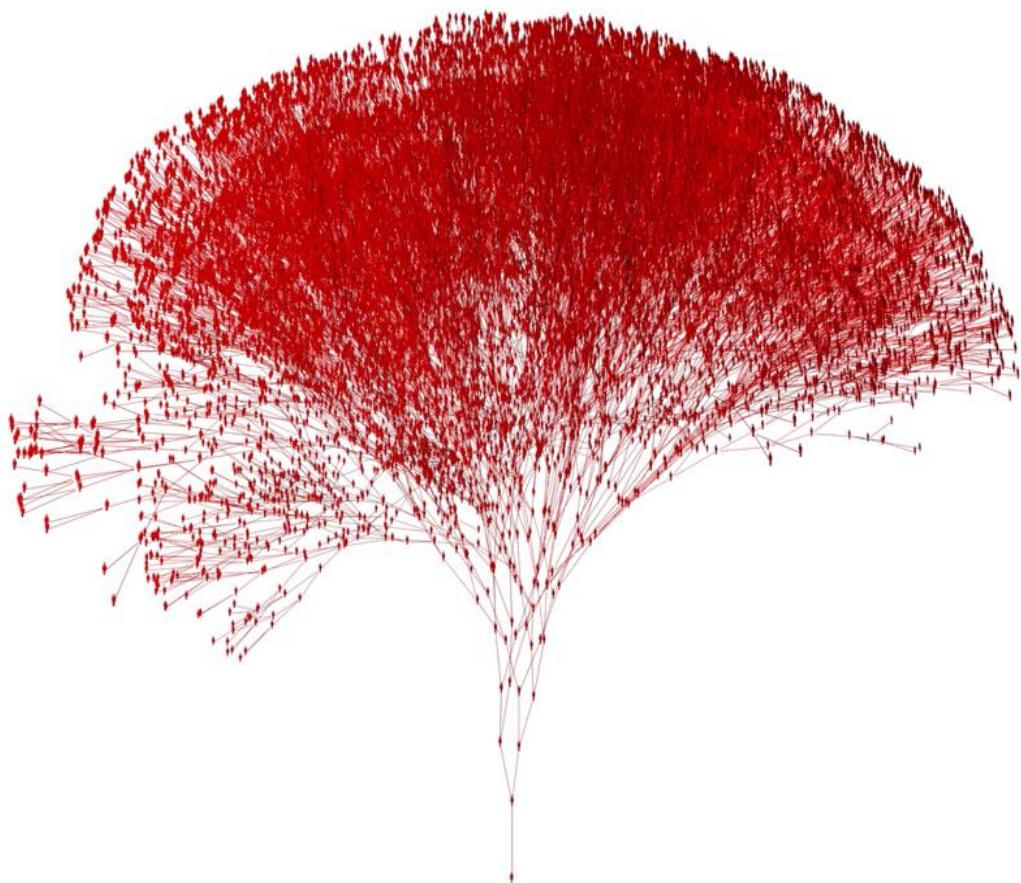


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COVID-19 Demystified



Online Course Beta 1, Published Text V 1

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COVID-19 Demystified

Introduction

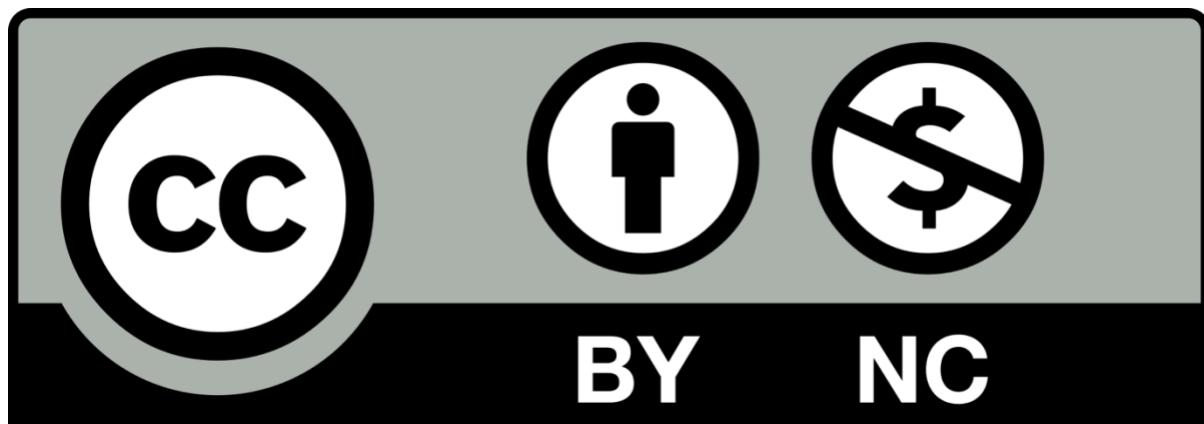
Notices

This course is the text for a course intended to provide non-experts with a perspective on the evolving COVID-19 situation and implications. The outbreak is moving quickly, and some of the perspectives in this course may fall rapidly out of date. The course reflects our perspective as of April 10th 2020. We will update it regularly as the pandemic evolves.

This course may contain information about medical conditions and treatments. The information is not advice and should not be treated as such. We bear no responsibility for any decisions or actions taken resulting from information found here, nor do we claim that any of it is complete, true, accurate, up-to-date, or non-misleading. Use and re-use it at your own risk.

To inform yourself and understand the risk to the public we recommend that you rely on your government body responsible for health and the World Health Organization.

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Foreword

The COVID-19 pandemic is a world-shattering event with far-reaching consequences. At this point their future impact can only be imagined.

COVID-19 has taken lives, disrupted markets and tested the competence of governments. It has already led to fundamental changes. More may follow and their impact may continue for decades.

To help us make sense of the crisis, learn-tech.io called on experts from around the world to help demystify COVID-19 in a short, practical course.

COVID-19 Demystified has been developed for three key audiences.

- Firstly, the more than 1bn young people now shut out of classrooms who still seek education.
- Secondly, the wider public who are ‘drinking from a firehose’ of ‘news’. Information that frequently includes much disinformation and fake news.
- Thirdly, those decision makers and policy makers seeking to understand more about the challenges they face.

Each of these audiences really needs opportunities to learn more about the pandemic both to protect their own lives and the lives of others.

The scientific and mathematical complexity behind fighting COVID-19 means that many people lack tools to understand fully the impact of their own actions. Without such tools, misinformation and ignorance spread easily and can amplify negative effects of the pandemic. Those with no understanding of the science of the pandemic have sought to destroy 5G infrastructure, or adopt false cures bringing risk and harm to themselves. Some have adopted blame and hatred rather than nurtured their own understanding. The Demystification team hopes that this course will aid understanding and ultimately it will aid the fight against COVID-19. We all hope COVID 19 Demystified could be a key weapon in our fight against the pandemic and its effects.

It is intended that COVID-19 Demystified aids our fight against the virus. It offers practical ways to gain analytical skills and knowledge enabling more people to make their own sense of the pandemic. With a set of data and models that a user can examine and investigate, each of us can model strategies for mitigation, understand better why different strategies are being followed and come to their own conclusions regarding the wisdom of different government strategies.

Above all else, COVID-19 is an opportunity for us all to learn, and whilst the subject matter is necessarily serious, there is a deep joy to be gained in understanding the science, technology, engineering, and maths that underpins the not only the fight against the pandemic but life itself.

Course Summary

The course starts with an analysis of how the COVID-19 pandemic started. To understand how this happened, we explore the world of viruses and how they interact with living things. We analyse how viruses work, reproduce and exist in different organisms.

COVID-19 for many is a life-threatening disease so we next examine how the SARS-CoV-2 virus responsible for COVID-19 can make people ill. In the space of just a few months COVID-19 had become a global pandemic, so we look in detail at how the disease spread around the planet so quickly, including the distinct phases that a pandemic goes through, including mutations.

We next analyse the effects of COVID-19 on individuals, including the risks to individuals including the potential characteristics of those at risk of contracting the disease, its effects on health services, society and economics.

The key question is how this pandemic can be stopped, so next we look at vaccines, drugs, technologies, and the public policy options open to governments. We investigate why choosing the right policy is so difficult and why using mathematical models can inform decision-making. Models are, of course, based on data, so next we look in details at the availability and quality of data, and how to use basic statistical methods to read and interpret it. We look at modelling and show what is meant by ‘flattening the curve’. We then use a basic model to show the kinds of results we can expect from different strategies.

Finally, the course will analyse the factors that need to be considered when thinking about how to exit from COVID-19, including successful government interventions, and ask what will be different in the world after COVID-19 is brought under control?

Learning Goals

COVID-19 has unleashed a tsunami of information ranging from deep science from the world’s most respected institutions to deliberate misinformation.

This course is an attempt to demystify COVID-19, so that we can gain a basic foundation of the principles necessary to understand how we may be able to minimise the impact and prepare for the next pandemic.

Our goal here is to equip you with the knowledge and skills to make your own mind up about what you hear or read, and how COVID-19 ought to be managed.

Knowledge and Understanding (Theory Component)

At the end of this course, learners should be able to:

- Understand the science and numbers behind COVID-19 and the SARS-CoV-2 virus that causes it
- Discuss the pandemic with confidence, giving substantiated viewpoints on matters such as public policy with a willingness to accept other viewpoints and learn more
- Understand why governments in different countries make the decisions that they do

Key Skills (Practical Component)

At the end of this course, learners should be able to:

- Analyse data, factors and basic formulae related to medical research
- Work with basic epidemiological models
- Analyse the ethical dilemmas associated with containing a pandemic

Terminology

The commonly used name for COVID-19 is ‘coronavirus’, and this is generally used interchangeably to describe both the virus and the disease. Here we need to distinguish between the virus and the disease it causes so we will use formal terminology.

The International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) is responsible for naming viruses whilst the World Health Organisation (WHO) names diseases.

ICTV named the new virus “Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2” abbreviated as SARS-CoV-2. WHO named the disease Coronavirus disease (COVID-19).

Excel Modelling Spreadsheet

This course makes extensive use of an Excel spreadsheet that you can adapt for your own use. We've used data sources that we consider to be reliable, and you can take these models and data as a starting point to build your own versions.

[Link to Excel file]

What is a Virus?

COVID-19, The Nasty Surprise?

Although many experts have been anticipating a pandemic, few anticipated the scale of the impact that COVID-19 has had so far, the worst event of its kind in over 100 years.

Those who did see it coming warned us. In a TED talk in 2015ⁱ, Bill Gates tried to caution us, that we were not ready for the next outbreak; he even came close to predicting the form that the virus would take. Even the smartest of the major international institutions failed to predict the current pandemic – the worse event of its kind in over 100 years.



Figure 1. Bill Gate's 2015 TED Talk, *The Next Outbreak*, predicted that a COVID-19 type pandemic would strike

The BBC also predicted a viral pandemic with their excellent 2018 “Contagion” documentary presented by Hannah Fryⁱⁱ.

This course is an attempt to demystify COVID-19 so we learn how to stop, or at least prepare for, the next pandemic. It is also an attempt to explain how nature can ‘bite’ us if we don’t take it seriously.

COVID-19 has unleashed a tsunami of information ranging from the deep science from the world’s most respected institutions, to deliberate misinformation.

Our goal here is to equip you with the knowledge and skills to make your own mind up about what you hear or read, and how COVID-19 ought to be managed.

How Did the Outbreak Start?

On December 29th 2019 Chinese authorities identified a cluster of similar cases of pneumonia in the city of Wuhan in China. Wuhan is a city with 11 million inhabitants and is the capital of the Hubei Province.

These cases were soon determined to be caused by a novel coronavirus that was later named SARS-CoV-2.2

Coronaviruses are a group of viruses that are common in humans and are responsible for up to 30% of common colds. Corona is Latin for “crown” – this group of viruses is given its name due to the fact that its surface looks like a crown under an electron microscope.

Two outbreaks of new diseases in recent history were also caused by coronaviruses – SARS in 2003 and MERS in 2012.

The first cases of COVID-19 outside of China were identified on January 13th in Thailand and on January 16th in Japan.

On January 23rd the city of Wuhan and other cities in the region were placed in lockdown by the Chinese Government.

Since then COVID-19 has spread to many more countries – cases have been reported in all world regionsⁱⁱⁱ. You can see the latest available reported data in the dashboard of cases and deaths which are kept up to date by Johns Hopkins University^{iv}.



Figure 2. John's Hopkins COVID-19 Dashboard

Introduction to Viruses

Living Things

To understand SARS-CoV-2 and its impacts, we first have to understand living things.

Living things can move, grow, develop and reproduce - and will eventually die. They use energy obtained from food to repair and create new cells.

All living things have a cellular organization. A cell is the basic unit of life. The body of an average human contains 30 to 40 trillion cells^v.

Cells are composed of chemicals with water the most abundant chemical ingredient. Cells use carbohydrates to give them energy. They are made of proteins and lipids; and Nucleic Acids which are used to store genetic material. Ribosomes link amino acids to form proteins within structures determined by DNA and scaffolded by RNA.

Living things react to stimuli. A stimulus is something in the environment that causes a reaction or change in behaviour.

Living things evolve, i.e. the physical characteristics of types of life forms change over time. Evolution comes from variations in the genes of living things called mutations. Without mutation, evolution could not occur. Mutation is a change in the sequence of an organism's genetic code.

Living things have genes carry information in genetic code that instructs a cell to make specific proteins from amino acids. They determine the organism's structure, appearance, how it survives, and how it behaves in its environment. Humans have between 20,000 and 25,000 genes.

Genes are encoded in DNA located in the cell's nucleus. DNA molecules have the shape of a double helix. RNA is a molecule which, like DNA, can store genetic information as a sequence of chemical "letters". RNA is made in the nucleus and carries a copy of the DNA instructions to assemble amino acids in the correct order to make a specific protein^{vi}.

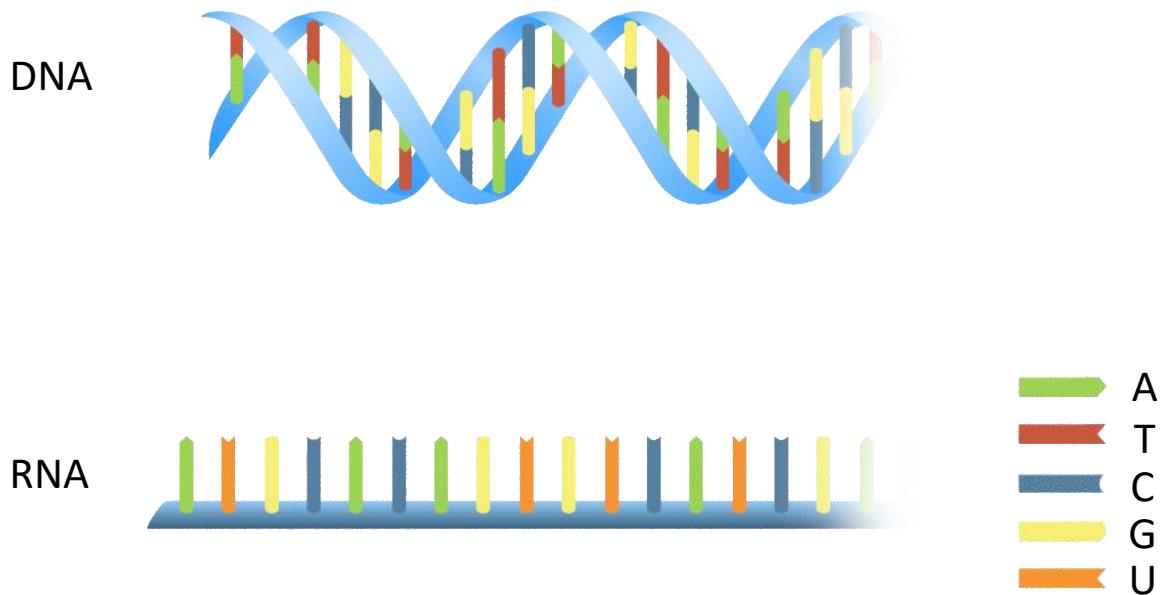


Figure 3. The DNA to RNA to Protein process. Image source, based on <https://www.yourgenome.org/facts/what-is-the-central-dogma>

A normal cell has DNA in the nucleus, from which RNA is derived, and RNA then scaffolds proteins in the body of the cell.

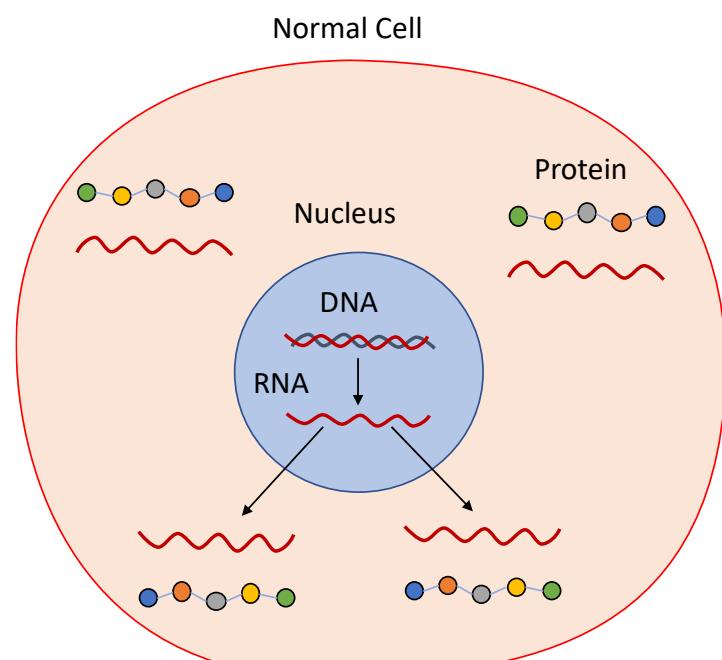


Figure 4. A normal cell. DNA produces RNA which guides the formation of proteins

The Immune System

Virtually all living things have at least one form of defence that helps repel disease-causing organisms which are called pathogens. Animals with backbones, called vertebrates, have an advanced protective system called the immune system.

Infection with a pathogen occurs when viruses, bacteria, or other microbes enter your body and begin to multiply. Disease occurs when the cells in your body are damaged as a result of infection and signs and symptoms of an illness appear. The incidence of disease among those infected varies greatly depending on the particular pathogen and individual susceptibility.

In response to infection, your immune system is activated. White blood cells, antibodies, and other mechanisms go to work to get rid of the pathogen.

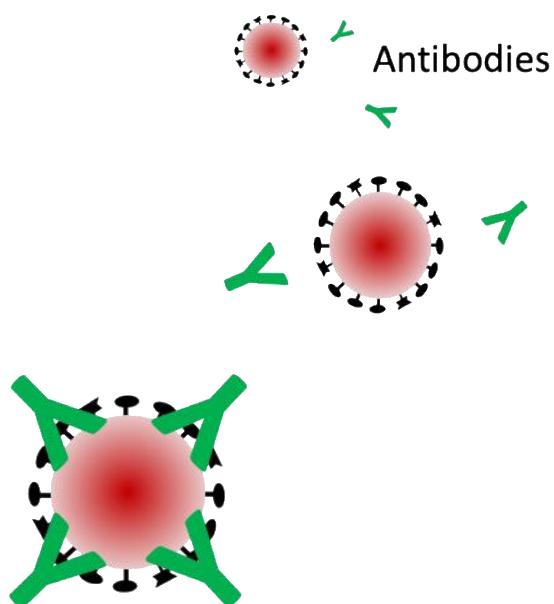


Figure 5. Antibodies attack pathogens when they are identified as 'foreign'

Many of the symptoms that make a person suffer during an infection—fever, malaise, headache, rash—result from the activity of the immune system trying to eliminate the infection from the body.

The immune system keeps a record of every pathogen our bodies have ever defeated in types of white blood cells known as memory cells. A white blood cell can recognise and destroy a pathogen quickly if it enters the body again.

Some infections, e.g. viral infections such as the flu and the common cold, have to be fought many times because so many different viruses or mutations of the same type of virus can cause these illnesses. Catching a cold or flu from one virus does not give you immunity against the others.

Viruses

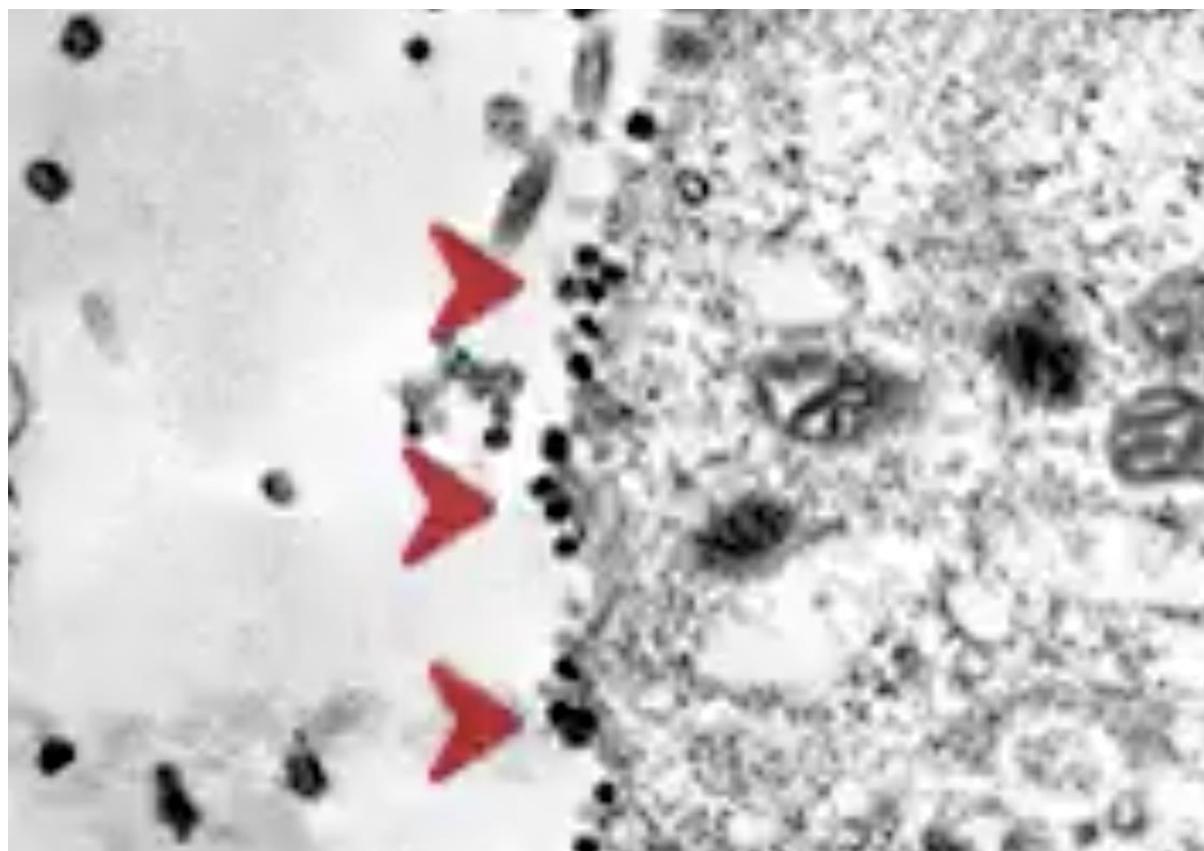


Figure 6. SARS-CoV-2. Source, Metrópole Estadoã, <https://twitter.com/EstadaoSaoPaulo/status/1247995964083900416>

Viruses were first discovered in 1898, when it was found that foot-and-mouth disease in livestock came from an infectious particle smaller than any bacteria^{vii}.

Viruses cause a number of diseases in ‘eukaryotes’ – i.e. cells or organisms with a membrane bound nucleus). In humans, smallpox, the common cold, chickenpox, influenza, herpes, polio, rabies, Ebola, hanta fever, and AIDS are examples of viral diseases.

Because of the great diversity among viruses, biologists have struggled to classify them and work out how they relate to the conventional ‘tree of life’. They may represent genetic elements that gained the ability to move between cells. They may represent previously free-living organisms that became parasites. They may even be the precursors of life as we know it.

A significant question is whether viruses are living things or not, and there is no clear consensus either way. But what we do know, is that viruses do not carry out metabolic processes – i.e. obtain energy from organic molecules. Neither can they independently form proteins. Because of these limitations, viruses can replicate only within a living host cell^{viii}.

Viruses’ structures and replication strategies are diverse. Viruses, do, however, share a few features:

- They generally are quite small, with a diameter of less than 200 nanometres (nm). A SARS-CoV-2 virus measures around 90 nanometres – about 1/1000 the diameter of a human hair.
- Viruses can replicate only within a host cell.
- No known virus contains ribosomes, a necessary component of a cell's protein-making machinery.

Some viruses have their genetic material based on RNA whilst others are based on DNA.

SARS-CoV-2 is an RNA virus. These have simpler structures, reproduce less accurately and have high mutation rates. The advantage of such a high error rate is that RNA viruses are capable of rapidly outmanoeuvring the host's immune system. The success of RNA viruses is typically due to rapid reproduction and moving on to a new host. The ability to move to new hosts reduces the selective pressure not to harm the host, so many RNA viruses are more pathogenic.

The Coronavirus family was first recognised by science in the 1960s. They got their name because, under the early electron microscopes of the period, their shape seemed reminiscent of a monarch's crown, but they better resemble an old-fashioned naval mine. There are now more than 40 recognised members of the family, infecting a range of mammals and birds, including blackbirds, bats and cats^{ix}. Coronaviruses include SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2.

How do Viruses Work?

Viruses depend on the host cells that they infect to replicate. When found outside of host cells, viruses exist inside a protein coat which encloses either DNA and/or RNA – its reproductive genetic codes. Some viruses have an outer membrane made of lipids – organic compounds that include oils and fats. While outside a host cell, the virus is inactive.

When it comes into contact with a host cell, a virus can insert its genetic material into its host, literally taking over the host's functions. An infected cell will produce more viral protein and genetic material than it would otherwise. Some viruses may remain dormant inside host cells for long periods, causing no obvious change in their host cells. But when a dormant virus is stimulated, new viruses are formed, they self-assemble, and burst out of the host cell, killing the cell and going on to infect other cells.

As viruses make copies of themselves, they mutate over time. If they make enough copies, infect enough people, and transmit easily enough, they persist. In this regard they evolve through natural selection.

Structure of a SARS-CoV-2 Virus

A SARS-CoV-2 virus particle is about 90 nanometres (billions of a metre) in diameter – around a millionth of the volume of the cells it infects in the human lung.

It contains different proteins and a strand of RNA, which contains the information needed to make copies of itself^x.

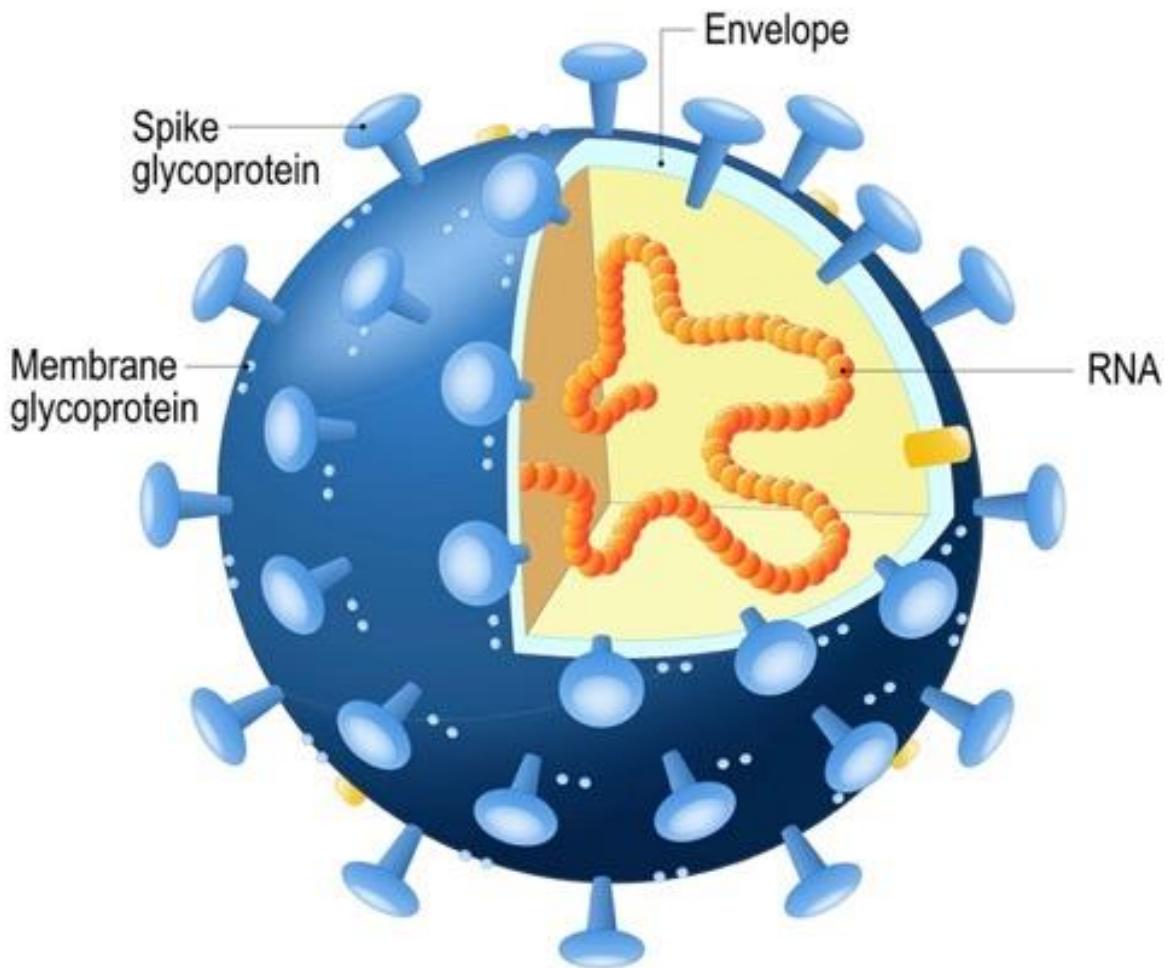


Figure 7. SARS-CoV-2 cell structure. Image source, Shutterstock

The outer membrane of the virus is made of glycoprotein and lipids which breaks up when it encounters soap. This is why it is so important for people to wash their hands regularly with soap.

The most prominent protein, the one which gives the virus their mine-like appearance by protruding from the membrane, is called spike. Two other proteins, the envelope protein and membrane protein, sit in the membrane between these spikes, providing structural integrity. Inside the membrane a fourth protein, the nucleocapsid, encloses the genetic material of the virus^{xi}.

How a Virus Reproduces

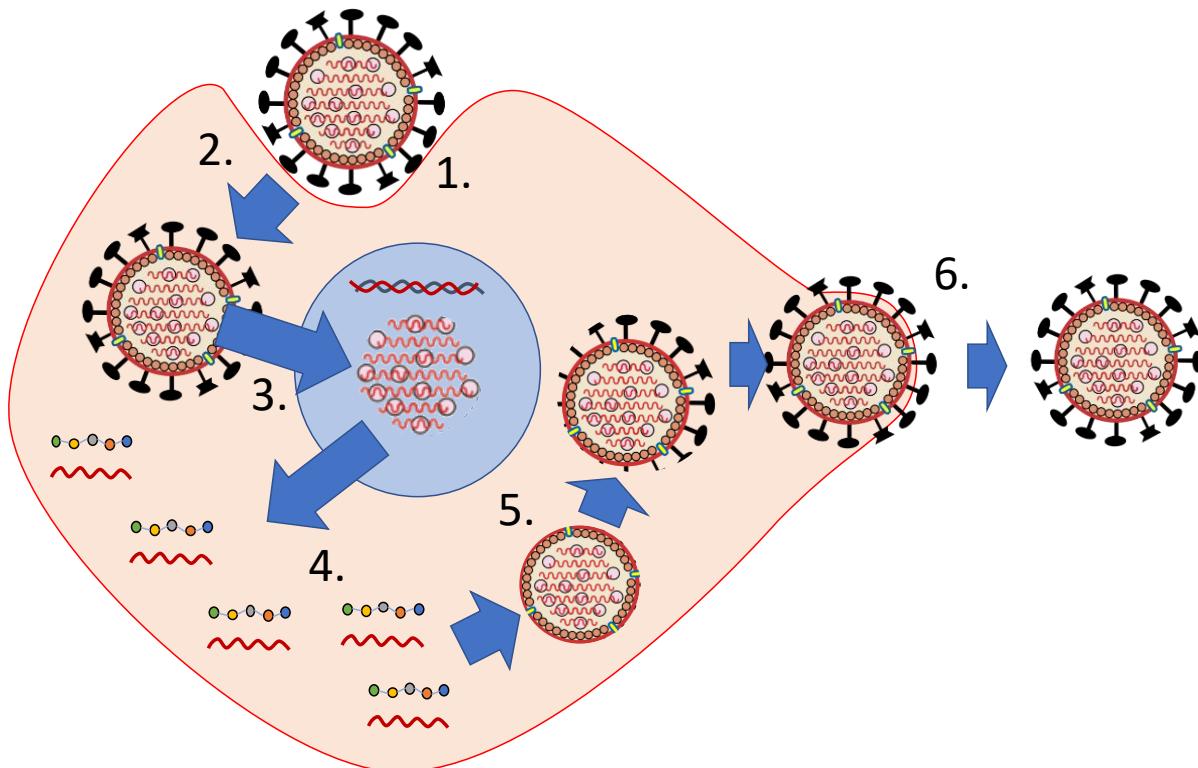


Figure 8. This shows a virus attacking a cell and multiplying inside Redrawn from:

<https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=1749484>

1. First contact between a virus and a cell is made by the ‘spike’ protein. There is a region on this protein that fits a protein called “ace2” which is found on the surface of some human cells, particularly those in the mouth, nose, throat, and lungs.
2. Once a virus has attached itself to an ace2 molecule, a second protein cuts open the spike protein, exposing a stump called a “fusion peptide” which lets the virus into the cell.
3. The virus then opens up and injects its RNA into the nucleus of the cell.
4. The cell then starts making structural proteins and RNA
5. The cell then assembles these into new viruses, which exit the cell to attach to other cells and start the process again.

