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Seroconversion in patients with cancer and oncology healthcare workers infected by SARS-CoV-2

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Highlights

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Patients with cancer have high risk for severe complications and poor outcome to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2)-related disease (coronavirus disease 2019 [COVID-19]). • No difference in terms of anti-SARS-CoV-2 immunoglobulin-G (IgG) positivity rates by rapid qualitative membrane-based immunoassay was observed between cancer patients and health workers Median time from SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis to IgG detection was comparable between cancer patients and health workers • Our data showed that SARS-CoV-2-specific IgG antibody detection is not different between cancer patients and healthy subjects

64 Abstract

65 Background

Patients with cancer have high risk for severe complications and poor outcome to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2)-related disease (coronavirus disease 2019 [COVID-19]). Almost all subjects with COVID-19 develop anti-SARS-CoV-2 immunoglobulin-G (IgG) within three weeks after infection. No data are available on the seroconversion rates of cancer patients and COVID-19.

71 Material and methods

We conducted a multicenter, observational, prospective study that enrolled: 1) patients and 72 73 oncology health professionals with SARS-CoV-2 infection confirmed by real time polymerase 74 chain reaction (RT-PCR) assays on nasal/pharyngeal swab specimens; 2) patients and oncology 75 health professionals with clinical or radiological suspicious of infection by SARS-CoV-2; and 3) 76 patients with cancer who are considered at high risk for infection and eligible for active therapy and/or major surgery. All enrolled subjects were tested with the 2019-nCoV IgG/IgM Rapid Test 77 Cassette, which is a qualitative membrane-based immunoassay for the detection of IgG and 78 IgM antibodies to SARS-CoV-2. The aim of the study was to evaluate anti-SARS-CoV-2 79 seroconversion rate in patients with cancer and oncology healthcare professionals with 80 confirmed or clinically suspected COVID-19. 81

82 Results

From March 30 to May 11, 2020, 166 subjects were enrolled in the study. Among them, cancer 83 patients and health workers were 61 (36.7%) and 105 (63.3%), respectively. Overall, 86 subjects 84 (51.8%) had confirmed SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis by RT-PCR testing on nasopharyngeal swab 85 specimen, while 60 (36.2%) had a clinical suspicious of COVID-19. Median time between 86 87 symptom onset (for cases not confirmed by RT-PCR) or RT-PCR confirmation to serum antibody test was 17 days (interquartile range, 26). In the population with confirmed RT-PCR, 83.8% was 88 IgG positive. No difference in IgG positivity was observed between cancer patients and health 89 90 workers (87.9% vs 80.5%; P = 0.39).

Conclusions 91

- 92 Our data indicate that SARS-CoV-2-specific IgG antibody detection do not differ between cancer
- patients and healthy subjects 93
- 94
- Keywords: cancer; healthcare workers; COVID-19; SARS-CoV-2; coronavirus; antibody response; 95
- 96 seroconversion

J-2; coro

97 Introduction

Since its first reported case in late December of 2019, the outbreak of the severe acute 98 respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2)-related disease (coronavirus disease 2019 99 100 [COVID-19]) has rapidly spread around the world. As of July 29, 2020, more than 16 million confirmed cases and 650,000 deaths related to COVID-19 have been reported worldwide [1]. 101 102 Since the beginning of the epidemic, subjects with chronic diseases such as cancer have been 103 shown to have an increased risk of severe complications and poor outcomes with COVID-19 [2-104 5]. Patients with cancer are more susceptible to infection than general population because of 105 their systemic immunosuppressive state [6]. Accordingly, some studies reported that patients with cancer have a higher risk of severe outcomes related to COVID-19, including death, 106 intensive care unit (ICU) admission, development of severe/critical symptoms, and utilization of 107 108 invasive mechanical ventilation, compared with patients without cancer [7, 8]. Several factors, including increased age, male sex, active or former smoking, poor performance status and 109 active cancer, have been associated with high thirty-day mortality rate in patients with cancer 110 111 and COVID-19 [9]. Moreover, patients with cancer who underwent chemotherapy or surgery 112 seem to be at high risk of clinical severe events [7, 8, 10], although other studies did not 113 confirm this observation [9, 11] On the other hand, patients with cancer and COVID-19 can also 114 experience a spectrum of asymptomatic or *pauci*-symptomatic infections with subclinical courses [12], being managed at home and referred to the telemedicine systems or primary 115 116 healthcare network [13].

Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) has demonstrated to be a sensitive 117 methodology and can effectively confirm SARS-CoV-2 infection [14]. Studies on severe acute 118 119 respiratory syndrome (SARS) and Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) showed that virusspecific antibodies were detectable in 80-100% of patients at 2 weeks after symptom onset [15-120 17]. Similarly, almost all patients with COVID-19 are tested as positive for anti- SARS-CoV-2 121 immunoglobulin-G (IgG) within 19 days after symptom development [18]. Furthermore, 122 combining viral RNA by RT-PCR and antibody detections significantly improves the sensitivity of 123 pathogenic diagnosis for COVID-19 [19]. However, very limited information on the antibody 124 125 responses against SARS-CoV-2 in patients with cancer is currently available, with two retrospective analyses on small populations of cancer patients that reported lower detection
rates of SARS-CoV-2 antibodies [20, 21].

128 This article reports the first analysis of a prospective observational study aimed to evaluate the 129 antibody response in cancer patients and oncology healthcare workers presenting with 130 confirmed or clinically suspected COVID-19.

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132 Material and methods

133 Study design

This study was a multicenter, observational, prospective study conducted at five Italian 134 135 Institutions. At time of this interim analysis, a total of 166 subjects were enrolled in this study from one general hospital and one comprehensive cancer center in Lombardy Region, which 136 was the epicenter of the COVID-19 epidemic in Italy [22, 23]. Study population included three 137 different categories: 1) patients or health professionals already confirmed to be positive for 138 139 SARS-CoV-2 by RT-PCR assays on nasal/pharyngeal swab specimens; 2) patients or health 140 professionals who are suspected of being infected with SARS-CoV-2, defined as history of contact with confirmed cases before the onset of illness or subjects with at least one clinical 141 142 manifestation or imaging characteristics of COVID-19 in the last week before accrual in the trial; 3) patients with cancer who are considered at high risk for infection and eligible for active 143 therapy and/or major surgery. Subjects diagnosed with bacterial or viral pneumonia in previous 144 three months were excluded from the study. Figure S1 graphically represents a flow chart with 145 146 the enrolled subjects.

Institutional review board and Ethics committee approval was obtained from all participating
Institutions. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All
patients provided written informed consent before any study-related procedure.

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151 Detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA by RT-PCR

Presence of SARS-CoV-2 on nasopharyngeal swab specimens was determined by means realtime RT-PCR. GeneFinder[™] COVID-19 Plus RealAmp Kit (Elitech, Milan, Italy) or Allplex[™] 2019 n-CoV Assay (Seegene Inc, Seoul, South Korea) were used to detect SARS-CoV-2 by amplification of RdRp gene, E gene and N gene according to the World Health Organization (WHO) recommendations and as previously described [24].

157 Overall, 836 specimens obtained from nasopharyngeal swab were tested by RT-PCR.

158

159 Detection of IgG and IgM against SARS-CoV-2

To evaluate the presence of IgG and IgM against SARS-CoV-2, all enrolled subjects were tested 160 with the 2019-nCoV IgG/IgM Rapid Test Cassette[®] (PRIMA Lab SA, Balerna, Switzerland), which 161 is a qualitative membrane based immunoassay for the detection of IgG and IgM antibodies to 162 SARS-CoV-2 in whole blood, serum or plasma specimen. For this purpose, capillary blood was 163 obtained from each subject by fingerstick. After a droplet was formed, capillary blood was 164 165 captured in a capillary tube until filled to approximately 20 μ L. The whole blood was then dispensed to the specimen well of the test cassette. Lastly, two drops of diluent were added to 166 the specimen well of the test cassette. 167

