log<sub>2</sub> scale. Serum samples for which CPE was  
9 observed in all wells were therefore defined as having neutralisation titre of <7.1. Using a calculated  
10 conversion factor of 2.6 BAU per neutralisation titre unit, the lower limit of detection of 7.1 equates  
11 to 18.5 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> (20) (Supplementary Figure S1).

12

### 13 **Data analysis**

14 We report on positivity based on three results for each participant: self-administered and reported  
15 LFIA (hereafter self-LFIA), self-administered and machine-read LFIA (hereafter ALFA) and Roche  
16 Elecsys® platform (hereafter ECLIA) using the manufacturer recommended threshold  $\geq 0.8$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>. As  
17 the manufacturer's threshold for antibody positivity for the ECLIA is likely too low to correlate with  
18 moderate-to-high levels of protection from infection based on recent studies in the UK population  
19 (21, 22), we also report positivity at different thresholds of  $\geq 100$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>,  $\geq 350$  U ml<sup>-1</sup> and  $\geq 1000$  U  
20 ml<sup>-1</sup> – equivalent to  $\geq 103$  BAU ml<sup>-1</sup>,  $\geq 360$  BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> and  $\geq 1029$  BAU ml<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. In addition, we  
21 report the distribution of quantitative ECLIA results for self-LFIA and ALFA positive and negative  
22 results.

23

24 We assessed the association between self-LFIA, ALFA, ECLIA and live virus neutralisation titres, with  
25 the threshold of neutralisation detection defined as a titre of  $\geq 7.1$  (equivalent to 18.5 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup>). We  
26 then used this as a standard to determine sensitivity and specificity of self-LFIA, ALFA and ECLIA at

1 different thresholds as a measure of neutralisation. The Mann-Whitney test was performed to  
2 compare neutralisation titres according to whether positive or negative by self-LFIA, and to compare  
3 IgG antibody titres according to whether positive or negative by self-LFIA. The threshold for  
4 statistical significance was  $p < 0.05$ .

5  
6 As a supplementary analysis, we used multiple linear regression to quantify associations between  
7 demographic characteristics, history of COVID-19, vaccination status and time since double  
8 vaccinated (two doses) and log<sub>10</sub>-transformed antibody titres. Methods and results are described in  
9 Supplementary Table S3.

10

11 Data analysed using statistical packages STATA version 15.0 and GraphPad Prism 9.0.0.

12

### 13 **Ethics**

14 Ethical approval from South Central–Berkshire B Research Ethics Committee (20/SC/0206; IRAS  
15 283805).

16

### 17 **Results**

18 Overall, 71.0% (4972/7000) of invited individuals agreed to take part in the study, of whom, 1214  
19 (24.4%) were excluded from the analysis due to either a missing or invalid self-LFIA result (n=327) or  
20 a missing or void ECLIA result (n=887). The reasons for the large number of missing or void ECLIA  
21 results include insufficient and incorrectly labelled samples and laboratory error, but the distribution  
22 of these was not provided by the commercial laboratory performing the tests. A total of 3758  
23 participants had paired self-LFIA and ECLIA results, 96.6% (3457/3578) of whom also uploaded a  
24 photograph of their self-LFIA test which enabled analysis using ALFA. Participant characteristics are  
25 shown in Table 1. Most participants had received one (862, 22.9%) or two (2430, 64.7%) COVID-19

1 vaccine doses, and 27.4% reported suspected or confirmed past COVID-19 (Table 1), meaning that  
2 almost all participants (3593/3758, 95.6%) reported either vaccine or prior infection.