A cell may make between 100 and 1,000 viruses capable of taking over another cell either nearby or in another body^{xii}.

Viruses in Other Organisms

Viruses infect plants and animals alike. For example, the Tobacco mosaic virus^{xiii} affects tobacco plants, whilst the Foot and mouth disease (FMD) is a severe, highly contagious viral disease of cattle^{xiv}.

Coronavirus is the latest example of an infection that has jumped from animals into humans^{xv}. Nearly all viruses and bacteria that infect other organisms are completely

harmless to people. But a tiny proportion can infect us and cause so-called “zoonotic” diseases, which come from animals rather than other people.

Zoonotic diseases can be particularly deadly because we have no pre-existing immunity to them. It is not 100% clear where COVID-19 originated, but bats carry the virus^{xvi}. The virus could have entered the human food chain directly from a bat or from another animal that interacts with bats. In some parts of the world, wild animals are commonly eaten.

When an infected animal is captured and eaten, and the virus is absorbed into the body where it takes over cells, reproduces, and causes a cough which projects coronaviruses to other people. From there people infect other people^{xvii}. This means that humans are a good host for the virus which is why it is able to spread so quickly.

How Does SARS-CoV-2 Make Us Ill?

For most people, the disease is mild, but for others, it is fatal.

Incubation Period

The incubation period is the time between exposure to the virus (that is being infected) and the first symptoms appearing. For COVID-19 this is believed to be five to six days on average. There is some evidence to suggest that the period between exposure and symptoms can be 1 to 14 days^{xviii}. This means, that someone may unknowingly infect others, before symptoms appear.

COVID-19 is transmitted when SARS-CoV-2 is breathed in after someone coughs nearby or when someone touches a contaminated surface and then their face. It first infects the mouth, nose, throat, and lungs and turns cells into SARS-CoV-2 “production plants” reproducing huge numbers of new viruses that go on to infect yet more cells.

At this early stage, the infection is not noticeable, and some people may not show symptoms.

Mild disease

Covid-19 is a mild infection for 80% people who get it and the core symptoms are a fever and a cough. Loss of the sense of smell, body aches, sore throat and a headache may or may not occur.

The fever and feeling ill is a result of the immune system responding to the infection. It has recognised the virus as a pathogen and signals to the rest of the body something is wrong by releasing chemicals in an attempt to kill the invader but causes the body aches, pain and fever in the process.

The coronavirus cough doesn't produce mucus and is probably caused by the irritation of cells as they become infected by the virus. Some people will eventually start coughing up a thick mucus containing dead lung cells that have been killed by the virus.

These symptoms are treated with bed rest, plenty of fluids and paracetamol. At this point patients don't need specialist hospital care. This stage lasts about a week - at which point most people recover because their immune system has fought off the virus. However, some will develop a more serious form of Covid-19.

Severe Disease

If the disease progresses it will be due to a combination of the infection itself and inflammation in response to the infection. Chemical signals released to the rest of the body cause inflammation, but this needs to be delicately balanced. Too much inflammation can cause collateral damage throughout the body. Inflammation is known as pneumonitis, and infection of the lungs is called pneumonia.

Deep in the lungs are tiny tubes and air sacs where oxygen moves into the blood and carbon dioxide moves out. When a patient has pneumonia, the tiny sacs start to fill with fluid and mucus, and can eventually cause shortness of breath and difficulty with breathing. The breathing difficulty may be eased by supplying the patient with additional oxygen.

Some people in this stage have difficulty breathing and require a ventilator - specialised equipment that assists with gas exchange.

This severe stage is thought to affect around 14% of cases, based on data from China.

Critical Disease

It is estimated around 6% of cases become critically ill.

At this stage the infection and the immune system are now spiralling out of control and causing damage throughout the body. The body is starting to fail and there is a significant chance of death.

Widespread inflammation in the lungs stops the body getting the oxygen it needs to survive. It can stop the kidneys from cleaning the blood and damage the lining of the intestines.

If the immune system cannot fight off the virus, then it will eventually spread to every part of the body causing yet more damage.

Treatment by this stage can be highly invasive and can include, for example, an artificial lung that takes blood out of the body through thick tubes, oxygenates it and pumps it back in.

However, sometimes despite MAXimal therapy the damage can reach fatal levels at which organs can no longer keep the body alive^{xix}.

How Does SARS-CoV-2 Spread?

Phases of a Pandemic

SARS-CoV-2 is a new virus, so to understand how it spreads we need to look at previous pandemics and as the pattern becomes clear, adjust our understanding of it accordingly. The following is based on what has been observed so far, and analysis of Influenza pandemics.

The sequence below is adapted from WHO^{xx}, and from “Pandemic Influenza Preparedness and Response”^{xxi}.

Phase 1

In nature, viruses circulate continuously among animals, especially birds. Even though such viruses might theoretically develop into pandemic viruses. In Phase 1, no viruses circulating among animals have been reported to cause infections in humans.

Phase 2

An animal virus circulating among domesticated or wild animals is known to have caused infection in humans and is therefore considered a potential pandemic threat.

Phase 3

An animal or human-animal virus has caused sporadic cases or small clusters of disease in people but has not resulted in human-to-human transmission sufficient to sustain community-level outbreaks. Limited human-to-human transmission may occur under some circumstances, for example, when there is close contact between an infected person and an unprotected caregiver. However, limited transmission under such restricted circumstances does not indicate that the virus has gained the level of transmissibility among humans necessary to cause a pandemic.

Phase 4

Verified human-to-human transmission of a virus able to cause “community-level outbreaks”. The ability to cause sustained disease outbreaks in a community marks a significant upwards shift in the risk of a pandemic.



Figure 9. Patient Zero

An important number in understanding the spread of a disease is “ R_0 ”. This is the expected number of cases directly generated by one case in a population. In this analysis of COVID-19 we will use $R_0=2.4$ given by Imperial College^{xxii}. This means that each patient will on average spread the virus to between 2 and 3 other people.

If, for example, $R_0=2$, then 1 person spreads the virus to 2 people; 2 people spread the virus to 4 people; 4 people spread the virus to 8 etc. This gives us an ‘exponential rise’ in the number of cases.

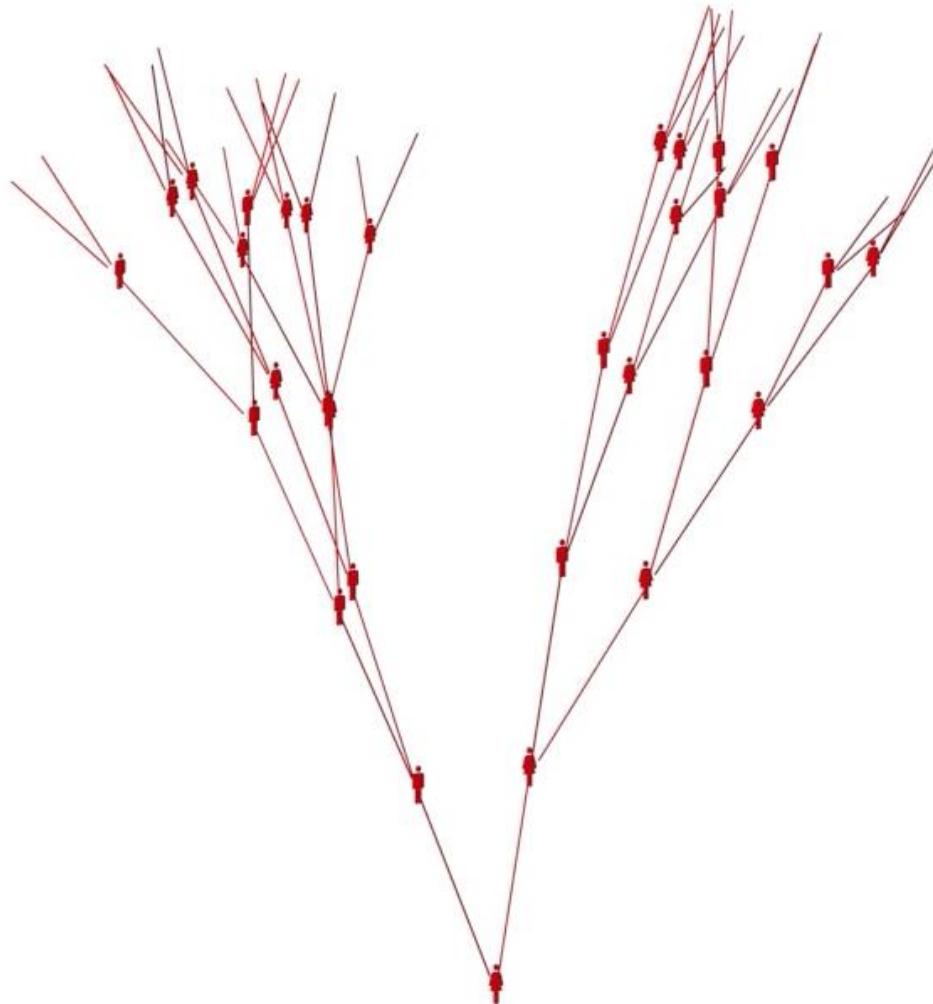


Figure 10. Exponential spread from Patient Zero when $R_0 = 2$

In this way the disease can spread throughout a single population – e.g. a city or a community. With COVID-19, most people get very mild symptoms or no noticeable symptoms at all, so that much of the spread goes undiagnosed. As it is a new disease, those who are hospitalised with COVID-19 are likely to be misdiagnosed in the early stages of the disease spreading. As a result, the virus continues spreading at an exponential rate unchecked.

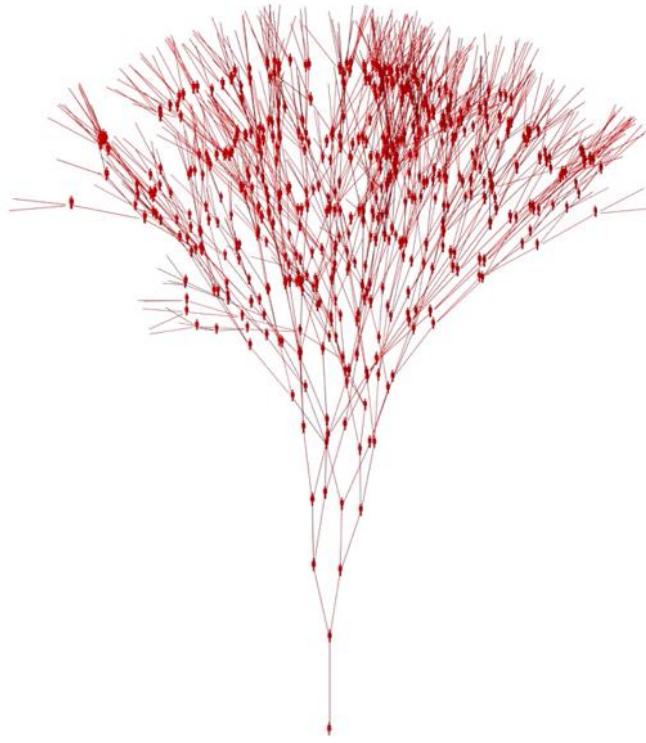


Figure 11. Unchecked exponential growth.

Today no population is completely isolated, and people travel between communities. As a result, the virus starts to spread as people travel from the initially infected area to other cities and locations.

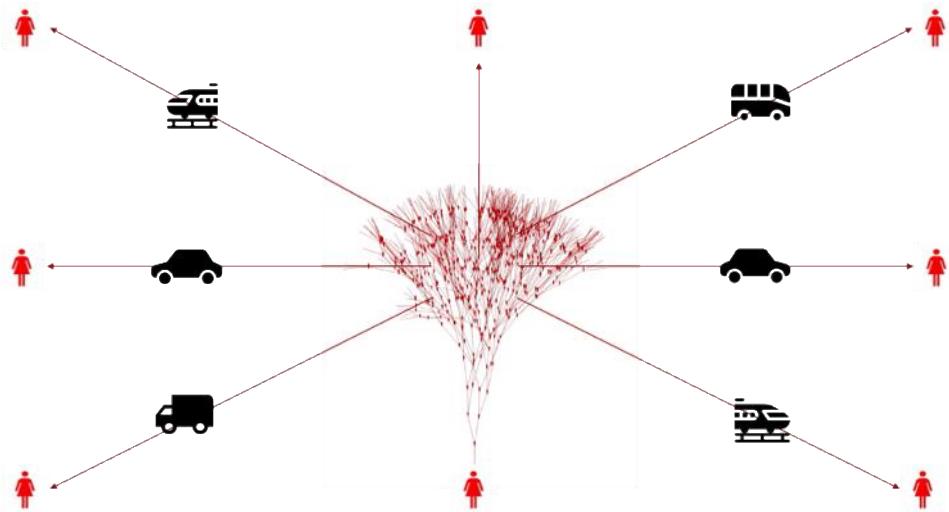


Figure 12. The virus spreads from its source to new communities

The virus spreads exponentially across a single country into the cities, towns and communities connected by carriers from the epicentre where the virus originated. The spread of the disease is now out of control and occurs over a wide geographic area affecting an exceptionally high proportion of the population. We now have an 'epidemic'.

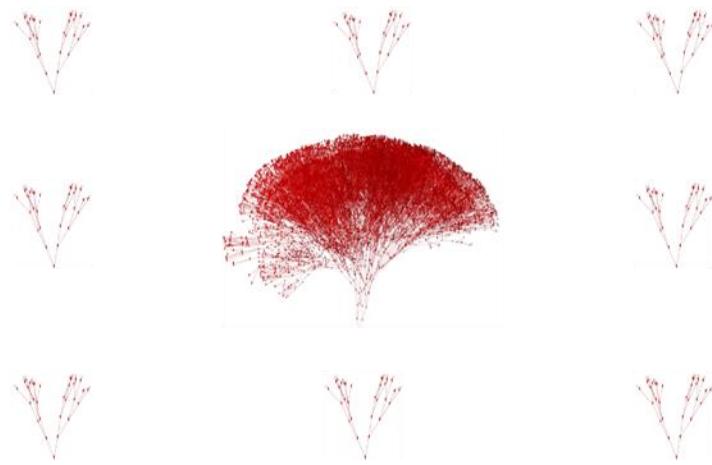


Figure 13. New populations are now spreading the virus further.

Phase 5

This phase is characterized by human-to-human spread of the virus into at least two countries.

Connectedness between communities drives the spread within a single country, but no country is completely isolated either. As a result, people travelling between countries also spread the disease.

While most countries will not be affected at this stage, the declaration of Phase 5 is a strong signal that a pandemic is imminent and that the time to finalize the organization, communication, and implementation of the planned mitigation measures is short.

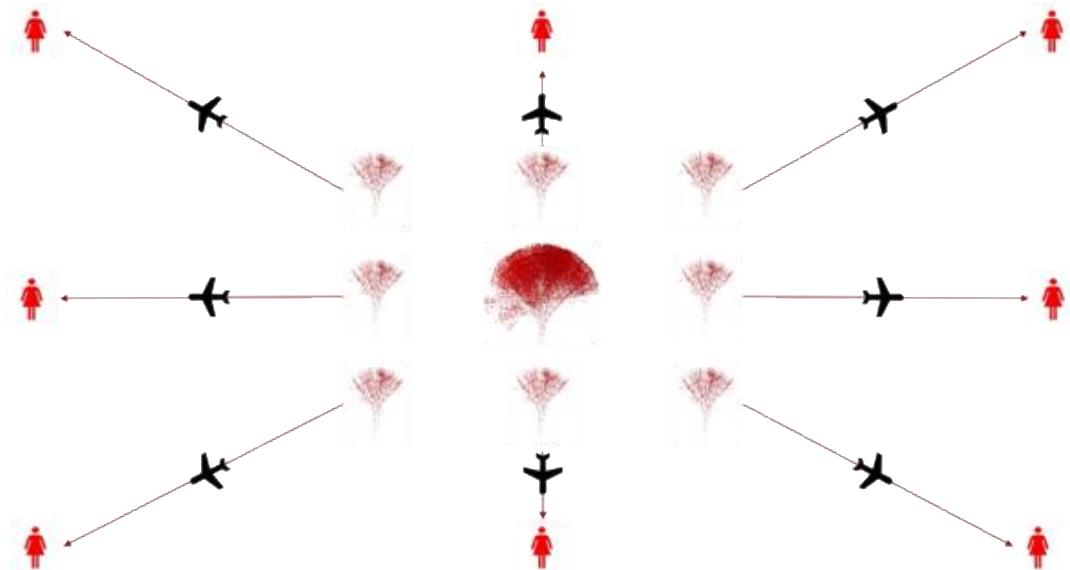


Figure 14. The virus spreads internationally

Phase 6

The pandemic phase is characterized by community level outbreaks in at least one other country in a different region of the world in addition to the criteria defined in Phase 5.

Designation of this phase will indicate that a global pandemic is under way.

In the case of COVID-19 we have seen that capital cities or main commercial centres – e.g. New York, Paris, London, Sao Paulo - are usually the first to get the biggest numbers of infections in a country as they have the highest levels of international interactions.

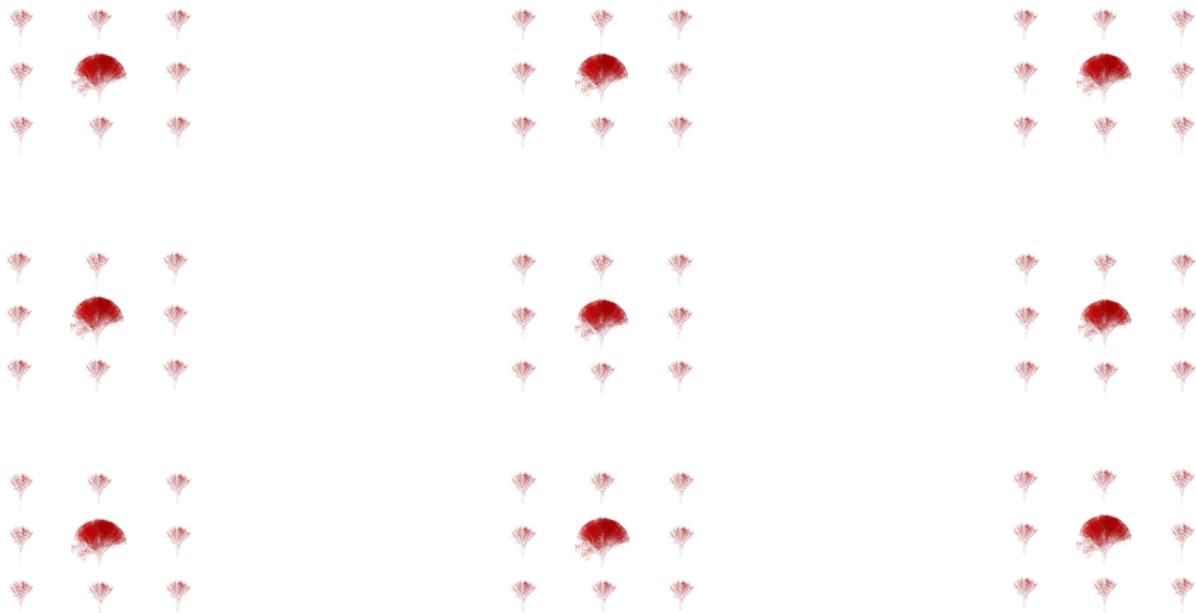


Figure 15. From 1 person, we now have a pandemic

Post-Peak Period

During the post-peak period, pandemic disease levels in most countries with adequate surveillance will have dropped below peak observed levels. The post-peak period signifies that pandemic activity appears to be decreasing; however, it is uncertain if additional waves will occur and countries will need to be prepared for a second wave.

Previous pandemics have been characterized by waves of activity spread over months. Once the level of disease activity drops, a critical communications task will be to balance this information with the possibility of another wave. Pandemic waves can be separated by months and an immediate “at-ease” signal may be premature because without a vaccine large sections of the population are still going to be susceptible.

In the post-pandemic period, disease activity will have returned to levels normally seen for a given season. At this stage, it is important to maintain surveillance and update pandemic preparedness and response plans accordingly. An intensive phase of recovery and evaluation may be required.

Mutations

A mutation occurs in a virus when DNA or RNA is damaged or changed in such a way as to alter the genetic message carried by that gene.

SARS-CoV-2 is an RNA virus and these have the high mutation rates. Mutations lead to different strains – i.e. genetic variants or subtype of the virus.

Mutation doesn't imply that the virus is becoming more harmful. Instead, mutation's subtle shifts in the virus's genetic code can assist researchers in establishing where the virus has come from and where it has been, as well as dispel myths about its origins.

So far, SARS-CoV-2 has mutated 4 times^{xxiii}.

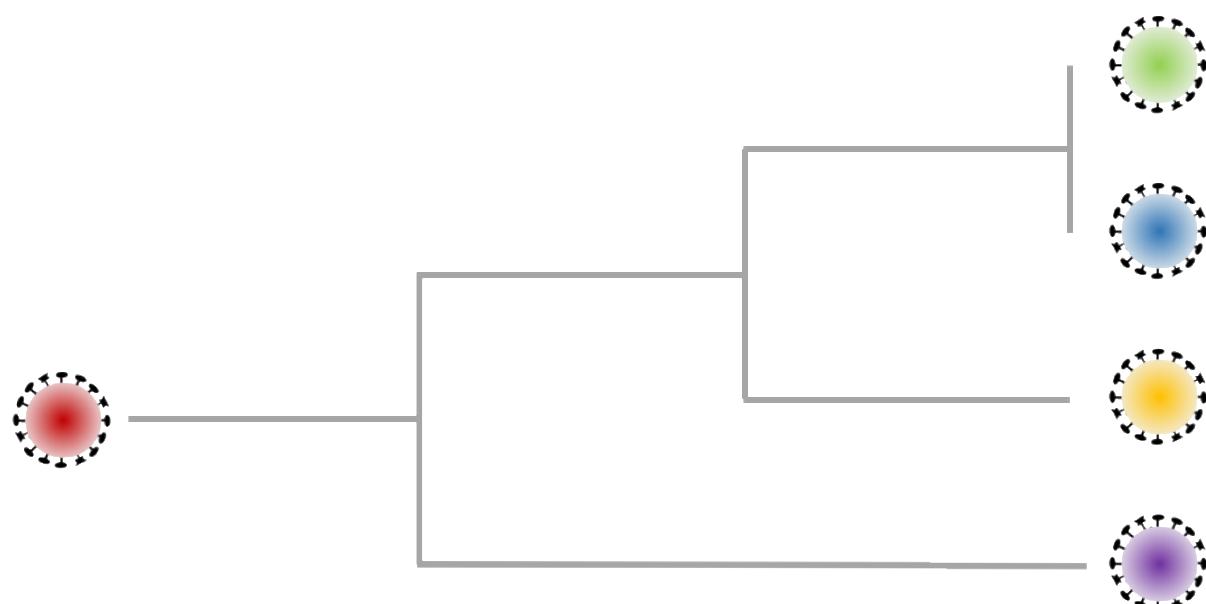


Figure 16. So far, SARS-CoV-2 has mutated four times

As the virus spreads around the world, Nextstrain.org^{xxiv} uses genetic data to track the evolution of the virus through “family trees”.

Click on the “Play” on the right-hand pane where the world map is shown to track the evolution of the virus as it travels around the world.

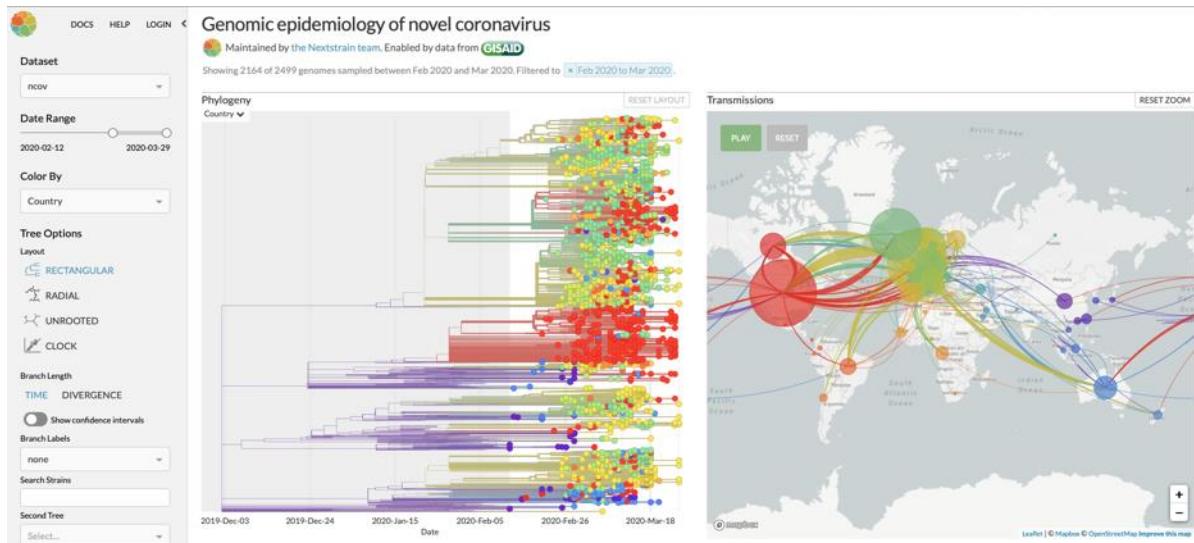


Figure 17. Genomic epidemiology of SARS-CoV-2

Exercise 1

Discuss the following –

1. “Could COVID-19 be worse than it is? If so, how?”
Consider the average numbers of people who:
 i) Contract the disease
 ii) Develop severe and critical symptoms
 iii) Pass the diseases on to other people (R_0)
2. Was Bill Gates and the BBC (Contagion documentary) right in their predictions?
3. Did governments heed the warnings and prepare well?
4. How does this country ranking of preparedness for pandemics compare with the current realities of COVID-19 - <https://www.ghsindex.org>
5. Were those countries that experienced pandemics like SARS and MERS recently better prepared for COVID-19 than other countries? Use this source as a starting point to inform your arguments - <https://www.bloomberg.com/opinion/articles/2020-03-18/covid-19-response-better-in-countries-with-sars-mers-coronavirus>

Checkpoint 1

1. Which of the following is not a necessary feature of living things

- Growth
- Reproduction
- Central nervous system
- Cells
- Genes

2. What is the basic unit of life?

- DNA
- RNA
- The cell
- Ribosomes
- Proteins

3. Which of the following are not features of cells

- Nucleus
- Nerves
- DNA
- RNA
- Proteins

4. Which of the following are not features of viruses

- RNA
- DNA
- Antibodies
- Membranes
- Proteins

5. Which of the following two features does the SARS-CoV-2 virus have

- RNA
- Brain
- Antibodies
- Spikes
- DNA

6. How does a virus replicate?

- The same way as a human cell
- By injecting its own genetic codes into a cell's nucleus
- By finding proteins, so that it can create copies of itself
- By mutating
- By first creating ribosomes

7. How Does SARS-CoV-2 Make Us Ill

- By giving people a temperature

Attacking the nervous system
Attacking muscles
A combination infection and inflammation
Giving people a cough

8. The immune system keeps a record of every pathogen our bodies have ever defeated with

DNA
RNA
Red blood cells
Antibodies
White blood cells known as memory cells

9. What is the range of the incubation period of COVID-19?

1 to 5 days
5 to 14 days
2 to 14 days
1 to 14 days
1 to 7 days

10. With what rate of growth would SARS-CoV-spread if it was left unchecked

Logistic
Exponential
Intermittent
Incremental
Linear

11. What is R_0 for the SARS-CoV-2 given by Imperial College's used in our analysis of the spread of SARS-CoV-2?

2
5
3.5
6
2.4

12. Based on data from China, what percentage of infected people become severely ill?

20%
6%
14%
80%
17%

What is a Pandemic?

Pandemics Are Far From New

The worldwide spread of disease and illness is not a new phenomenon.

From as early as the 6th century, humanity have been plagued by illness and disease; the plague of Justinian is thought to have killed as many as 50 million people, perhaps half the global population at the time. However, it was not until humanity's shift from hunting to farming communities that the scale and spread of these diseases increased dramatically. The Black Death of the 14th Century – likely caused by the same pathogen as the 6th century plague— may have killed up to 200 million people.

Widespread trade created new opportunities for human and animal interactions that accelerated such epidemics. The more connected humans became – with larger cities, more distant trade routes, and increased contact with different populations of people, animals, and ecosystems – the greater the likelihood of pandemics. Malaria, tuberculosis, leprosy, influenza, smallpox, and others first appeared during these early years of greater trade. Smallpox may have killed as many as 300 million people in the 20th Century alone, even though an effective vaccine – the world's first – became available in 1796.

Throughout history, nothing has killed more human beings than the viruses, bacteria and parasites that cause disease. Not natural disasters like earthquakes and volcanoes, and man-made disasters such as war do not even come close.

Some 50 to 100 million people died in the 1918 influenza pandemic – numbers that surpass the death toll of World War One, which was being fought at the same time. The 1918 flu virus infected one in every three people on the planet. More recently, HIV, a pandemic that is still with us and still lacks a vaccine, has killed an estimated 32 million people and infected 75 million^{xxv}.

The 21st century saw its first influenza pandemic in 2009, when H1N1 resulted in 100,000-400,000 deaths.

HISTORY OF PANDEMICS

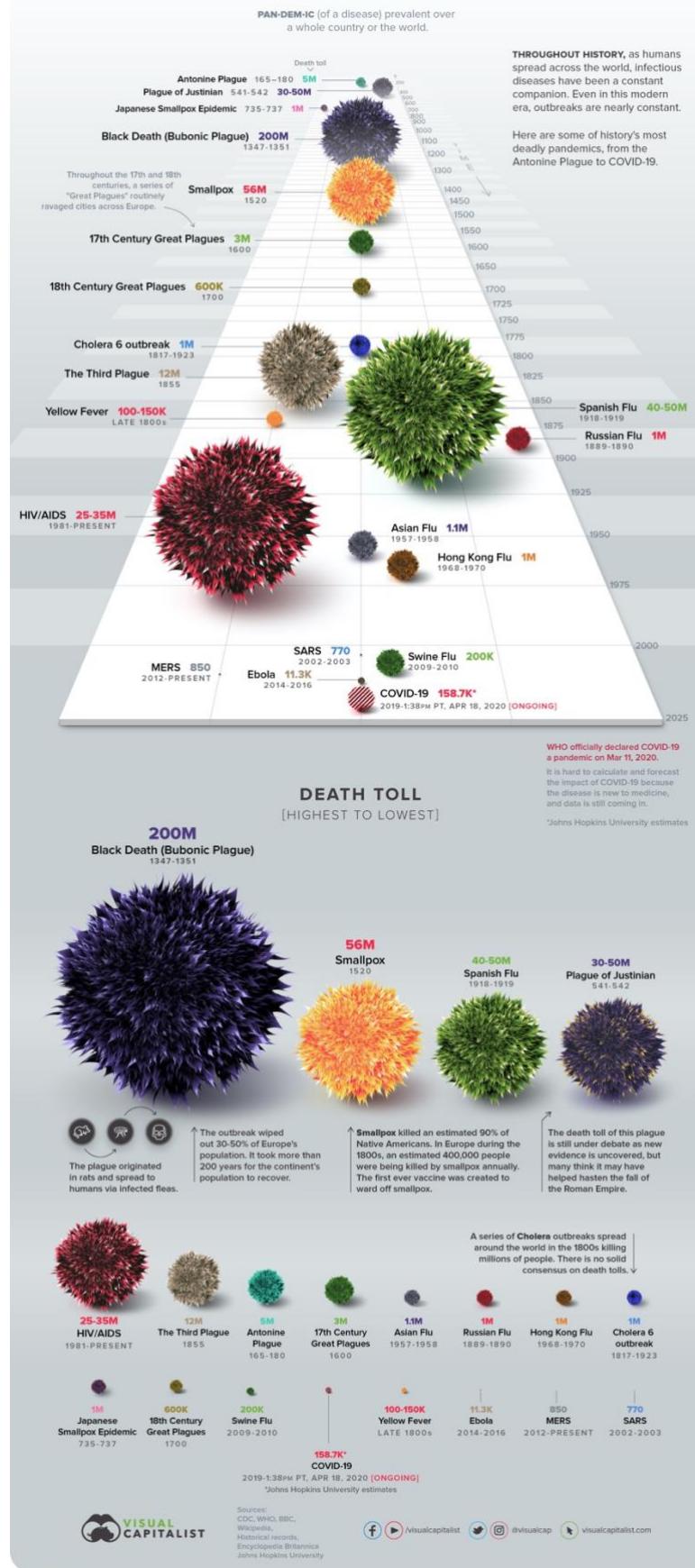


Figure 18. A history of pandemics. Source <https://www.visualcapitalist.com/history-of-pandemics-deadliest/>

Effects of COVID-19 on Individuals

The COVID-19 pandemic is delivering a deep, severe shock to the global economy. Millions of people face an uncertain future, with no idea when (or, indeed, if) they will be able to return to work or see family members again. The effects will be felt in every home across the world.

Current concern is rightly focused on physical health. The measures necessary to prevent or delay infection mean that a lot of people's mental health will be challenged, even when the immediate crisis is over^{xxvi}.

