

# TITLE

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## Abstract

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## 18 Introduction

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## 38 Models and Methods

39 **Data.** We use daily confirmed case data  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_T)$  from several different countries. These  
 40 incidence data summarize the number of individuals  $X_t$  tested positive for SARS-CoV-2 RNA (using  
 41 RT-qPCR) at each day  $t$ . Data was retrieved for  $X$  regions, see Table 1 for details and references. In  
 42 regions in which there were multiple sequences of days with zero confirmed cases (e.g. France), we  
 43 cropped the data to begin with the last sequence so that our analysis focuses on the first community-  
 44 transmitted outbreak rather than isolated imported cases.

Region	Start date	End date	Reference
Austria	X Feb		Flaxman et al. <sup>1</sup>
Wuhan, China	10 Jan	8 Feb	Pei and Shaman <sup>5</sup>

Table 1: Reference for confirmed cases incidence data. All dates in 2020.

45 **SEIR model.** We model SARS-CoV-2 infection dynamics by following the number of susceptible  
 46  $S$ , exposed  $E$ , reported infected  $I_r$ , and unreported infected  $I_u$  individuals in a population of size  $N$ .  
 47 This model distinguishes between reported and unreported infected individuals: the reported infected  
 48 are those that have enough symptoms to eventually be tested and thus appear in daily case reports, to  
 49 which we fit the model.

50 Susceptible ( $S$ ) individuals become exposed due to contact with reported or unreported infected  
 51 individuals ( $I_r$  or  $I_u$ ) at a rate  $\beta_t$  or  $\mu\beta_t$ . The parameter  $0 < \mu < 1$  represents the decreased transmission  
 52 rate from unreported infected individuals, who are often subclinical or even asymptomatic. The  
 53 transmission rate  $\beta_t \geq 0$  may change over time  $t$  due to behavioral changes of both susceptible and  
 54 infected individuals. Exposed individuals, after an average incubation period of  $Z$  days, become  
 55 reported infected with probability  $\alpha_t$  or unreported infected with probability  $(1 - \alpha_t)$ . The reporting  
 56 rate  $0 < \alpha_t < 1$  may also change over time due to changes in human behavior. Infected individuals  
 57 remain infectious for an average period of  $D$  days, after which they either recover, or becomes ill  
 58 enough to be quarantined. They therefore no longer infect other individuals, and the model does not  
 59 track their frequency. The model is described by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{dS}{dt} &= -\beta_t S \frac{I_p}{N} - \mu\beta_t S \frac{I_s}{N} \\
 \frac{dE}{dt} &= \beta_t S \frac{I_p}{N} + \mu\beta_t S \frac{I_s}{N} - \frac{E}{Z} \\
 \frac{dI_r}{dt} &= \alpha_t \frac{E}{Z} - \frac{I_r}{D} \\
 \frac{dI_u}{dt} &= (1 - \alpha_t) \frac{E}{Z} - \frac{I_r}{D}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

61 The initial numbers of exposed  $E(0)$  and unreported infected  $I_u(0)$  are considered model parameters,  
 62 whereas the initial number of reported infected is assumed to be zero  $I_r(0) = 0$ , and the number of  
 63 susceptible is  $S(0) = N - E(0) - I_u(0)$ . The vector  $\theta$  of model parameters is

$$\theta = \left( Z, D, \mu, \{\beta_t\}, \{\alpha_t\}, \{p_t\}, E(0), I_u(0) \right). \tag{2}$$

65 This model is inspired by Li et al.<sup>4</sup> and Pei and Shaman<sup>5</sup>, who used a similar model with multiple  
 66 regions and constant transmission  $\beta$  and reporting rate  $\alpha$  to infer COVID-19 dynamics in China and  
 67 the continental US, respectively.

68 **Likelihood function.** The *expected* cumulative number of reported infected individuals until day  $t$   
 69 is

$$70 \quad Y_t = \int_0^t \alpha_s \frac{E(s)}{Z} ds, \quad Y_0 = 0. \quad (3)$$

We assume that reported infected individuals are confirmed and therefore observed in the daily case report of day  $t$  with probability  $p_t$  (note that an individual can only be observed once, and that  $p_t$  may change over time, but  $t$  is a specific date rather than the time elapsed since the individual was infected). Hence, we assume that the number of confirmed cases in day  $t$  is binomially distributed,

$$X_t \sim \text{Bin}(n_t, p_t),$$

where  $n_t$  is the *realized* (rather than expected) number of reported infected individuals yet to appear in daily reports by day  $t$ . The cumulative number of confirmed cases until day  $t$  is

$$\tilde{X}_t = \sum_{i=1}^t X_i, \quad X_0 = 0.$$

Given  $\tilde{X}_{t-1}$ , we assume  $n_t$  is Poisson distributed,

$$(n_t \mid \tilde{X}_{t-1}) \sim \text{Poi}(Y_t - \tilde{X}_{t-1}), \quad n_1 \sim \text{Poi}(Y_1).$$

71 Therefore,  $(X_t \mid \tilde{X}_{t-1})$  is a binomial conditioned on a Poisson, which reduces to a Poisson with

$$72 \quad (X_t \mid \tilde{X}_{t-1}) \sim \text{Poi}((Y_t - \tilde{X}_{t-1}) \cdot p_t), \quad X_1 \sim \text{Poi}(Y_1 \cdot p_1). \quad (4)$$

73 For given vector  $\theta$  of model parameters (Eq. (2)), we compute the expected cumulative number  
 74 of reported infected individuals  $\{Y_t\}_{t=1}^T$  for each day (Eq. (3)). Then, since  $\tilde{X}_{t-1}$  is a function of  
 75  $X_1, \dots, X_{t-1}$ , we can use Eq. (4) to write the probability to observe the confirmed case data  $\mathbf{X} =$   
 76  $(X_1, \dots, X_T)$  as

$$77 \quad \mathbb{L}(\theta \mid \mathbf{X}) = P(\mathbf{X} \mid \theta) = P(X_1 \mid \theta) P(X_2 \mid \tilde{X}_1, \theta) \cdots P(X_T \mid \tilde{X}_{T-1}, \theta). \quad (5)$$

78 This defines a *likelihood function*  $\mathbb{L}(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})$  for the parameter vector  $\theta$  given the data  $\mathbf{X}$ .