3

#### 4 ***IgG anti-S positivity and antibody titres***

5 Self-LFIA positivity was 73.9% (2777/3758, 95% CI 72.5, 75.3) (Table 1); ALFA positivity was 81.3%  
6 (2811/3457, 95% CI 80.0, 82.6), and ECLIA positivity was 96.4% (3622/3758, 95% CI 95.7, 97.0) using  
7 the manufacturer's threshold of  $\geq 0.8$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>. ECLIA positivity decreased to 83.1% (95% CI 81.9, 84.3),  
8 62.7% (95% CI 61.1, 64.2) and 47.0% (95% CI 45.4, 48.6) by increasing the ECLIA threshold to  $\geq 100$  U  
9 ml<sup>-1</sup>,  $\geq 350$  U ml<sup>-1</sup> and  $\geq 1000$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

10

11 Figure 1 shows the distribution of ECLIA titres for samples that were positive and negative on self-  
12 reported LFIA. The self-LFIA positive samples had a median anti-S titre of 1702.0 U ml<sup>-1</sup> (IQR 357.9 to  
13 7416.0) and a range of 0.40 U ml<sup>-1</sup> to 25000.0 U ml<sup>-1</sup>. The self-LFIA negative samples had a median  
14 anti-S titre of 142.6 U ml<sup>-1</sup> (IQR 46.6 to 384.0). There were 859 discrepant results with a negative  
15 self-LFIA and a positive ECLIA; for these samples the median anti-S titre was 197.6 U ml<sup>-1</sup> (IQR 78.9  
16 to 443.7) indicating that these were weaker positives on average. Of the self-LFIA positive samples  
17 with a negative ECLIA (n=14), the median anti-S titre was 0.4 U ml<sup>-1</sup>; anti-S titre ranged from 0.4 U  
18 ml<sup>-1</sup> to 0.75 U ml<sup>-1</sup> indicating false positives (Table 2).

19

20 Table 2 also shows the comparison using the machine-read (ALFA) LFIA results; for samples with a  
21 negative ALFA and positive ECLIA, the median anti-S titre was lower than self-LFIA at 131.67 (IQR  
22 63.3-267.3) suggesting that ALFA was better at detecting weaker positives.

23

24 Supplementary Table S2 shows the same results calibrated with anti-S thresholds of  $\geq 100$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>,  
25  $\geq 350$  U ml<sup>-1</sup> and  $\geq 1000$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>.

26



## 1 **Live Virus Neutralisation**

2 Neutralisation assays were performed on 250 randomly selected serum samples, including 167 self-  
3 reported positive and 83 self-reported negative LFIA participants.

4  
5 Live virus neutralisation was detected in 169 of 250 samples. The self-LFIA had an estimated  
6 sensitivity of 78.7% (133/169; 95% CI 71.8, 84.6) and specificity of 58.0% (47/81; 95% CI 46.5, 68.9)  
7 using detectable neutralisation (equivalent to at least 18.5 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup>) as the comparator (Table 3).  
8 The ALFA-LFIA had an estimated sensitivity of 92.3% (142/155; 95% CI 86.9, 95.9) and specificity of  
9 45.3% (34/75; 95% CI 33.8, 57.3) (Table 3). The ECLIA had a sensitivity of 100% (95% CI 97.8, 100.0)  
10 and specificity of 0% (95% CI 0.0, 4.5) as all neutralisation titres <7.1 threshold were positive on the  
11 ECLIA (Table 3). All 250 samples remained positive by ECLIA when the anti-S titre threshold was  
12 increased to 1000 U ml<sup>-1</sup>.

13  
14 Figure 2 shows the distribution of live virus neutralisation titres against anti-S titres, with points  
15 labelled for LFIA positive and negative. Neutralisation titres were higher in participants with positive  
16 compared to negative LFIA results (p<0.0001). A similar association was observed for anti-S titres  
17 and LFIA result (p<0.0001).

18  
19 The conversion of neutralisation titres to BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> following titration of a WHO antibody reference  
20 standard showed that 34.9% (59/169) of the neutralisation positive samples had a titre of ≥100 BAU  
21 ml<sup>-1</sup> (Supplementary Figure 1).

## 23 **Discussion**

24 The self-administered LFIA offers a validated qualitative tool that provides a means for obtaining  
25 community-wide SARS-CoV-2 antibody positivity prevalence estimates rapidly and at scale, at  
26 reasonable cost by adjusting the results for known test performance. The threshold for positivity of

1 the LFIA is higher than that of laboratory-based quantitative assays, producing lower estimates of  
2 population antibody prevalence.