The downside of self-isolation or social lockdown include traumatic stress, confusion and anger. Each of these is exacerbated by fear of infection and loss, limited access to supplies, inadequate information and experience of economic pain and stigma. Such stress and anxiety can lead to people seeking ways to dull the pain and for some increased alcohol and drug taking, and in turn greater tension in homes leading to domestic and family violence.

The long-term impacts of COVID-19 on survivors are hard to judge at this point because the disease is so new, but it is reasonable to expect that those who go on to develop the severe and critical symptoms could suffer a range of continuing challenges including for example long term lung damage.

What's the Risk That I'll Die From COVID-19

The biggest fear, of course, is that COVID-19 will kill us. To assess individual risk, we use Case Fatality Rate (CFR). The CFR is the number of people who die from COVID-19 divided by the number of confirmed COVID-19 cases.

This number varies significantly between countries^{xxvii}. It is difficult estimate CFR accurately because of the high proportion of people that experience COVID-19 with mild or unnoticeable symptoms. Imperial College London estimate the IFR for the UK at 0.9%^{xxviii}.

There are three main factors affecting the probability of a COVID-19 patient dying from the disease.

1. The older someone is, the higher their chances of dying.

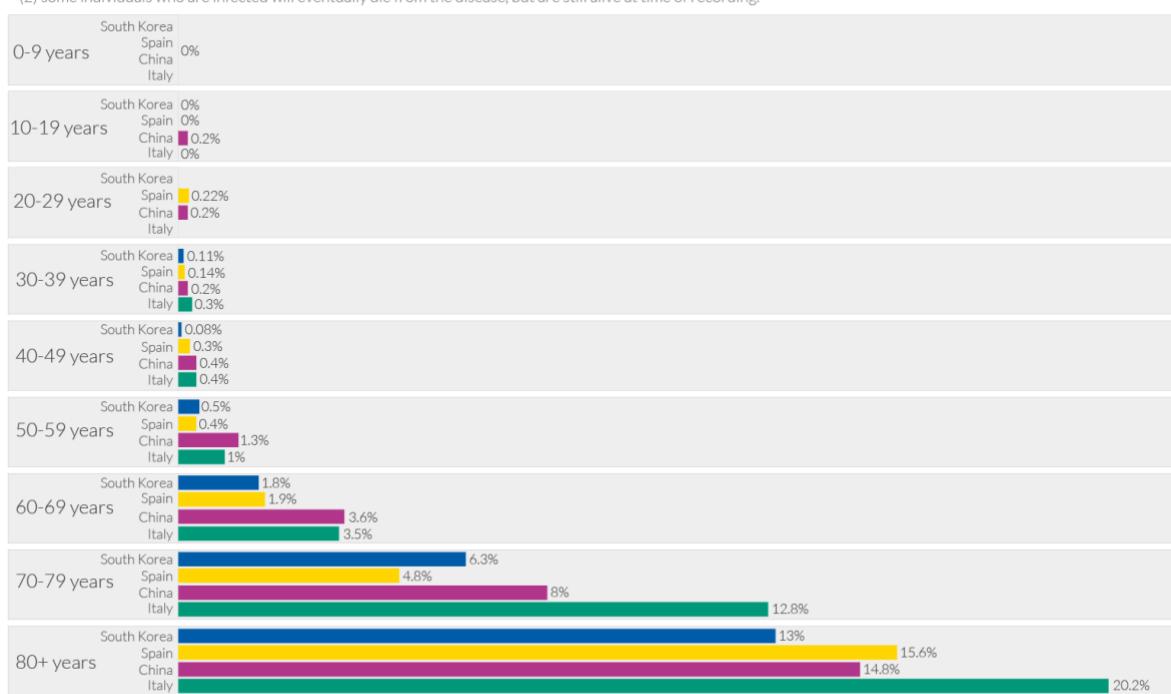
Coronavirus: case fatality rates by age

Our World
in Data

Case fatality rate (CFR) is calculated by dividing the total number of confirmed deaths due to COVID-19 by the number of confirmed cases.

Two of the main limitations to keep in mind when interpreting the CFR:

- (1) many cases within the population are unconfirmed due to a lack of testing.
- (2) some individuals who are infected will eventually die from the disease, but are still alive at time of recording.



Note: Case fatality rates are based on confirmed cases and deaths from COVID-19 as of: 17th February (China); 24th March (Spain); 24th March (South Korea); 17th March (Italy).

Data sources: Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC); Spanish Ministry of Health; Korea Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (KCDC).

Onder G, Rezza G, Brusaferro S. Case-Fatality Rate and Characteristics of Patients Dying in Relation to COVID-19 in Italy. JAMA.

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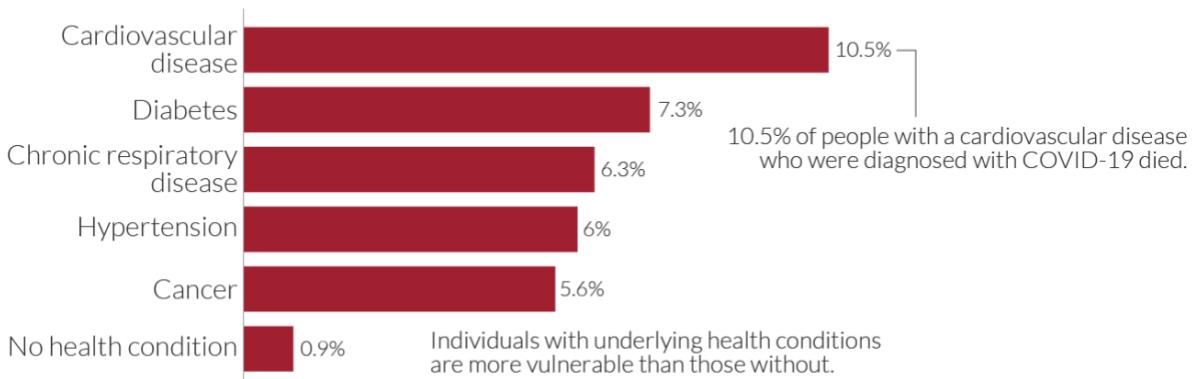
Figure 19. COVID-19 Case Fatality Rates by age. Source <https://ourworldindata.org/coronavirus>

2. Underlying health conditions – particularly high blood pressure (hypertension), diabetes and coronary heart disease – increase the risk.

Coronavirus: early-stage case fatality rates by underlying health condition in China

Our World
in Data

Case fatality rate (CFR) is calculated by dividing the total number of deaths from a disease by the number of confirmed cases.
Data is based on early-stage analysis of the COVID-19 outbreak in China in the period up to February 11, 2020.



Data source: Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia Emergency Response Epidemiology Team. Vital surveillances: the epidemiological characteristics of an outbreak of 2019 novel coronavirus diseases (COVID-19)—China, 2020. China CDC Weekly.

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Figure 20. Fatality rates by underlying health condition, China. Source <https://ourworldindata.org/coronavirus>

3. Men are more at risk than women. In China, one analysis found a fatality rate of 2.8% in men compared with 1.7% in women. This may be due to men being more likely to have underlying risk factors, as a result of behavioural differences (for example, smoking and drinking more) or due to biological differences which make them more vulnerable.

In April 2020 it seems that ethnicity could possibly be another. However, it is too early to tell.

Effects on Health Services

In normal, non-pandemic, times, health services in some countries can be stretched. However, when a pandemic hits, a wave of additional demands are placed on hospitals.

Services have to balance the demands of responding directly to COVID-19; maintaining existing and essential health services; taking on the extra work involved in mitigating the risk of spread of the virus across the health system itself; compensating for staff sickness; and preventing system collapse.

COVID-19 affects every aspect of a health service – from the front-line call centres to providing mortuary services.

When the pandemic first emerged in Wuhan in January 2020, the emergency hotline was jammed when more than 15,700 calls were made the day after the citywide lockdown. The city had just 57 ambulances for its 11 million people. This meant that roughly 275 patients were waiting in turn for each ambulance^{xxix}.

Since then General Practitioner services across the world have had to switch from face-to-face consultations to telephone or videoconferencing. Clearly this consultation method is sub-optimal when physical examination is essential.

In pandemic conditions, demand for drugs to treat conditions brought on by COVID-19 increase significantly. Availability of appropriate drugs has been reported to be running low in Europe^{xxx}.

Dealing with the virus adds pressure on health systems – for example, it can take an hour to sterilise an ambulance after transporting a patient.

In addition, providing hospital beds is not enough to tackle COVID-19. Significant numbers of people developing severe and critical forms of the illness mean that significantly more specialist staff, intensive care beds and ventilators are required alongside the resources to support them. Front line care staff also require adequate supplies of personal protective equipment.

No health system in the world was designed and prepared for the scale and type of hospitalisation that COVID-19 has caused. Treating the severely ill in numbers for which no

hospitals were designed puts an unbearable burden on health systems. As Jeremy Farrar, the director of the Wellcome Trust, which funds research, puts it: "If you had a drug which reduced your time in hospital from 20 days to 15 days, that's huge^{xxxii}."

In the absence of impactful drugs or vaccines, health services across the world have had to scale-up their provision quickly. In many countries war-type field hospitals have been set up. In China, new 'kit' hospitals were built within weeks, and in other countries, exhibition centres have been turned into hospitals.

Effects on Society

Effects on society have been varied and significant.

Fears over the outbreak of COVID-19 lead people to panic buy, as supermarkets and shop struggle to keep up in demand. Across the world customers have been stockpiling on essentials such as food, toilet course and hand sanitiser.

At the start of the outbreak, hundreds of people queued up to buy face masks across Asia, for example in Hong Kong, as shown here:



Figure 21. Thousands queue for masks across Asian cities. Source Reuters and South China Post.

COVID-19 has left busses, trains and flights empty with entire fleets of aircraft have been grounded as a passenger demand drops and travel bans come into force.

Across most of the world, schooling has ground to a halt with more children being educated at home. Such arrangements affect the ability of parents and guardians to work.

People's personal finances have been hit. More and more people become unemployed or furloughed.

Economic Effects

As people stay at home instead of going out for work, travel, entertainment, holidays and social functions the modern economy as we know it is slowing down. As companies lay off or furlough staff, anxieties about future earnings reduce market demands for all but essential supplies. COVID-19 has hit all aspects of the economy – from global supply chains to wages, and productivity.

Small businesses are particularly vulnerable to changes in customer and client demand, to disrupted supply chains, to increasing staff illness and to delayed payment.

Disruption to the world economy can be viewed a number of ways. Factors include:

Stock Markets

Big shifts in stock markets, where shares in companies are bought and sold, can affect many investments in pensions or savings accounts.

Global stock markets have seen huge falls since the outbreak began. Some markets have seen their biggest falls since 1987.

Investors fear the spread of the coronavirus will destroy economic growth and that government action may not be enough to stop the decline. In response, central banks in many countries cut interest rates to make borrowing cheaper and encourage investment and spending.

For the general public, their pension funds and savings are likely to fall, and some people will be unable to pay their rents or mortgages. In some parts of the world property sales and prices have plummeted.

Unemployment

In the United States, the number of people filing for unemployment hit a record high, signalling an end to a decade of expansion for one of the world's largest economies.

Travel & Tourism Industry

The travel industry has been badly damaged, with airlines cutting flights and tourists cancelling business trips and holidays.

Governments around the world have introduced travel restrictions to try to contain the virus. Data from the flight tracking service Flight Radar 24^{xxxii} shows that the number of flights globally has collapsed. With vastly reduced international travel, and people under lockdown, tourism is being severely impacted by COVID-19.

Stockpiling

Supermarkets and online delivery services have reported a huge growth in demand with customers stockpiling goods such as toilet paper, rice and orange juice as the pandemic escalates. This may seem good for supermarkets, but it takes money out of consumers' pockets for spending on other items, and means disruption to supply chains.

Factory Production Decline

In China, where the coronavirus first appeared, industrial production, sales and investment all fell in the first two months of the year, compared with the same period in 2019. China makes up a third of manufacturing globally and is the world's largest exporter of goods. Restrictions have affected the supply chains of manufacturing companies across the world.

Global Growth

If the economy is growing, that generally means more wealth and more new jobs. It is measured by looking at the percentage change in gross domestic product, or the value of goods and services produced, typically over three months or a year.

The world's economy could grow at its slowest rate since 2009 this year due to the coronavirus outbreak, according to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

The economic impact of COVID-19 on the world economy depends on two main factors:

- How quickly and effectively the virus spread is brought under control. 2-3 months per country is considered reasonable.
- How strong and fast government financial policy responses are^{xxxiii}

A Perspective from McKinsey and Company

As of April 2020, McKinsey and Company, a major business consulting group, proposes that two scenarios are possible:

Delayed recovery - Large-scale quarantines, travel restrictions, and social-distancing measures drive a sharp fall in consumer and business spending until the end of June, producing a recession. Consumers stay home, businesses lose revenue and lay off workers, and unemployment levels rise sharply. Business investment contracts, and corporate bankruptcies soar, putting significant pressure on the banking and financial system. Global GDP in 2020 falls slightly.

Prolonged contraction - Even countries that have been successful in controlling the epidemic are forced to keep some public-health measures in place to prevent resurgence. The global economic impact is severe, approaching the global financial crisis of 2008–09.

GDP contracts significantly in most major economies in 2020. A full-scale banking crisis is averted because of banks' strong capitalization and the supervision now in place since the 2008 financial crisis."

Exercise 2

Discuss the following:

1. Imagine yourself in charge of a city hospital. How would you prioritise your preparation for a surge in patients suffering from COVID-19? Adapt this H1N1 planning checklist from the World Health Organisation to shape your list -
http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0004/78988/E93006.pdf
2. What should the main messages be in a 30 second television COVID-19 public health campaign?
3. You are a Treasury Minister in a small country. What kinds of economic problems will you have to deal with? What are your options? Use this article from the World Economic Forum to shape your argument - <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/03/how-governments-can-soften-the-economic-blow-of-coronavirus/>

Checkpoint 2

1. What has caused the most premature deaths among the humans
 - Heart attacks
 - Wars
 - Viruses, bacteria and parasites
 - Earthquakes and volcanoes
 - Meteorites
2. The 1918 flu virus infected every _____ people on the planet
 - 2 in 3
 - 1 in 50
 - 1 in 100
 - 1 in 3**
 - 4 in 6
3. The pandemic of 2009 was called
 - AIDS
 - Smallpox
 - H1N1**
 - SARS
 - MERS
3. Which of the following is not likely to be a factor in a COVID-19 patient dying from it?
 - Age
 - Underlying health conditions
 - Gender
 - Test results**

Ethnicity

4. Which three factors in the history of human development affected the increase of pandemics

Wider knowledge about the viruses

Widespread trade

Development of new vaccines

Urbanisation

Increased contact with different populations of people, animals, and ecosystems

5. The main problem to health services posed by COVID-19 is

Lack of drugs

A wave of additional demands that can exceed capacity

Lack of trained staff

Lack of equipment

Lack of intensive care beds

6. What could make the most significant positive long-term impact on health services

More money

More ambulances

Drugs to treat the disease

A vaccine

More ICU beds

7. What extra time-taking task do ambulance services have to undertake during the COVID-19 pandemic

Commission more ambulances

Train more drivers

Prioritising COVID-19 cases

Disinfecting ambulances

Handle more oxygen cylinders

8. Which of the following is not a direct effect of COVID-19 on society

Panic buying and stockpiling

Shortages of clean drinking water

Reductions in the use of public transportation

Unemployment

Shortages of cleaning products

9. By April 2020, which of the following industries have been hardest hit by the pandemic

Mining

Agriculture

Utilities – e.g. energy and water

Digital services

Travel & Tourism

10. Which two economic scenarios were presented as possibly in April 2020, McKinsey and Company

Expansion

Delayed recovery

Peak

Prolonged contraction

Trough

How Can We Stop Pandemics?

Vaccines

In the “Living Things” section we explored the immune system and how it works. Vaccines build on the immune system to provide us with a defence against pathogens^{xxxiv}.

Edward Jenner, an English country doctor from Gloucestershire, administered the world’s first vaccination as a preventive treatment for smallpox, a disease that had killed millions of people over the centuries.

Jenner noticed that milkmaids who had contracted a disease called cowpox did not catch smallpox. Unlike smallpox, cowpox led to few symptoms in these women. On May 14, 1796, Jenner took fluid from a cowpox blister and scratched it into the skin of an eight-year-old boy. A single blister rose up on the spot, but James soon recovered. On July 1, Jenner injected the boy again, this time with smallpox matter, and no disease developed. The vaccine was a success. Fortunately, the process of developing vaccines has changed since that time.

The first time the body encounters a new pathogen, it can take several days to learn how to fight it off, by which time it may have spread far inside the body and done a lot of damage. After the infection, the immune system remembers what it learned about how to protect the body against that particular pathogen. The body creates “memory cells” that go into action quickly if the body encounters the same pathogen again, and the immune system produces antibodies to fight microbes or the toxins (poisons) they produce^{xxxv}.

How Are Vaccines Made?

The goal of vaccine development is to produce a substance called an antigen that causes your immune system to fight a pathogen with ‘antibodies’.

For 70 years, the main method for making vaccine is to use eggs. When flu vaccines are made, the flu virus is injected into and grown in the yolk of fertilised hens’ eggs because they provide the right conditions and nutrients.

The viruses are then extracted and weakened before they are put into the vaccine. Methods for weakening the virus, and turning them into an antigen, includes changing or destroying the virus’ genes, so it replicates poorly or not at all, or only using a part of the virus in the vaccine. Because the antigen in the vaccine cannot reproduce, it is harmless.

Most vaccines are made in injectable form and are mainly injected into muscle.

Once in the body, the antigens are attacked by white blood cells and antibodies. In general, it takes about two weeks after getting a vaccine for antibodies to develop in the body that protect against the diseases the vaccine is made to protect against^{xxxvi}.

The next time the patient's immune system is presented with a harmful version of same strain of virus, it recognises it and destroys it before it spreads.

Some viruses mutate quickly, and once it has changed it may not be recognised by the immune system anymore. This is why we need to have a different flu vaccine every year.

Why Can't we Have Vaccines Immediately?

The creation of a vaccine involves scientists and medical experts from around the world, and it usually requires 10 to 15 years of research before the vaccine is made available to the general public^{xxxvii}.

The first step of this extensive process involves several years of laboratory research, in which scientists and researchers identify an antigen that can prevent a disease^{xxxviii}.

Vaccines are usually made by drug companies and they have to adhere to strict rules and laws that apply to the government for licences to develop specific drugs.

Exploratory Stage

This stage involves basic laboratory research and often lasts 2-4 years. Here, scientists identify natural or synthetic antigens that might help prevent or treat a disease.

Testing process

Pre-clinical studies use tissue-culture or cell-culture systems and animal testing to assess the safety of the candidate vaccine and ability to provoke an immune response.

Many candidate vaccines never progress beyond this stage because they fail to produce the desired immune response.

If vaccine progresses beyond pre-clinical studies, it is tested further in clinical studies with human subjects. This "Phase 1" trial usually involves a small group of adults, usually between 20-80 subjects. The goals of testing here are to assess the safety of the candidate vaccine and to determine the type and extent of immune response that the vaccine provokes.

A promising Phase 1 trial will progress to "Phase II Vaccine Trials". Here, a larger group of several hundred individuals participates in the testing. Here, the goals are to study the candidate vaccine's safety, immunogenicity, proposed doses, schedule of immunizations, and method of delivery.

A successful Phase II candidate vaccine moves on to larger Phase III trials, involving thousands to tens of thousands of people. The main Phase III goal is to assess vaccine safety and efficacy^{xxxix}, and uncover side effects which might not surface in the smaller groups of subjects tested in earlier phases^{xl}.

Throughout the testing process, researchers ask if the vaccine under development leads to production of antibodies or other types of immune responses related to the pathogen.

After Phase III trials, the vaccine needs to be approved and licenced. This involves, for example, government agencies inspecting the factory where the vaccine will be made and approving the labelling of the vaccine.

Licenced Phase

After successful Phase III trials, the vaccine is licenced, mass produced, and released for use in medical practice. During this phase, government bodies continue to monitor the production of the vaccine, including inspecting facilities and reviewing the manufacturer's tests of lots of vaccines for potency, safety and purity.

Throughout its life, a vaccine will continue to be monitored for safety, efficacy, and other potential uses.

Towards a SARS-CoV-2 Vaccine

As yet, it is not clear that we will be able to produce a vaccine for SARS-CoV-2, and to ensure we have a sense of scientific realism, we need to understand what vaccinologists are saying. The following interview made on April 19th 2020 clearly sets out the science behind a SARS-CoV-2 vaccine.



Figure 22. Professor Sarah Gilbert interview on the development of a SARS-CoV-2 vaccine. Source BBC.

(Transcript available at the bottom of this lecture.)

In animal studies, coronaviruses stimulate strong immune responses, which seem capable of knocking out the virus. However, with earlier SARS and MERS viruses, that natural immunity to these viruses is short-lived. In fact, some animals can be reinfected with the very same strain that caused infection in the first place^{xli}.

Nonetheless, about 35 companies and academic institutions are racing to create a vaccine and at least four of which already have candidates they have been testing in animals. This unprecedented speed is thanks in large part to early Chinese efforts to decipher the genetics of SARS-CoV-2. China shared their analysis in early January 2020, allowing research groups around the world to grow the live virus and study how it made people ill.

Another reason for optimism is that SARS-CoV-2 is a member of the Coronavirus family, and because vaccines have been developed for other Coronaviruses, there is already some understanding of how to develop vaccines for it.

Coronaviruses have caused two other epidemics recently – SARS in China in 2002-04, and MERS in the Middle East in 2012. In both cases, work began on vaccines that were later shelved when the epidemics were contained. SARS-CoV-2 shares between 80% and 90% of its genetic material with the virus that caused SARS – hence its name. Drug companies are now repurposing earlier coronavirus vaccine development for SARS-CoV-2.

Despite the head start that drug companies have it is still essential to go through the rigorous testing processes before the vaccine is licenced for use on the general public. Screening out unsafe or ineffective candidate vaccines is essential, which is why clinical trials cannot be skipped or hurried. Without thorough testing and screening at this phase, it is quite possible that a vaccine is released that does more damage than good.

Once testing is complete, another hurdle will be scaling up manufacturing to produce vaccines in the massive quantities needed across the world.

Can Drugs Work on Viruses?

While we wait for a vaccine to become available, another way to relieve the effects of the virus is to use drugs to treat those who have the virus.

Health authorities have to be extremely careful about using drugs because drugs can cause harm as well as cure illness. The harm that an inappropriate drug causes may be worse than COVID-19 itself, so its critically important that they are tested first.

Antibiotics

A key drug used to fight disease is antibiotics. But antibiotics don't fight viruses – they fight bacteria^{xlii}. Penicillins work on the cell walls that surround bacteria. Other groups work on the bacteria's RNA/DNA or protein synthesis.

Unlike bacteria, which attack your body's cells from the outside, viruses move into, occupy and make copies of themselves in your body's cells. They attach themselves to healthy cells and reprogram those cells to make new viruses. It is because of all of these structural differences between bacteria and viruses that means that antibiotics don't work on viruses.

Antibiotics can, however, be used to treat secondary bacterial infections as a result of an initial viral infection. Although COVID-19 pneumonia is a viral pneumonia there may be opportunistic bacterial infections that can be treated with antibiotics.

Antivirals

Antiviral drugs are a class of drugs used specifically for treating viral infections by inhibiting their development.

Antiviral drugs target viral proteins, or parts of proteins, that can be disabled.

All of the proteins that SARS-CoV-2 makes when it takes over a cell are of vital importance. That makes each protein a potential target for drug designers. In the grip of a pandemic, though, the emphasis is on the targets that might be hit by drugs already at hand^{xliii}.

The obvious approach is to use drugs that interfere with the process that the virus uses to reproduce. Inhibiting the reproductive process can be lethal to the virus while not necessarily interfering with the normal functioning of the body.

One way of doing this is with drugs that use “nucleotide analogues” that directly interfere with the use of RNA to reproduce. Nucleotide Analogues look like the letters of which the virus' RNA sequences are made; but when a virus tries to use them to reproduce it fails. To illustrate this idea, imagine taking a piece of music, and then changing the notes so it can no longer be recognised.

A promising candidate drug called Remdesivir, which uses nucleotide analogues, was first developed as a drug to treat Ebola, but also seems to be able to kill a wide variety of viruses.

However, we are still waiting on trial results^{xliv}.

Malaria and Cancer Drugs, Immunosuppressives, and Interferons

The advantage of using existing drugs is that they have already undergone clinical trials which take a lot of time.

The problem is that all drugs are designed for very specific purposes, so existing drugs may not be specific enough to deal with the new threat of SARS-CoV-2. However, there are promising developments.

COVID-19 kills by overstimulating the immune system's inflammatory response. Actemra (tocilizumab) is an Immunosuppressive, that targets the receptors on cell surfaces that allow inflammation to happen^{xlv}.

Hydroxychloroquine, a drug mostly used against malaria, can reduce the earlier SARS-CoV virus's ability to get into cells and its ability to reproduce once inside them.

Camostat Mesylate, which is used in cancer treatment, blocks the protein in the cell membrane that activates the spike protein on the SARS-CoV-2 virus^{xlvii}.

Interferons help the immune system by promoting a widespread antiviral reaction in infected cells which includes shutting down protein production and switching on RNA-destroying enzymes, both of which stop viral replication.

All of these drugs, and others being evaluated and developed, are undergoing various stages of development and testing. As with vaccines, it's essential that drugs released for use don't make COVID-19 worse and are effective at dealing with it with the lowest possible side effects.

Key Equipment

Soap

A basic, but vital component in fighting COVID-19 is soap. Soap is made of pin-shaped molecules, each of which has a hydrophilic top that readily bonds with water and a hydrophobic tail, which prefers to bond with lipids, which includes oils and fats. Fortunately, SARS-CoV-2 has a lipid outer membrane which soap molecules lock onto and destroy.

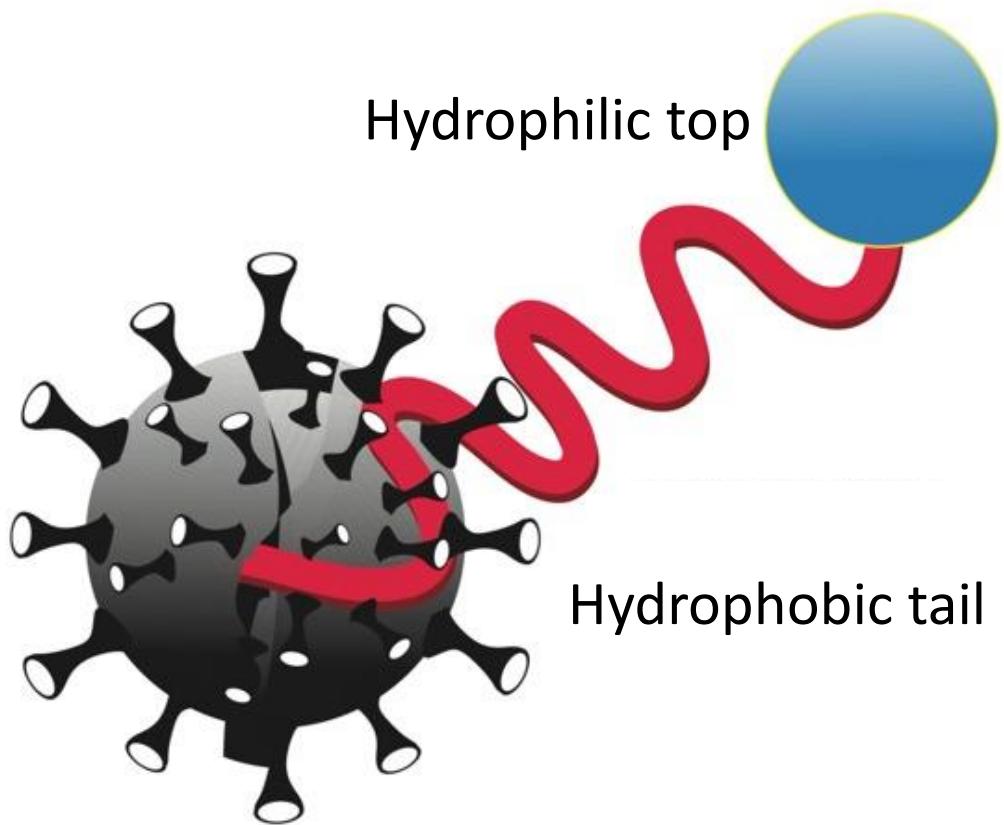
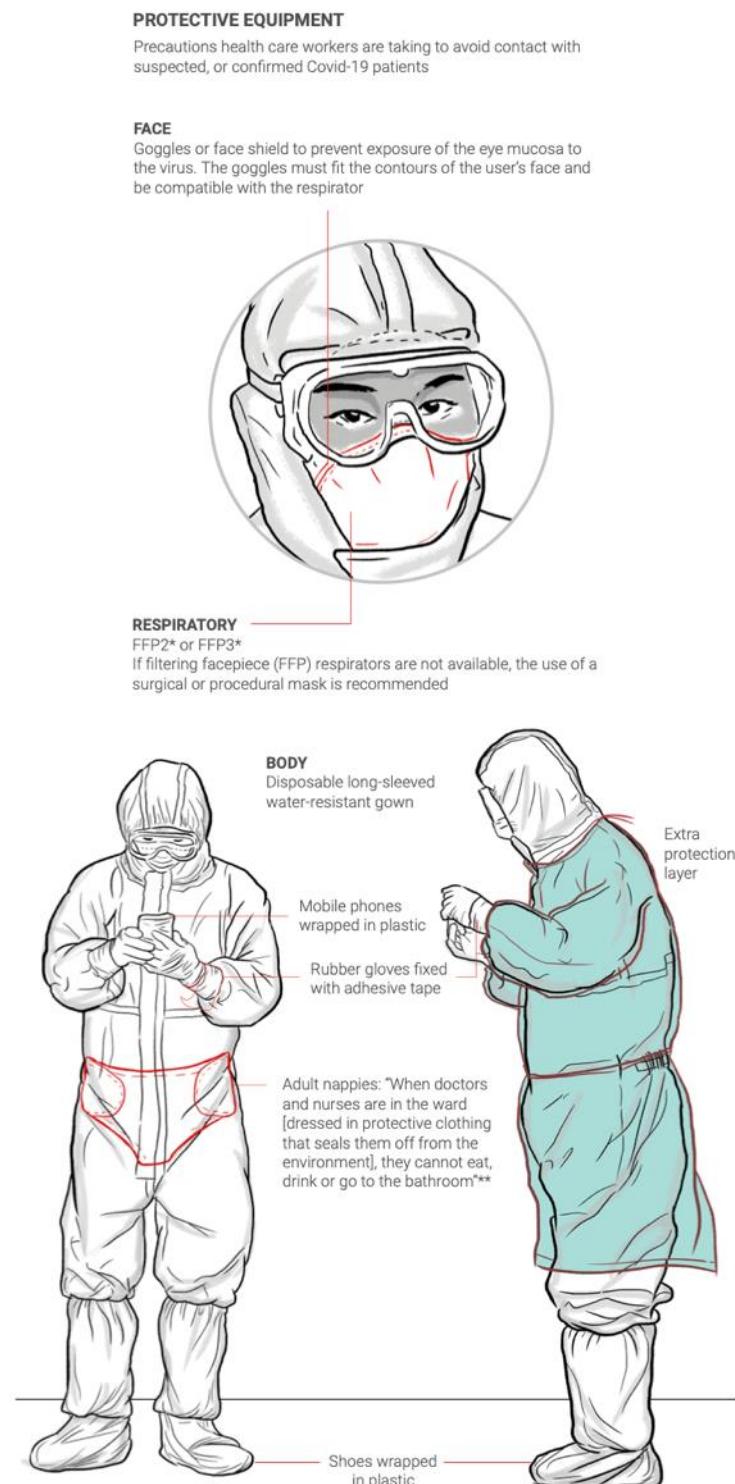


Figure 23. How soap kills viruses

Protective Clothing



* Disposable or half-face dust masks for respiratory protection against particulate hazards and airborne particles like dusts, powders and aerosols. **Han Ding, deputy director of Peking Union Medical College Hospital (Beijing)

Figure 24. Personal Protective Equipment (PPE). Source,
<https://multimedia.scmp.com/infographics/news/china/article/3047038/wuhan-virus/index.html>

Masks and Visors

In hospitals, different types of mask offer different grades of protection. The most protective is an FFP3 or, alternatively, an N95 or an FFP2. In the UK, experts do not recommend the public use these masks. They are for healthcare workers in close contact with coronavirus patients and at highest risk of encountering infected airborne droplets^{xlvii}.

'N95' is a USA designation meaning that when subjected to careful testing, the respirator blocks at least 95 percent of very small (0.3 micron) test particles. SARS-CoV-2 is spread in microscopic droplets, more than 5 micrometres, they comfortably fall into the filtration range^{xlviii}. If properly fitted, the filtration capabilities of N95 respirators exceed those of face masks. However, even a properly fitted N95 respirator does not completely eliminate the risk of illness or death^{xlix}.

FPP2 is the European equivalent of the N95 respirator masks. The masks that offer the highest level of protection are FFP3 which can block both liquid and solid aerosols^l.

Touching your face poses a significant danger of transferring the virus from your hand to the eyes, nose or mouth where SARS-CoV-2 can enter the body. So, anyone wearing a mask has to be very careful to not adjust it without first washing their hands.

Face masks compared

N95 respirator

Reduces exposure to small particles

Filters out at least 95% of airborne particles

Tight fitting, allows minimal leakage



Surgical mask

Fluid resistant, protects wearer against large droplets

Does **not** protect against smaller airborne particles



Source: 3M, Getty

BBC

Figure 25. Comparison between types of masks. Source, <https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/health-51205344>

For hospital staff dealing directly with patients, visors offer additional protection from cough or sneeze spray from patients.



