

Artificial Intelligence-based Disease Surveillance Amid COVID-19 and Beyond: A Systematic Review Protocol

Zhaohui Su (✉ szh@utexas.edu)

University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2005-9504>

Barry Bentley

University of Cambridge

Feng Shi

United Imaging Intelligence

Protocol

Keywords: COVID-19, coronavirus, artificial intelligence, machine learning, disease surveillance, biosurveillance, systematic review, protocol, contact tracing, disease control, contact tracing, biosecurity

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-74191/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Abstract

Background: Infectious diseases are dangerous and deadly. As the leading causes of morbidity and mortality in all demographics across the world, infectious diseases carry substantial social, economic, and healthcare costs. Unlike previous global health crises, health experts now have access to more advanced tools and techniques to understand pandemics like COVID-19 better and faster; one such class of tools is artificial intelligence (AI) enabled disease surveillance systems. AI-based surveillance systems allow health experts to perform rapid mass infection prediction to identify potential disease cases, which is integral to understanding transmission and curbing the spread of the pandemic. However, while the importance of AI-based disease surveillance mechanisms in pandemic control is clear, what is less known is the state-of-the-art application of these mechanisms in countries across the world. Therefore, to bridge this gap, we aim to systematically review the literature to identify (1) how AI-based disease surveillance systems have been applied in counties worldwide amid COVID-19, (2) the characteristics and effects of these applications regarding the control of the spread of COVID-19, and (3) what additional disease surveillance resources such as database, AI-based tools and techniques that can be further added to the current toolbox in the fight against COVID-19.

Methods: To locate research on AI-based disease surveillance amid COVID-19, we will search databases including PubMed, IEEE Explore, ACM Digital Library, and Science Direct to identify all potential records. Titles, abstracts, and full-text articles were screened against eligibility criteria developed *a priori*. The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses procedures was adopted as the reporting framework.

Results: NA for now

Conclusions: Findings of our study will fill an important void in the literature, as no research has systematically reviewed available AI-based disease surveillance in the context of COVID-19. As the world continues to reel from COVID-19, it is important to identify cost-effective AI-based disease surveillance mechanisms that can detect COVID-19 cases and explain how one COVID-19 case turns into many cases, so that better prevention measures can be established to curb the spread of the COVID pandemic in a timely manner.

Study Protocol Registration: PROSPERO [CRD42020204992](https://www.crd42020204992)

Background

Infectious diseases are extremely dangerous and deadly [1–3]. From the Black Death to the 1918 influenza pandemic, to the recent coronavirus pandemics, infectious diseases have caused the deadliest events in the human history [4–10]. Humans have witnessed the level of indiscriminate destruction infectious diseases can cause, both in terms of lives decimated and livelihoods destroyed, including the ones that are caused by coronaviruses, like the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) pandemic, the Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) epidemic, and the COVID-19 pandemic [11–15]. It is estimated

that the 1918 influenza pandemic alone is responsible for infecting one third of the world population at the time with the influenza virus, among which, approximately 50 million people died of the infection [9]. What is more harrowing is that, according to one estimate, the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to infect at least 40% of the world's 7.6 billion population before it fades out [16]. As the virus is still evolving, epidemiological models may fall short in generating accurate estimates in terms of how many deaths COVID-19 will claim [17–19].

Partially owing to its unique viral characteristics and epidemiological properties, though COVID-19 has a relatively inconspicuous case fatality rate, its high transmissibility has elevated its global impact [20–24]. Adding potential deaths COVID-19 could cause before it fades out to the casualties previous epidemics and pandemics have already claimed [11–14, 16], it is safe to assume that the degree of impact of infectious diseases might be more daunting than previously estimated [25]. However, not all of the news is grim [26]. In contrast to global health crises in previous decades, recent advances in molecular biology, epidemiological modeling, health informatics, and data analytics, have all greatly enhanced the ability of researchers to understand the underlying mechanisms behind infectious diseases [27–30]. Some of the most promising evidence-based and practical solutions that are particularly useful in the face of COVID-19 are technology-enabled public health solutions [31–36].