3  
4 Although the LFIA has a threshold that means it does not detect a proportion of positive anti-spike  
5 IgG registered on the ECLIA, that threshold is close to the level at which neutralising antibody can be  
6 reliably measured. Indeed, we demonstrated that the estimated specificity of the self-administered  
7 self-reported Fortress LFIA against positive neutralisation titres was substantially higher than that of  
8 the Roche ECLIA with manufacturer's threshold of 0.8 U ml<sup>-1</sup> (58.0% vs. 0%). There is evidence that  
9 the presence of neutralising antibodies in sera is highly predictive of protection from symptomatic  
10 disease following SARS-CoV-2 infection and that declining levels of neutralising antibody titres  
11 correlate with increased risk of symptomatic infection and severe disease (23).

12  
13 We question the clinical and epidemiological significance of detectable but low antibody titres (post-  
14 infection or post-vaccine) picked up by the low thresholds for positivity used for quantitative  
15 laboratory assays and suggest that these cut-offs may need to be recalibrated (upwards) to be a  
16 useful marker of protection from infection and/or severe disease. The LFIA is predominantly missing  
17 people with low antibody titres. The implications of a higher threshold for IgG detection on LFIA  
18 testing are not yet well understood and may represent an important marker of protection. Wei at al.  
19 recently explored the association between anti-spike IgG levels and protection from SARS-CoV-2  
20 infection with majority Delta (B.1.617.2) variant in a large representative sample of households with  
21 longitudinal follow-up (22). They showed that protection against infection rose sharply as antibody  
22 levels increased in unvaccinated participants with prior infection, with 67% protection at 33 BAU  
23 ml<sup>-1</sup> using the OmniPATH 384 Combi SARS-CoV-2 IgG ELISA (Thermo Fisher Scientific) assay. Higher  
24 antibody levels were required to reach the same level of protection after vaccination, with 67%  
25 protection at 107 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> or 94 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> with ChAdOx1 (Oxford-AstraZeneca) or BNT162b2  
26 (Pfizer), respectively (22). The threshold for determining IgG positivity for the assay used was  $\geq 23$

1 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> (22). Similarly, Fent et al. showed a vaccine efficacy of 80% against symptomatic infection  
2 with majority Alpha (B.1.1.7) variant was achieved with 264 BAU ml<sup>-1</sup> (21).

3  
4 Although IgG detection on LFIA or quantitative laboratory-based assays is not designed to document  
5 the presence of neutralising antibodies, these findings suggest that antibody positivity on the LFIA  
6 could be useful to measure waning of vaccine induced immunity in the population. This approach  
7 would indeed be more useful than quantitative assays with low thresholds for positivity: these could  
8 result in false reassurance, as the lower thresholds are not as well associated with positive  
9 neutralisation titres. Given the strong evidence of a protective role for neutralising serum antibodies  
10 (23, 24), and evidence for correlation between SARS-CoV-2 IgG antibody values and neutralisation  
11 titres (21), calibrated to the appropriate positivity threshold for protection, rapid antibody testing by  
12 LFIA may prove a valuable tool for monitoring the distribution of protective serological antibody  
13 responses in the population to inform policy for subsequent vaccination programmes, including the  
14 targeting of booster vaccines, and could be useful as a screening tool for identifying individuals in  
15 the community with below threshold antibody levels who may benefit from further vaccination or  
16 other prevention measures or treatment, including anti-viral therapy, as laboratory-based methods  
17 may cause a delay in initiating treatment. However, a cost-effectiveness analysis comparing the use  
18 of LFIAs to other options for targeting prevention and treatment programmes would be required to  
19 inform future policy.

### 21 ***Strengths and Limitations***

22 Unlike previous evaluations of the Fortress LFIA, this study replicates the 'real-world' application of  
23 LFIAs in large-scale population antibody prevalence studies where users are self-administering the  
24 test in their own homes following detailed instructions. Therefore, the study authentically explores  
25 the accuracy of the Fortress LFIA under the field conditions in which it is most likely to be deployed  
26 for surveillance.