Figure 26. A visor shields the face from spray. https://www.theregister.co.uk/2020/04/08/apple_coronavirus_face_shield/

Ventilators

Figure 1. Mechanical ventilator for positive pressure ventilation

PETER LAMB

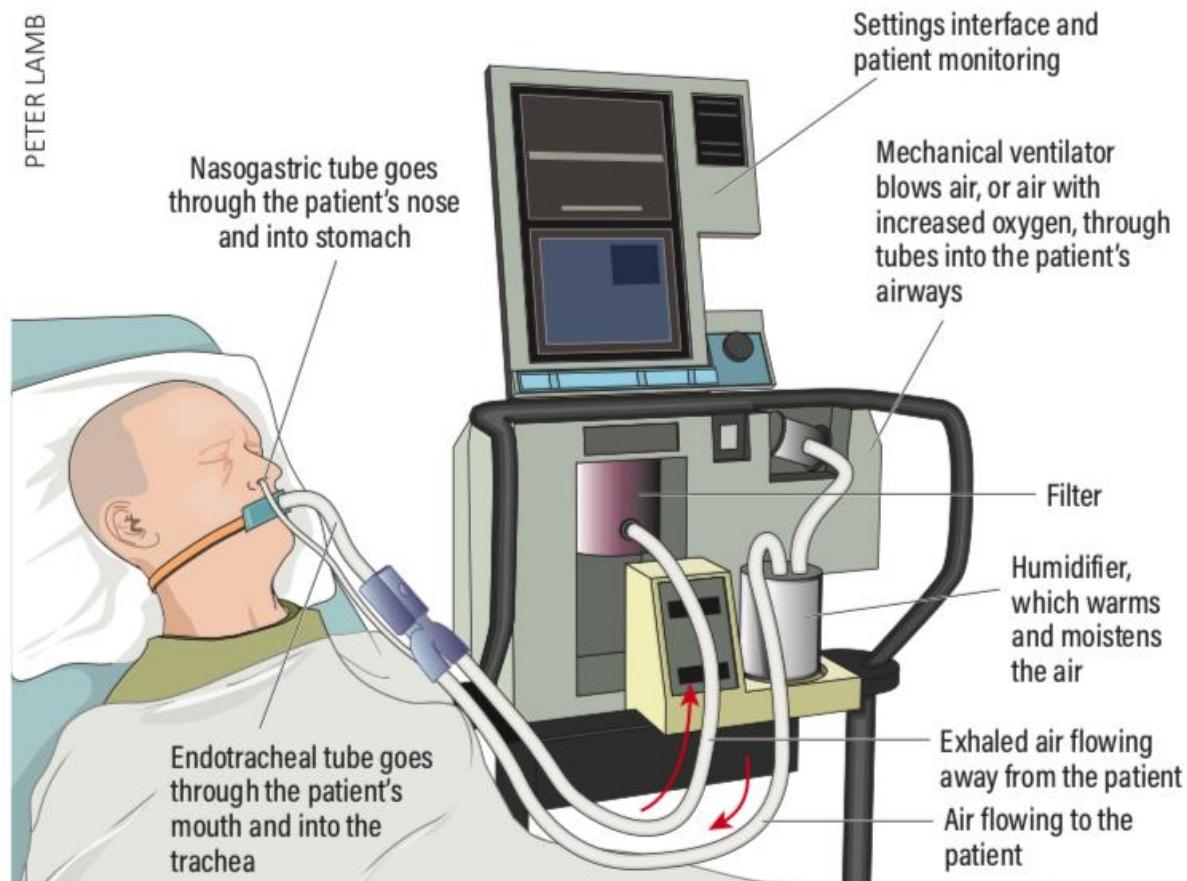


Figure 27. Elliot,Z.J., & Elliot,S.C.An overview of mechanical ventilation in the intensive care unit. Nursing Standard, doi:10.7748/ns.2018.e10710.

For some people an effect of COVID-19 is difficulty in breathing unaided, which can lead to oxygen levels in the blood dropping dangerously low, and CO₂ levels climbing too high. Before putting a patient on a ventilator, other methods such as oxygen and breathing support through face masks (non-invasive ventilation) are tried. If these do not help enough, the patient is put onto a ventilator.

The patient is sedated, and muscles relaxed, then a tube is passed through the mouth and into the windpipe. Sometimes, the breathing tube is placed directly into the windpipe through the throat (tracheostomy), however, this not common. Most patients on a ventilator will have nasogastric tube, as shown in the Figure 27. This can be used to feed and provide nutrition while on the ventilator and/or to empty the stomach if needed.

The breathing tube is then attached to the ventilator which pumps air and oxygen into the lungs. Medical staff monitor a range of data including blood oxygen and CO₂ levels and can adjust the oxygen mix, pumping volume and rateⁱⁱ.

Exercise 3.

1. You are the Minister for Health in a small country. A university tells you that they have developed a vaccine that will almost certainly stop COVID-19. They recommend changing the law so the vaccine can be used on the general population after testing it on just 100 people over 2 weeks. What do you tell them? Use this article to guide your argument - <https://www.nature.com/articles/d41586-020-00751-9>

2. Should everyone wear face masks? Use this article to shape your argument - [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanres/article/PIIS2213-2600\(20\)30134-X/fulltext](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanres/article/PIIS2213-2600(20)30134-X/fulltext)

Checkpoint 3

1. How are viruses weakened and made harmless before they are put into the vaccines?

- Destroying the virus' genes
- Removing its spikes
- Weakening its protein
- Destroying its outer membrane
- Disrupting the virus' amino acids

2. Harmless viruses in a vaccine are known as

- Antibody
- White blood cell
- Pathogen
- Antigen
- Microbe

3. A vaccine works against a pathogen by

- Causing the body to develop white blood cells
- Boosting the immune system
- Training the immune system to recognize and combat pathogens
- Triggering an inflammatory response
- Causing the body to develop white blood cells

4. There is a chance that a vaccine for SARS-CoV-2 could take less time to develop than for other vaccines because

- Computers can speed up the development process
- Lots of companies are working on a SARS-CoV-2 vaccine
- Vaccines have already been developed for other Coronaviruses
- Data is being shared on vaccine development
- Shortcuts to testing have been found

5. Antibiotics work against viruses because viruses

- Antibiotics are designed to kill bacteria which have different structures to viruses
- Are too small for antibiotics

Have tough outer shells
Have evolved defensive mechanisms to defend themselves against antibiotics
Have membranes made out of lipids

6. Antiviral drugs target

The virus' spikes
Viral proteins
Genes
The virus' envelope
RNA

7. The advantage of using existing drugs on COVID-19 is

Cheaper than developing new drugs from scratch
They have already undergone clinical trials which take a lot of time
They are proven to be effective on other diseases
COVID-19 can be effectively treated with a wide variety of drugs
They are already in stock in hospitals

8. Soap effectively kills the SARS-CoV-19 virus because

Soap kills bacteria
Soap is made of pin-shaped molecules that pierce the virus' outer membrane
Soap molecules have a head that is attracted to water
SARS-CoV-2 has a lipid membrane which soap molecules destroy
Soap molecules have tails that are attracted to oils and fats

9. Which of the following kinds of masks will filter-out SARS-CoV-2 viruses in microscopic droplets (select all that apply)

Surgical masks
FPP2
FFP3
N95
Visors

10. A ventilator is used to

Ensure the patient has fresh air
Maintain the right levels of oxygen and CO₂ in a patient's blood
Support kidney functions
Keep the patient cool
Reduce uric acid levels in the blood

Public Policy Options

What Does Herd Immunity Mean?

At the start of a pandemic, when the number of patients infected is rapidly rising, and there is no vaccine or effective drugs, stopping the spread of the disease, the handling of the disease becomes a matter of public policy – in other words, what governments decide to do. One public policy option is called Herd Immunity.

This works if most people in the population are immune from an illness either through having acquired immunity from having had the disease, or through vaccination. Pursuing Herd Immunity without a vaccine involves allowing the virus to spread uninhibited across a population (N_{MAX}). On the positive side, the population acquires immunity relatively quickly. However, on the negative side capacity of health services are more likely to be exceeded and death rates likely to be higher.

When confronted with the realities of the impact of herd immunity strategies, most governments have chosen to implement strategies that flatten the curve and reduce peak demand on health services.

Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions

When drugs and vaccines are not available to make significant impacts on the pandemic, non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) are used to reduce transmission by reducing contact rates in the general population.

There are two main types of strategies that can be pursued by governments.

- (a) **Suppression.** Here the aim is to reduce the average number of infections caused by each infected individual to below the rate of recovery i.e. $R_t = <1$. Hence, this would reduce case numbers by reducing human-to-human transmission. The main challenge of this approach is that NPIs (and drugs, if available) need to be maintained for as long as the virus is circulating in the human population, or until a vaccine becomes available. In the case of COVID-19, it will be at least a 12-18 months before a vaccine is available. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that initial vaccines will have high efficacy.
- (b) **Mitigation.** Here the aim is to use NPIs (and vaccines or drugs, if available) not to interrupt transmission completely, but to lower transmission to reduce the health impact of an epidemic, akin to the strategy adopted by some US cities in 1918, and by the world more generally in the 1957, 1968 and 2009 influenza pandemics. In the 2009 pandemic, for instance, early supplies of vaccine were targeted at individuals with pre-existing medical conditions which put them at risk of more severe disease.

In this scenario, population immunity builds up through the epidemic, leading to an eventual rapid decline in case numbers and transmission dropping to low levelsⁱⁱⁱ.

There is no easy choice to be made. Suppression, while successful to date in China and South Korea, carries with it enormous social and economic costs. These costs may have significant impacts on health and well-being in both short and longer-term. Mitigation will never completely protect those at risk from severe disease or death and resulting mortality may therefore still be high.

Suppression or Mitigation of a pandemic virus can be achieved by implementing one of more of the following policies:

- Research and Development
- Contact Tracing
- Movement restrictions
- Public health campaigns including washing hands.
- Social distancing
- Testing for having the virus, or antibodies to indicate you have had the virus previously
- Increasing “essential” services and equipment in preparation for the anticipated increase in cases.

These policies are discussed in the next section.

Policy Levers

As we have seen, in the early stages pandemics move through a population at an exponential rate. So, acting promptly has a leveraged effect on slowing or stopping the spread than acting later.

Research and Development (R&D)

Drugs and Vaccines

Bringing out new vaccines and drugs that do not have evidence of safety or ability to treat a disease can cause significant damage to populations. Therefore, there are limits to how quickly they can be developed and tested. However, governments can increase the focus on developing drugs, vaccines and tests in a range of ways.

For example, using military biological warfare and defence capacity, putting public funds into private and public pharmaceutical organisations to focus on specific areas, and funding the changes of use of biomedical labs to focus on testing.

Tests

In the same way as drugs and vaccines need to be tested thoroughly for safety and efficacy, tests also need rigorous research and development. Governments can accelerate the development of tests by providing funding and acquiring test at scale.

There are two types of tests which need to be developed and deployed:

Testing if you have the virus currently

Knowing who has the virus means that this person could be isolated, thus stopping them from infecting more people. Initial evidence shows that countries which have aggressively tested people in their country soon after the first coronavirus case such as South Korea has had lower increases in daily deaths than those that have been slower testing people.

Testing if you had the virus previously

The logic is if you had the virus previously you will be less likely to contract it again, and if so, less severely.

Equipment

Governments can also galvanise industry and experts to collaborate on building hardware and equipment such as protective clothing, masks and ventilators.

Technology

The introduction of new technology can be accelerated by government that can both focus resources on development and remove 'red-tape'.

Travel Restrictions

Some countries closed their borders as an early measure against the spread of coronavirus. It is not known what effect this may have had on the spread of the disease, but it is worth noting that some countries – e.g. Italy and the USA – were quick to close their borders yet still experienced rapid virus spread.

Contact Tracing

At early stages, once the disease has been identified and analysed, governments can use contact tracing and contain the spread via self-quarantining.

How does contact tracing work?

Specialist labs test anyone suspected of having COVID-19 and, if someone is found to have the infection, a call centre operative will speak to them to gather details of places they visited and the people they've been in close contact with since they became unwell or, in the case of international travellers, since they arrived in the country.

Health services use this to build up a detailed picture of the people they need to get in touch with, such as family members, colleagues or fellow travellers.

"Close contact" involves either face to face contact or spending more than 15 minutes within 2 metres of an infected person.

Once the health service has recorded the close contacts the patient had, they can categorise them into high or low risk, then contact them to provide advice on what they should do.

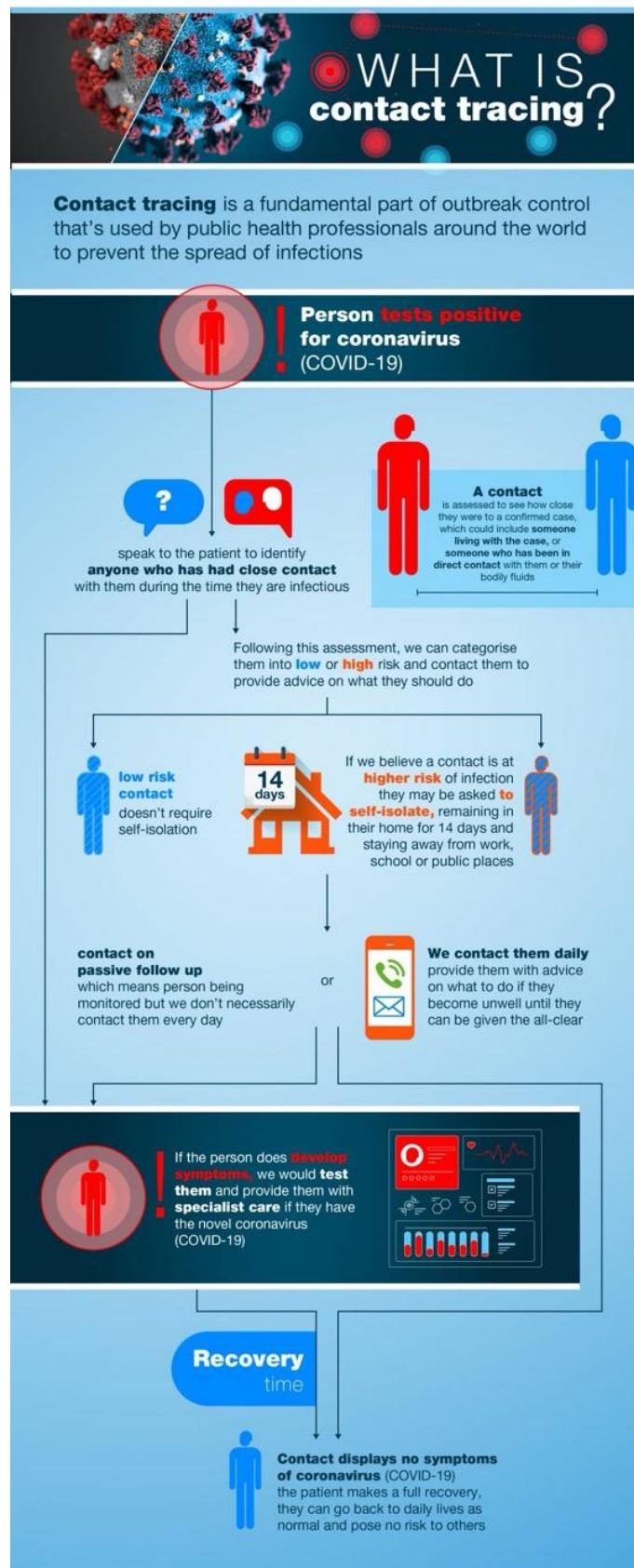


Figure 28. Contact tracing process. Source, <https://publichealthmatters.blog.gov.uk/2020/02/13/expert-interview-what-is-contact-tracing/>

As the disease spreads it generally becomes impossible to keep up with contact tracing – though some countries where privacy laws are more minimal and where tech is strong can enforce a strong trace and isolate policy.

Once contact tracing is no longer effective, governments have a range of policy levers available including:

Movement Restrictions

Isolation of People Entering A Country

Some countries forced people entering their country to self-quarantine so they could not spread the infection if they had it. This may be considered impractical or unfair depending on the reason for entry into the country but may be effective for countries with low numbers of cases unable to test people entering the country.

Isolation of Vulnerable People

As we can see from Table 1 below, hospitalisation, critical care requirements, and deaths from COVID-19 are more prevalent amongst older people, so one way to reduce death rates is to isolate those in the highest age groups.

Age-group (years)	% symptomatic cases requiring hospitalisation	% hospitalised cases requiring critical care	Infection Fatality Ratio
0 to 9	0.1%	5.0%	0.002%
10 to 19	0.3%	5.0%	0.006%
20 to 29	1.2%	5.0%	0.03%
30 to 39	3.2%	5.0%	0.08%
40 to 49	4.9%	6.3%	0.15%
50 to 59	10.2%	12.2%	0.60%
60 to 69	16.6%	27.4%	2.2%
70 to 79	24.3%	43.2%	5.1%
80+	27.3%	70.9%	9.3%

Table 1. Hospitalisation, critical care requirements, and deaths are higher amongst older people. Source, Imperial College, <https://www.imperial.ac.uk/media/imperial-college/medicine/sph/ide/gida-fellowships/Imperial-College-COVID19-NPI-modelling-16-03-2020.pdf>

This scenario, greatly simplified and abstracted, could be compared to relocating the most vulnerable to a safe offshore island free from the virus, and isolating them there while the virus passed through the rest of the population. The vulnerable are then returned to the general population when either everyone on the mainland or has their own immunity or a vaccine is available. Whilst not practical to do this, it illustrates the principle of protecting those most likely to be worse affected by the disease.

This strategy could reduce a significant number of deaths. Because these people are also more likely to need hospital care, it could also reduce the number of hospital ICU beds and staff required to handle the pandemic.

Case Isolation In the Home

Symptomatic cases and those who live in the same household stay at home for 7 days, reducing non-household contacts for this period. Household contacts remain unchanged.

Closure of Schools and Universities, and Non-essential Businesses

Closure of all schools and universities. Household contact rates for student families increase during closures. Closure of non-essential businesses, especially bars, restaurants and cafes to minimise contact between people.

Shielding

Shielding is a measure to protect people who are clinically extremely vulnerable – with serious underlying medical conditions - by minimising all interaction with others.

Social Distancing of Entire Population

All households reduce contact outside household, school or workplace.

Limiting of Reasons to go Outside the Home

Non-essential workers are asked not to go to work, people are advised they are only allowed out once a day for exercise, medical reasons or to collect essential supplies such as food and medicine. People are also not allowed to travel more than a specified distance from their home unless it was for work or a medical reason. Police patrol popular areas such as parks to disperse large groups.

“Lockdown”

N_{MAX} is forbidden to leave their homes except in exceptional circumstances. Sometimes the word lockdown is wrongly applied to social distancing.

Public Health Campaigns

Simple measures to encourage things known to help slow infection such as washing hands regularly and thoroughly, increasing awareness of where the virus sticks too, and social distancing can help slow the spread of the virus.

Scientists found that SARS-CoV-2 can be detected in the air for up to three hours and on plastic and stainless-steel surfaces for up to three days^{lvi}. The spread via mobile phones is also of interest as people often use their phone, wash their hands and touch their phone afterwards meaning viruses may still be on their phone. Increasing awareness of these things may further encourage people to wash their phones as well as their hands, and clean surfaces and doorknobs thoroughly.

Public campaigns, to influence people to do this can therefore have an effect. Encouraging social distancing and advising people to maintain a distance of at least 2 metres at all times from people outside their households. People need to understand the mechanisms by which SARS-CoV-2 is spread.

Preparation for An Increase in Cases

This involves a range of measures including:

- Increasing medically trained staff where possible. The UK streamlined medical students in a late stage of their studies to support care and brought back retired staff where possible. Ensuring the most appropriately skilled and experienced staff in the midst of a crisis is likely to be a challenge at the best of times, and in the midst of a crisis with a wider range of staff than usual is perhaps particularly challenging.
- Providing personal protection equipment for medical staff both to prevent spread of the virus between staff and patients, and particularly to prevent loss of staff through illness that will in turn exacerbate the crisis.
- Increasing the number of ICU beds available.
- Encourage companies that provide essential services such as supermarkets and pharmacies to:
 - Provide online services so contact with people is minimal
 - Where necessary hire and train more staff to work in the shop and provide deliveries.
 - Limit supplies offered to one household.
 - Many countries have seen shortages of food and essentials like toilet paper and paracetamol. The UK has seen a significant surge in online grocery shopping putting pressure on supermarket resources and availability of delivery to homes.

Why is Choosing the Right Public Policy so Hard?

All governments want to find an appropriate and reasonable balance between protecting the health and lives of citizens and maintaining the economy.

If, for example, a country goes into lockdown, where everyone apart from essential workers stay at home, the economy inevitably will suffer. The longer the lockdown, the more

challenging the economic situation will become. Lockdown affects both the economy of the country as a whole and also the economy of individuals who require paid work to provide for themselves and their families. Lockdown also may bring impacts on mental health and welfare too. Some people may also react against the restriction imposed by lockdown.

A key challenge is balancing use of force and community pressure to optimise response to lockdown and therefore its impact in the battle against the pandemic. In more democratic countries, public opinion may have a different influence on decision making than in an authoritarian state. Each culture has different levels of tolerance and trust in decision makers. That trust whether brought about through authority or more democratic means can be critical in terms of public response.

To add confusion, the world is saturated with information about which public policies are best to implement and in this mix is fake news and deliberate misinformation designed to mislead the public.

Exercise 4

Discuss the following:

1. What are trade-offs do policy makers have to make when deciding how to deal with COVID-19? Use this article to shape your argument - <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-global-economy-kemp/coronavirus-confronts-decision-makers-with-a-terrible-trade-off-kemp-idUSKBN2152PC>
2. What are the pros and cons of a herd immunity strategy for COVID-19? Use this article to shape your comparison. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/03/coronavirus-can-herd-immunity-really-protect-us/>

Checkpoint 4

1. What is the most controversial method of dealing with a virus?

- Lockdown
- Social distancing
- Travel restrictions
- Herd immunity
- Public health campaigns

2. Herd immunity without vaccine in the COVID-19 pandemic is controversial because:

- Not everyone in the population will be immune
- There is no research to support the policy
- The capacity of health services likely to be exceeded
- It does not give a high level of individual protection
- It requires everyone to take untested drugs

3. Before drugs and vaccines are available, governments have to use
- Lockdown
 - Social distancing
 - Travel restrictions
 - Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions
 - Public health campaigns
4. Which of the following are two the main types of strategies that can be pursued by governments
- Social distancing
 - Suppression
 - Travel restrictions
 - Mitigation
 - Public health campaigns
5. Which of the following is not a policy lever that governments can use
- Preparation for an increase in cases
 - Social distancing of entire population
 - Closure of schools and universities, and non-essential businesses
 - Enforcing policy
 - Isolation of Vulnerable People
6. What does contract tracing mean
- Finding the people who are least at risk so they can be released from lockdown
 - Finding and testing people who may have come into contact with an infected person
 - Finding people who are susceptible to becoming infected
 - Isolating the most vulnerable people
 - Finding those people who have recovered so they can return to work
7. The exponential rate that pandemics rise means that early _____ leads to lower numbers of early-stage infections
- Increases to hospital capacity
 - Testing, contact tracing, isolating, and social distancing
 - Focus on drug development
 - Ambulance services
 - Sharing of test data
8. Social distancing means
- Closing bars
 - Reducing contact outside households
 - Stopping crowd of more than 50 people
 - Closing theatres
 - Keeping away from COVID-19 hotspots
9. Which of the following messages would be good to have in a public health campaign.
Select all that apply

COVID-19 is a national emergency
Stay home
Keep calm and carry on
Wash your hands thoroughly with soap
Clean your doorknobs and surfaces at home

10. Choosing the right policy so hard because

It's difficult to balance preventing infection and keeping the economy running
People don't like being 'locked-down'
Enforcing social distancing is difficult
Beating the disease requires intrusions into people's privacy
Fake news and extreme views influence public opinion

Choosing Response Strategies

Data and Models

Models

Choosing how to prepare for and deal with a pandemic such as COVID-19 is a political decision, and we have seen a very wide variety of responses across the world ranging from denial to quick and decisive mitigation.

For the vast majority of governments across the world wishing to take the pandemic seriously, decisions have to be based on mathematical modelling.

In the case of Covid-19, responding to those models may yet be the difference between global death tolls in the thousands or the millions. Models are imperfect, but they're better than flying blind—if you build and use them well^{liv}

By simplifying the problem down to mathematical models, scientists are forced to think about the factors that are most important to understanding disease. E.g. How many people a sick person sneezes on is more important to know than how loud their sneeze is. When we understand how a disease functions in a model, we can apply that to real world disease conditions. For example, what would happen if a person with COVID-19 was in Times Square? Would it be any different if that person had smallpox?

So, to select the right kind of public policies to apply, we need to build mathematical models that predict the likely outcomes from different interventions. Running such models can give us critical insights. They could tell us that countermeasures applied early on can help ensure that health systems are able to cope with a surge of demand, as illustrated by this model:

In the outbreak of an epidemic *early* counter measures are important
Their intention is to 'flatten the curve': to lower the rate of infection to spread out the epidemic.
This way the number of people who are sick at the *same time* does not exceed the capacity of the healthcare system.

Our World
in Data

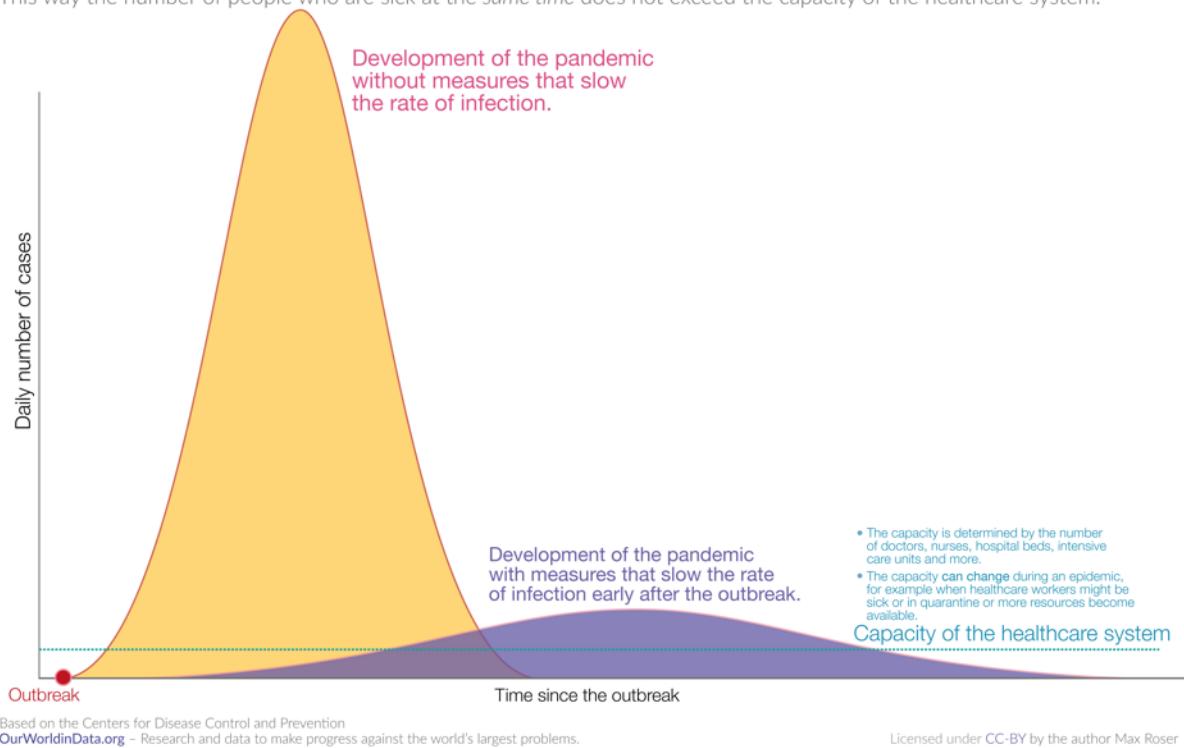


Figure 29. Early intervention is crucial. Source, Our World In Data

Data

Data from tests are important for building models and making predictions about the spread of the virus. Where test data is not available, some insights might be gained from data on hospital admissions, ICU admissions and deaths. Regional variations can provide useful insights as well.

Reliability of the data gathered from these tests is crucial to the accuracy of the mathematical model used.

When we look at publicly published data on confirmed cases of COVID-19 we must be clear that we are looking at declared cases from test results. If a country is unable to conduct tests, or doesn't declare all its results, then it will show an unrepresentative number.

We should also be clear that not every positive case will be tested, and even if they were there could be faults with the tests or samples that give a false negative or false positive reading.

There are two types of tests:

1. Does the Patient Have COVID-19?

At present, most tests are based on looking for genetic sequences specific to the covid-19 coronavirus. If these sequences are found in a sample, it must contain the virus.

Getting a sample to test involves pushing a swab – which resembles an extra-long cotton bud – deep inside the nose or to the back of the throat. The swab is then sent to a lab for testing.

Most labs use a method called the polymerase chain reaction (PCR), which takes several hours. Several groups around the world, are developing faster genetic tests, typically based on a method called loop mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP), which takes less than half an hour. Handheld LAMP tests that could be used in homes and airports may start to become available within weeks^{iv}.

2. Has the Patient Had COVID-19?

Our bodies keep making antibodies even after we have recovered from an infection, so testing people's blood for antibodies against the SARS-CoV-2 can indicate how many people have been infected so far^{vii}.

Antibody testing could also inform decisions around social distancing measures. For example, if large numbers of people were found to have already been infected, then a lockdown might become less necessary^{viii}.

It is important, however, to bear in mind that previously having the infection does not necessarily mean that someone is not going to become infected again later, but early signs from small animal experiments are reassuring^{viii}.

Should I Trust The Data?

In the midst of the COVID-19 crisis, a normally highly respected and authoritative newspaper- published the headline 'Coronavirus may have infected half of UK population'. The model they cited produced radically different results when the researchers changed the value of a parameter ρ – the rate of hospitalisation of people infected by COVID-19. The newspaper chose to run with an inflammatory headline, assuming an extreme value of ρ that most researchers consider highly implausible. When even respected newspapers get it wrong, we must all be on our guard for misinformation.

The Royal Statistical Society offers the following guidance^{lix}

All mathematical models contain uncertainty. This should be explicit – researchers should communicate their own certainty that a result is true. A range of plausible results should be provided, not just one extreme result. Scientists and journalists should clearly describe the critical inputs and assumptions of their models and make clear how sensitive the model is to

the input parameters; levels of certainty that the parameters are right; and whether other researchers disagree or not^{bx}.

How to Read The Data

COVID-19 has generated a mass of information, much of it numerical and in graph format.

To understand this data and what it means and then to make some predictions of our own, we need first to understand probability.

To understand the probability of different actions resulting in different outcomes, it is important to understand some basic statistical concepts. Statistics is the process of gathering, analysing, interpreting and communicating data. The more data that is collected the more reliable the results are likely to be.

Pioneers like Florence Nightingale used statistical methods to demonstrate that poor sanitary practices were the main culprit of high mortality in hospitals during the Crimean War. Her investigative statistical work led to a decline in the many preventable deaths that occurred throughout the nineteenth century in British military and civilian hospitals. Since then, politicians could no longer afford to ignore the overwhelming importance of essential statistical knowledge in government^{xi}.

Simulation

A simulation is a representation or model of a real-world situation over time. Technology can be used to simulate situations that require a large number of trials.

Here, our ‘simulation’ is the infection of a population of a country by COVID-19. Other situations that could be represented by an infection simulation are the spread of computer viruses, the spread of a rumour, or shares on social media.

The simulation of a pandemic needs to consider the rate of containment of the virus, severity of the virus, immunisations or a cure being found, immunity and social factors such as hygiene levels of communities. As each of these variables or policy levers are taken into consideration the complexity and accuracy of the simulation increases.

Most importantly, the *validity* of a simulation relies on the accuracy of the data collected and the assumptions within the simulation. Inaccurate and unreliable data can greatly affect the results.

Sample space

The sample space is the set of all possible outcomes that could occur in an experiment or simulation. For example, when rolling a six-sided die on a flat surface the possible outcomes are {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}, hence there are six possible outcomes in the sample space. It is

impossible for another outcome to occur when rolling a 6-sided die and it is certain that one of these six outcomes will be a result.

In our simulation the sample space will be defined as the population of a region or country. The event will be the number 'N' within that population that are infected with the virus. For this simulation, if 100% of the population were infected this would be the maximum number to be infected and will be defined as N_{MAX} .