In the context of pandemics caused by infectious diseases (as opposed to non-communicable disease (NCD) pandemics, such as the obesity pandemic), where physical contact or close proximity can result in transmission, technology-based solutions using contactless or remote sensing are ideal tools to adopt in the fight against pandemics [37–40]. Adding the fact that global health crises can often cause economic fallout and resources constraints, the cost-effective nature of technological solutions increases their potential as candidate solutions for solving various healthcare issues [37, 41–43]. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, the potential for some technological-based solutions, such as artificial intelligence (AI) powered disease surveillance systems, in identifying infection cases with high accuracy, may be the most desirable quality governments need to effectively control the spread of diseases [44–50].

AI can be understood as “the theory and development of computer systems able to perform tasks normally requiring human intelligence, such as visual perception ... and decision- making” [51]. Overall, surveillance is often used interchangeably with the term biosurveillance, which could be understood as “the science and practice of managing human, animal, plant, food, and environmental health-related data and information for early warning of threats and hazards, early detection of events, and rapid characterization of the event so that effective actions can be taken to mitigate adverse health, social, and economic effects” [52]. In the context of this study, simply put, surveillance is defined as the use of technology to rapidly and continuously monitor and screen populations, with the aim of predicting and tracking infectious diseases in a real time and nonintrusive fashion.

One key facilitating factor that further popularized AI-based disease surveillance is the availability of large datasets, mainly coming from (1) data actively generated by netizens (e.g., social media user generated data, news reports, etc.), (2) data collected about the individuals' passive human-computer

interaction (e.g., background data collected by apps and electronic devices), and (3) data collated independent of individuals' human-computer interactions (e.g., video surveillance footage) [48, 53–55]. BlueDot, the data analytics company that first identified and reported an unusual cluster of pneumonia cases (i.e., the COVID-19 outbreak) eight days before the World Health Organization issued a global warning about a potential global crisis in the making [56], adopted data actively generated by netizens (e.g., social media posts, newsfeeds) and data collated independent of individuals' human-computer interactions (e.g., information obtained from airline ticketing systems) to feed into their AI systems to generate insights [57].

Another more sophisticated way to use data collated independent of individuals' human-computer interactions is to combine all relevant information to detect infectious diseases in real time [49]. In previous work, AI-systems that synthesize multiple measures such as respiration rate, heart rate, and facial temperature, have been successfully applied to influenza surveillance with high detection accuracy [49]. In other words, AI-based disease surveillance can accomplish, essentially, the ability to swiftly identify individuals who have been infected with or exposed to infectious agents, a challenge that remains to be one of the deadliest problems that health experts face in the fight against COVID-19 [44–48]. Lacking the ability to discern potential COVID-19 infected individuals from the rest of the population is also a key reason why governments chose to lockdown entire populations in early days of COVID-19 outbreak [58–60], with significant economic cost. AI-based disease surveillance techniques have the potential to preserve the economy or slow down the rates of economic fallout, partially owing to their ability to negate the necessity to require a large population to stay at home and limit their contributions to the economy [45].

Even though the city of Shenzhen, a well-developed city in China, has deep economic connections with the city of Wuhan, a relationship that is manifested in the convoluted transportation ties between these two cities, Shenzhen survived the onslaught of COVID-19 without issuing a citywide lockdown, owing largely to its network of surveillance systems, which include multiple AI-based surveillance mechanisms that were made available as early as January, 2020 [45]. However, while the importance of AI-based disease surveillance systems in pandemic control is clear [61–63], what is less known are the applications, characteristics, and effects of these systems in countries across the world. Therefore, to bridge this gap, we aim to systematically review the literature to identify (1) how AI-based disease surveillance systems have been applied in counties worldwide amid COVID-19, (2) the characteristics and effects of these applications regarding the control of the spread of COVID-19, and (3) what additional disease surveillance resources, such as database, AI-based tools and techniques that can be further added to the current toolbox in the fight against COVID-19.

In addition to focusing on what is currently being used for COVID-19, we also aim to investigate potential AI-based surveillance tools and techniques that could provide insights into what could be done more effectively with current COVID-19 monitoring and surveillance. Infectious diseases are universal and ubiquitous [1–3], both in terms of space and time [4–10]. It is also important to note that infectious diseases are highly underestimated: though they have maintained to be an oversized problem faced by

humanity throughout history, the level of preparedness currently in place by governments across the world for an equivalent of 1918 influenza pandemic or a Disease X is miserably minuscule at best [64]. As early as 2018, the World Health Organization has already issued a warning that a Disease X is looming on the horizon [65], an infectious disease that has the potential to replicate the 1918 influenza pandemic or the Black Death in the 21st century [66]. Disease X could be understood as a highly infectious disease powered by a pathogen that is unknown or unfamiliar to the human race [65]. In addition to high transmissibility and unpredictability [66, 67], based on existing evidence, it is highly possible that the power of destruction of Disease X will be compounded by systematic issues such as government incompetence and lack of preparedness in public health sectors.