1

2 Our purposeful sampling strategy of selecting approximately equal numbers of unvaccinated and  
3 LFIA negative, double vaccinated and LFIA negative, unvaccinated and LFIA positive, and double  
4 vaccinated and LFIA positive may have introduced biases. By purposive selection of vaccinated LFIA  
5 negative individuals there is the possibility that we enriched our sample for low level antibody titres  
6 that might be less common at population level, thus overall figures on sensitivity cannot be  
7 extrapolated to real world use in a random population sample.

8

9 We used data from 1<sup>st</sup> July 2021 to 10<sup>th</sup> August 2021- that is, while the Delta (B.1.617.2) variant  
10 accounted for nearly all cases (25). Our neutralisation assays used a first wave isolate as target, with  
11 antigenicity the same as the Wuhan strain. In settings in which Delta is not the dominant variant  
12 causing disease, or where neutralisation assays use different strains of the virus, the relationships  
13 between IgG antibody positivity by LFIA or quantitative anti-S assays and neutralisation titres shown  
14 here may not apply. Indeed, Wall et al. demonstrated neutralising antibody titres were 5.8-fold  
15 lower against Delta relative to the Wuhan variant after two doses of BNT162b2 (26). Neutralising  
16 antibody titres against Omicron (B.1.1.529) have been shown to be eight-fold lower than with Delta  
17 after two BNT162b2 vaccinations (27). As such, emerging viral variants might need higher antibody  
18 levels for the same level of neutralising activity (23). In the case where relationships between  
19 antibody levels and levels of protection do not change with other variants and assuming that  
20 neutralisation is a major mechanism of protection (or that the mechanism of protection remains  
21 correlated with neutralisation over time), future LFIAs could be calibrated to the appropriate  
22 antibody positivity threshold for protection.

23

## 24 **Conclusion**

25 At-home self-testing and reporting with LFIAs provide a rapid and cost-effective means to assess  
26 population antibody prevalence of SARS-CoV-2. In the future, calibrating the threshold for antibody

1 positivity of LFIAs to binding or neutralising antibody levels correlated with protection from infection  
2 and/or severe disease, could provide a valuable role for home-testing by LFIA to inform vaccination  
3 and treatment strategies going forward. As a first step it would be important to understand the  
4 extent to which a positive LFIA result is predictive of protection against infection, illness and  
5 hospitalisation.

6

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12

### 13 **Author contributions**

14 HW, CJA and GSC conceptualized and designed the study and drafted the manuscript. CJA, HW, MW,  
15 MM, JCB, NCKW, AAB and WSB undertook data collection and data analysis. DA provided statistical  
16 advice. HW, GSC, WSB, PE, CAD, SR and AD provided study oversight. AD and PE obtained funding.  
17 SR, RAM, AAB, DA, WSB, CAD, AD and PE critically reviewed the manuscript. All authors read and  
18 approved the final version of the manuscript. HW is the guarantor for this paper. The corresponding  
19 author attests that all listed authors meet authorship criteria and that no others meeting the criteria  
20 have been omitted, had full access to all the data in the study, and had final responsibility for the  
21 decision to submit for publication.

22

23

1 **Data Availability Statement**

2 All data underlying the results are available as part of the article and no additional source data are  
3 required.

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23

24 **Declaration of interests**

25 We declare no competing interests.

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1 **Table 1: Demographic and clinical characteristics of the study participants by antibody status for self-LFIA, ALFA and ECLIA at 0.8U ml<sup>-1</sup>**