The population of the region or country = N_{MAX}

The number that has contracted the virus = N

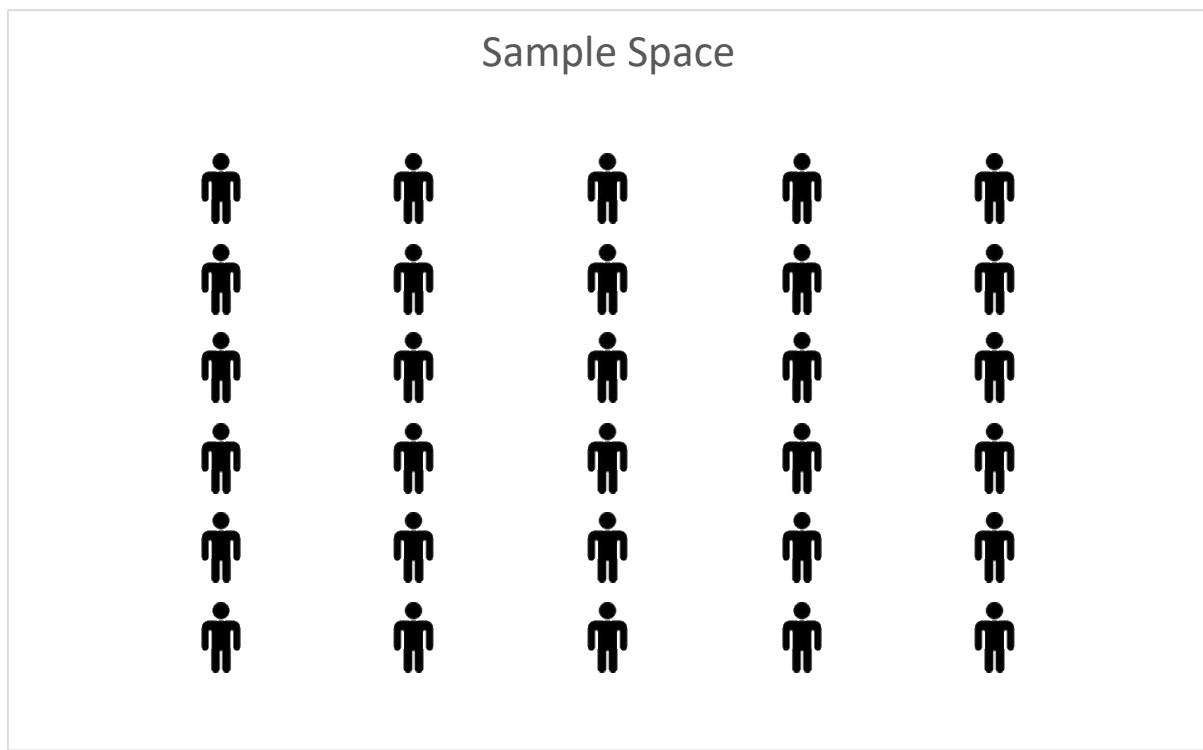


Figure 30. Here $N_{MAX} = N$

Sets

A set or subset is a group of outcomes within the sample space. For our six- sided die example earlier, the event that the number rolled is less than 3, is a subset of the sample space set.

The set {1, 2} is a subset of the sample space {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}

Subsets of a population are defined by the characteristics of that group. For example, children under 15 years of age are a subset of a total population. These sets of individuals within the total population would have different social factors and immunity levels that would need to be considered as a part of a simulation of a pandemic. During a pandemic the subset of the population that would require hospitalisation would put strain on the

hospital's capacity and the number of people in this subset can influence the overall mortality rate of the total population.

$$\frac{N}{N_{MAX}} = \text{proportion of the total population who belong to a particular subset}$$

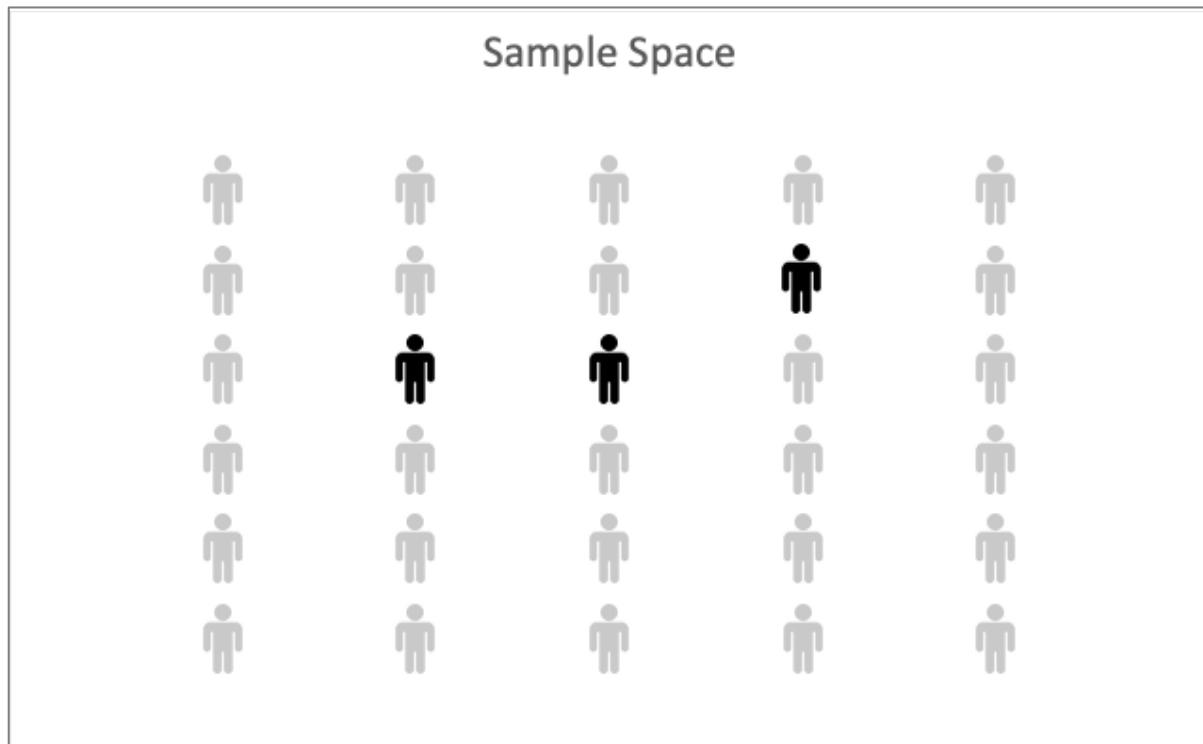


Figure 31. Here, a subset of the population has the virus

Time Series

A graph is an efficient way to display information visually. It enables the reader to interpret the trends in a data set and helps them to summarise the results. A line graph can be used to represent the relationship between a variable and time.

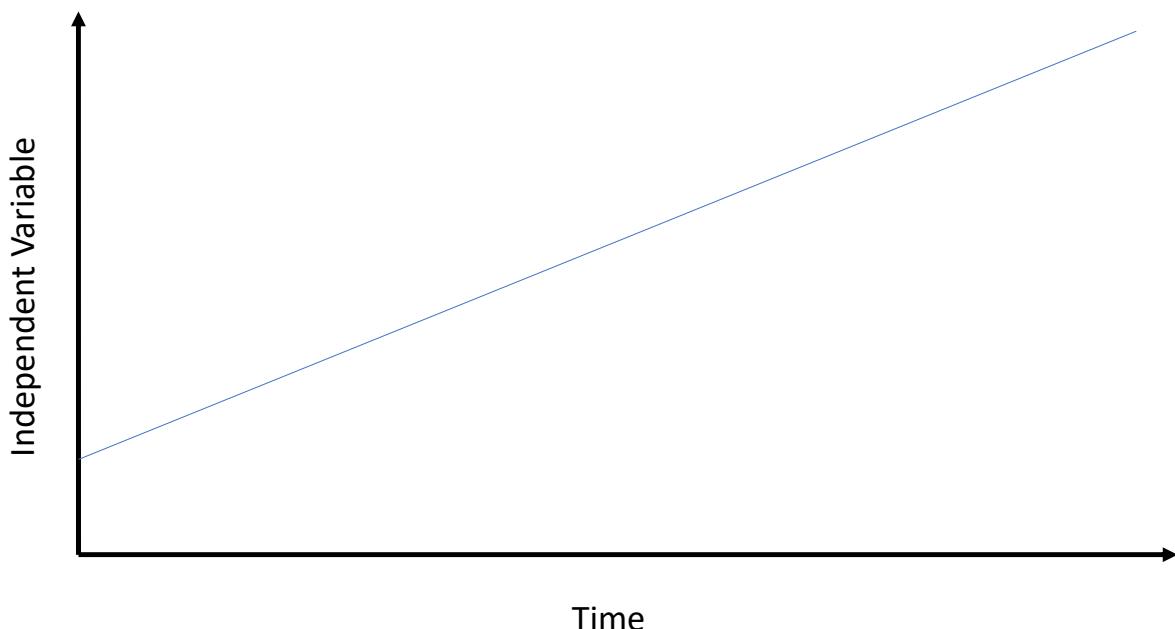


Figure 32. A time series graph

In statistics, the independent variable is as the name says independent of the other variable. Time is always the independent variable in a time series model and is placed along the x-axis. The dependent variable is the variable that is being measured dependent on the other and is placed on the y-axis.

The steepness or slope of a line is called the gradient and gives information about the rate of change between the two variables.

In a growth chart the graph is steeper when the height changes more in a given amount of time. The flatter the graph the less change in that time frame. Gradient or slope can be described as

- Positive when both variables are increasing.
- Negative when as one variable increases the other decreases.
- Zero when there has been no change in the dependent variable. This is also known as the point of inflection.

In a time-series the dependent variable is placed on the Y axis (Vertical), time is always considered the independent variable and is placed on the X axis (Horizontal).

Time Series Graphs Seen in COVID-19 Studies

Time series graphs can be displayed as either line graphs (a piece of the line for each day) or a bar chart (a bar for every day).

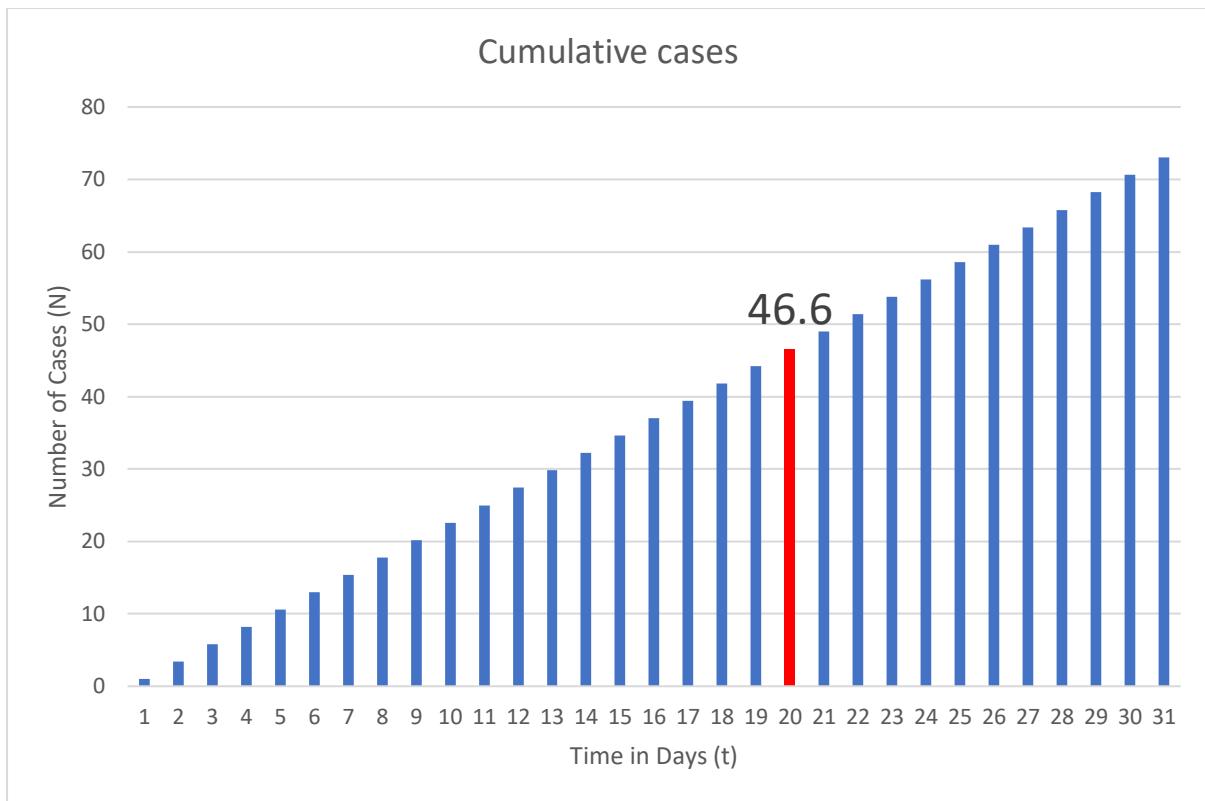


Figure 33. Cumulative cases rising at the rate of 2.4 per day

The graph in Figure 33 illustrates one case of infection initially with an average of 2.4 new cases every day for a month. This gives us a straight-line, or linear, slope.

If we wanted to know, for example, the number of cases on day 20 (x axis), we can read the y axis to see that we have 45.6 cases.

Our two variables can also be described algebraically by the equation

$$N=mt+c$$

Where N = the number of people infected

$$t = \text{time in days}$$

- c is the value of the y intercept, the number of cases initially at time 0 (t_0). In our linear model above we have 1 person infected initially.
- m is the gradient or rate of change of the two variables. In our linear model this is constant with $m = 2.4$

The algebraic representation of our linear model can be written as

$$N=2.4t+1$$

In Excel, this translates to = A2*2.4+1

Exponential Growth

We've seen in the "Phases of a Pandemic" section that pandemics grow in an exponential pattern at first if policies are not put in place. Instead of a constant number of new cases every day, the change every day depends on how many cases there already are – so the number grows by a different amount each day. Exponential growth is when the number of cases each day is the same multiple of the number the previous day, for example -

The initial day of an infectious pandemic is represented mathematically as T_0 (time zero) and in this simple model we assume one person has been infected initially ($T_0 = 1$). By day four (T_4), sixteen people are infected if a simple doubling growth rate average of two is assumed for the exponential model.

Time (t days)	Exponential Model	Total Number Infected (N)
T_0	2^0	1
T_1	2^1	2
T_2	2^2	4
T_3	2^3	8
T_4	2^4	16
T_5	2^5	32
T_{10}	2^{10}	1,024
T_{20}	2^{20}	1,048,576
T_t	2^t	$N = 2^t$

Table 2. Exponential growth

The exponential growth formula is $y = ab^x$

Here, a is the initial amount, b is the growth factor, x is time in days since from the start.

$$a = 1$$

$$b = 2.4$$

t = the day number

This gives us an Excel formula of = 2.4^A2

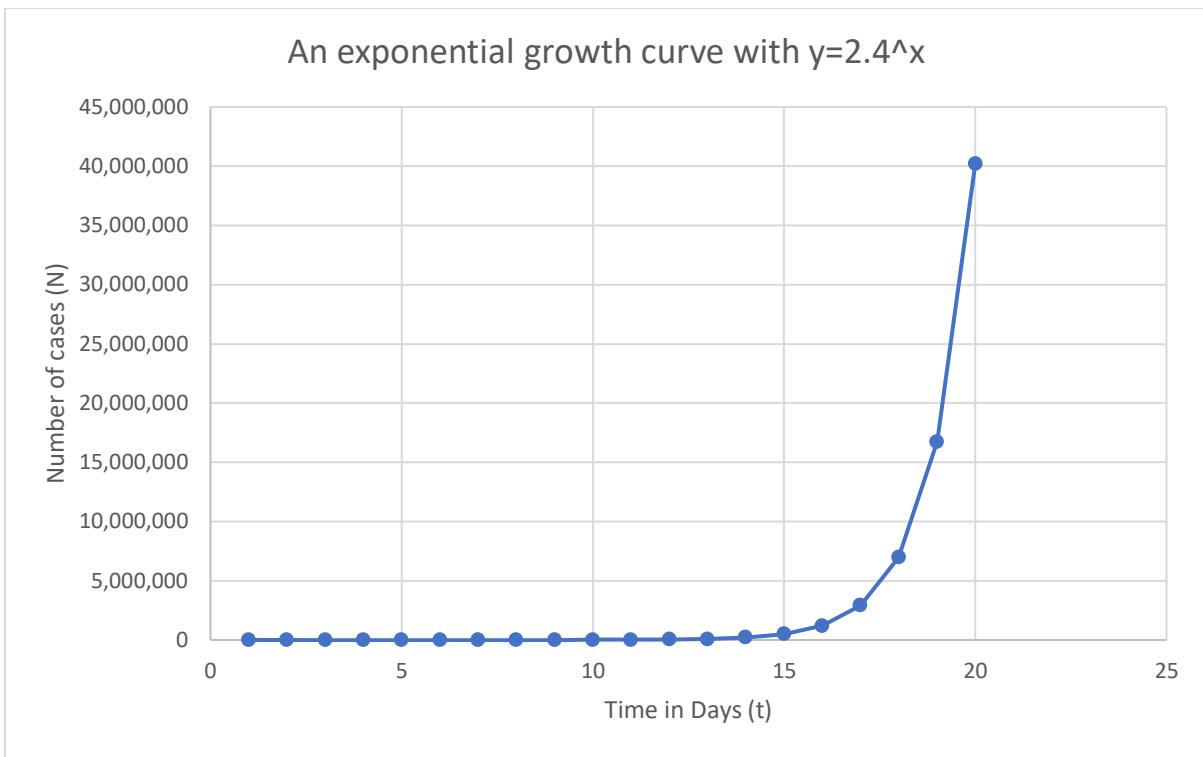


Figure 34. Exponential growth chart

The exponential model shown has an average growth rate of 2.4 with an initial infection (T_0) of 1. Compare how this exponential model on Day 20 has a much greater number of infected cases in the population (40,000,000) than that of our linear model (45.6).

Representing Exponential Growth

It's a good idea to look at pandemic data graphically. However, the exponential growth patterns often make this problematic.

Let's take a closer look at Figure 34 above. Since the vertical graph scale has been chosen to fit all of the values from Day 1 to Day 25, two clear problems with this graph are:

- On Day 20 of our exponential growth model, the number of infected cases had grown to 40,000,000. With the sudden jump in cases, values greater than this will no longer fit on the graph, as they are too large.
- With the choice of scale on the vertical axis, most of the values are on the horizontal axis and from Day 1 to Day 15, it appears that very little change has occurred in this time period.

This is not a helpful graph, and in fact can lead to misinterpretation by some people that an outbreak has suddenly changed to become exponential from a linear growth pattern.

There are two ways to solve this problem, both using *logarithms*.

A logarithm is an index used to represent numbers as powers. A common choice is to use powers of ten, the base of our decimal number system. Here are some numbers represented in this way:

$$20 = 10^{1.301} \quad 100 = 10^2 \quad 2500 = 10^{3.398} \quad 12,800 = 10^{4.107} \quad 1,000,000 = 10^6$$

The represented logarithm (abbreviated to log) of these numbers to base 10 is shown below

$$\log 20 = 1.301 \quad \log 100 = 2 \quad \log 2500 = 3.398 \quad \log 12,800 = 4.107 \quad \log 1,000,000 = 6$$

A standard scientific calculator can be used to obtain logs (via a log key). The logs of 2-digit numbers start with 1, 3-digit numbers start with 2, 4-digit numbers start with 3 ... etc.

When numbers are represented as logarithms, it is much easier to graph them and, importantly, to see any patterns in a graph.

Let's now see how a comparison of the same data can be shown using different vertical (y axis) scales.

Figures 35A, 35B and 35C each show the same data as used in Figure 34, i.e. the growth rate (b) = 2.4 and a = 1. However, the vertical scales in 35B and 35C use logarithms of the numbers of cases instead of the actual number of cases.

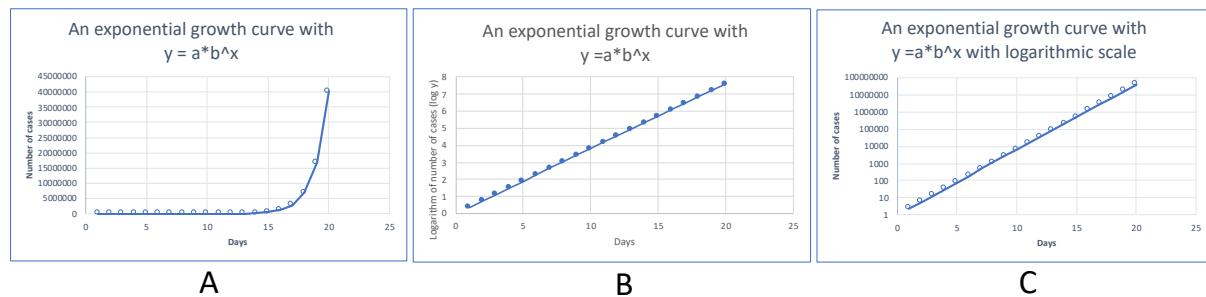


Figure 35A, B and C. Progression from exponential curve, to use of the logarithmic scale make patterns easier to see.

The exponential growth model graph in Figure 35A is also represented by Figures 35B and 35C.

Figure 35B shows the logarithms of the number of cases on the vertical axis. It clearly shows the values for all the early days which were obscured in Figure 35A. When exponential growth is happening, the logarithms of the number of cases increase in a linear (straight line) pattern, rather than a curve. Faster growth leads to a steeper line. A graph like this makes it clear that exponential growth is happening throughout the pandemic and does not suddenly appear after many days.

In the media, logarithmic graphs like Figure 35C are often shown, although it is not always made clear that the vertical scale is logarithmic, so you should check the scale for yourself. When reading any graph presented to you, it is vitally important that to read it accurately you first observe the variables and scales on the two axes.

Unlike graphs such as those in Figure 35A and Figure 35B, the graph in Figure 35C uses a scale in which vertical distances show logarithms instead of numbers. So, vertical distance represents a logarithm and not a number. In Figure 35C the distance between 10 and 100 is the same as the distance between 100 and 1000 and between 1000 and 10,000, etc. The logarithms of these numbers are equally spaced (1, 2, 3, 4, ...) as each number is an integer power of 10.

Graphs of this kind are often used to report pandemic data in an easily readable format. They are useful for comparing pandemic data in different countries with steeper lines showing faster growth. They can also be used to see if growth is less rapid after policy levers such as social distancing have been implemented.

You can explore for yourself how these different graphical representations of exponential growth appear. Download the Excel spreadsheet referred to in “Excel Modelling Spreadsheet” in the Notices section above and change the values for a (starting number) and b (growth rate) in the “Logs” worksheet.

Doubling Time

A key measure of the speed of spread of the pandemic is the ‘doubling time’, i.e. how long does it take for the total number of cases to double.

This helps us answer the question of how long it would take for an entire population to be infected if the number of people infected increased by 100% every two days?

‘Our World In Data’ provides a useful summary of the doubling rate in each country.



Figure 35. Confirmed cases doubling time for different countries. Source, <https://ourworldindata.org/coronavirus>

So how do we work out how long it would take for an entire population to be infected if the number of people infected doubled, say, every 2 days?

Our goal is to find the growth factor b.

First, we take two points on the y axis 2 days apart, e.g.,

$$\text{Day 16} = t_1 = 4000$$

$$\text{Day 18} = t_2 = 8000$$

Now, $t_2 = t_1 \times \text{the growth factor squared}$

$$\text{So, } t_2 = t_1 \times b^2$$

$$8000 = 4000 \times b^2$$

$$b = \sqrt{8000/4000}$$

$b = \sqrt{2}$

$b = 1.414$

So, our formula for our Excel spreadsheet is $=1.414^{\text{day number (t)}}$

Plotting the graph, we get -

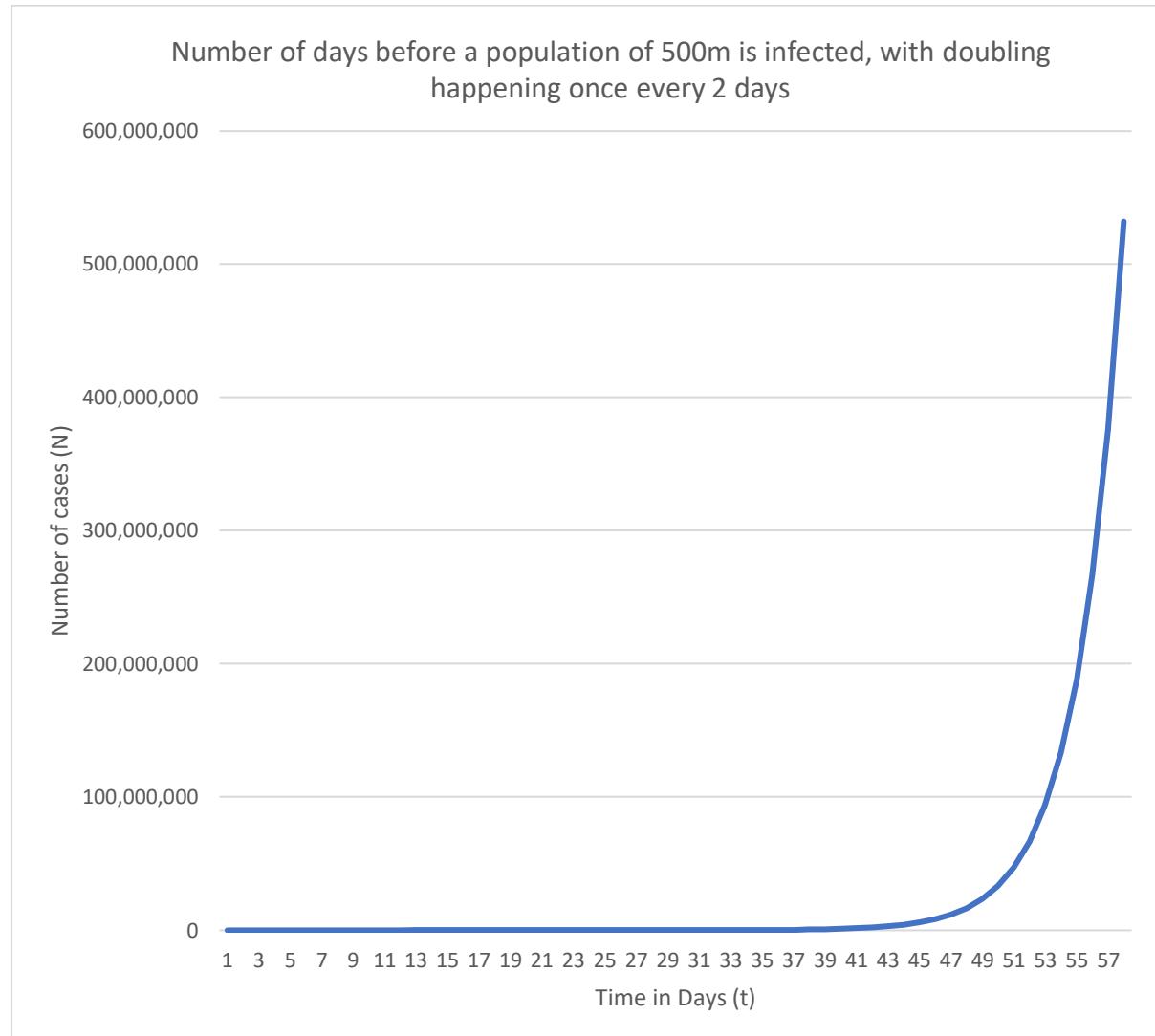


Figure 36. Number of days before a population of 500m is infected, with doubling happening once every 2 days

In other words, this 100% increase in just two days could see the population infected from 1 case to over 500 million (N_{MAX}) in 57days.

Comparing Different Doubling Times

As a pandemic progresses the new cases doubling time will inevitably change.

Clearly, the longer it takes for new cases to double, the better. For example, if it took a year for the cases to double from 4000 to 8000, that would be better than it happening in 2 days.

To compare the effects of different doubling times, use this formula $T_0 * (2^{(1/y)})^t$ where:

T_0 is the number of cases on day 0
 y is the doubling time in days - here its 2
 t = the time passed in days

For example, if we want to calculate cases on day 1, x is 1. If we want to calculate cases on day 1000, x is 1000.

So our formula is $= 1 * (2^{(1/2)})$ for the first cell, and then = **cell above** $*(2^{(1/2)})$ for the subsequent cells.

Let's now look at what the effect of reducing the days-to-double are on a pandemic curve.

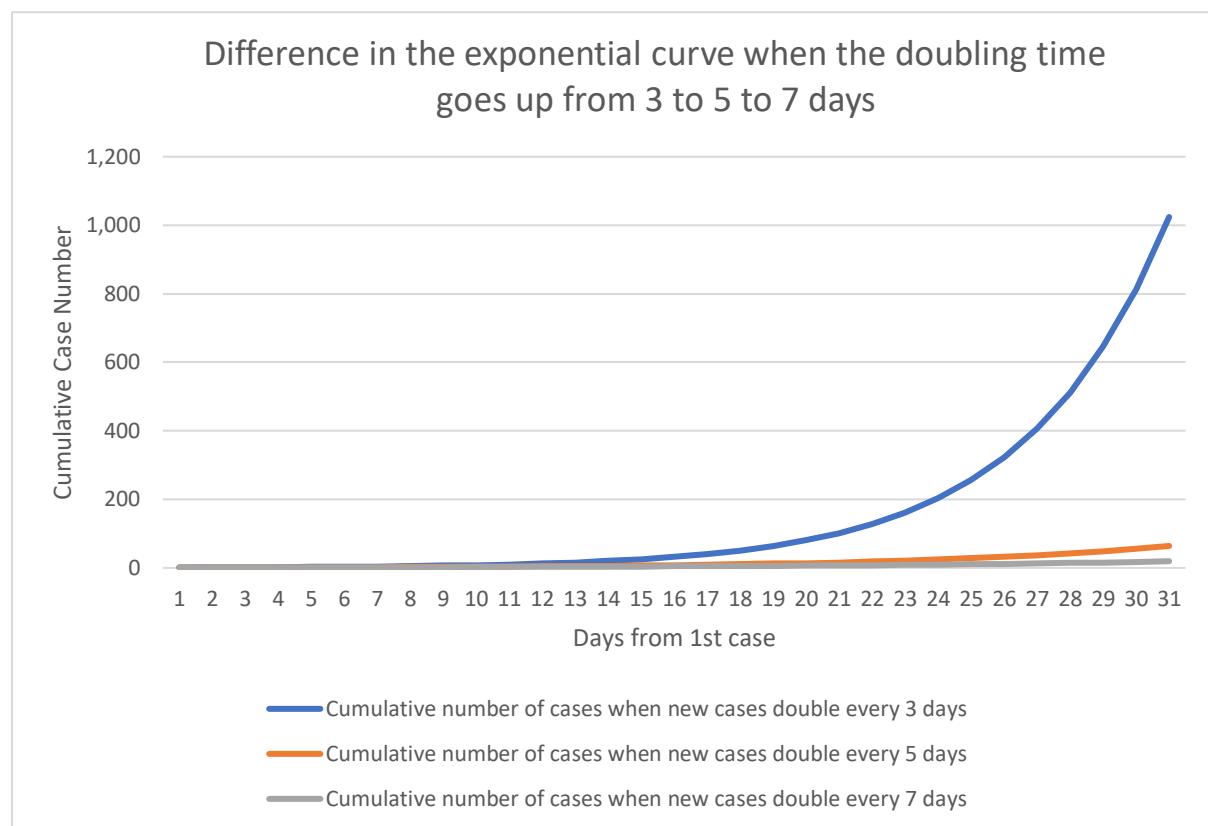


Figure 37. Difference in the exponential curve when the doubling time goes up from 3 to 5 to 7 days

As with any exponential, the initial stages of growth is low but quickly rises.

Download the Excel spreadsheet referred to in “Excel Modelling Spreadsheet” in the Notices section above and try it out for yourself in the ‘Double rate of x’ worksheet.

Summaries

New Daily Cases vs Cumulative Number of Cases

Another important capability is to be able to see both the number daily number of new cases alongside the [cumulative](#) overall number of cases that have accumulated.

In this example, we have used a 3 day doubling time.

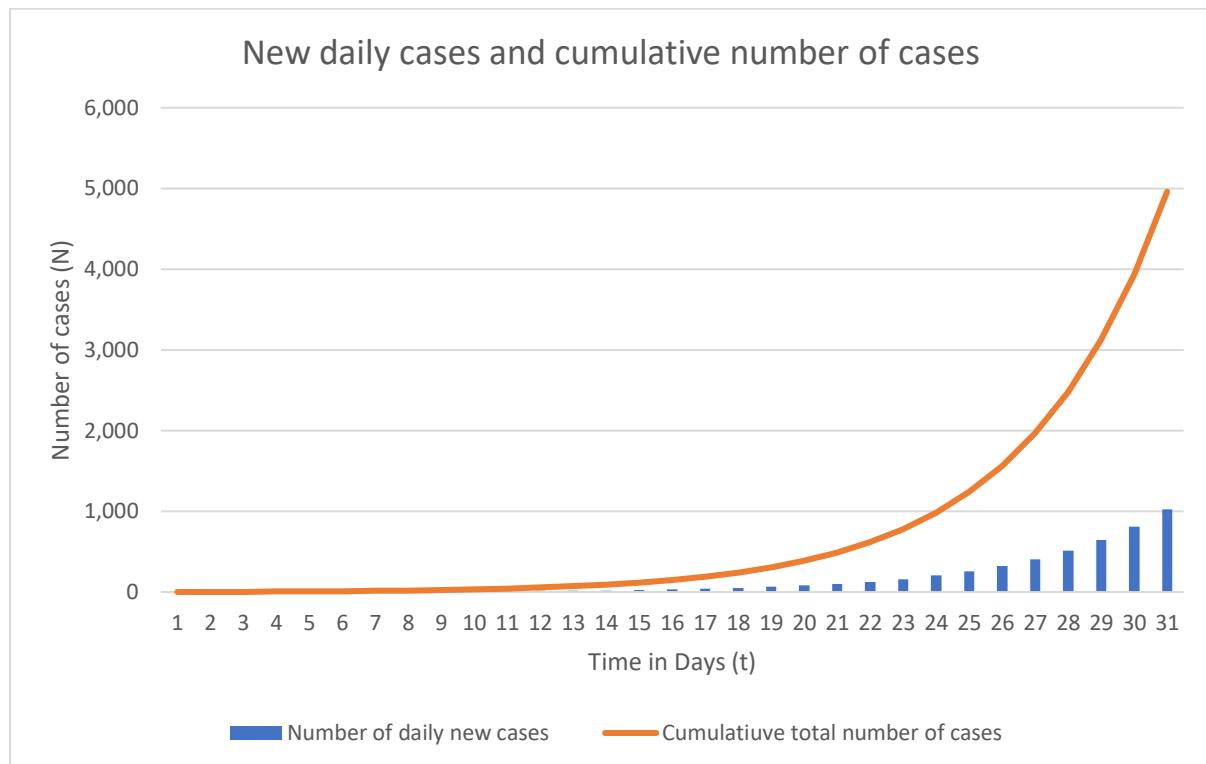


Figure 38. New daily cases and cumulative number of cases combined in one chart

If you look carefully at the graph, you can check for yourself that the cumulative number of cases doubles every three days. In this case, the number of new cases *also* doubles every three days. Exponential growth patterns always work in this way. Notice also that, in graphs of this kind, it is assumed that the number of cases continues to rise (that is, nobody recovers or dies). In practice, of course, it is different from this, so we will now look at what happens in practice in a pandemic.

