Children are not COVID-19 super spreaders: time to go back to school.

**Authors**: Alasdair P.S. Munro1, 2, and Saul N. Faust1, 2

1. NIHR Southampton Clinical Research Facility and NIHR Southampton Biomedical Research Centre, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Southampton, SO16 6YD, UK
2. Faculty of Medicine and Institute for Life Sciences, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ, UK

**Corresponding author**: Dr Alasdair Munro. Email: [a.munro@doctors.org.uk](mailto:a.munro@doctors.org.uk). Telephone: 02380 214956. Address: NIHR Southampton Clinical Research Facility, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Tremona Road, Southampton, Hampshire, UK, SO166YD

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Since the first reports of SARS-CoV2 infections in China, doctors, parents and policy makers have been aware that COVID-19 is “not just another respiratory virus” in children. There is a large discrepancy in case rate and prognosis between young children and older adults that has caught everyone by surprise, and for which the mechanisms remain unknown. As community testing has demonstrated a significant number of children with no or subclinical symptoms [1], key questions needs answering: are there low rates of confirmed infection in children because children are not becoming infected and/or infectious, or is COVID-19 in children usually such a benign upper respiratory illness that does not even cause infants or immune suppressed children to need hospital admission? If children are infected, are they infectious to each other and/or to adults? If so, how long for?

The implications of asymptomatic but potentially infectious children in the community are important. If, as for influenza [2], children are the primary drivers of household SARS-CoV-2 transmission, then silent spread from children who did not alert anyone to their infection could be a serious driver of community transmission. On this presumption but without evidence, school closures were implemented almost ubiquitously around the world to try and halt the potential spread of disease despite early modelling that suggested this would have less impact than most other non-pharmacological interventions [3].

Early contact tracing data from Shenzhen, China, appeared to confirm a role for children in transmission. Although apparently presenting with more benign disease or even without symptoms, similar attack rates were found in children and adults in individual households [4]. However, the story has subsequently evolved.

Some regions have implemented widespread community testing, such as South Korea and Iceland. Both countries found children were significantly underrepresented. In Iceland this is true both in targeted testing of high risk groups compared to adults (6.7% positive compared to 13.7%) and in (invited) population screening, there were no children under 10 found to be positive for SARS-CoV2 compared to 0.8% of general population [5]. Subsequently, early pre-print data from the town in Vo, Italy, showed similar findings. With 86% of their population screened following the first death in late February, no children under 10 years were found to be positive (compared to 2.6% of the general population) [6]. This was despite a number of children found to be living with adults who had COVID-19, but where it was not transmitted (or was unable to be detected). Data from contact tracing in Japan demonstrated lower attack rates in children [7], and recent pre-print data from Guangzhou province in China has also demonstrated a much lower secondary attack rate for children than their adult counterparts (Odds Ratio 0.23 compared to adults >60 years)[8].

Evidence is therefore emerging that children could be significantly less likely to become infected than adults. On the other hand, children could have a more transient upper respiratory infection with minimal viral shedding, or the less likely scenario of showing minimal symptoms despite significant viral shedding. A further key question is the ability of infected children to spread SARS-CoV-2. A collection of international family clusters found that children were not likely to be the index case in households, only being responsible for around 10% of clusters [9]. Data from Guanzhou has supported this, finding an even lower rate of children as index cases in households at 5% [10]. A case study of a cluster in the French Alps included a child with COVID-19 who failed to transmit it to any other person, despite exposure to more than a hundred children in different schools and a ski resort [11].

Until there is high quality sero-surveillance data, these questions will not be able to be answered with certainty. It is possible that biases in population selection for testing or false negative swabs due to difficulties sampling in children contribute to existing findings. However, these data so far have been consistent across regions and continue to push the evidence in one direction. Sero-surveillance will not be produced quickly despite ongoing studies (<https://whatsthestory.web.ox.ac.uk/>), due to the logistics of mass blood sampling in children and global issues with large scale antibody testing quality control. In the meantime, schools remain closed and policy makers around the world are considering their options for releasing the pressure on lock downs as case numbers and death start to plateau and fall.

Additionally, there has been very little evidence so far on the effects of COVID-19 on children with comorbidities. This contrasts significantly to COVID-19 disease in adults. All 3 children who required intubation in a large Chinese cohort study had comorbidities (including leukaemia, hydronephrosis and intussusception) [12], but it is not clear if COVID-19 was the reason for their needing intensive care. Limited data on children post liver transplant [13], with Inflammatory Bowel Disease on immunosuppression [14] and cancer [15] are reassuring. Limited data from the USA CDC is available on children with comorbidities, however 23% of confirmed cases were found to have a comorbid condition (most commonly respiratory), and 77% of patients with known hospitalisation status (n=37) had a comorbidity (including all 6 cases admitted to PICU)[16]. Despite these mostly reassuring data, most public health interventions have assumed children with co-morbidities such as primary or secondary immune dysfunction or respiratory/cardiac illness to be at increased risk and in the UK this has led to advice for these children to shield completely, as for adults known to be at risk. Many paediatric specialists are concerned that a blanket assumption that immune suppressed children of any kind are all at increased risk will cause considerable long term educational and social harm to these children.

At the current time, children do not appear to be super spreaders. Sero-surveillance data will not be available to confirm or refute these findings prior to the urgent policy decisions that need to be taken in the next few weeks such as how and when to re-open schools. Policies for non-pharmacological interventions involving children are going to have to be made on a risk-benefit basis with current evidence available.

Governments worldwide should allow all children back to school regardless of a co-morbidities. Detailed surveillance will be needed to confirm the safety of this approach. Individualised risk assessment and decision making by clinicians should occur for those considered at exceptional risk (such as in immediately after bone marrow transplant) or where there are other older family members at significant risk.

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