The 2019-nCoV IgG/IgM Rapid Test Cassette[®] consists of two components, an IgG component 168 169 and an IgM component. In the IgG component, anti-human IgG is coated in IgG test line region. During testing, the specimen reacts with 2019-nCoV antigen-coated particles in the test 170 cassette. The mixture then migrates upward on the membrane chromatographically by capillary 171 action and reacts with the anti-human IgG in IgG test line region, if the specimen contains IgG 172 173 antibodies to 2019-nCoV. Anti-human IgM is coated in IgM test line region and if specimen contains IgM antibodies to 2019-nCoV, the conjugate-specimen complex reacts with anti-174 175 human IgM. If the specimen contains 2019-nCoV IgG antibodies, a colored line appears in IgG 176 test line region as a result of this. Similarly, a colored line appears in IgM test line region, if the 177 specimen contains 2019-nCoV IgM antibodies. If the specimen does not contain 2019-nCoV antibodies, no colored line appears in either of the test line regions, indicating a negative result. 178

To serve as a procedural control, a colored line always appears in the control line region, indicating that the proper volume of specimen has been added and membrane wicking has occurred. **Figure S2** displays three possible results and interpretation of the rapid test. Overall, 166 (one for each enrolled subject) serological rapid tests were performed.

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184 Aim of the study

Primary endpoint of the study was to evaluate anti-SARS-CoV-2 seroconversion rates in cancer
patients and cancer health professionals with confirmed or clinically suspected COVID-19.

187

188 Statistical analyses

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze and report patients' characteristics. Clinical and 189 biological variables were stratified into categories whenever reasonable, to preserve statistical 190 power and feasibility of data collection. Continuous variables are expressed as the median 191 192 (interquartile range, IQR) and were compared with the Mann-Whitney U-test. Categorical 193 variables are expressed as numbers and proportions (%) and were compared by Fisher's exact test or Chi-square test, as appropriate. All tests were performed 2-sided at a significance level 194 195 of α =0.05. Statistical analyses were performed using SAS (version 9.4) and R Studio (version 1.1.463). 196

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198 Results

From March 30, 2020 to May 11, 2020, 166 subjects were enrolled in the study. Among them, cancer patients and health workers were 61 (36.7%) and 105 (63.3%), respectively. Median age was 46 years (IQR, 21) and 118 (71.1%) were females. Health workers were younger than patients (median age 41 vs 62 years; P < 0.001). Patients with cancer were more frequently diagnosed with hypertension (26.2% vs 2.9%; P < 0.001) and type 2 diabetes (8.2% vs 1.0%; P =0.01) as compared to healthcare workers. Conversely, healthcare workers were more

frequently carriers of autoimmune diseases (12.4% vs 3.3%; P = 0.04), mainly chronic autoimmune thyroiditis and rheumatoid arthritis (data not showed). Patients' characteristics are reported in **Table 1**.

Among 61 cancer patients, breast carcinoma was the most frequent diagnosed tumor (55.7%), followed by lung cancer (13.1%). Thirty-three (54.1%) had metastatic disease. Forty-one (67.2%) patients were receiving active antitumoral therapies, that included systemic chemotherapy (14.8%), immunotherapy (8.2%), targetted therapy (9.8%), and hormonal therapy +/- targetted therapy (6.6% and 29.5%, respectively). Main characteristics of enrolled patients with cancer are described in **Table S1**.

Overall, 86 subjects (51.8%) had confirmed SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis by prior RT-PCR testing on nasopharyngeal swab specimen, while 60 (36.2%) and 20 (12.0%) were clinically suspected or at high risk for SARS-CoV-2 infection, respectively. The majority (79.2%) were diagnosed with mild COVID-19 condition, according to the *Italian Society for Anesthesia, Analgesia, Resuscitation and Intensive Care* (SIAARTI) clinical classification, while 11.7% and 9.1% as moderate and severe, respectively.