A systematic review of AI-based disease surveillance systems in use as well as those that elevate society's current response towards COVID-19 have the potential to help people better cope with COVID-19 and prepare for Disease X [61]. In other words, the best timing for government officials and health experts to prepare for Disease X is now—most epidemiologists in the world would agree that the perfect opportunity to study infectious diseases and develop effective responses towards them is when they are ongoing [68]. It is almost impossible for any laboratory, even the top ones in the world, to create an infectious disease experiment condition like COVID-19—a natural experiment condition which also happens to be an unprecedented global health crisis [69]. Therefore, with a disaster preparedness mindset, we set out to not only identify the characteristics and effects of existing AI-based disease surveillance systems, we aim also to explore and excavate AI-based disease surveillance tools and techniques that have the potential to be applied in the current COVID-19 context as well as approaching reality of Disease X.

Methods

Aiming to avoid unnecessary study duplication [70, 71], increase study rigor [72, 73], improve study comparability and replicability [74], and ultimately, promote quality and transparency in research [75], the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) procedures will be adhered to in the reporting process [76]. This systematic review is registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO) system ([CRD42020204992](#)).

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Based on research aim and insights from preliminary search results, inclusion and exclusion criteria were developed *a priori*. Detailed information on inclusion criteria is listed in Table 1. In the context of this study, artificial intelligence is considered as an umbrella concept that encompasses techniques like machine learning and deep learning. As, in theory, all of these mechanisms can be used for mass screening and identification of diseases, we include all of them in the operational definition of AI-based disease surveillance systems. Articles will be excluded if (1) they did not report the use of AI-based surveillance systems, (2) they did not report the use of AI-based surveillance systems in the context of

COVID-19, (3) they did not report detailed characteristics of AI-based COVID-19 surveillance systems, and (4) they did not report the effects of these systems on the control and containment of the spread of COVID-19.

Table 1
Study inclusion criteria

Data type	Inclusion criteria
Participants	People who are 18 years younger or older
Language	English
Study type	Peer-reviewed full-text article
Study design	Focus on AI-based disease surveillance in the context of COVID-19
Technology	Report detailed description of the AI-based disease surveillance discussed in the study
Outcome	Report results or effects of the AI-based disease surveillance mechanism on personal or population health in the context of COVID-19

Search strategy

To locate research on AI-based disease surveillance amid COVID-19, we will administer our search in databases including PubMed, IEEE Explore, ACM Digital Library, and Science Direct to identify all potential records. Search strategies were developed based on a preliminary review of the literature [50, 62, 63, 77, 78]. Overall, our search terms were developed based on three concepts: AI, disease, and surveillance. Detailed search strings will be used for PubMed are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2
Example PubMed search strings

Concept	Search string
Artificial intelligence	"Artificial intelligence" OR "Machine intelligence" OR "artificial neural network*" OR "Machine learning" OR "Deep learn*" OR "Natural language process*" OR "Robotic*" OR "thinking computer system" OR "fuzzy expert system*" OR "evolutionary computation" OR "hybrid intelligent system"
Disease	COVID-19 OR "COVID 19" OR "novel coronavirus" OR disease* OR illness OR health-related OR medic* OR "medical diagnosis" OR treatment OR health* OR wellness OR well-being
Surveillance	"digital disease surveillance" OR "population surveillance" OR "population monitor*" OR "public health surveillance" OR "public health monitor*" OR "risk factor* surveillance" OR "behavior* surveillance" OR "automated surveillance" OR "disease surveillance" OR "population screening" OR "public health reporting" OR biosurveillance OR "syndromic surveillance" OR "sentinel surveillance" OR "epidemiological monitoring"

Study selection

All search records will be updated to Rayyan [79], with the replicate items automatically removed by the system. Titles, abstracts, and full-text articles were screened against eligibility criteria developed *a priori*: (1) after screening titles and abstracts, two main reviewers will reconvene to discuss potential discrepancies, which will be resolved via group discussion till a consensus is reached; (2) full-text articles of the remaining records will be downloaded and screened against the eligibility criteria, following the same discrepancy resolution. All group discussions will be administered via email or videoconferencing.