While some people may recover by themselves, others will require hospitalisation. Some of the people in hospital will need special care in ICU, while some might even die.

Hospital Admissions, Intensive Care Cases and Deaths

It is also useful to be able to compare overall numbers hospital admissions, intensive care admissions (ICU), and deaths.

Consider, for example, the following numbers derived from Imperial Colleges' COVID-19 Response Team March 16th 2020 report^[xii].

4.4% of cases require hospitalisation

1.32% of cases require ICU treatment (30% of the hospitalisation cases)

0.9% of cases die (Infection Fatality Ratio, IFR)

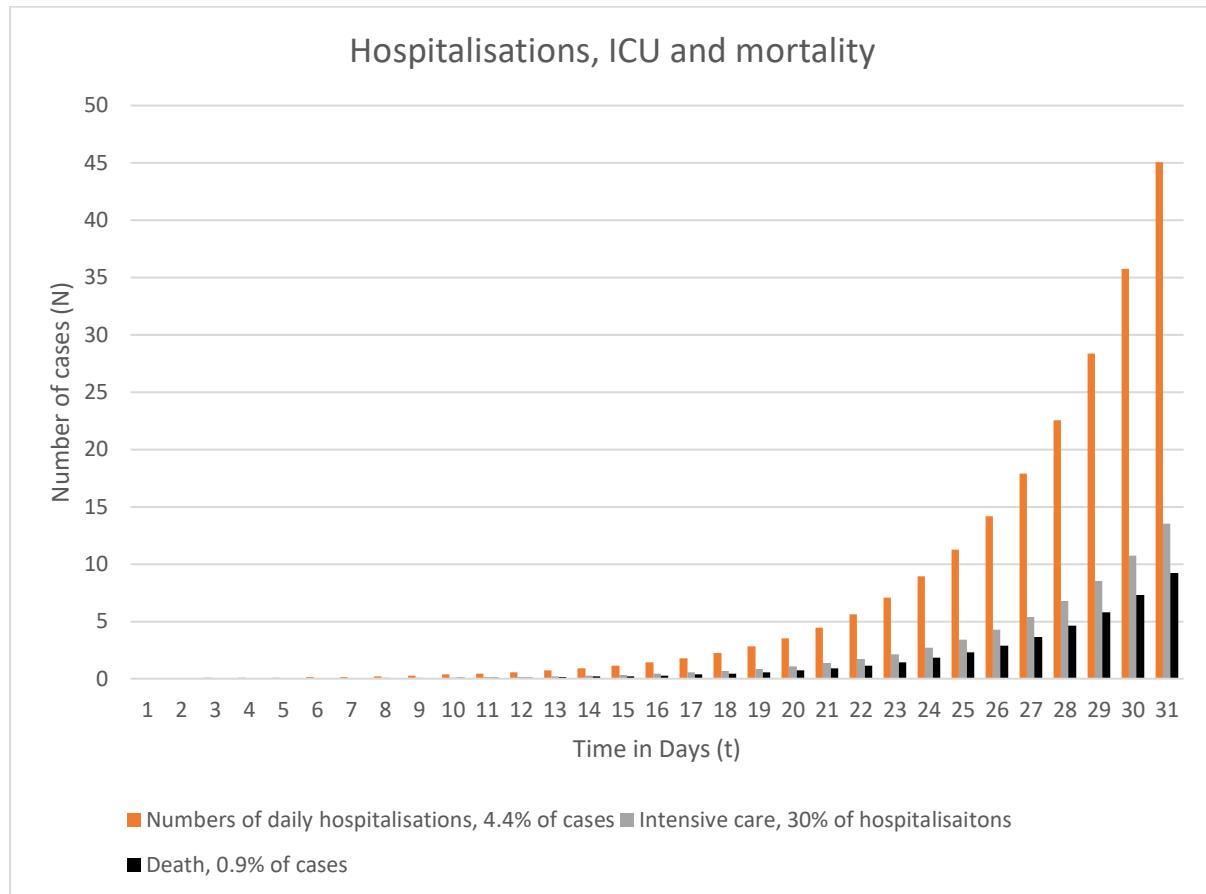


Figure 39. Hospitalisations, ICU and mortality combined in one chart

Intensive Care Requirements and Capacity

Let's study ICU requirements in more detail, because ICU is the 'last line of defence' for those who are critically ill with COVID-19.

Here, we need to work out what our ICU capacity is and compare that to the expected demand. Put simply, if the number of people requiring ICU treatment exceeds the ICU capacity, then more deaths will occur.

Take a country with 1,000 spare ICU beds at the start of the pandemic. Say, for example, 1024 cases a day are happening by day 31 and that new cases are doubling every 3 days, with ICU beds required for 1.32% of cases. At this rate we can see from the graphs below that demand for ICU beds starts to exceed the beds available in just 18 days after day 31.

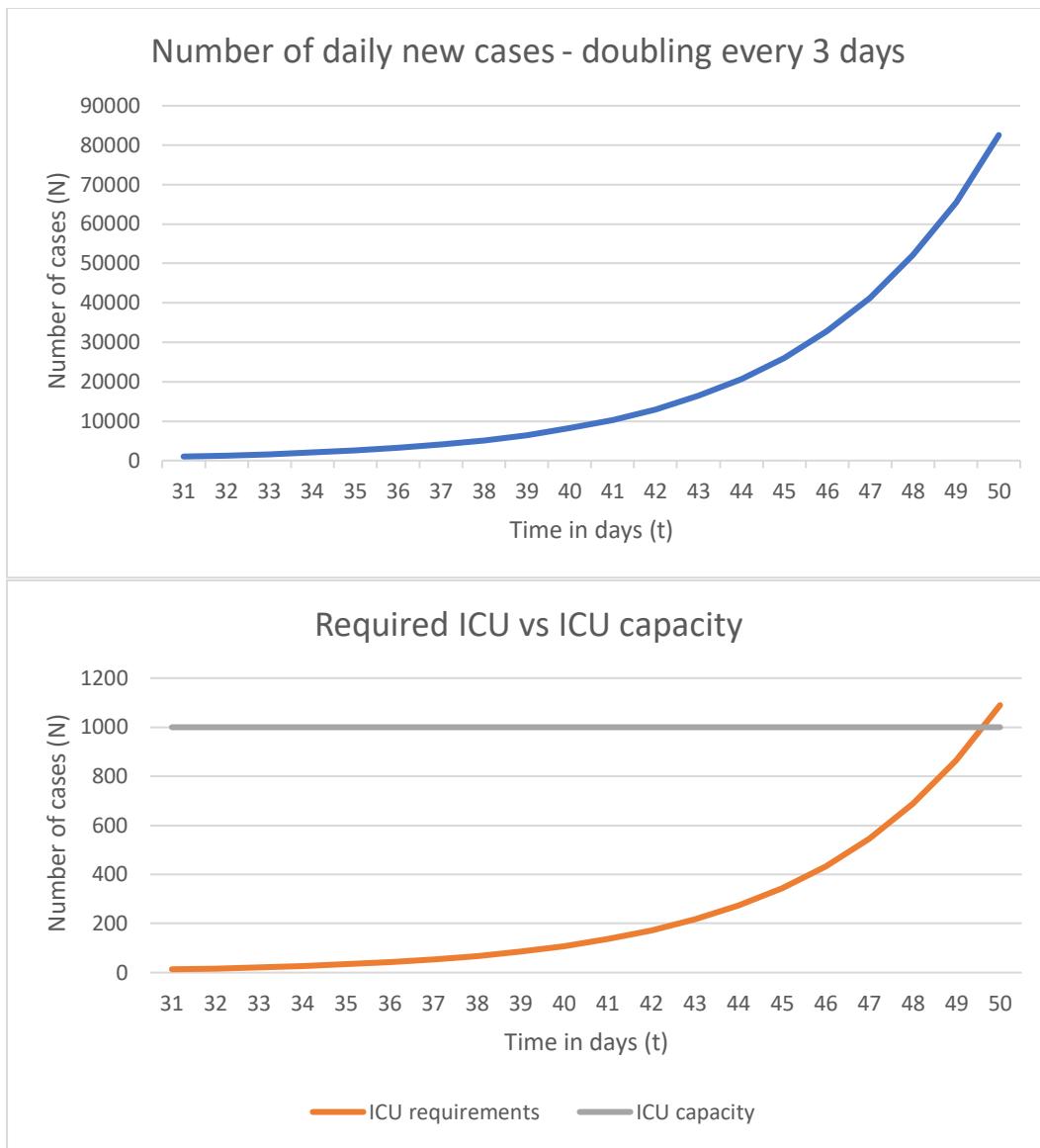


Figure 40. New cases doubling every 3 days and the required ICU vs ICU capacity

The obvious policy implication of this is to quickly expand ICU capacity to meet the demand^{lxiii}.

R₀ and Other Important Parameters

To epidemiologists – experts who deal with the incidence, distribution, and possible control of diseases - R₀ is a crucial number and the basis for many models^{lxiv}.

What is R₀ and why is it so important?

Here, 'R' means the reproductive number.

The formal definition of a disease's R₀ is the number of cases, on average, an infected person will cause during their infectious period. E.g. if an infected person passes the virus to a total of three other people altogether, then R₀= 3.

Strictly speaking R_0 really only applies to the beginning of an outbreak, and as the spread progresses epidemiologists switch to another number: the Effective Reproductive Number, or R_t .

If R_t equals 1, each existing infection causes one new infection. The disease will stay alive and stable, but there won't be an outbreak or an epidemic.

If R_t is more than 1, each existing infection causes more than one new infection. The disease will spread between people, and there may be an outbreak or epidemic.

If R_t is less than 1, each existing infection causes less than one new infection. In this case, the disease will decline and eventually die out^{lxv}.

R_{MAX} represents the maximum epidemic potential of a pathogen. It describes what would happen if an infectious person were to enter a fully susceptible community, and therefore is an estimate based on an idealized scenario. In practice, the disease will not spread at the same rate forever, because eventually almost everyone will be infected and so it cannot spread any further; the rate of spread will also be affected by people taking steps like social distancing to actively reduce it.

Beta β and Gamma γ

R_0 is affected by the properties of the pathogen, such as how infectious it is. It is a dependent variable whose value varies depending on the host population, for instance, how susceptible the host is due to nutritional status or other illnesses that may compromise one's immune system. Other variables that affect R_0 are the environment, including things like demographics, socioeconomic and climatic factors.

Two values related to R_0 are

- β , the proportion of susceptible people who become infected per day. This number is a function of the rate at which susceptible people come into contact with infectious people.
- γ , the proportion of those infected who become non-infectious per day. This is sometimes known as the recovery rate, and for the purpose of our modelling we'll assume this to be a fixed number.

Epidemiologists use the following equations to define the relationship between these key values:

$$R_0 = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$$

$$\beta = R_0 \gamma$$

$$\gamma = \frac{\beta}{R_0}$$

The subject of these formulae has been rewritten three different ways but algebraically each formula is the same.

The Logistic Function

This section, and the following section “What is an Inflection Point?” are based on a Wired article called ‘[The Promising Math Behind ‘Flattening the Curve’](#)’. The article contains Python models which you can work with.

Another useful tool used to study pandemics is the logistic function.

As we have seen in the early days, a pandemic spreads exponentially, however will not grow like that forever. No population is infinite and the population size N_{MAX} determines the total possible number of people who could become infected. As fewer and fewer healthy people are left to infect, and policy levers are implemented the spread will slow down. The exponential function used in the previous section will no longer be a good model.

As the rate of infections slows in the population a different function, called a logistic function, becomes a more useful model.

In the Time Series section, we learned how the gradient or slope of a function determines how one variable changes with respect to the other. A positive gradient is increasing, a negative gradient is decreasing and when the gradient is 0 the function is neither increasing nor decreasing. In our exponential model the change in the total number of cases (ΔN) and the change in time period (Δt) is linear and can be represented by:

$$\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = aN$$

where a is the rate of infection, and N is the number already infected. This is the defining feature of an exponential function: the rate of change is proportional to the value.

A logistic function is similar to the exponential function in some ways, but represents a situation that changes as the virus spreads, allowing a more realistic model of the epidemic to be developed. Implementing practices like social distancing and other levers can reduce the infection rate. The logistical levers implemented will have an effect on the number of people infected (N) and the infection rate in the population (a).

A logistic function is useful when the epidemic is modelled by the formula:

$$\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = a \left(1 - \frac{N}{N_{MAX}}\right) N$$

In this formula, N_{MAX} represents the maximum possible number of people infected, which is the size of the population.

What is an Inflection Point?

Let's now look more closely at our logistic function relationship

$$\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = a \left(1 - \frac{N}{N_{MAX}}\right) N$$

In the early days of the epidemic, when the number infected (N) is much smaller than N_{MAX} , $1 - \frac{N}{N_{MAX}}$ is very close to 1. So, the logistic function in the early days behaves similarly to the exponential function.

Later, when N is close to N_{MAX} (that is, most people are infected), $1 - \frac{N}{N_{MAX}}$ is very close to 0. The relationship then suggests that $\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t}$ is itself getting closer to zero. That is the spread of the epidemic has almost stopped altogether.

Graphs of logistic function show these characteristics well. Here are two typical examples. Notice that the early parts of the graphs look like an exponential function, while the later parts of the graphs look quite different, eventually 'levelling off' as the epidemic reaches its maximum penetration. The blue graph shows an epidemic starting earlier and increasing rapidly, while the red graph shows an epidemic that starts a bit later and increases a little more slowly.

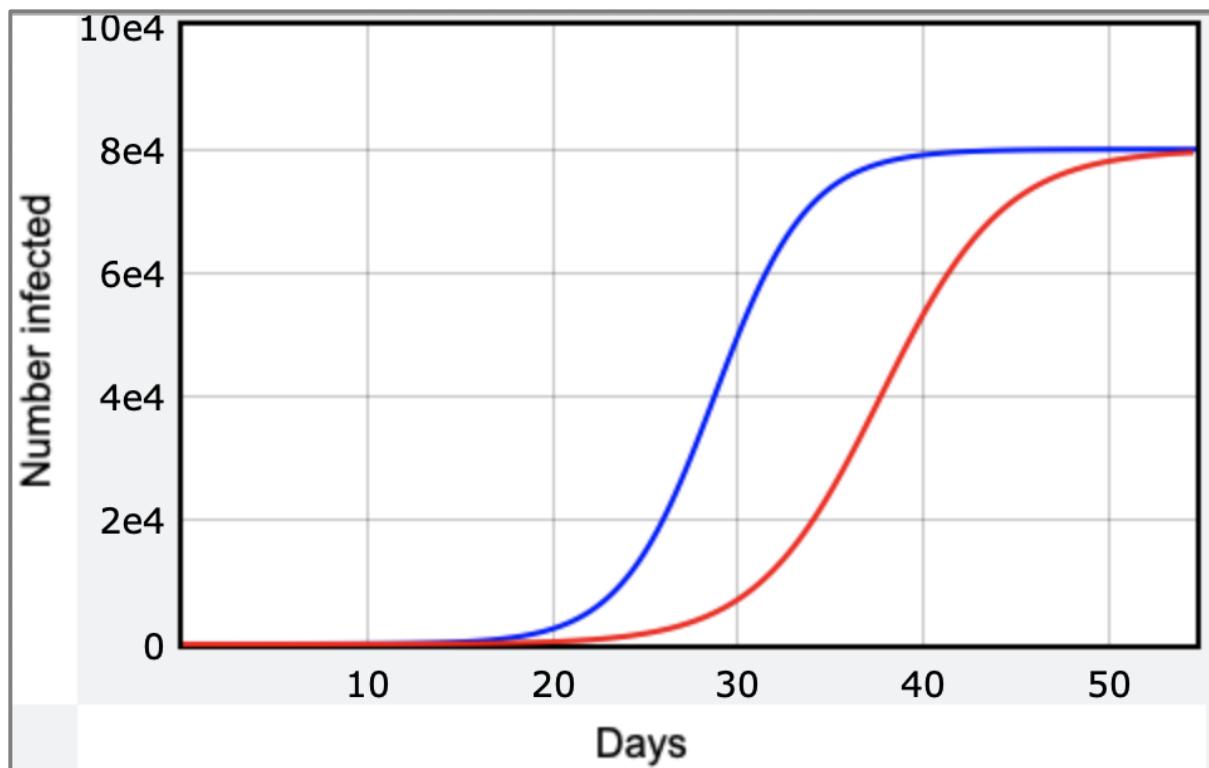


Figure 41. Logistic function showing two 'sigmoid' shaped curves tracking new cases at two different rates, both approaching their inflection points.

Fortunately, all pandemics eventually subside. Whether it is due to people becoming ill and then immune, vaccinations or policy measures, eventually the exponential curve starts to change shape as demonstrated in the two logistic graphs above.

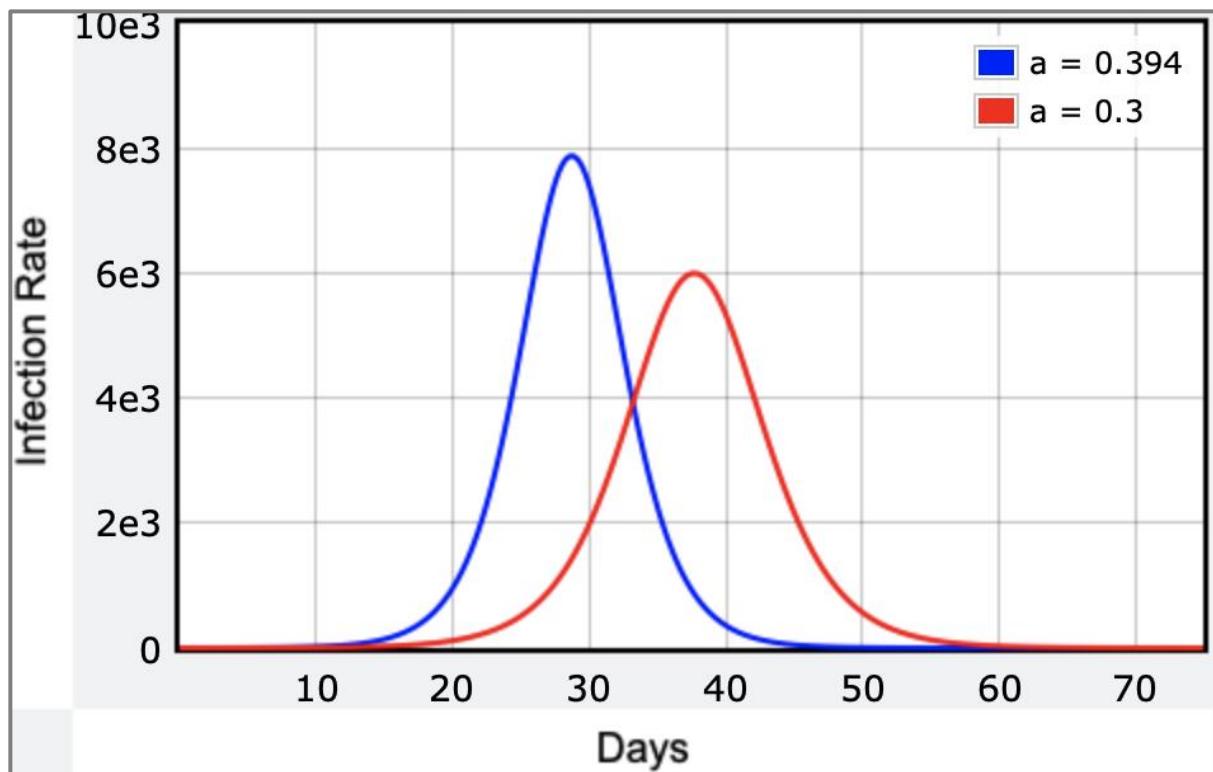


Figure 42. Characteristic patterns for pandemics.

Compare the variables on the vertical axis of our two corresponding logistic function graphs. The first represents how many people (N) are infected over time (t). Another useful graph represents instead how N is changing over time, so that the vertical axis shows the infection rate instead of the number of infections.

We can interpret the red and blue graphs above to see that the rate of spread of the epidemic is at first slow, then increases sharply, and then tapers off – modelled well by the logistic functions. In each case, the rate of change reaches a peak before reducing again to zero. If you compare these graphs with the earlier graphs of the logistic functions, you can see that the peaks correspond to the inflection points of the earlier graphs: where the shapes of the graphs change; this is about day 28 for the blue graph and about day 37 for the red graph.

SIR Modelling

Introduction

So far, we have only considered the process of a pandemic in which people get infected. However, there are other processes going on at the same time, and a SIR model allows us to predict the number of people who will be infected at each point in time, by considering more information.

Epidemiologists typically break up a population into sets, and try to understand each set separately. A basic version is an SIR model, with three sets:

- Susceptible to infection
- Infected
- Recovered or Removed (which is to say, either immune, or dead).

An assumption here is that for COVID-19 those who have recovered cannot get the disease again, which is not proven at this point.

This concept of modeling a disease moving through sets is represented by ‘tanks’ across which an infection “flows”.

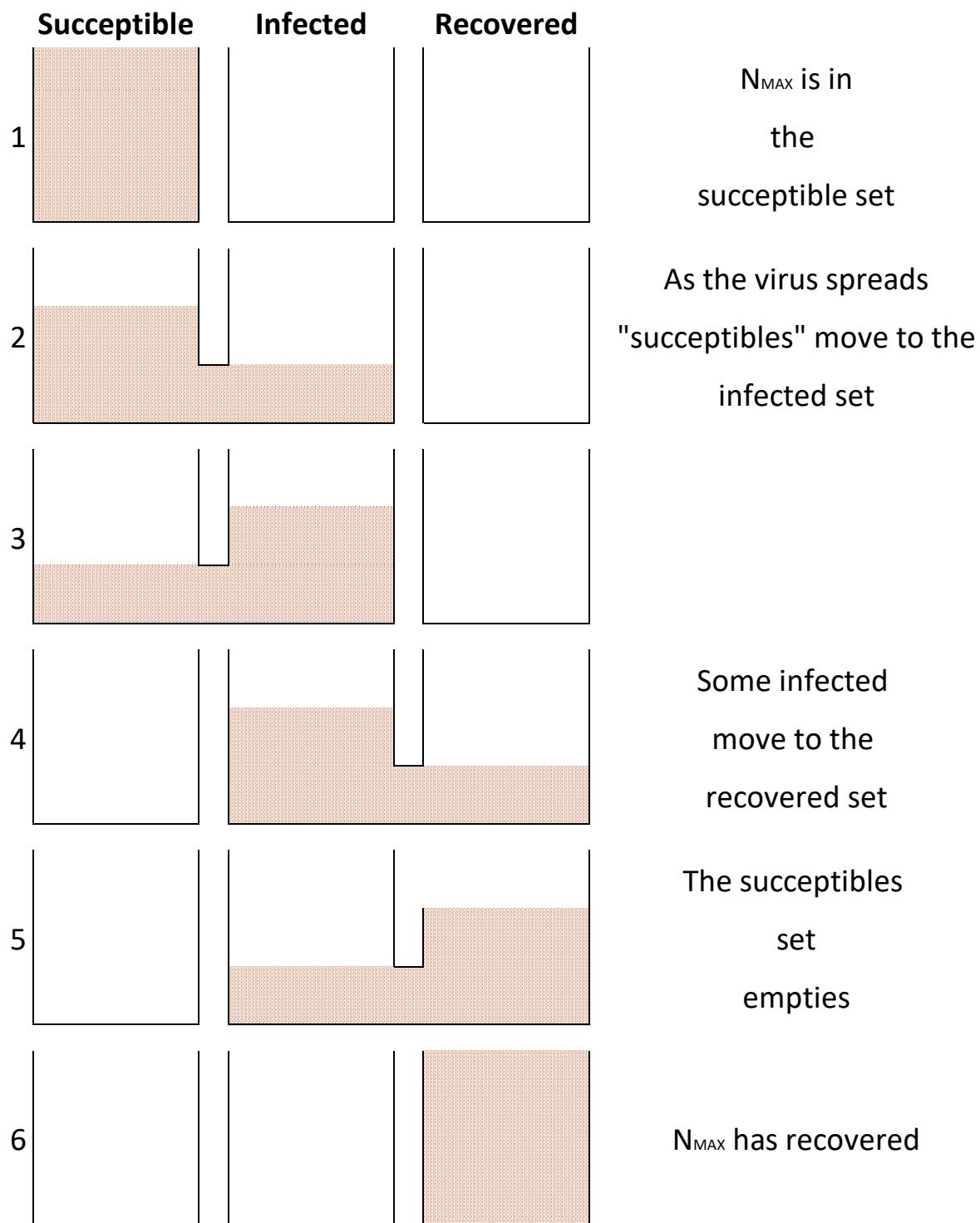


Figure 43. The principle behind an SIR model – the pandemic ‘flowing’ across a population

In this illustrative model, we have assumed all susceptible people contract the infection which hopefully isn’t the case. We also assume that everyone recovers, which sadly also isn’t the case.

A critical factor here is the speed at which people move from one set to another.

When thinking about the SIR model, it is helpful to think of each set being connected to the next by ‘pipes’. The diameter of the pipe determines the rate, or speed, with which people move from one set to another.

For example, the slower the rate of transfer from Susceptible to Infected the better. Imagine that it took 100 years for NMAX to acquire the disease; this would be much more manageable than NMAX acquiring the disease in a month.

Similarly, the rate at which people move from Infected to Recover matters a lot. It would be a lot easier to manage a disease that took people, for example, a day to recover from rather than two months.

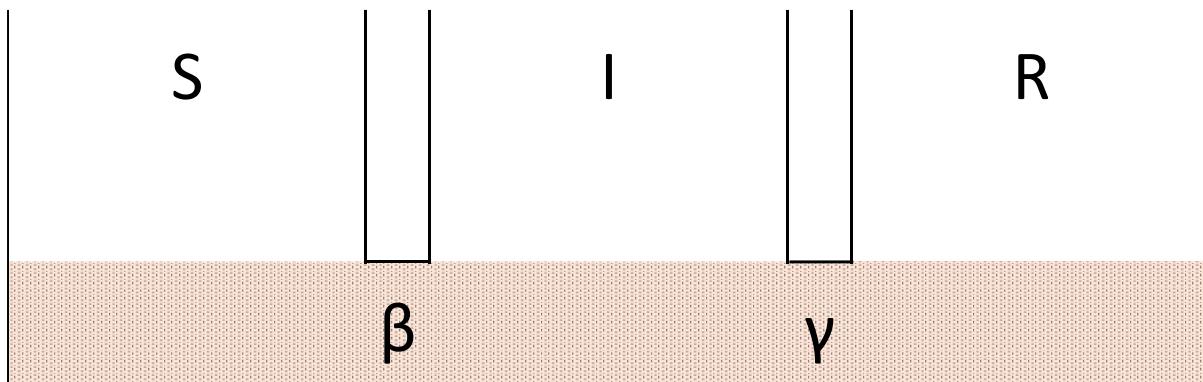


Figure 44. β and γ define virtual ‘gates’ through which the pandemic ‘flows’.

To define the rates of ‘flow’ across the SIR sets we use:

- β , the fraction of susceptible people who become infected/day
- γ , the fraction of those infected who become non-infectious/day

The bigger β is, the faster the virus is spreading. The bigger γ is, the faster people are recovering from it and so becoming immune.

There are two options for the ‘Recovered’ definition.

- a) Recovery from infection
- b) Recovery from being infectious

Recall when a virus is contracted there is an incubation period where a person has the virus and is infectious followed by a period where the person has the virus but is non-contagious. For our modelling we will consider recovery from being infectious only, otherwise the infected will contribute to new infections regardless of whether they are infected.

SIR Modelling Graph

Let’s start by concentrating just on the Infected set in the SIR model, starting with this example below of 1000 people over a 100-day period. The graph shows the number of people infected at various times, taking into account that people start recovering after a while (and do not get re-infected).

Here we have set the model to:

$N_{MAX} =$	1000
$R_0 = \text{Reproductive number} = \beta/\gamma$	2.4
$I = \beta = \text{susceptible people infected/day, } R_0 * \gamma$	0.3696
$R = \gamma = \text{infected who become non-infectious/day, } \beta/R_0$	0.154

R_0 is based on the Imperial College study mentioned earlier.

γ is that the infectious period which they used was 6.5 days which is equivalent to 0.154 people recovering per day.

With $R=2.4$ and γ defined, we can find I from $R_0 * \gamma$, so $2.4 * 0.154 = 0.3696$

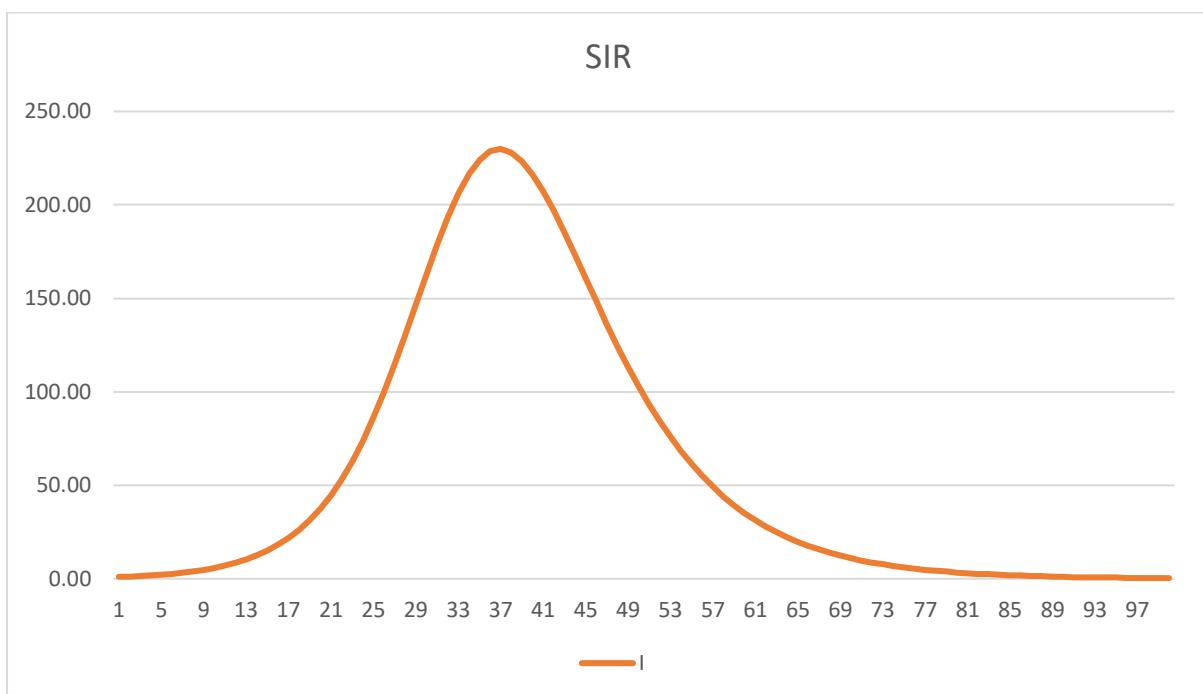


Figure 45. A SIR Graph showing infection only

The first thing to note is that practically all of N_{MAX} gets the disease within the 100-day period. This is not always the case. A lower value for β can lead to a smaller infected set which in turn means that not everyone gets the disease in a given period. This leaves the Recovered set at lower than N_{MAX} .

Similarly, a larger value for γ would mean that people recovered more quickly. Different-shaped graphs will arise from varying these two values.

The inflection point is around 37 days, which is the point when the highest number of people have the virus at any one time. At this point almost a quarter of the population have the virus which would put a huge burden on health services. After the inflection point the number of people with the virus at any one time begins to decrease.

What Does “Flattening the Curve” Mean?

In the COVID-19 pandemic the goal of most governments is to lower the rate of Infection. (β) which means that the proportion of patients with the virus at any one time is lower and lowers the demand on the healthcare system at any one time. Furthermore, it may prevent some people ever getting the virus, as we can see in ‘Modelling the Policy’, and it will allow more time to prepare for the inflection point.

In the example below we keep N_{MAX} and γ the same as the above example, but we look at infection rates () of 0.3 and 0.77.