220 Median time between symptom onset (for cases not confirmed by RT-PCR) or RT-PCR 221 confirmation to serum antibody test was 17 days (IQR, 26), while median time to symptom 222 resolution or viral RT-PCR negativization was 22 days (IQR, 33). Of note, 9 subjects (5.4%) still 223 had RNA viral detection by RT-PCR on swab specimen at time of this analysis.

224

225 Detection of IgG against SARS-CoV-2 in subjects with positive RT-PCR

In the overall population, 69 (41.6%) and 3 (1.8%) participants were IgG and IgM positive, respectively. Considering the population with confirmation by RT-PCR, 62 (83.8%) was IgG positive (**Table 2**). No difference in terms of IgG positivity was observed between cancer patients and health workers (87.9% vs 80.5%; P = 0.39) (**Figure 1**). Furthermore, no differences were observed in time from SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis to IgG detection between cancer patients and health workers (23.0 vs 28.0 days; P = 0.21) (**Table 3; Figures 2** and **3**). Age, gender,

comorbidities, and symptom intensity did not significantly influence rate and time of IgGantibody response.

234

235 Discussion

According to the European Commission recommendations [25], timely and accurate SARS-CoV-21 2 laboratory testing is an essential part of the management of COVID-19 for slowing down the pandemic, supporting decisions on infection control strategies and patient management at healthcare facilities, and detecting asymptomatic cases that could spread the virus further if not isolated.

Rapid tests are non-automated procedures and have been designed to give a fast result. For COVID-19, rapid tests may take around 10-15 minutes until giving a result compared with about four hours for molecular tests [26]. These rapid tests are relatively simple to perform and interpret and therefore require limited test operator training. They may be intended either for use in hospital for particular situations or in other social needs, allowing rapid screening of symptomatic and asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2 carriers.

247 Our findings suggest that patients with cancer infected with SARS-CoV-2 tend to have an antibody response comparable to healthy subjects, who in our population were represented by 248 healthcare workers. Understanding the duration of potential infectiousness and the time to IgG 249 antibody response are critical to the containment of SARS-CoV-2 spread, especially in cancer 250 251 patients and healthcare workers who are in constant exposure to high-risk populations. 252 Moreover, monitoring previously infected subjects is essential to optimize the adequate individual protection diapositives, the clinical management and the administration of 253 254 oncological treatments.

Patients with cancer are at higher risk of developing infections for several factors that include advanced age, underlying immunosuppressive status, and treatment-related factors such as chemotherapy, radiation, and surgical procedures [27]. Accordingly, several works reported that patients with cancer have a higher risk of severe outcomes related to COVID-19 [7-11].

259 In contrast to prior literature [20, 21], our experience showed that more than 85% of the cancer 260 patients who had laboratory documented SARS-CoV-2 infection or high clinical suspicious developed IgG antibodies using our rapid assay. Notably, no differences in terms of antibody 261 formation and time to seroconversion were observed in cancer patients as compared to 262 healthcare workers. Given that cytotoxic agents are able to dampen immune response and 263 264 interfere with antibody formation [28], it could be expected that patients on chemotherapy have lower rates of antibody positivity [20]. Of note, more than 60% of our patients were 265 receiving active treatments, but only a minority (about 10%) chemotherapy. Accordingly, such 266 267 association needs to be confirmed in larger cohorts of patients with cancer and COVID-19.

Additionally, our findings suggest that IgG antibodies develop over a median period of 17 days 268 from symptom onset or RT-PCR confirmation. This suggests that the ideal time frame for 269 270 antibody testing is at least two weeks after symptom onset and no more than three/four weeks after symptom resolution or RT-PCR negativization. As reported by Long et al. [18], antibody 271 272 testing should be performed as early as possible, because about 12% of the patients had 273 already plateaued in IgG titer within seven days of symptom onset. For patients who were not 274 sampled during the ideal window or are tested at later stages, repeated serological tests would 275 be needed to confirm an antibody response against SARS-CoV-2 infection. Comparable data 276 were recently reported in a preprint paper summarizing the results of a study conducted in the New York region (United States) [29]. Moreover, considering that many infected patients 277 278 remain asymptomatic and fully capable of transmitting SARS-CoV-2 [30, 31], combining antibody testing and RT-PCR on swab specimen can potentially increase COVID-19 diagnosis. 279