Study quality assessment

When applicable, the Cochrane Collaboration evaluation framework will be adopted to examine potential risk of bias of the included study [80]. Overall, seven domains of the included articles will be examined: random sequence generation, allocation concealment, blinding of participants and personnel, blinding of outcome assessment, incomplete outcome data, selective reporting, and any other source of bias. Only scores of the first five items will be utilized in assessing the quality of included study: if a study is rated

as “low” on three or more of these five items, then this study will be deemed as having a low level of risk [80, 81]. The risk of bias will be evaluated independently by two reviewers. Any discrepancy regarding the risk of bias will be resolved by email- or videoconferencing-based group discussions till a consensus is reached. All team members will be involved in the group discussions.

Data extraction and synthesis

Data on study attributes (e.g., country of origin), participant characteristics (e.g., sample size), type of AI technique adopted (e.g., AI, machine learning, or deep learning), type of disease studies (e.g., COVID-19, flu, or chronic conditions), and outcomes (e.g., effects of the AI-based disease surveillance system on the spread of COVID-19). Data will be extracted by two reviewers. To shed light on the extracted data, both descriptive analysis (e.g., percentage of mechanisms studied in low-income country vs. high-income countries) and narrative synthesis (e.g., the database adopted to enable the AI technique) will be used to identify useful insights from the data. Descriptive analysis will be used to identify patterns, as it can give the audience a clear and connected picture of the state of art development of existing AI-based disease surveillance techniques. While narrative synthesis can help researchers to identify key information needed to better understand the characteristics as well as effects of the disease surveillance approach studied. Due to the perceived heterogeneity within the tentative eligible articles, meta-analyses are not considered for the current study at the moment.

Results

NA for now—This is a protocol study

Discussion

Infectious diseases have been wreaking havoc on humanity throughout history [1–6]. Ranging from the Black Death, the 1918 influenza pandemic, the SARS pandemic, the Ebola outbreak, to the current COVID-19 pandemic, infectious diseases have traumatized generation after generation of humans, leaving numerous lives lost and countless livelihoods irreparably damaged [4–15]. Situations might become worse as COVID-19 evolves and spreads across the world. One estimate indicates that at least 40% of the world’s 7.6 billion people will be infected with COVID-19 [16]. However, not all hope is lost. One of the most promising tools that can help health experts better curb and control the spread of COVID-19 is AI-based disease surveillance systems [44–48].

AI-based disease surveillance systems have the advantages over traditional monitoring of allowing rapid mass monitoring of populations and potential COVID-19 infections in a timely and cost-effective manner, advantages that can save lives and effectively negate the necessity of social distancing measures like lockdowns. However, while the importance of AI-based disease surveillance mechanisms in pandemic control is clear, what is less known is the state-of-the-art application of these mechanisms in countries across the world. Therefore, to bridge this gap, we aim to systematically review the literature to identify

(1) how AI-based disease surveillance systems have been applied in countries worldwide amid COVID-19 and (2) the characteristics and effects of these applications regarding the control of the spread of COVID-19.

Findings of our study will fill an important void in the literature, considering that no research has systematically reviewed available AI-based disease surveillance in the context of COVID-19. As the world keeps reeling from COVID-19, it is important to identify cost-effective AI-based disease surveillance mechanisms that can detect COVID-19 cases and explain how one COVID-19 case turns into many cases in a timely manner, so that better prevention measures can be established to curb the spread of the COVID pandemic in a timely manner. In addition to lives and livelihoods saved, with a comprehensive understanding of options and opportunities available in the context of AI-based COVID-19 surveillance systems, data scientists and health experts will obtain insights needed to develop AI-based surveillance systems that can better help the society understand AI-based surveillance systems to tackle infectious diseases above and beyond COVID-19.

Conclusions

NA for now—This is a protocol study

List Of Acronyms

AI: artificial intelligence

COVID-19: coronavirus disease 2019

SARS: severe acute respiratory syndrome

MERS: Middle East respiratory syndrome

NCD: Non-communicable diseases

Declarations

- **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

Not applicable.

- **Consent for publication**

Not applicable.

- **Availability of data and materials**

No

• Competing interests

None

Funding

None

• Authors' contributions

ZS developed the research idea and drafted the manuscript, BB and FS reviewed and revised the manuscript.