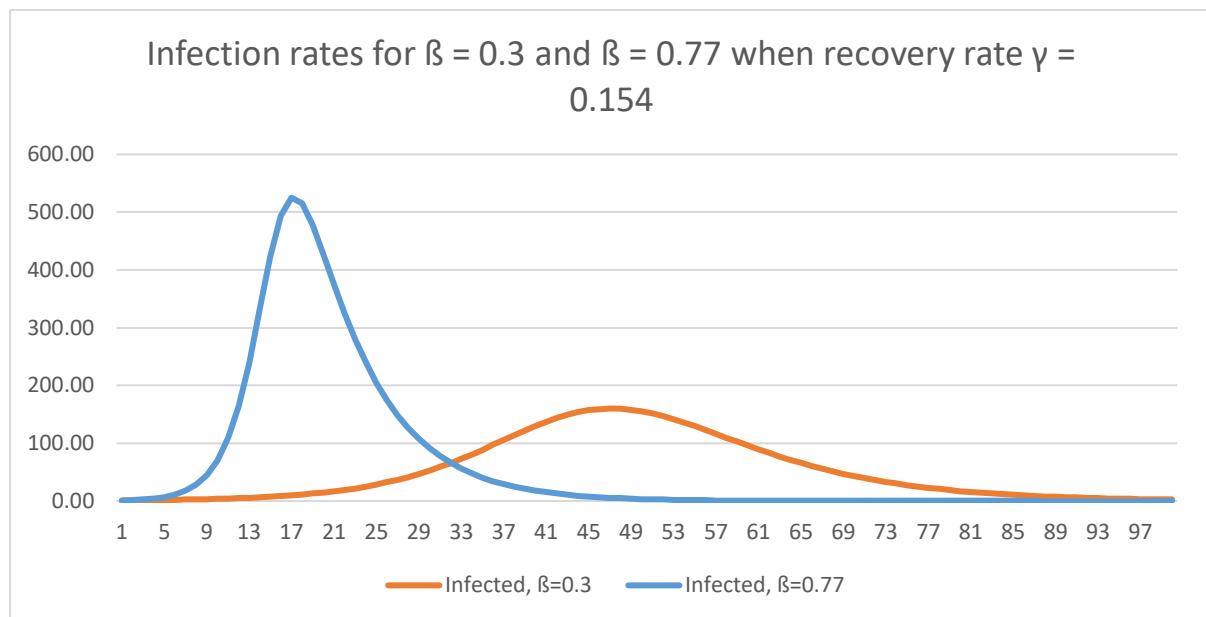


Figure 46. Infection rates for different values of β

Here, as in the previous SIR model in Figure 46, we suppose it takes people on average 6.5 days to recover, so we take γ to be fixed at 1 per 6.5 days = 0.154 per day.

Running the model with $\beta = 0.77$ the inflection point occurs after just 17 days as shown by the blue graph. In this scenario, over 50% (500) of the population has the virus concurrently which would put a huge strain on the health services

But when $\beta = 0.3$, the inflection point occurs after 47 days, days and less than 20% (200) of people have the virus at any one-time enabling health services more time to prepare and giving more people the chance of not contracting it in the first place.

The shape of the curve is determined by β and γ . The duration of the period a patient is infectious is unlikely to be very modifiable by governmental policy, hence the recovery rate (γ) will be considered constant. Therefore, flattening the curve can be achieved by deploying government policy which minimises the infection rate (β).

So, let's next run simulated SIR models to show the effects of different interventions when they are put into place immediately.

Modelling The Policy Lever Effects

To understand the options and dilemmas behind political decision making, we need to understand the different effects that different approaches are likely to have. For this we need to run various models.

Here we will use a SIR model to evaluate the following 3 policy scenarios:

1. Do nothing
2. Widespread hand washing
3. Social distancing

We will also do a quick calculation to work out the impact of social distancing + hand washing together.

Policy 1. Do Nothing (Herd Immunity)

In the ‘Do Nothing’ scenario, governments do not create policies on hand washing or social distancing i.e. let herd immunity take effect.

We use the following *inputs* –

S = Susceptible; initial	999
i = Infected; initial	1
R₀ = Reproductive number = β/γ Source, Imperial College ^{lxvi}	2.4
I = β = susceptible people infected/day, $R_0 * \gamma$	0.3696
R = γ = infected who become non-infectious/day, β/R_0 Source, Imperial College (infectious mean 6.5 days) ^{lxvii}	0.154
N = N _{MAX} (population)	1000
T = time interval; day	1

For each of the three scenarios that we’ll explore, the following Excel formulae are used to build the model.

T increments by one day,

T = cell above +1

S reduces as Infected and Recovered increases,

S = cell above - ((cell above/S initial) * (I*i))

I rises first and then falls as more people recover,

I = cell above + (previous S/S initial) * (I*cell above) - (cell above*R)

R rises with a lag equivalent to the time taken for infectious to become non-infectious.

$$R = \text{cell above} + (\text{previous } I * R)$$

$N: 1000$ (constant)

Note that when we run the model, we see a line each for S , I and R .

- The blue graph shows the number of Susceptible people in the population, S
- The orange graph shows the number of Infected people in the population, I
- The grey graph shows the number of recovered people in the population, R

When the model is run, at each time period N_{MAX} , the sum of $S+I+R$, remains at 1,000.

At day 1 (the beginning) 1 person is infected, everyone else is susceptible. The infected start to infect the susceptible population at an infection rate of 0.3696 per person which means the number of infected people increase, and the number of susceptible people decreases.

After 6.5 days the first infected person recovers (becomes non-infected) and others recover so it looks like from day 9 to days in the mid 20s lag slightly behind the infected line. At around day 37 the inflection point occurs and over 20% of the population is infected so the health service is under the most pressure at this time. At the end of the time, just over 100 patients remain in the susceptible category because they never got infected.

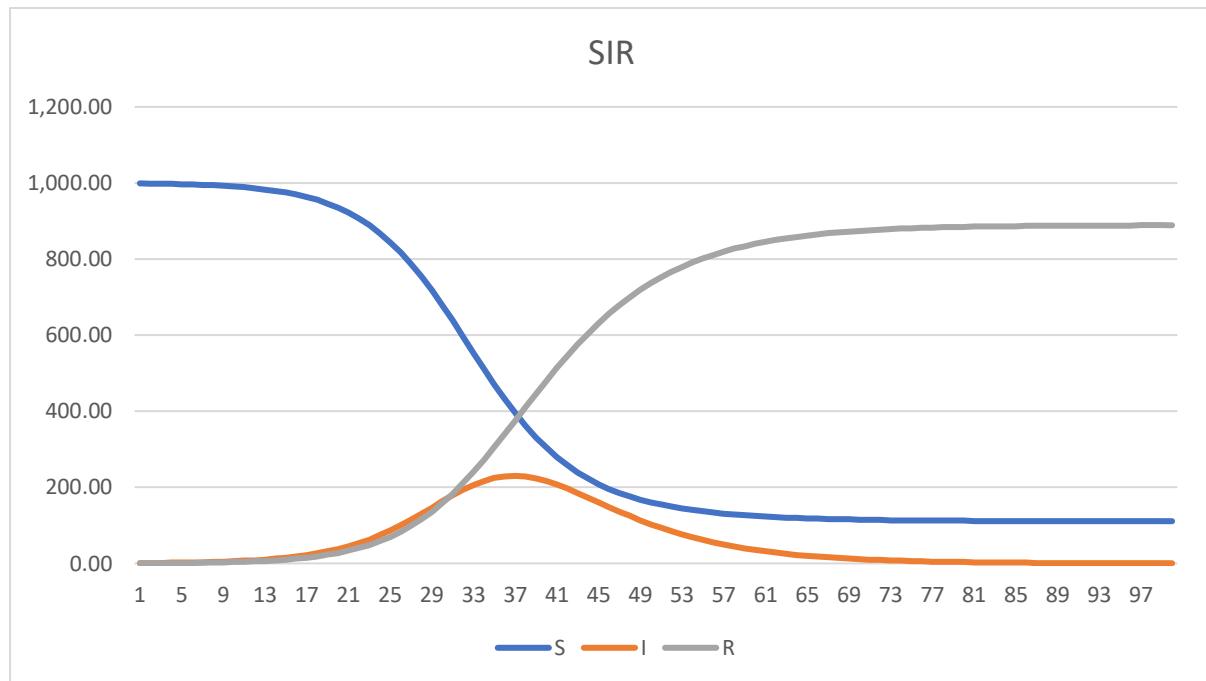


Figure 47. SIR model for 'Do Nothing' policy.

So, now we have a picture of how the disease moves through N_{MAX} , what does this mean for ICU requirements versus ICU capacity?

Let's take our earlier numbers for ICU requirement as we stated in the "Intensive Care Requirements and Capacity" section.

ICU beds required = 30% of hospital admissions at 4.4% = 1.32%.

ICU capacity per 1,000 (N_{MAX} here). For simplicity we'll use 0.25 ICU beds available per 1000 people (i.e 1 bed per 4000 people), but clearly this would involve a huge amount of effort on the part of a government to get this in place. So, you can substitute your own numbers to reflect the reality on the ground where you are.

The proportion of infected people at any one time are shown in the above graph. At each timepoint we expect 1.32% of the infected population to be in ICU hospital beds. For example, if 200 people are infected at time t, we would expect 2.64 people ($200 * 0.0132$) to be in ICU hospital beds at time t. Therefore, based on the above graph we calculated the number of people infected requiring ICU hospital beds at each timepoint and the ICU hospital bed capacity. The number requiring ICU beds is in yellow, the ICU capacity is in blue.

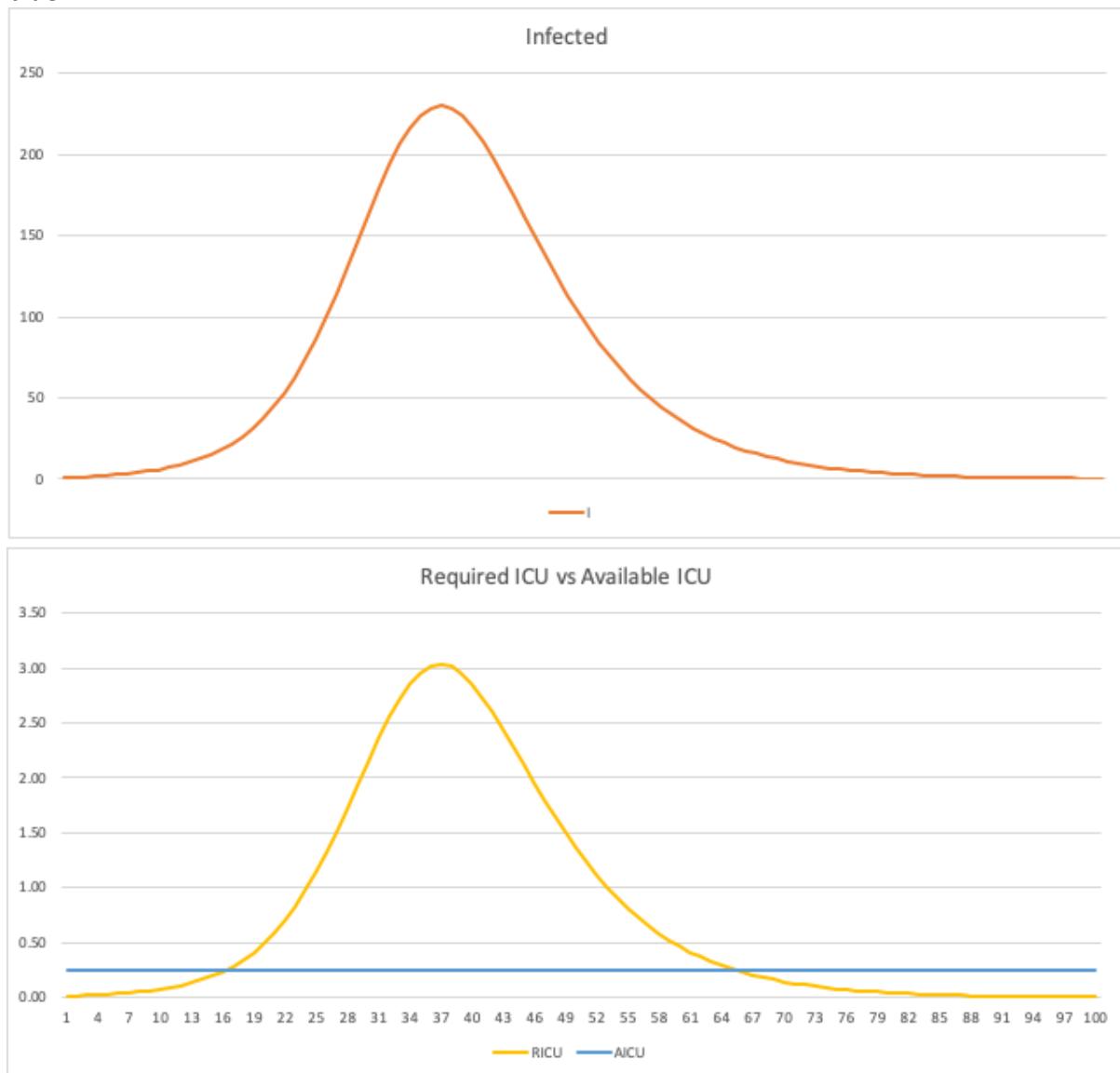


Figure 48. Infection rates, ICU bed requirements and available ICU beds for a ‘Do Nothing’ policy

From this, we can clearly see that ICU requirement is going to be exceed capacity in just 16 days, reaching 12 x ICU capacity in 16 days.

Policy 2. Washing Hands

The BBC “Contagion” pandemic documentary in 2018 used a model^{lxviii} which suggested that if everyone washed their hands regularly, this could have a 22% impact on the infection rate β of a viral pandemic. Using this as a reasonable value to base our illustrative models on, we can apply the following:

Taking R_0 baseline as 2.4, with γ fixed at 0.154, we have β at 0.3696

So, applying a 22% reduction to β (0.78×0.3696) we get a new value for β of 0.2883

$I = \beta = \text{susceptible people infected/day, } R_0 * \gamma$	0.2883
$R = \gamma = \text{infected who become non-infectious/day, } \beta/R_0$	0.154

If this measure is introduced immediately, we notice a significant flattening of the curve because a lower value of beta gives a more flattened curve.

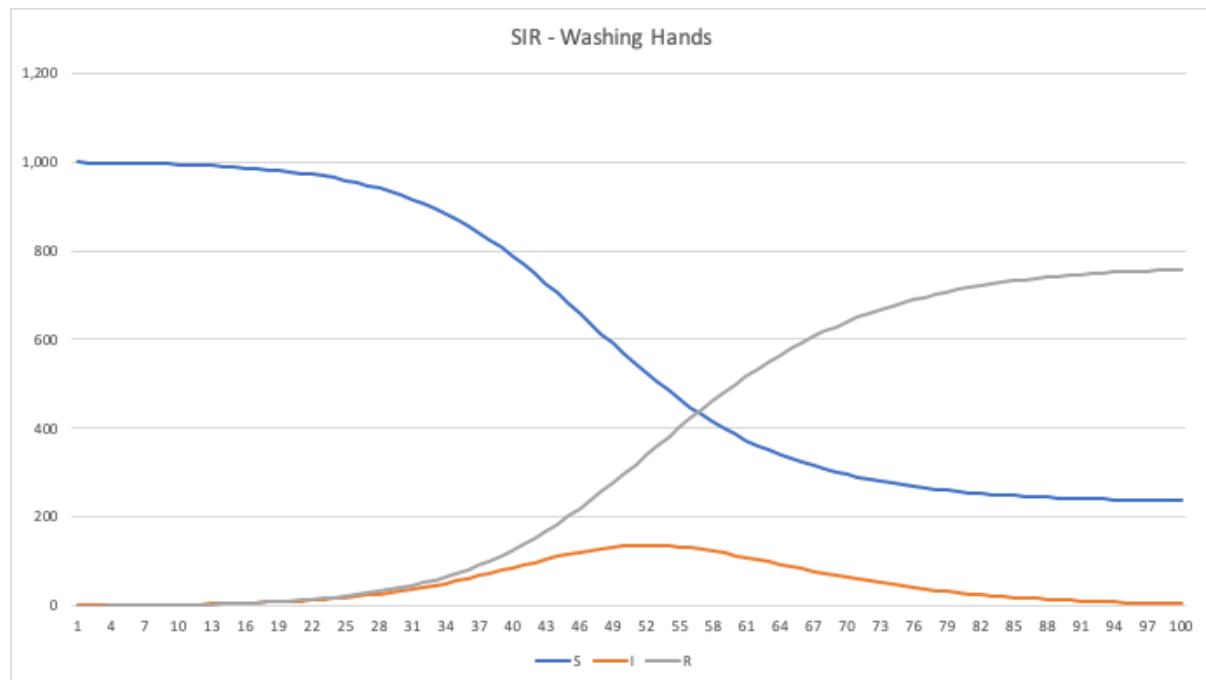


Figure 49. The SIR model for an effective ‘washing hands’ public policy.

Compared to Policy 1, the inflection point is delayed from around day 37 to around day 53, and the maximum number of people infected at any one time points drops from above 200 to below 200. This means that the burden of health services at any one timepoint are

reduced, and there is more time to prepare. Furthermore, around 100 additional people never get the infection compared to policy 1.

The number of people requiring ICU due to coronavirus for Policy 1 is calculated below to answer if washing hands alone is sufficient to prevent ICU demand exceeding capacity.

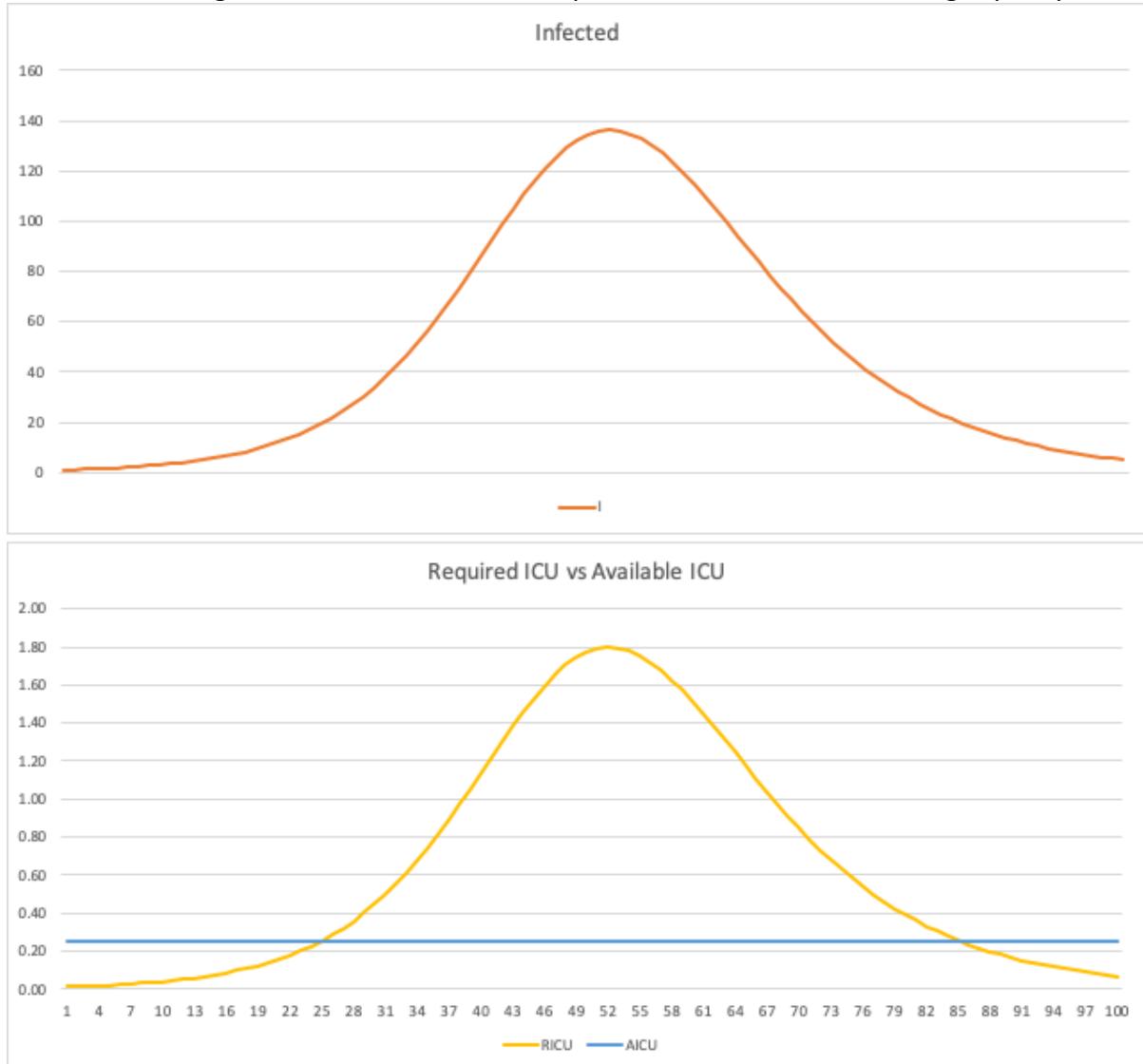


Figure 50. Infection rates, ICU bed requirements and available ICU beds for an effective washing hands policy

Unfortunately, we can see here that washing hands is not sufficient on its own to avoid ICU demand exceeding capacity, though it does delay the ‘surge’ in demand, from 16 days up to 25 days, which means that governments have more time to increase ICU capacity.

Policy 3. Social Distancing

If everyone reduced their social contact by 50%, we could have a 50% impact on the infection rate β . γ and NMAX remain the same.

Again, taking R_0 baseline as 2.4, γ fixed at 0.154, we have β at 0.3696

So, applying a 50% reduction to β ($0.5 * 0.3696$) we get a new value for β of 0.1848

$I = \beta = \text{susceptible people infected/day, } R_0 * \gamma$	0.1848
$R = \gamma = \text{infected who become non-infectious/day, } \beta/R_0$	0.154

To model this, we extend the period to a year. This gives us the following SIR profile –

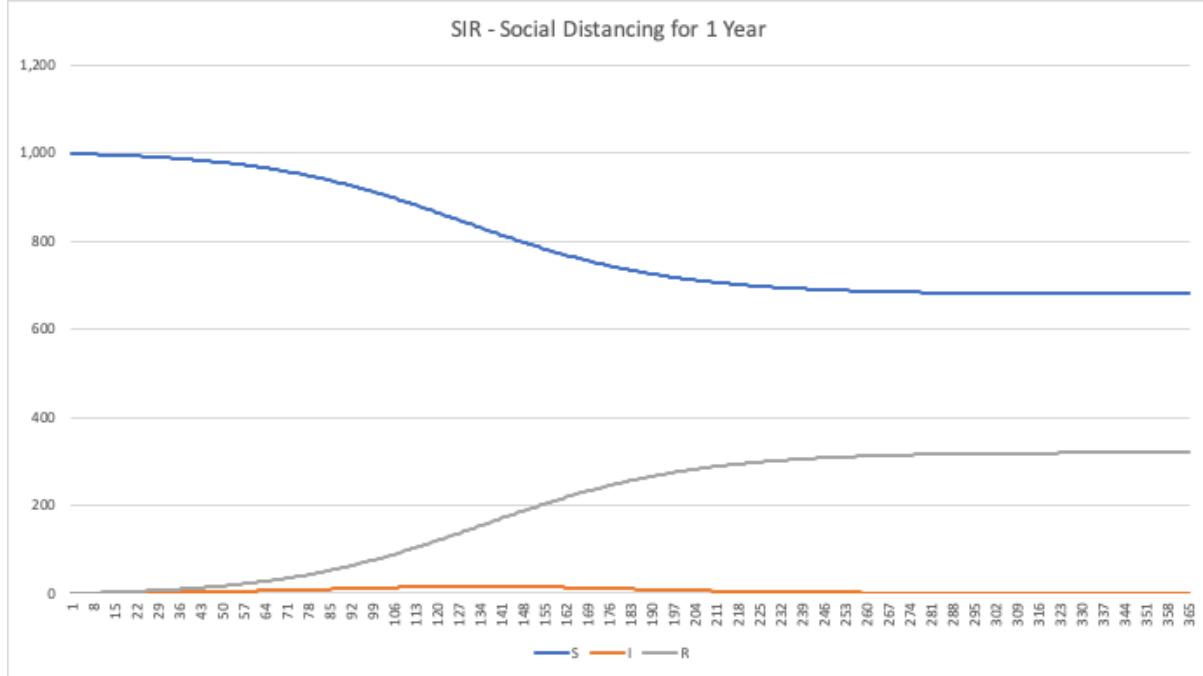


Figure 51. The SIR model for an effective social distancing public policy

Compared to Policy 1 and 2, the inflection point is delayed considerably to after day 100, and the maximum number of people infected at any one time points drops way below 200. This means that the burden of health services at any one timepoint are reduced, and there is more time to prepare. Furthermore, around two thirds of the population never got infected, a huge improvement over policy 1 and 2.

The number of people requiring ICU due to coronavirus for Policy 3 is calculated below to answer if social distancing alone is sufficient to prevent ICU demand exceeding capacity.

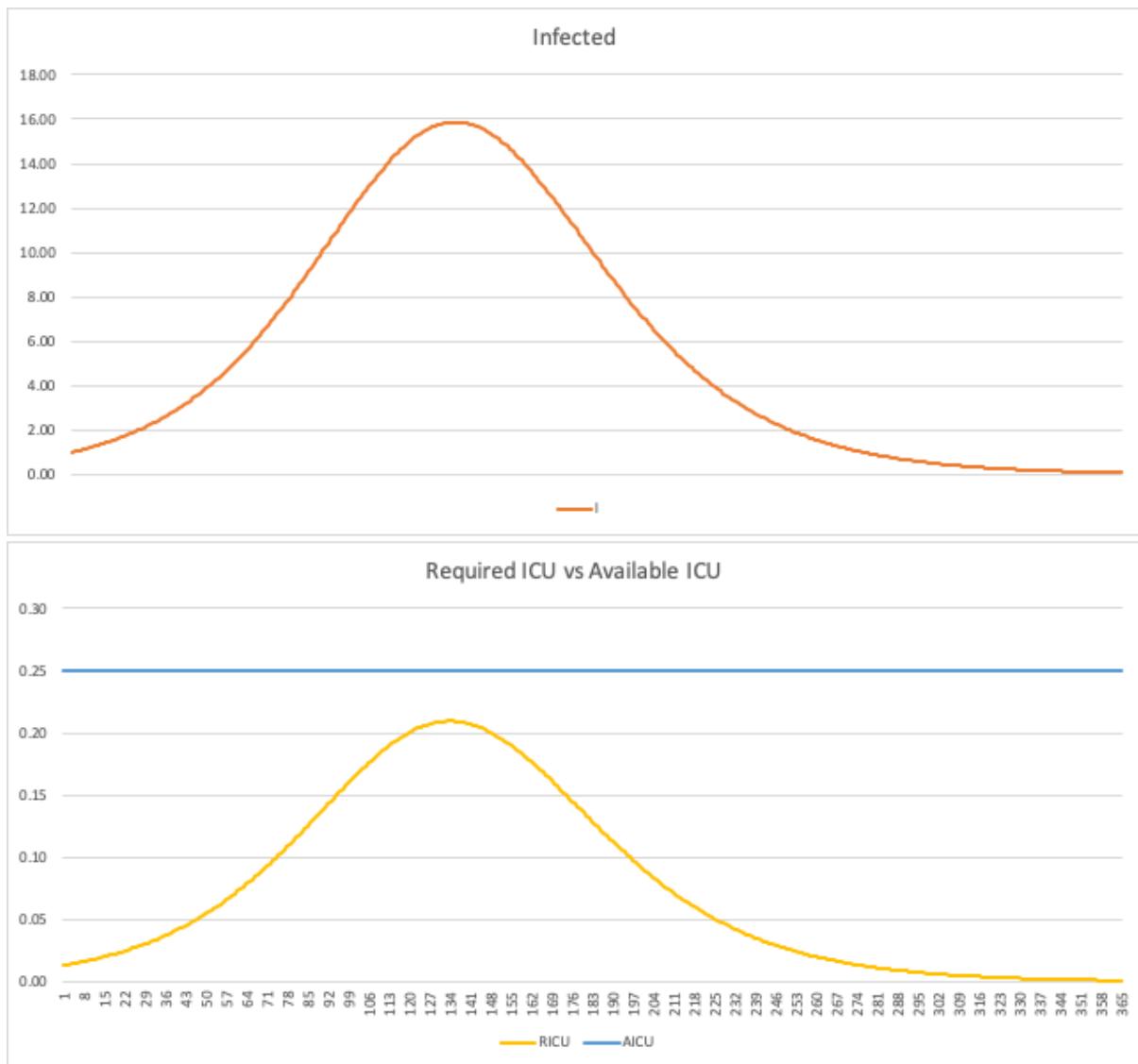


Figure 52. Infection rates, ICU bed requirements and available ICU beds for an effective social distancing policy

This time we can see that this policy has ensured that the ICU capacity isn't exceeded by demand.

In addition, the time of most ICU requirement is considerably delayed giving more time to prepare. Recall in the SIR graph though, that still one third of the population acquired the disease, which will put a strain on the health system and economy.

Policy 2 and 3. Social Distancing + Hand Washing

To reduce the impact on the population even further, we need to get R_0 down to < 1 . (i.e. $\beta < \gamma$)

This requires a combination of policies best illustrated by combining social distancing with hand washing.

When we implement social distancing alone, we get $\beta = 0.1848$

Adding the 22% reduction of infection by hand washing we get a new β of 0.144144

If we continue with a fixed value for $\gamma = 0.154$ then

$R_0 = 0.144144 / 0.154 = 0.936$, so less than 1.

This is what we need to bring the pandemic under control quickly.

Exercise 5, Modelling

1. Download and open the Excel spreadsheet referred to in “Excel Modelling Spreadsheet” in the Notices section, and go to the “Time Series Cumulative” tab.
 - i) Change the linear growth rate from 2.4 to 1. What is the number of cases when $x = 20$ days?
 - ii) Change the linear growth rate to 10. What is the number of cases when $x = 20$ days?
2. Open the worksheet entitled “Exponential”
 - i) Change the exponential growth rate to 1.5. What is the number of cases at $x = 20$
 - ii) Change the exponential growth rate to 3. What is the number of cases at $x = 20$
3. Open the worksheet entitled “Double Time”
 - i) Change the doubling time in days in cell M3 from 3 to 4. What are the total number of cases at $x = 31$
 - ii) How does this compare with $M3 = 3$?
4. Open the worksheet entitled “ICU need vs capacity”
Change the growth factor in cell B1 from 3 to 2.5. By what factor is capacity exceeded by demand
5. Open the worksheet entitled “SIR $\beta = 0.3$ and $\beta = 0.77$ ”
 - i) Change the values for I in cells K8 and L8 and to 0.5 and 1.
 - ii) Change the names of the features in cells C5 and F5 from $\beta=0.3$ and $\beta=0.77$ to $\beta=0.5$ and $\beta=1$.
 - iii) How many days does it take to reach the inflection point for $\beta=0.5$
 - iv) How many days does it take to reach the inflection point for $\beta=1$
 - v) What does this tell us?

Checkpoint 5

1. Why should policy makers use mathematical models?
 - To make international comparisons
 - To predict the likely outcomes from different interventions
 - Keep the public informed
 - Work out when to purchase extra equipment
 - To estimate how many people will die
2. Which of the following two answers are true for R_0 ?
 - The number of cases an infected person will cause
 - The number of infected people
 - The expected number of infected people after one month
 - The number of hospitalized cases
 - Infection rate divided by recovery rate
3. Which of the following is used to test if a patient has had COVID-19
 - LAMP
 - PCR
 - Antibody testing
 - White blood cell count
 - Antigen testing
4. Which of the following two methods are used to test if a patient currently has COVID-19
 - Pathogen tests
 - White blood cell count
 - LAMP
 - Antigen testing
 - PCR
5. A sample space is
 - All the samples used in mass testing
 - The set of all possible outcomes that could occur in an experiment or simulation
 - Where samples are stored
 - A database used for storing patient data
 - Where samples are brought for analysis
6. A time series graph
 - Shows a series of events in a timeline
 - Represents the relationship between a variable and time
 - Is used for project planning
 - Shows when key events need to happen
 - Plots the ratio of confirmed cases to hospital admissions
7. In exponential growth, new cases grow
 - Slowly at first but soon grow very quickly

Very quickly from the start
Quickly then plateau and remain steady
In a linear pattern
In a chaotic way

8. Doubling time is a measure of how long it takes for
- Daily new cases to double
 - Hospitals to reach full capacity
 - The total number of cases to double
 - One country to have twice the number of cases than another country
 - Health services to become overwhelmed

9. What two answers below describe R_0
- The expected number of infected people after one month
 - The number of cases an infected person will cause
 - The number of infected people
 - The number of hospitalized cases
 - Infection rate divided by recovery rate

10. Which policy scenario(s) works best, according to the SIR model that we analysed?
- Social distancing
 - Washing hands
 - All policies have the same effect
 - Social distancing + washing hands
 - Do nothing

Exiting COVID-19

Different Countries, Different Results

Whilst governments have a range of policy levers at their disposal, policies only work if they are communicated well, understood and acted upon by the population and supported by as many as possible.

Policy makers should consider whether their policies are enforceable or need to be by consent and agreement. In either case they should consider changes over time. Even if enforced, it is hard to force everyone to comply and there will be some who choose to get around policies. Will community pressure help enforcement initially and then degrade? What other pressures are there on populations that may need human contact, opportunities to buy foods and medicines, and simple exercise?

Chosen policies have impact on local, regional, national and international spread of pandemic. Policies are only likely to have impact when they lead to action on the ground. Policy directions chosen by governments therefore depend on population, culture and structures.

Factors that may affect how the pandemic spreads in a country, and a government's policy decisions include:

- Population size
- Total population
- Urbanisation
- Demographics – countries with older populations are likely to see higher death rates
- Life expectancy
- Healthcare factors such as physicians, and hospital beds per capita

The table below shows how these factors can vary between countries.