280 Although scant information on the immunity conferred by IgG and its duration, previous 281 experiences in other viral infections, such as SARS and MERS, suggest that IgG may confer some 282 level of immunity [32, 33], while it seems to wane over the time. Similar data have been reported for other coronaviruses were immunity can confer limited protection [34]. In order to 283 study the duration of IgG antibody response to SARS-CoV-2, we planned to prospectively follow 284 our patient population and retest for IgG by both quantitative and qualitative assays after three 285 286 and six months in order to measure time and level of immunization. Moreover, blood samples 287 from each enrolled subject will be analyzed to evaluate also quantitative IgG and IgM levels in

the peripheral blood. At time of the present analysis, data on antibody titer were available onlyfor 16.9% of the overall population (data not shown).

Among subjects who had not a confirmed infection by RT-PCR, but were considered as clinical 290 291 suspected or high risk, including those with symptoms consistent with COVID-19, highly suggestive radiological imaging or close contact with patients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 292 293 infection, we found that only 8.8% of this population had IgG antibodies. This finding suggests that a majority of participants suspected for COVID-19 actually were not infected with SARS-294 295 CoV-2. In addition, recent evidences suggested weaker immune responses and a more rapid 296 reduction in the IgG titer for asymptomatic individuals infected by SARS-CoV-2 as compared to symptomatic subjects [35]. On the other hand, the low rates of IgG positivity in subjects 297 without a confirmed diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2 infection by RT-PCR may be related to a false 298 299 negative rate of our assay or insufficient time for participants to mount an IgG antibody response detectable by means rapid test. This remarks the importance of harmonize and 300 301 validate proper methodologies for SARS-CoV-2 detection to improve diagnosis and reduce false 302 negative rates.

Notably, nine subjects (5.4%) remained RT-PCR positive despite full resolution of symptoms and IgG seroconversion. This had relevant implications regarding the real duration of viral transmission. Although other viral genomes can be detected even months after resolution of clinical infection [36], additional research on SARS-CoV-2 is need to determine if nasopharyngeal RT-PCR positivity is related to transmission and the duration of the viral shedding [37].

We are aware that our study presents some limitations. About 90% of participants had mild disease, and thus these data may not reflect antibody response in moderate or severe COVID-19. Furthermore, we did not collect rigorous data regarding symptom severity which could potentially be related to the timeline and strength of IgG antibody response to SARS-CoV-2. As aforementioned, further studies are needed to understand the magnitude and duration of the IgG response in patients recovered from SARS-CoV-2. In addition, the antibody titer that is necessary to protect individuals from reinfection is currently unknown. Lastly, the clinical

significance of prolonged positive SARS-CoV-2 nasopharyngeal PCR in the absence of clinical
evidence requires additional clarification.

Of note, only 19% of healthcare workers in our study population reported having received 318 319 seasonal flu vaccine. Although WHO and national agencies identify health workers as a priority target group and recommend for vaccination, influenza vaccination coverage rates of 320 321 healthcare workers are significantly variable in Europe, ranging from 15.6% to 63.2% [38]. In Italy, the coverage rate is very low (less than 20%), as showed in a multicenter cross-sectional 322 study conducted in ten Italian cities [39]. These observations have relevant implications related 323 324 to the current COVID-19 pandemic, especially considering the overlapping between seasonal flu- and COVID-19-related symptoms. In order to plan organization and management of future 325 COVID-19 waves, it might be to guarantee influenza vaccination coverage for all healthcare 326 327 workers. Conclusions