• Acknowledgements

The authors wish to express their gratitude for the constructive input offered by the editor and reviewers.

References

1. Anderson RM, Anderson B, May RM. Infectious diseases of humans: Dynamics and control. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1992.
2. Jones KE, et al. Global trends in emerging infectious diseases. *Nature*. 2008;451(7181):990–3.
3. Hethcote HW. The mathematics of infectious diseases. *SIAM review*. 2000;42(4):599–653.
4. Armstrong GL, Conn LA, Pinner RW, *Trends in infectious disease mortality in the United States during the 20th century*. *JAMA*, 1999. **281**(1): p. 61–66.
5. Kilbourne ED. Influenza pandemics of the 20th century. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2006;12(1):9–14.
6. Lederberg J. Infectious disease as an evolutionary paradigm. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 1997;3(4):417–23.
7. Almond D. Is the 1918 influenza pandemic over? Long-term effects of in utero influenza exposure in the post-1940 U.S. population. *J Polit Econ*. 2006;114(4):672–712.
8. Tumpey TM, et al. Characterization of the reconstructed 1918 Spanish influenza pandemic virus. *Science*. 2005;310(5745):77–80.
9. Taubenberger JK, Morens DM. 1918 *Influenza: The mother of all pandemics*. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 2006. **12**(1): p. 15–22.
10. Neumann G, Noda T, Kawaoka Y. Emergence and pandemic potential of swine-origin H1N1 influenza virus. *Nature*. 2009;459(7249):931–9.

11. Swerdlow DL, Finelli L. Preparation for Possible Sustained Transmission of 2019 Novel Coronavirus: Lessons From Previous Epidemics. *JAMA*. 2020;323(12):1129–30.
12. Cunha BA. Influenza: Historical aspects of epidemics and pandemics. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2004;18(1):141–55.
13. Louie JK, et al. Factors associated with death or hospitalization due to pandemic 2009 influenza a (H1N1) infection in California. *JAMA*. 2009;302(17):1896–902.
14. Bradley BT, Bryan A. Emerging respiratory infections: The infectious disease pathology of SARS, MERS, pandemic influenza, and Legionella. *Semin Diagn Pathol*. 2019;36(3):152–9.
15. Jordà Ò, Singh SR, Taylor AM, *Longer-run economic consequences of pandemics*. Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco, 2020.
16. Christakis N. *Nicholas Christakis on fighting covid-19 by truly understanding the virus*. 2020 [cited 2020 August 14th]; Available from: <https://www.economist.com/by-invitation/2020/08/10/nicholas-christakis-on-fighting-covid-19-by-truly-understanding-the-virus>.
17. Holmdahl I, Buckee C. Wrong but useful – What Covid-19 epidemiologic models can and cannot tell us. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;383(4):303–5.
18. Jewell NP, Lewnard JA, Jewell BL. Predictive mathematical models of the COVID-19 pandemic: Underlying principles and value of projections. *JAMA*. 2020;323(19):1893–4.
19. Wang J. *Mathematical models for COVID-19: applications, limitations, and potentials*. Journal of Public Health and Emergency, 2020. 4.
20. Li H, et al. Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): Current status and future perspectives. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2020;55(5):105951.
21. Gorbalenya AE, et al. The species severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus: Classifying 2019-nCoV and naming it SARS-CoV-2. *Nature Microbiology*. 2020;5(4):536–44.
22. Tay MZ, et al. The trinity of COVID-19: Immunity, inflammation and intervention. *Nature Reviews Immunology*. 2020;20(6):363–74.
23. Hellewell J, et al. Feasibility of controlling COVID-19 outbreaks by isolation of cases and contacts. *The Lancet Global Health*. 2020;8(4):e488–96.
24. Petersen E, et al., *Comparing SARS-CoV-2 with SARS-CoV and influenza pandemics*. The Lancet Infectious Diseases.
25. Baud D, et al. Real estimates of mortality following COVID-19 infection. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2020;20(7):773.
26. Gates B. Innovation for pandemics. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;378(22):2057–60.
27. Brundage JF, Shanks GD. Deaths from bacterial pneumonia during 1918-19 influenza pandemic. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2008;14(8):1193–9.
28. Findlater A, Bogoch II. Human mobility and the global spread of infectious diseases: A focus on air travel. *Trends in Parasitology*. 2018;34(9):772–83.