Characteristic	All participants	Self-LFIA	ALFA		ECLIA (0.8 U ml <sup>-1</sup> )		
	N (% of total)	no. positive/ total	positivity % <sup>b</sup> , (95% CI)	no. positive/ total	positivity % <sup>b</sup> , (95% CI)	no. positive/ total	positivity % <sup>a</sup> , (95% CI)
<b>All participants</b>	3758	2777/3758	73.9 (72.5, 75.3)	2811 /3457	81.3 (80.0, 82.6)	3622/3758	96.4 (95.7, 97.0)
<b>Sex</b>							
Female	2275 (60.5)	1760/2275	77.4 (75.6, 79.0)	1766/2095	84.3 (82.7, 85.8)	2192/2275	96.4 (95.5, 97.0)
Male	1483 (39.5)	1017/1483	68.6 (66.2, 70.9)	1045/1362	76.7 (74.4, 78.9)	1430/1483	96.4 (95.3, 97.3)
<b>Age group (years)</b>							
18-24	385 (10.2)	343/385	89.1 (85.5, 91.8)	341/372	91.7 (88.4, 94.1)	369/385	95.8 (93.3, 97.4)
25-34	704 (18.7)	624/704	88.6 (86.1, 90.8)	625/688	90.8 (88.4, 92.8)	669/704	95.0 (93.1, 96.4)
35-44	430 (11.4)	386/430	89.8 (86.5, 92.3)	381/481	91.2 (88.0, 93.5)	416/430	96.7 (94.6, 98.1)
45-54	163 (4.3)	128/163	78.5 (71.5, 84.2)	126/157	80.3 (73.2, 85.8)	152/163	93.3 (88.2, 96.2)
55-64	628 (16.7)	449/628	71.5 (67.8, 74.9)	459/574	80.0 (76.5, 83.0)	592/628	94.3 (92.1, 95.8)
65-74	1292 (34.4)	756/1292	58.5 (55.8, 61.2)	795/1125	70.7 (67.9, 73.3)	1270/1292	98.3 (97.4, 98.9)
75+	156 (4.2)	91/156	58.3 (50.4, 65.9)	84/123	68.3 (59.4, 76.0)	154/156	98.7 (94.9, 100.0)
<b>Ethnicity</b>							
White	3420 (91.6)	2502/3420	73.2 (71.6, 74.6)	2533/3136	80.8 (79.4, 82.1)	3298/3420	96.4 (95.8, 97.0)
Mixed	59 (1.6)	49/59	83.1 (70.9, 90.8)	52/59	88.1 (76.7, 94.4)	56/59	94.9 (84.9, 98.4)
Asian	152 (4.1)	124/152	81.6 (74.5, 87.0)	126/146	86.3 (79.6, 91.0)	147/152	96.7 (92.3, 98.6)
Black	69 (1.9)	59/69	85.5 (74.8, 92.1)	57/63	90.5 (80.0, 95.8)	66/69	95.7 (87.0, 98.6)
Other	35 (0.9)	25/35	71.4 (53.6, 84.4)	24/31	77.4 (58.4, 89.3)	32/35	91.4 (75.4, 97.4)
<b>History of COVID-19</b>							
Positive PCR test	489 (13.0)	468/489	95.7 (93.5, 97.2)	459/470	97.7 (95.8, 98.7)	488/489	99.8 (98.6, 100.0)
Suspected by doctor	54 (1.4)	48/54	88.9 (76.9, 95.1)	49/53	92.5 (81.0, 97.2)	52/54	96.3 (85.8, 99.1)
Suspected by self	487 (13.0)	421/487	86.5 (83.1, 89.2)	417/469	88.9 (85.7, 91.5)	455/487	93.4 (90.8, 95.3)
No	2728 (72.6)	1840/2728	67.5 (65.7, 69.2)	1886/2465	76.5 (74.8, 78.1)	2627/2728	96.3 (95.5, 96.9)
<b>No. of pre-existing health conditions<sup>b</sup></b>							
>1	701 (18.7)	433/701	61.8 (58.1, 65.3)	443/621	71.3 (67.6, 74.8)	668/701	95.3 (93.4, 96.6)
1	881 (23.4)	606/881	68.8 (65.6, 71.8)	626/800	78.3 (75.2, 81.0)	855/881	97.0 (95.7, 98.0)
0	2176 (57.9)	1738/2176	79.9 (78.1, 81.5)	1742/2036	85.6 (84.0, 87.0)	2099/2176	96.5 (95.6, 97.2)
<b>Vaccine status</b>							
0	466 (12.4)	335/466	71.9 (67.6, 75.8)	329/444	74.1 (69.8, 78.0)	363/466	77.9 (73.9, 81.4)
1	862 (22.9)	793/862	92.0 (90.0, 93.6)	789/837	94.3 (92.5, 95.7)	856/862	99.3 (98.5, 99.7)
2	2430 (64.7)	1649/2430	67.9 (66.0, 69.7)	1693/2176	77.8 (76.0, 79.5)	2403/2430	98.9 (98.4, 99.2)
<b>Vaccine type</b>							
Pfizer-BioNTech	1965 (59.8)	1733/1965	88.2 (86.7, 89.5)	1704/1836	92.8 (91.5, 93.9)	1948/1965	99.1 (98.6, 99.5)
AstraZeneca	1210 (36.8)	599/1210	49.5 (46.7, 52.3)	671/1066	63.0 (60.0, 65.8)	1195/1210	98.8 (98.0, 99.3)
Moderna	110 (3.4)	105/110	95.5 (89.4, 98.1)	102/104	98.1 (92.5, 99.5)	109/110	99.1 (93.7, 99.9)
<b>Time since second vaccination (N=2396) (weeks)</b>							
0-3	326 (13.6)	312/326	95.7 (92.9, 97.4)	306/317	96.5 (93.8, 98.1)	326/326	100 (98.9, 100)
4-12	268 (11.2)	175/268	65.5 (59.4, 70.8)	178/232	76.7 (70.8, 81.8)	268/268	100 (98.6, 100)
13-23	1766 (73.7)	1122/1766	63.5 (61.3, 65.7)	1171/1571	74.5 (72.3, 76.6)	1739/1766	98.5 (97.8, 98.9)
24+	36 (1.5)	21/36	58.3 (41.1, 73.7)	23/31	74.2 (55.1, 87.1)	36/36	100 (90.3, 100)