328 Our data indicate that SARS-CoV-2-specific IgG antibody detection is not different between 329 cancer patients and healthy subjects. As a result, rapid test for antibody detection can be a complement to RNA RT-PCR testing for the diagnosis of COVID-19, especially in those situations 330 where the knowledge of the COVID-19 status is rapidly mandatory for specific clinical decisions. 331 In vulnerable population such as cancer patients, confirming suspected COVID-19 cases as early 332 as possible with the help of serological testing could reduce exposure risk and help optimizing 333 diagnostic and therapeutic algorithms. The key for success in COVID-19 and cancer is to 334 335 implement diagnostic and therapeutic methodologies, maybe with a high sensitivity/sensibility and rapidity of execution/resulting that allow to ensure a continuum of the healthcare during 336 pandemic. 337

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Author's contribution: Study concept and design: GC, DG, AM. Acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of data: AM, SG, PZ, DG, GC. Drafting of the manuscript: AM and GC. Statistical analysis: SG and AM. Administrative, technical, or material support: All authors. Study supervision: GC. All the authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

356 **Ethics approval and consent to participate:** Institutional review board and Ethics committee 357 approval was obtained from all participating Institutions. The study was conducted in 358 accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All the patients provided written informed consent 359 before any study-related procedures.

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- 456 **Table 1.** Patients' characteristics. Abbreviations: ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme; ARB,
- 457 angiotensin receptor blockers; ICU, intensive care unit; IgG, immunoglobulin G; IgM,
- 458 immunoglobulin M; IQR, interquartile range; NA, not applicable; RT-PCR, reverse transcriptase-
- 459 polymerase chain reaction.

	Health workers (N=105)	Cancer patients (N=61)	Total (N=166)	<i>P</i> value
Age				<0.001
Median (IQR)	41 (14)	62 (21)	46 (21)	
Gender				0.629
Female	76 (72.4%)	42 (68.9%)	118 (71.1%)	
Male	29 (27.6%)	19 (31.1%)	48 (28.9%)	
Seasonal flu vaccine				0.548
No	85 (81.0%)	47 (77.0%)	132 (79.5%)	
Yes	20 (19.0%)	14 (23.0%)	34 (20.5%)	
Comorbidities				
Cardiovascular	3 (2.9%)	2 (3.3%)	5 (3.0%)	0.878
Pulmonary	0 (0.0%)	2 (3.3%)	2 (1.2%)	0.062
Asthma	7 (6.7%)	2 (3.3%)	9 (5.4%)	0.353
Diabetes	1 (1.0%)	5 (8.2%)	6 (3.6%)	0.016
Autoimmunity	13 (12.4%)	2 (3.3%)	15 (9.0%)	0.049
Hypertension	3 (2.9%)	16 (26.2%)	19 (11.4%)	<0.001
Concomitant drugs				
ARB	1 (1.0%)	3 (4.9%)	4 (2.4%)	0.108
ACE inhibitor	2 (1.9%)	4 (6.6%)	6 (3.6%)	0.122
Inclusion criteria				<0.001
Confirmed	56 (53.3%)	30 (49.2%)	86 (51.8%)	
High Risk	0 (0.0%)	20 (32.8%)	20 (12.0%)	
Suspected	49 (46.7%)	11 (18.0%)	60 (36.2%)	
Contact with infected subject				<0.001
NA	39	27	66	
No	16 (15.2%)	22 (36.1%)	38 (22.9%)	
Yes	50 (47.6%)	12 (19.7%)	62 (37.3%)	
Presentation				0.226