29. Short KR, Kedzierska K, van de Sandt CE. *Back to the future: Lessons learned from the 1918 influenza pandemic*. Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology, 2018. 8(343).
30. Lau LS, et al. COVID-19 in humanitarian settings and lessons learned from past epidemics. Nat Med. 2020;26(5):647–8.
31. Drew DA, et al., *Rapid implementation of mobile technology for real-time epidemiology of COVID-19*. Science, 2020: p. eabc0473.
32. Sprik P, et al., *Feasibility and acceptability of a telephone-based chaplaincy intervention in a large, outpatient oncology center*. Supportive care in cancer: official journal of the Multinational Association of Supportive Care in Cancer, 2020: p. 1–11.
33. Zhou X, et al. The role of telehealth in reducing the mental health burden from COVID-19. Telemedicine e-Health. 2020;26(4):377–9.
34. Smith AC, et al., *Telehealth for global emergencies: Implications for coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19)*. Journal of Telemedicine and Telecare, 2020: p. 1357633 × 20916567.
35. Keshvardoost S, Bahaadinbeigy K, Fatehi F, *Role of telehealth in the management of COVID-19: Lessons learned from previous SARS, MERS, and Ebola outbreaks*. Telemedicine and e-Health, 2020.
36. Shi F, et al., *Review of artificial intelligence techniques in imaging data acquisition, segmentation and diagnosis for COVID-19*. IEEE Reviews in Biomedical Engineering, 2020. **PP**.
37. Mann DM, et al., *COVID-19 transforms health care through telemedicine: Evidence from the field*. Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association, 2020.
38. Hollander JE, Carr BG. Virtually perfect? Telemedicine for Covid-19. N Engl J Med. 2020;382(18):1679–81.
39. Goodman-Casanova JM, et al. Telehealth home support during COVID-19 confinement for community-dwelling older adults with mild cognitive impairment or mild dementia: Survey study. J Med Internet Res. 2020;22(5):e19434.
40. Chauhan V, et al. Novel coronavirus (COVID-19): Leveraging telemedicine to optimize care while minimizing exposures and viral transmission. Journal of Emergencies Trauma Shock. 2020;13(1):20–4.
41. Elbeddini A, Yeats A. Pharmacist intervention amid the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic: from direct patient care to telemedicine. Journal of pharmaceutical policy practice. 2020;13:23–3.
42. Elkaddoum R, et al. Telemedicine for cancer patients during COVID-19 pandemic: Between threats and opportunities. Future Oncol. 2020;16(18):1225–7.
43. DiGiovanni G, et al. Development of a telehealth geriatric assessment model in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Journal of Geriatric Oncology. 2020;11(5):761–3.
44. Vaishya R, et al. Artificial Intelligence (AI) applications for COVID-19 pandemic. Diabetes metabolic syndrome. 2020;14(4):337–9.

45. Zou H, Shu Y, Feng T. How Shenzhen, China avoided widespread community transmission: A potential model for successful prevention and control of COVID-19. *Infect Dis Poverty*. 2020;9(1):89.
46. Kuziemski M, Misuraca G. AI governance in the public sector: Three tales from the frontiers of automated decision-making in democratic settings. *Telecommunications Policy*. 2020;44(6):101976.
47. Simsek M, Kantarci B. *Artificial intelligence-empowered mobilization of assessments in covid-19-like pandemics: A case study for early flattening of the curve*. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 2020. 17(10).
48. Bragazzi NL, et al., *How big data and artificial intelligence can help better manage the covid-19 pandemic*. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 2020. 17(9).
49. Sun G, et al. An infectious disease/fever screening radar system which stratifies higher-risk patients within ten seconds using a neural network and the fuzzy grouping method. *J Infect*. 2015;70(3):230–6.
50. Schwalbe N, Wahl B. Artificial intelligence and the future of global health. *The Lancet*. 2020;395(10236):1579–86.
51. Kassubek J. The application of neuroimaging to healthy and diseased brains: Present and future. *Frontiers in Neurology*. 2017;8:61–1.
52. U.S. Department of Homeland Security. *National Biosurveillance Integration Center Strategic Plan*. 2012 [cited 2020 August 18th, 2020]; Available from: <https://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/nbicstrategic-plan-public-2012.pdf>.
53. Allen KC. *Applications: Biosurveillance, biodefense, and biotechnology*, in *Disaster Epidemiology*, J.A. Horney, Editor. 2018, Academic Press. p. 143–151.
54. Wong ZSY, Zhou J, Zhang Q. Artificial Intelligence for infectious disease Big Data Analytics. *Infect Dis Health*. 2019;24(1):44–8.
55. Shaban-Nejad A, Michalowski M, Buckeridge DL. Health intelligence: how artificial intelligence transforms population and personalized health. *npj Digital Medicine*. 2018;1(1):53.
56. McCormick J. *How AI spotted and tracked the coronavirus outbreak*. 2020 [cited 2020 August 18th]; Available from: <https://www.wsj.com/articles/how-ai-spotted-and-tracked-the-coronavirus-outbreak-11580985001>.
57. McCall B. COVID-19 and artificial intelligence: Protecting health-care workers and curbing the spread. *The Lancet Digital Health*. 2020;2(4):e166–7.
58. Davies NG, et al. Effects of non-pharmaceutical interventions on COVID-19 cases, deaths, and demand for hospital services in the UK: A modelling study. *The Lancet Public Health*. 2020;5(7):e375–85.
59. Ouyang X, et al. Dual-sampling attention network for diagnosis of COVID-19 from community acquired pneumonia. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging*. 2020;39(8):2595–605.
60. Kang H, et al. Diagnosis of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) with structured latent Multi-view representation learning. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging*. 2020;39:2606–14.