2 <sup>a</sup> Percentages are calculated from non-missing values; <sup>b</sup> A pre-existing health condition is any physical or mental illness or health condition that existed at the time of study.

1 **Table 2: Comparison of results from paired self-LFIA and ALFA, and ECLIA (using the**  
 2 **manufacturer's threshold of  $\geq 0.8$  U ml<sup>-1</sup>), N=3758**

Self-LFIA	ECLIA positive N (median (IQR) titre)	ECLIA negative N (median (IQR) titre)	Total N (median (IQR) titre)
<b>Positive</b>	2763 (1715.0; 368.9-7489.0)	14 (0.4; 0.4-0.4)	2777 (1702.0; 357.9-7416.0)
<b>Negative</b>	859 (197.6; 78.9-443.7)	122 (0.4; 0.4-0.4)	981 (142.6; 46.6-384.0)
<b>Total</b>	3622 (925.4; 207.5-4655.0)	136 (0.4; 0.4-0.4)	3758 (824.1; 168.5-4286.0)
<b>ALFA</b>			
<b>Positive</b>	2798 (1566.5; 313.0-7119.0)	13 (0.4; 0.4-0.4)	2811 (1541.0; 306.2-7079.0)
<b>Negative</b>	531 (131.6; 63.3-267.3)	115 (0.4; 0.4-0.4)	646 (102.7; 24.7-235.7)
<b>Total</b>	3329 (947.4; 201.4-4990.0)	128 (0.4; 0.4-0.4)	3457 (831.5; 165.1-4668.0)

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1 **Table 3: Comparison of results from self-LFIA and ALFA, ECLIA and SARS-CoV-2 neutralisation titre**  
 2 **(NT) (neutralisation titres of 7.1 have been assigned an arbitrary threshold of 0.1), N=250 (Self-**  
 3 **LFIA) and N=230 (ALFA).**