Country	Total Population (millions)	Urban population (%)	Median age (yrs)	Life Expectancy (yrs)	Physicians/1000 population	Hospital beds/1000 population
China	1,394	61.4	40.6	76.1	1.79	4.2
Estonia	1.23	69.2	43.7	77.4	3.47	5.0
Ghana	29.3	57.3	21.4	68.2	0.18	0.9
Italy	62.4	71.0	46.5	82.5	4.09	3.4
S Korea	51.8	81.4	43.2	82.6	2.37	11.5
UK	65.8	83.9	40.6	81.1	2.81	2.8
USA	332.6	82.7	38.5	80.3	2.59	2.9

Table 3. Different demographic and healthcare profiles for different countries. Source, <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/>

Other factors that can influence outcomes from policy implementation include:

- The form that typical households take and whether household facilities enable self-isolation or not
- Access to essential goods and services
- Trust between government and people which affects the extent to which the public follows government advice
- Ease of direct communications with the public and role of press and social media
- Perceptions of the quality of public services and the quality of the civil service

Controlling COVID-19

The human race has defeated previous pandemics and there is no reason yet to think that this one will be any different.

However, until we have pharmaceutical solutions, social control and hygiene are the only tools that we have to control the disease, and exiting social control is going to be hard and complex.

The French prime minister, Édouard Philippe, has emphasised that any easing of the lockdown in France will be “fearsomely complex” and is not likely to happen “in one move everywhere and for everyone^{lxix}.

It is important to consider possible exit scenarios because permanent social distancing is not an option.

South Korea

Here, we can learn much from South Korea’s response to COVID-19.

Two days after South Korea reported their 100th COVID-19 case, they reported their 200th. Two days later, their 400th. Two days later, their 800th: South Korea had a doubling time of two days in the first 10 days of reporting their 100th case. But after 27 days had passed South Korea had intervened and increased their doubling time to 65 days^{lxx}. South Korea soon got to grips with both its daily and cumulative cases, which are now (April 10th 2020) the lowest in the world.

Weekly Updates for Countries with Major Outbreaks

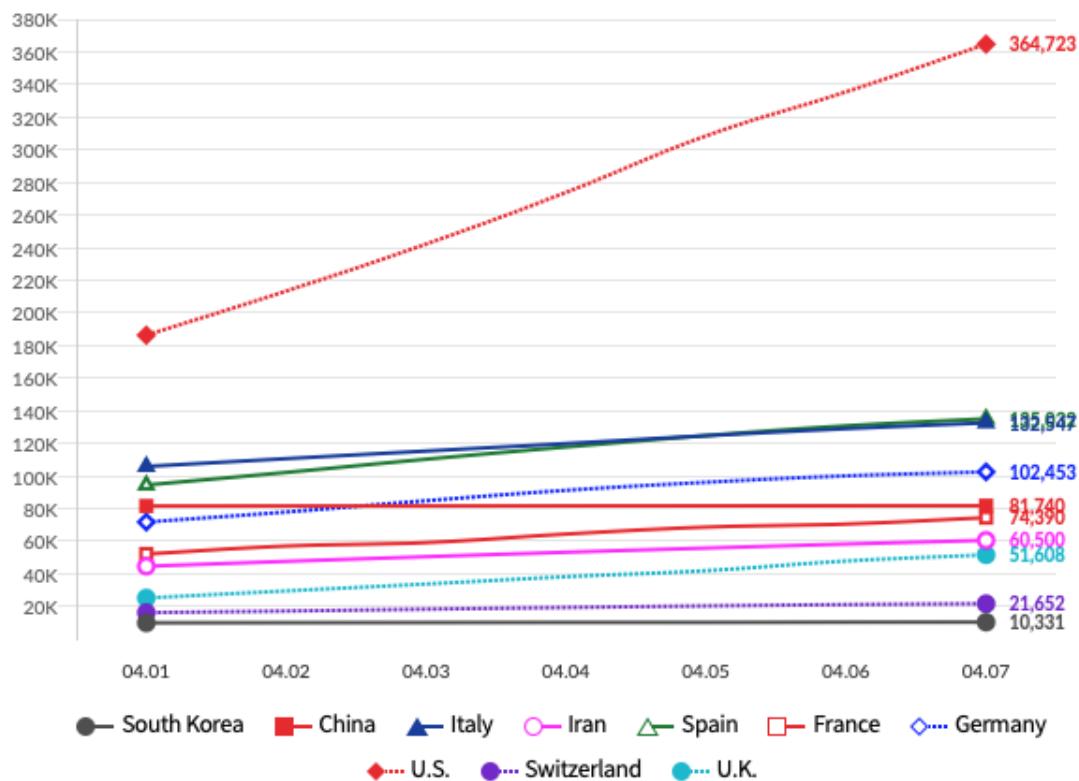


Figure 53. Confirmed case comparison between South Korea and other countries. Source, http://ncov.mohw.go.kr/en/bdBoardList.do?brdId=16&brdGubun=161&dataGubun=&ncvContSeq=&contSeq=&board_id=

Daily and Cumulative Number of Confirmed Cases

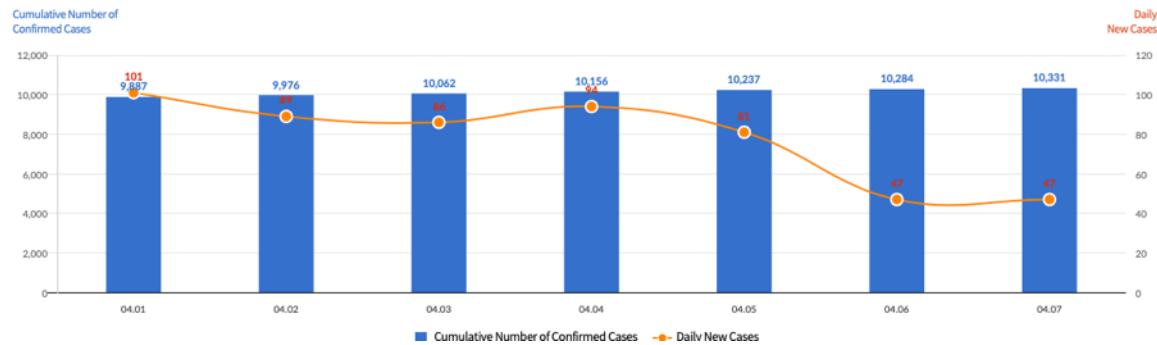


Figure 54. Daily and confirmed cases in South Korea and other countries. Source, http://ncov.mohw.go.kr/en/bdBoardList.do?brdId=16&brdGubun=161&dataGubun=&ncvContSeq=&contSeq=&board_id=

South Korea's success is due to extensive testing, contact tracing, isolation, and the use of apps.

Extensive Testing, Tracing and Isolation

As of April 10th 2020, 20,000 people a day at 633 testing sites nationwide are being tested.

A key part of this testing is to find and isolate asymptomatic carriers and trace their contacts.

Close contacts of carriers are ordered to self-quarantine for 2 weeks. A local monitoring team calls twice daily to make sure the quarantined stay in one place, and to ask about symptoms. Quarantine violators face up to \$2500 fines and there are plans to introduce higher fines and as much as a year in jail^{lxxi}.

Smartphone Apps

A smartphone app Corona 100m, provides GPS maps to track the infection's spread. The Government was able to use citizens' cell phones to not only track but send warnings, like 'watch out, there's a COVID-19 patient 100m away from you.'

One significant trade off South Korea has had to make is between public health and civil liberties. Not just the restriction of movement but also the erosion of privacy. That said, the Corona 100m app gets 20,000 downloads every hour^{lxxii}.



Figure 55. The South Korean Corona 100m app. Source <https://www.businessinsider.com/coronavirus-south-korea-photos-apps-location-outbreak-where-2020-3?r=US&IR=T>

Top 5 Policy Considerations

As we have stated, choosing the right policies is complex and highly dependent on local contexts. However, it is possible to make reasonable inferences from what we currently

know, and use these inferences to suggest a general set of considerations that policy makers should explore.

The key lesson is that countries that have acted faster and more thoroughly have seen lower rates of infection and deaths. We suggest, therefore, that policy makers thoroughly read the Policy Levers section and consider the following, with a view to taking prompt action:

- Movement restrictions including isolating vulnerable people
- Implementing social distancing
- Public Health campaigns, particularly on social distancing and hand washing
- Preparing for rapid increase of the virus
- Comprehensive testing

Potential Exit Routes

When restrictions are applied to the entire population economies recede because everyone is subject to the same rules which means that non-essential workers are unable to work or have their work disrupted.

At the same time, if movement restrictions work, then the majority of the population remain in the Susceptible category – ie they remain vulnerable to becoming infected. Relaxing movement restrictions without vaccination or herd immunity then can lead to wave upon wave of infections.

But there are potential exit routes out of this. One such approach could be to progress from strict social distancing which effectively treats everyone as a subset of 1, to a more segmented approach.

Here, for example the vulnerable, say the over 70s and those with high risk underlying health conditions, are quarantined. Those infected with the disease would be quarantined. The rest of the population – those who are either susceptible or have recovered - are allowed to mix.

Keeping the vulnerable isolated can help ICU departments work within their capacity. Eventually, as people move from the Infected set to the ‘Susceptible and Recovered’ group the Infected set reduces in size. At some point in the future – potentially 18 months after the start of the pandemic – an effective vaccination becomes available, and with mass vaccination, testing and app-based control of movement, the disease becomes manageable at a global scale.

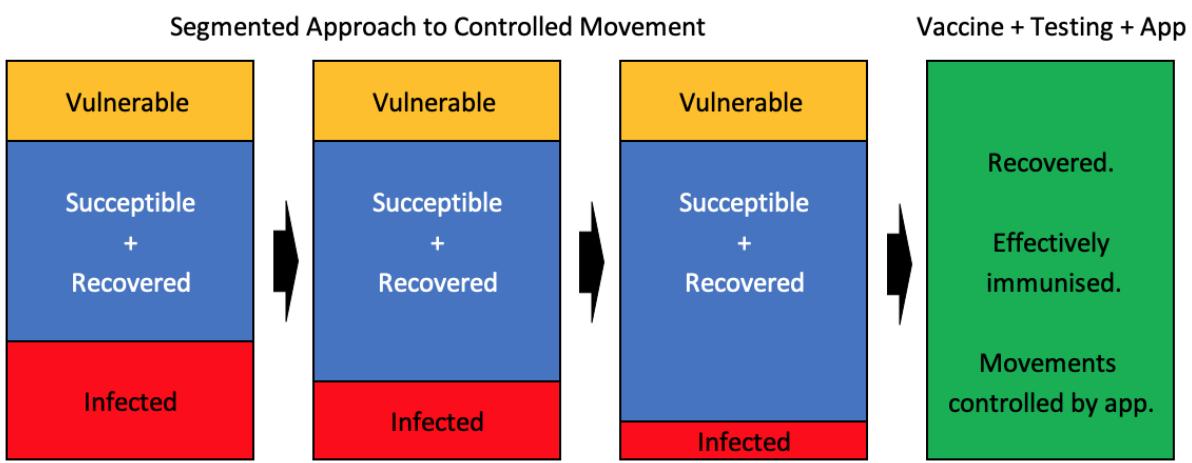


Figure 56. A segmented approach to controlled movements using testing and technology could provide a way to loosen restrictions before an effective suite of measures can be taken to control the virus

There are of course significant assumptions and requirements with this approach.

Firstly, there's the assumption that those who are infected fully recover and have full immunity thereafter. As things currently stand, we don't know, but early signs from small animal experiments are reassuring^{lxviii}.

Secondly, there is an assumption that controlled movement is effective enough to avoid surges in healthcare and ICU demands. This clearly requires the vulnerable, infected and susceptible to be completely isolated from each other. In the UK, 1.5m of the most vulnerable people have been asked to self-isolate for at least 12 weeks^{lxix}.

Thirdly, there is a requirement testing, technology, contact tracing and isolation processes to be in place.

Using Apps

In the UK, a mobile phone app that alerts people if they have recently been in contact with someone testing positive for COVID-19 is being considered as a component in limiting social distancing.

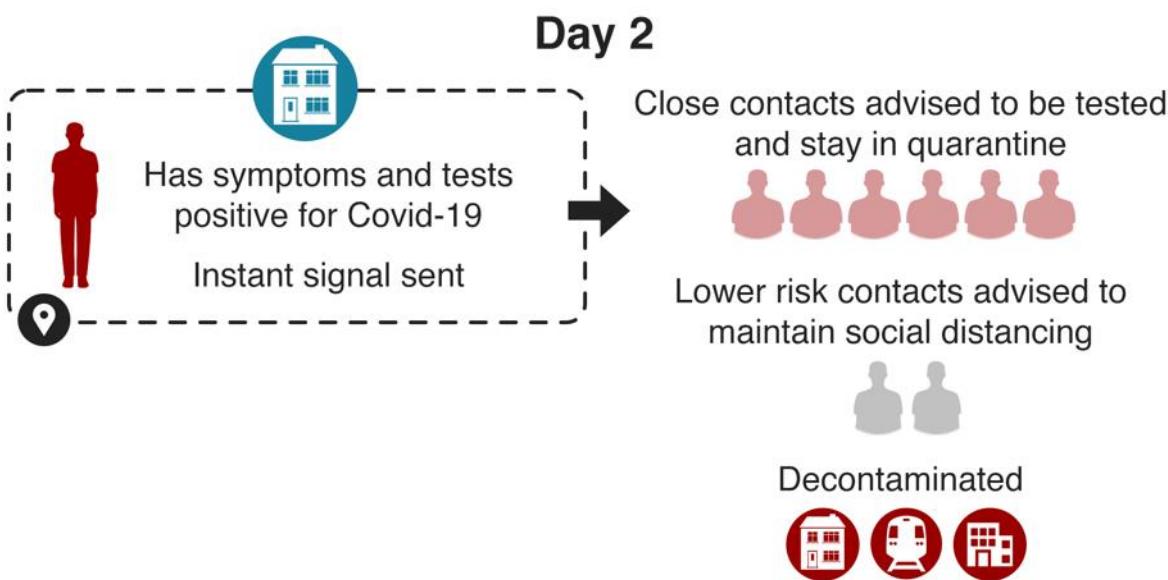
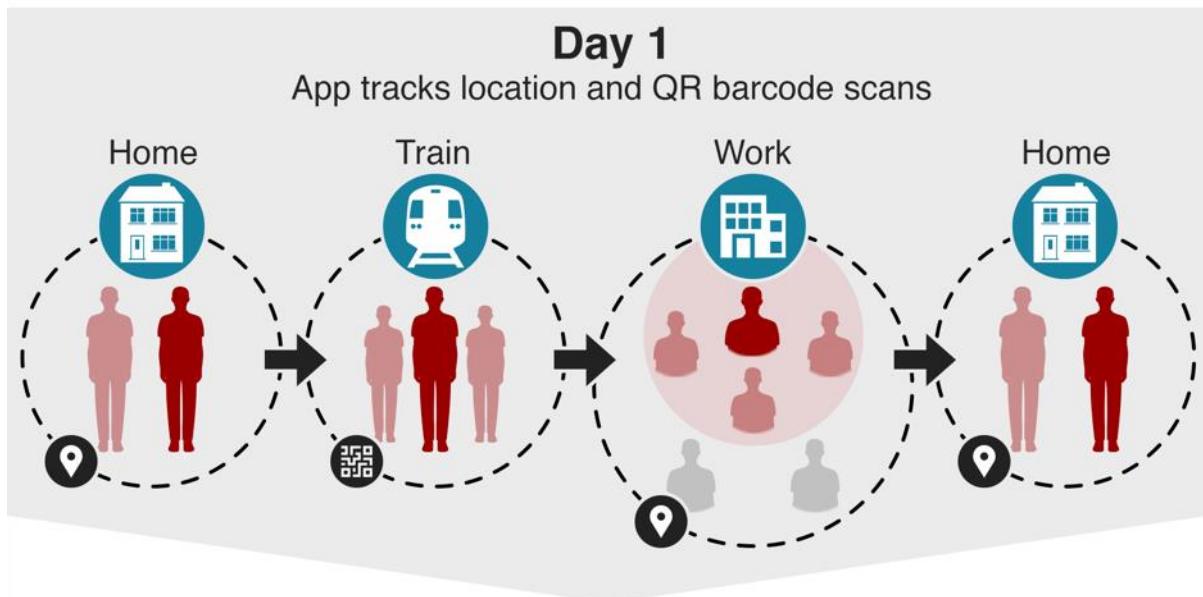
Such an app would use people's GPS location data as they move about their daily lives. If a person starts feeling ill, they could use the app to request a home test. And if it comes back positive for Covid-19, then an instant signal would be sent to everyone they had been in close contact with over recent days.

Those people would be advised to self-isolate for a fortnight, but would not be told who had triggered the warning.

How the app would track coronavirus contacts



Has Covid-19, but is unaware as has no symptoms



Source: Oxford University

BBC

Figure 57. How an anonymised tracking app could work. Source, <https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/technology-52095331>

The World After COVID-19

Predicting what the world after COVID-19 will be like is going to be extremely difficult for anyone.

The best most of us can do is consider a list of questions such as:

- Will COVID-19 lead to a return to faith in serious experts?
- Are we going to see an acceleration of the digital world including telemedicine, teleschooling, and increasing use of VR?
- What will be the effects of COVID-19 on globalisation?
- Will Europe and America's slow and haphazard response, accelerate the shift of global influence from the West to the East?
- Will governments become more intrusive and controlling after COVID-19 has been brought under control?
- Will COVID-19 bring about a realisation that GDP growth is not the most important aim for governments to have
- How will COVID-19 affect our efforts to tackle climate change, and sustainability issues such as biodiversity?
- Can we stop this from happening again, and if so how?

Governing the World After COVID-19

Few of today's political leaders have ever faced anything like a pandemic and its economic fallout. Beyond dealing effectively with the current emergency, the world after COVID-19 is going to require creative, strong and focussed governance from state to global levels.

Factors that governments are going to need to consider include:

- Local and international co-operation to manage the economic recessions and preventing the collapse of financial systems
- Dealing with mass unemployment
- Reskilling the workforce
- Rebuilding depleted health-care capacity
- Supporting citizens' mental health and alleviating poverty
- Countering the legacy of the rise in COVID-19 related crime, particularly cybercrime

But there are also opportunities open to governments and citizens to build or rebuild trust, drive innovation, and rethink what kind of country they want to live in.

Coming Together

The world is coming together to fight COVID-19.

SARS-CoV-2 doesn't carry a passport or recognise frontiers but cooperation between nations is in abundance in combating the epidemic. The level of free sharing of research, knowledge and skills across the world is staggering, and this course is an example of people from different parts of the world unselfishly pooling their knowledge and sharing their precious time and energy to help others understand this subject.

COVID-19 will make us realise that people are not islands. Infectious disease is a salutary reminder of our interconnectedness. It might even help us to recover a sense of society. We might even get to know our neighbours better.

COVID-19 has encouraged altruism. The UK's NHS call for volunteers resulted in an army of 750k people signing up in just 5 days. Elderly shopping slots, singing with your neighbours, clapping the health service, and decreases in pollution are among the positive effects.

We might even find out that our local woods are more beautiful than foreign beaches, and that local farmers grow better and cheaper food than that which is shipped across the globe.

It may remind us of some neglected constituencies. Mortality and serious illness are far higher among the old, and those suffering from other diseases. The epidemic should remind us that the young and healthy are not the only stakeholders.

It may make future pandemics less likely. The lessons learned from COVID-19 should make us more realistic about the dangers of viruses crossing the barriers between species. Much has been learned about the containment and mitigation of infectious disease.

It might make us more aware of our vulnerabilities, and that might make us humbler and less presumptuous.

Whilst the subject matter of this course is, naturally, serious and sometimes hard-hitting, we very much hope that you have enjoyed the learning, and that you feel better equipped to deal with a world that will be dominated by COVID-19 and its effects for a long time yet.

Exercise 6

Discuss the following:

1. What are the different ways of exiting COVID-19 lock-downs and what are their relative merits? Use the following source to help shape your arguments:
<https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/health-52183295>

2. With citations, historical comparison and supporting statistics, what positive and negative long-term impacts do you think COVID-19 will have on i) your country ii) the world?

Checkpoint 6

1. The inflection point has been reached when
 - The number of new daily cases starts to fall
 - The cumulative number of cases starts to fall
 - When the number of people infected in a population is at its minimum
 - When everyone has recovered from the infection
 - The number of people of infected people in a population is at its peak**
2. Which of the following is not a factor that determines the spread and effect of a pandemic in a country
 - Population size
 - Degree of industrialisation**
 - Urbanisation
 - Demographics
 - Healthcare factors such as physicians, and hospital beds per capita
3. 27 days after South Korea intervened in the spread of COVID-19, they increased their doubling time to __ days
 - 42
 - 64
 - 65**
 - 19
 - 29
4. South Korea's success in managing COVID-19 is due to
 - An excellent public health system
 - Extensive testing, contact tracing, isolation, and the use of apps**
 - Strong enforcement of social distancing rules
 - The use of apps
 - Using phone-based GPS and heavy fines to ensure infected people stay at home
5. A smartphone app used extensively in South Korea is called
 - COVID-trace
 - Infected-x
 - Safe-distance
 - i-Antibody
 - Corona 100m**
6. Which of the following is not a priority recommended consideration for policy makers
 - Movement restrictions including isolating vulnerable people
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 - Immediate testing of just the most vulnerable**
 - Public Health campaigns, particularly on social distancing and hand washing
 - Preparing for rapid increase of the virus

7. If widespread lockdown is ended abruptly without widespread vaccination or control measures is likely to result in

- A decline in new infections
- More people moving from the infection set into the recovered set
- A new outbreak in infections**
- Widespread social disorder
- Disruption of supply chains

8. A smartphone app could be a key tool in phasing-out lockdown because it could be used to

- Pass on public information messages
- Enable people to discuss their experiences of COVID-19
- Alert and advise people who have been in close contact with an infected person**
- Establish an online market for pandemic fighting equipment
- Name those people who are infected, so others stay away from them

9. An app could be part of a strategy to

- Control small groups of people
- Limit social interaction
- Control large groups of people
- Take a segmented and phased approach to controlling movements**
- Ensure people don't wander too far from their homes

10. When the UK government called for people to help the National Health Service, _____ people volunteered

- 300000
- 750000**
- 250000
- 220000
- 280000

Answers to Questions

Checkpoint 1

1. Which of the following is not a necessary feature of living things

- Growth
- Reproduction
- Central nervous system**
- Cells
- Genes

2. What is the basic unit of life?

- DNA
- RNA
- The cell**
- Ribosomes
- Proteins

3. Which of the following are not features of cells

- Nucleus
- Nerves**
- DNA
- RNA
- Proteins

4. Which of the following are not features of viruses

- RNA
- DNA
- Antibodies**
- Membranes
- Proteins

5. Which of the following two features does the SARS-CoV-2 virus have

- RNA**
- Brain
- Antibodies
- Spikes**
- DNA

6. How does a virus replicate?

- The same way as a human cell
- By injecting its own genetic codes into a cell's nucleus**
- By finding proteins, so that it can create copies of itself

By mutating
By first creating ribosomes

7. How Does SARS-CoV-2 Make Us Ill

By giving people a temperature
Attacking the nervous system
Attacking muscles
A combination infection and inflammation
Giving people a cough

8. The immune system keeps a record of every pathogen our bodies have ever defeated with

DNA
RNA
Red blood cells
Antibodies
White blood cells known as memory cells

9. What is the range of the incubation period of COVID-19?

1 to 5 days
5 to 14 days
2 to 14 days
1 to 14 days
1 to 7 days

10. With what rate of growth would SARS-CoV-spread if it was left unchecked

Logistic
Exponential
Intermittent
Incremental
Linear

11. What is R_0 for the SARS-CoV-2 given by Imperial College's used in our analysis of the spread of SARS-CoV-2?

2
5
3.5
6
2.4

12. Based on data from China, what percentage of infected people become severely ill?

20%
6%
14%
80%
17%

Checkpoint 2

1. What has caused the most premature deaths among the humans

- Heart attacks
- Wars
- Viruses, bacteria and parasites
- Earthquakes and volcanoes
- Meteorites

2. The 1918 flu virus infected every _____ people on the planet

- 2 in 3
- 1 in 50
- 1 in 100
- 1 in 3
- 4 in 6

3. The pandemic of 2009 was called

- AIDS
- Smallpox
- H1N1
- SARS
- MERS

3. Which of the following is not likely to be a factor in a COVID-19 patient dying from it?

- Age
- Underlying health conditions
- Gender
- Test results
- Ethnicity

4. Which three factors in the history of human development affected the increase of pandemics

- Wider knowledge about the viruses
- Widespread trade
- Development of new vaccines
- Urbanisation
- Increased contact with different populations of people, animals, and ecosystems

5. The main problem to health services posed by COVID-19 is

- Lack of drugs
- A wave of additional demands that can exceed capacity
- Lack of trained staff
- Lack of equipment
- Lack of intensive care beds

6. What could make the most significant positive long-term impact on health services

- More money
- More ambulances
- Drugs to treat the disease
- A vaccine
- More ICU beds

7. What extra time-taking task do ambulance services have to undertake during the COVID-19 pandemic

- Commission more ambulances
- Train more drivers
- Prioritising COVID-19 cases
- Disinfecting ambulance
- Handle more oxygen cylinders

8. Which of the following is not a direct effect of COVID-19 on society

- Panic buying and stockpiling
- Shortages of clean drinking water
- Reductions in the use of public transportation
- Unemployment
- Shortages of cleaning products

9. By April 2020, which of the following industries have been hardest hit by the pandemic

- Mining
- Agriculture
- Utilities – e.g. energy and water
- Digital services
- Travel & Tourism

10. Which two economic scenarios were presented as possibly in April 2020, McKinsey and Company

- Expansion
- Delayed recovery
- Peak
- Prolonged contraction
- Trough

Checkpoint 3

1. How are viruses weakened and made harmless before they are put into the vaccines

Destroying the virus' genes

- Removing its spikes
- Weakening its protein
- Destroying its outer membrane
- Disrupting the virus' amino acids

2. Harmless viruses in a vaccine are known as

Antibody
White blood cell
Pathogen
Antigen
Microbe

3. A vaccine works against a pathogen by
- Causing the body to develop white blood cells
 - Boosting the immune system
- Training the immune system to recognize and combat pathogens**
- Triggering an inflammatory response
 - Causing the body to develop white blood cells

4. There is a chance that a vaccine for SARS-CoV-2 could take less time to develop than for other vaccines because
- Computers can speed up the development process
 - Lots of companies are working on a SARS-CoV-2 vaccine
- Vaccines have already been developed for other Coronaviruses**
- Data is being shared on vaccine development
 - Shortcuts to testing have been found

5. Antibiotics work against viruses because viruses
- Are structured differently to the bacteria which antibiotics are designed to kill**
 - Are too small for antibiotics
 - Have tough outer shells
 - Have evolved defensive mechanisms to defend themselves against antibiotics
 - Have membranes made out of lipids

6. Antiviral drugs target
- The virus' spikes
 - Viral proteins**
 - Genes
 - The virus' envelope
 - RNA

7. The advantage of using existing drugs on COVID-19 is
- Cheaper than developing new drugs from scratch
 - They have already undergone clinical trials which take a lot of time**
 - They are proven to be effective on other diseases
 - COVID-19 can be effectively treated with a wide variety of drugs
 - They are already in stock in hospitals

8. Soap effectively kills the SARS-CoV-19 virus because
- Soap kills bacteria
 - Soap is made of pin-shaped molecules that pierce the virus' outer membrane
 - Soap molecules have a head that is attracted to water
- SARS-CoV-2 has a lipid membrane which soap molecules destroy**

Soap molecules have tails that are attracted to oils and fats

9. Which of the following kinds of masks will filter-out SARS-CoV-2 viruses in microscopic droplets (select all that apply)

Surgical masks

FPP2

FFP3

N95

Visors

10. A ventilator is used to

Ensure the patient has fresh air

Maintain the right levels of oxygen and CO₂ in a patient's blood

Support kidney functions

Keep the patient cool

Reduce uric acid levels in the blood

Checkpoint 4

1. What is the most controversial method of dealing with a virus

Lockdown

Social distancing

Travel restrictions

Herd immunity

Public health campaigns

2. Herd immunity without vaccine in the COVID-19 pandemic is controversial because:

Not everyone in the population will become immune

There is no research to support the policy

The capacity of health services likely to be exceeded

It does not give a high level of individual protection

It requires everyone to take untested drugs

3. Before drugs and vaccines are available, governments have to use

Lockdown

Social distancing

Travel restrictions

Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions

Public health campaigns

4. Which of the following are two the main types of strategies that can be pursued by governments

Social distancing

Suppression

Travel restrictions

Mitigation

Public health campaigns

5. Which of the following is not a policy lever that governments can use
 - Preparation for an increase in cases
 - Social distancing of entire population
 - Closure of schools and universities, and non-essential businesses
 - Enforcing policy**
 - Isolation of Vulnerable People
6. What does contract tracing mean
 - Finding the people who are least at risk so they can be released from lockdown
 - Finding and testing people who may have come into contact with an infected person**
 - Finding people who are susceptible to becoming infected
 - Isolating the most vulnerable people
 - Finding those people who have recovered so they can return to work
7. The exponential rate that pandemics rise means that early _____ leads to lower numbers of early-stage infections
 - Increases to hospital capacity
 - Testing, contact tracing, isolating, and social distancing**
 - Focus on drug development
 - Increase in ambulance services
 - Sharing of test data
8. Social distancing means
 - Closing bars
 - Reducing contact outside households**
 - Stopping crowd of more than 50 people
 - Closing theatres
 - Keeping away from COVID-19 hotspots
9. Which of the following messages would be good to have in a public health campaign.
Select all that apply
 - COVID-19 is a national emergency**
 - Stay home**
 - Keep calm and carry on
 - Wash your hands thoroughly with soap**
 - Clean your doorknobs and surfaces at home**
10. Choosing the right policy so hard because
 - It's difficult to balance preventing infection and keeping the economy running**
 - People don't like being 'locked-down'
 - Enforcing social distancing is difficult
 - Beating the disease requires intrusions into people's privacy
 - Fake news and extreme views influence public opinion

Exercise 5, Modelling

1. Open “COVID 19 Demystified Course Models.xlsx” and go to the “Time Series Cumulative” tab.
 - i) Change the linear growth rate from 2.4 to 1. What is the number of cases when $x = 20$ days? **(20)**
 - ii) Change the linear growth rate to 10. What is the number of cases when $x = 20$ days? **(191)**
2. Open the worksheet entitled “Exponential”
 - i) Change the exponential growth rate to 1.5. What is the number of cases at $x = 20$ **(3,325)**
 - ii) Change the exponential growth rate to 3. What is the number of cases at $x = 20$ **(3,486,784,401)**
3. Open the worksheet entitled “Double Time”
 - i) Change the doubling time in days in cell M3 from 3 to 4. What are the total number of cases at $x = 31$ **(181)**
 - ii) How does this compare with $M3 = 3$? **(1024-181 = 843)**
4. Open the worksheet entitled “ICU need vs capacity”
Change the growth factor in cell B1 from 3 to 2.5. By what factor is capacity exceeded by demand **(10.5. 1000 capacity, 10,490 demand)**
5. Open the worksheet entitled “SIR $\beta = 0.3$ and $\beta = 0.77$ ”
 - i) Change the values for I in cells K8 and L8 and to 0.5 and 1.
 - ii) Change the names of the features in cells C5 and F5 from $\beta=0.3$ and $\beta=0.77$ to $\beta=0.5$ and $\beta=1$.
 - iii) How many days does it take to reach the inflection point for $\beta=0.5$ **(26)**
 - iv) How many days does it take to reach the inflection point for $\beta=1$ **(14)**
 - v) What does this tell us? **(The higher the rate that susceptible people get infected/day, the faster the pandemic reaches the inflection point).**

Checkpoint 5

1. Why should policy makers use mathematical models
 - To make international comparisons
 - To predict the likely outcomes from different interventions**
 - Keep the public informed
 - Work out when to purchase extra equipment
 - To estimate how many people will die
2. Which of the following two answers are true for R_0
 - The number of cases an infected person will cause**
 - The number of infected people
 - The expected number of infected people after one month
 - The number of hospitalized cases

Infection rate divided by recovery rate

3. Which of the following is used to test if a patient has had COVID-19
 - LAMP
 - PCR
 - Antibody testing**
 - White blood cell count
 - Antigen testing
4. Which of the following two methods are used to test if a patient currently has COVID-19
 - Pathogen tests
 - White blood cell count
 - LAMP**
 - Antigen testing
 - PCR**
5. A sample space is
 - All the samples used in mass testing
 - The set of all possible outcomes that could occur in an experiment or simulation**
 - Where samples are stored
 - A database used for storing patient data
 - Where samples are brought for analysis
6. A time series graph
 - Shows a series of events in a timeline
 - Represents the relationship between a variable and time**
 - Is used for project planning
 - Shows when key events need to happen
 - Plots the ratio of confirmed cases to hospital admissions
7. In exponential growth, new cases grow
 - Slowly at first but soon grow very quickly**
 - Very quickly from the start
 - Quickly then plateau and remain steady
 - In a linear pattern
 - In a chaotic way
8. Doubling time is a measure of how long it takes for
 - Daily new cases to double
 - Hospitals to reach full capacity
 - The total number of cases to double**
 - One country to have twice the number of cases than another country
 - Health services to become overwhelmed
9. What two answers below describe R_0
 - The expected number of infected people after one month
 - The number of cases an infected person will cause**

The number of infected people
The number of hospitalized cases
Infection rate divided by recovery rate

10. Which policy scenario(s) works best, according to the SIR model that we analysed
- Social distancing
 - Washing hands
 - All policies have the same effect
 - Social distancing + washing hands**
 - Do nothing

Checkpoint 6

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