NA	60	29	89	
Mild	38 (84.4%)	23 (71.9%)	61 (79.2%)	
Moderate	5 (11.1%)	4 (12.5%)	9 (11.7%)	
Severe	2 (4.4%)	5 (15.6%)	7 (9.1%)	
Setting of care				0.084
NA	59	29	88	
Home	45 (97.8%)	27 (84.4%)	72 (92.3%)	
Hospital	1 (2.2%)	4 (12.5%)	5 (6.4%)	
ICU	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.1%)	1 (1.3%)	
Ventilation				0.273
No	103 (98.1%)	58 (95.1%)	161 (97.0%)	
Yes	2 (1.9%)	3 (4.9%)	5 (3.0%)	
Complications				<0.001
None	101 (96.2%)	47 (77.0%)	148 (89.2%)	
Pneumonitis	4 (3.8%)	14 (23.0%)	18 (10.8%)	
Outcome				0.229
Ongoing	4 (3.8%)	5 (8.2%)	9 (5.4%)	
Recovered	101 (96.2%)	56 (91.8%)	157 (94.6%)	
lgG				0.030
Negative	68 (64.8%)	29 (47.5%)	97 (58.4%)	
Positive	37 (35.2%)	32 (52.5%)	69 (41.6%)	
lgM				0.902
Negative	103 (98.1%)	60 (98.4%)	163 (98.2%)	
Positive	2 (1.9%)	1 (1.6%)	3 (1.8%)	
RT-PCR testing				<0.001
No	21 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	21 (12.7%)	
Yes	84 (80.0%)	61 (100.0%)	145 (87.3%)	
RT-PCR result				0.529
NA	21	0	21	
Negative	43 (51.2%)	28 (45.9%)	71 (49.0%)	
Positive	41 (48.8%)	33 (54.1%)	74 (51.0%)	

- **Table 2.** IgM and IgG seroconversion in overall population, cancer patient and health workers.
- 464 Abbreviations: IgG, immunoglobulin G; IgM, immunoglobulin M; RT-PCR, reverse transcriptase-
- 465 polymerase chain reaction.

			RT-PCR-negative (N=71)	RT-PCR-positive (N=74)	Total (N=145)	<i>P</i> value
Overall	IgG					<0.001
		Negative	65 (91.5%)	12 (16.2%)	77 (53.1%)	
		Positive	6 (8.5%)	62 (83.8%)	68 (46.9%)	
	lgM					0.535
		Negative	69 (97.2%)	73 (98.6%)	142 (97.9%)	
		Positive	2 (2.8%)	1 (1.4%)	3 (2.1%)	
Cancer patients	IgG	Negative	25 (89%)	4 (12%)	29 (20%)	<0.001
		Positive	3 (11%)	29 (88%)	32 (22%)	
Health workers	lgG	Negative	40 (93%)	8 (20%)	48 (33%)	<0.001
		Positive	3 (7%)	33 (80%)	36 (25%)	

Table 3. Median time to IgG positivization. Abbreviations: IQR, interquartile range; Q1, 1st

⁴⁷⁰ quartile; Q3, 3rd quartile.

			Median (IQR)	Q1	Q3	P value
Cate	egory	Health workers	23.0 (13.0)	17	29	0.208
		Patients	28.0 (19.2)	16	35	
Gen	der	Female	25.0 (16.5)	16	34	0.761
		Male	27.0 (17.7)	16	34	
471						

473 Figure legends

474

475	Figure 1. Comparison between IgG positivity rate between healthcare workers (red) and
476	patients with cancer (blue) according to the result of reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain
477	reaction (RT-PCR) test for SARS-CoV-2. P value refers to the Fisher's exact test. Abbreviations:
478	HCWs, healthcare workers; RT-PCR, reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction
479	
480	Figure 2. Comparison between time to IgG seroconversion and subject category (health
481	workers vs patients, panel a) and gender (female vs male, panel b). On each box, the central
482	mark is the median, the edges of the box are the 25 th and 75 th percentiles, the whiskers extend
483	to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and outliers are plotted individually. P
484	value refers to the Mann-Whitney U-test.
485	
486	Figure 3. Cumulative incidence of seroconversion of IgG antibodies against SARS-CoV-2
487	among COVID-19 healthcare workers (red line) and cancer patients (blue line).
488	Figure S1 graphically represents a flow chart with the enrolled subjects.

489 **Figure S2** displays three possible results and interpretation of the rapid test.

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	Male	27.0 (17.7)	16	34	
		Pre-Pr			



RT-PCR Negative

RT-PCR Positive