Self- LFIA	NT positive (median (IQR) titre)	NT negative (median (IQR) titre)	Total (median (IQR) titre)	Performance (95% CI)
<b>Positive</b>	133 (20.0; 10.0-113.1)	34 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	167 (14.1; 7.1-80.0)	Sensitivity: 78.7 (71.8-84.6)
<b>Negative</b>	36 (10.0;7.1-14.1)	47 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	83 (0.1; 0.1-10.0)	Specificity: 58.0 (46.5-68.9)
<b>Total</b>	169 (20.0;10.0-80.0)	81 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	250 (10.0; 0.1-28.3)	
<b>ALFA</b>				
<b>Positive</b>	142 (20.0; 10.0-104.8)	41 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	183 (14.1; 7.1-56.6)	Sensitivity: 91.6 (86.1-95.5)
<b>Negative</b>	13 (10.0;7.1-14.1)	34 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	47 (0.1; 0.1-7.1)	Specificity: 45.3 (33.8-57.3)
<b>Total</b>	155 (20.0; 10.0-80.0)	75 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	230 (10.0; 0.1-28.3)	
<b>ECLIA (<math>\geq 0.8</math> U ml<sup>-1</sup>)</b>				
<b>Positive</b>	169 (20; 10-80)	81 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	250 (10; 0.1-28.3)	Sensitivity: 100% (97.8-100)
<b>Negative</b>	0 -	0 -	0 -	Specificity: 0% (0-4.5)
<b>Total</b>	169 (20; 10-80)	81 (0.1; 0.1-0.1)	250 (10; 0.1-28.3)	

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1 **Figure Legends**

2 **Figure 1: Box plot (median and quartiles) illustrating the distribution of quantitative ECLIA**  
3 **antibody titres by self-LFIA result (N=3758)**

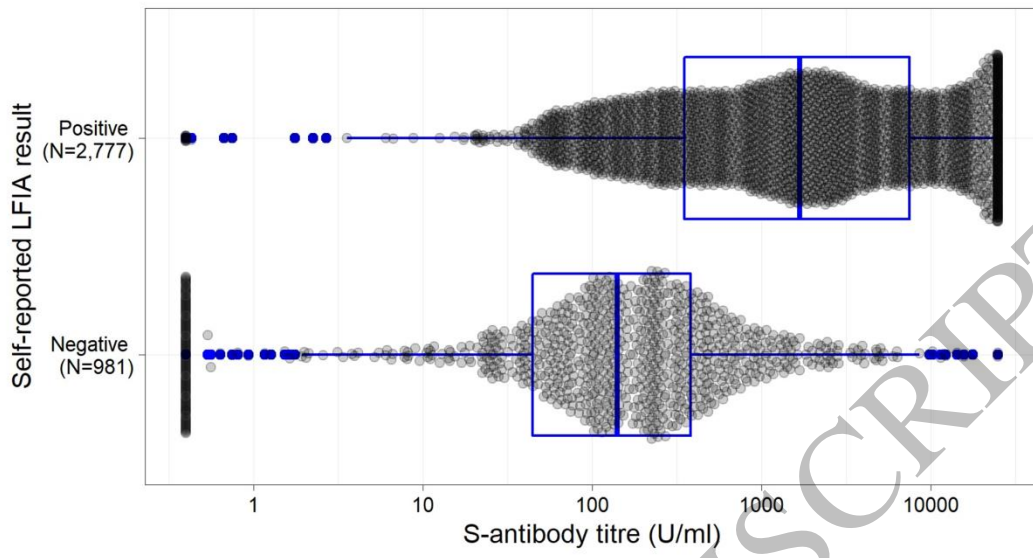
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6 **Figure 2: Relationship between SARS-CoV-2 live virus neutralisation titre and ECLIA by self-LFIA.**

7 FOOTNOTE: Positive self-LFIA results are represented in blue and negative LFIA results are represented in red. The threshold of SARS-CoV-  
8 2 neutralisation detection is defined as  $\geq 7.1$ , equivalent to  $18.5 \text{ BAU ml}^{-1}$ , as denoted by the vertical black dotted line and samples below  
9 this are marked as not detected (n.d.) Both axes use a Log 10 scale. ECLIA anti-Spike antibody thresholds of  $\geq 100 \text{ U ml}^{-1}$ ,  $\geq 350 \text{ U ml}^{-1}$  and  
10  $\geq 1000 \text{ U ml}^{-1}$  are denoted by horizontal dotted lines.