61. Braithwaite I, et al., *Automated and partly automated contact tracing: A systematic review to inform the control of COVID-19*. The Lancet Digital Health.
62. O'Shea J. Digital disease detection: A systematic review of event-based internet biosurveillance systems. *Int J Med Inform*. 2017;101:15–22.
63. Huff AG, et al. Biosurveillance: A systematic review of global infectious disease surveillance systems from 1900 to 2016. *Rev Sci Tech*. 2017;36(2):513–24.
64. Gates B. Responding to Covid-19 – A Once-in-a-Century Pandemic? *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382(18):1677–9.
65. World Health Organization. *Prioritizing diseases for research and development in emergency contexts*, in *R&D Blueprint*, T.W.R.D.B. Team, Editor. 2018.
66. Honigsbaum M. Disease X and other unknowns. *Lancet*. 2019;393(10180):1496–7.
67. Simpson S, et al. Disease X: Accelerating the development of medical countermeasures for the next pandemic. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2020;20(5):e108–15.
68. Fauci AS, Lane HC, Redfield RR. Covid-19 - Navigating the uncharted. *The New England Journal of Medicine*. 2020;382(13):1268–9.
69. Thomson B. The COVID-19 pandemic: A global natural experiment. *Circulation*. 2020;142(1):14–6.
70. Stewart L, Moher D, Shekelle P. Why prospective registration of systematic reviews makes sense. *Syst Rev*. 2012;1:7.
71. Chang SM, Slutsky J. Debunking myths of protocol registration. *Syst Rev*. 2012;1:4.
72. Xu C, et al. Protocol registration or development may benefit the design, conduct and reporting of dose-response meta-analysis: Empirical evidence from a literature survey. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2019;19(1):78.
73. dos Santos MBF, et al. Protocol registration improves reporting quality of systematic reviews in dentistry. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2020;20(1):57.
74. Shokraneh F. *Reproducibility and replicability of systematic reviews*. *World Journal of Meta-Analysis*, 2019. 7(3).
75. Ramstrand N, et al. Promoting quality and transparency in clinical research. *Prosthet Orthot Int*. 2019;43(5):474–7.
76. Moher D, et al. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA statement. *PLoS Medicine*. 2009;6(7):e1000097.
77. Yuan M, et al. A systematic review of aberration detection algorithms used in public health surveillance. *J Biomed Inform*. 2019;94:103181.
78. Yan SJ, Chughtai AA, Macintyre CR. Utility and potential of rapid epidemic intelligence from internet-based sources. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2017;63:77–87.
79. Ouzzani M, et al., *Rayyan – A web and mobile app for systematic reviews*. *Systematic Reviews*, 2016. 5(210).

80. Higgins JP, et al., *Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions*. 2019: John Wiley & Sons.
81. van Tulder M, et al. Updated method guidelines for systematic reviews in the cochrane collaboration back review group. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)*. 2003;28(12):1290–9.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [SurveillancePRISMA2009checklist.doc](#)