11  
12 Statistical significance is reported by performing a non-parametric Mann-Whitney test for neutralisation titres by self-LFIA positive and  
13 negative results ( $p=0.0001$ ), and for ECLIA anti-Spike antibody titres by self-LFIA positive and negative results ( $p=0.0001$ ).

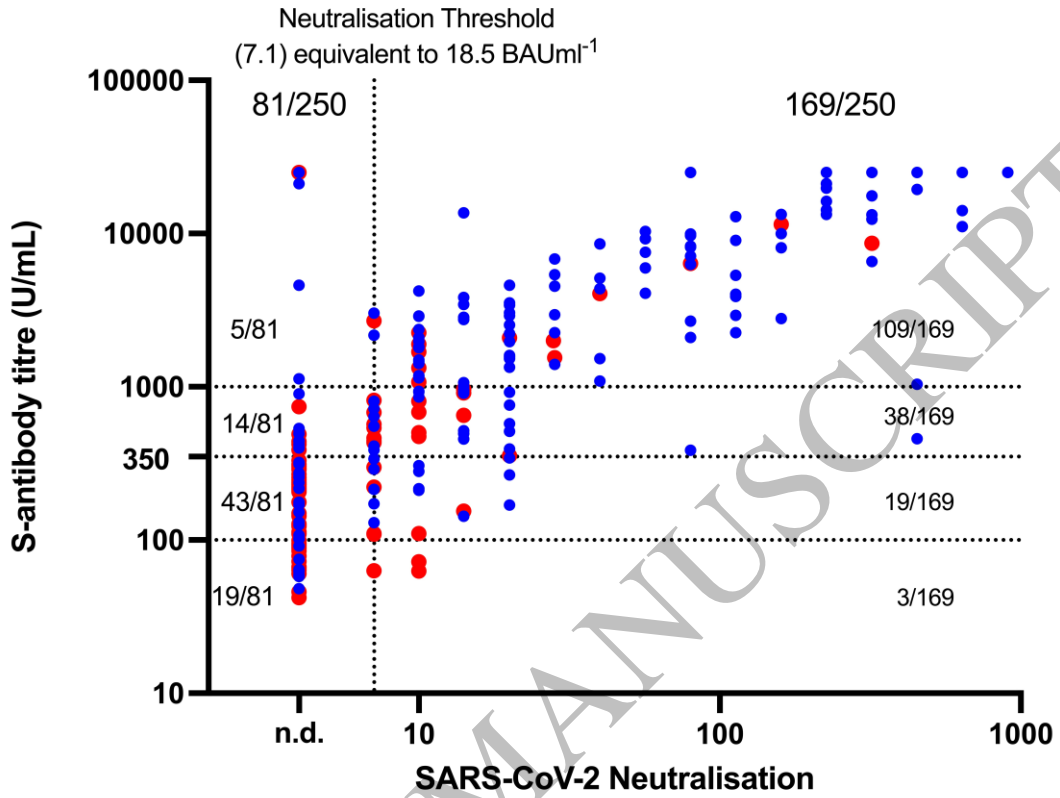
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Figure 1  
339x190 mm (.74 x DPI)

## SARS-CoV-2 Neutralisation vs S-antibody titre (U/mL)



LFIA result	Neutralisation positive	Neutralisation negative
• LFIA positive 66.8% (167/250)	78.7% (133/169)	42% (34/81)
• LFIA negative 33.2% (83/250)	21.3% (36/169)	58% (47/81)

Figure 2  
167x153 mm (.74 x DPI)

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