79 **NPI model.** To model non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs), we set the beginning of the NPIs  
 80 to day  $\tau$  and define

$$81 \quad \beta_t = \begin{cases} \beta, & t < \tau \\ \beta\lambda, & t \geq \tau \end{cases}, \quad \alpha_t = \begin{cases} \alpha_1, & t < \tau \\ \alpha_2, & t \geq \tau \end{cases}, \quad p_t = \begin{cases} 1/9, & t < \tau \\ 1/6, & t \geq \tau \end{cases}, \quad (6)$$

82 where  $0 < \lambda < 1$ . The values for  $p_t$  follow Li et al.<sup>4</sup>, who estimated the average time between infection  
 83 and reporting in Wuhan, China, at 9 days before the start of NPIs (Jan 23, 2020) and 6 days after start  
 84 of NPIs. The parameter  $\tau$  is then added to the parameter vector  $\theta$  (Eq. (2)).

85 **Model fitting.** To fit our model (Eq. (1)) to the data  $\mathbf{X}$  and estimate the model parameters  $\theta$ , we apply  
 86 a Bayesian inference approach. We define the following flat priors on the model parameters  $P(\theta)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z &\sim \text{Uniform}(2, 5) \\
 D &\sim \text{Uniform}(2, 5) \\
 \mu &\sim \text{Uniform}(0.2, 1) \\
 \beta &\sim \text{Uniform}(0.8, 1.5) \\
 \lambda &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1) \\
 \alpha_1, \alpha_2 &\sim \text{Uniform}(0.02, 1) \\
 E(0) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 3000) \\
 I_u(0) &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 3000) \\
 \tau &\sim \text{Uniform}(1, T - 1),
 \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

88 where  $T$  is the number of days in the data  $\mathbf{X}$ . Most priors follow Li et al.<sup>4</sup>, except  $\lambda$ , which is used to  
 89 enforce that the transmission rates are lower after the start of the NPIs ( $\lambda < 1$ ). The likelihood function  
 90 is defined in Eq. (5). The posterior distribution on the model parameters  $P(\theta | \mathbf{X})$  is then estimated  
 91 using an affine-invariant ensemble sampler for Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) implemented in  
 92 the `emcee` Python package<sup>2</sup>.

93 **Model selection.** We perform model selection using DIC (deviance information criterion)<sup>6</sup>,

$$\begin{aligned}
 DIC(\theta, \mathbf{X}) &= 2\mathbb{E}[D(\theta)] - D(\mathbb{E}[\theta]) \\
 &= 2\log \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{E}[\theta] | \mathbf{X}) - 4\mathbb{E}[\log \mathcal{L}(\theta | \mathbf{X})],
 \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

95 where  $D(\theta)$  is the Bayesian deviance, and expectations  $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$  are taken over the posterior distribution  
 96  $P(\theta | \mathbf{X})$ . We compare models by reporting their relative DIC; lower is better.

## 97 Results

98 Several studies have described the effects of non-pharmaceutical interventions in several countries<sup>1,3,4</sup>.  
 99 These studies have assumed that the parameters of the epidemiological model change at a specific  
 100 date, as in Eq. (6), and set the change date  $\tau$  to the official NPI date  $\tau^*$ . They then fit the model once  
 101 for  $t < \tau^*$  and once for  $t \geq \tau^*$  (see **TABLE2** for a summary of official NPI dates.) For example, Li  
 102 et al.<sup>4</sup> estimate the dynamics in China before and after  $\tau^*$  at Jan 23. Thereby, they effectively estimate  
 103  $(\beta, \alpha_1)$  and  $(\lambda, \alpha_2)$  separately.

104 Here we estimate the posterior distribution of *effective* start date of the NPI,  $P(\tau | \mathbf{X})$ , as well as  
 105 maximum a priori (MAP) estimates,  $\hat{\tau}$ , by jointly estimating  $\tau, \beta, \lambda, \alpha_1, \alpha_2$  on the entire time series  
 106 per region (e.g. Italy, Austria), rather than splitting the region time series at  $\tau^*$ . In all examined cases  
 107 the effect of an NPI is significant: the DIC of a model without NPI ( $\beta_t \equiv \beta, \alpha_t \equiv \alpha, p_t \equiv p$  for all  $t$ )  
 108 was higher than the DIC of a model with NPI (Eq. (6)) by at least **Z**. Therefore, **FIGURE** compares  
 109 the official dates  $\tau^*$  and our MAP estimates  $\hat{\tau}$ , with confidence intervals. It can be seen that in most  
 110 regions  $\hat{\tau}$  and  $\tau^*$  differ significantly: that is, the effective start of NPI was either advanced or delayed  
 111 compared to the official date. **Do we want to report DIC of model with  $\tau$  compared to model with**  
 112 **fixed  $\tau = \tau^*$ ? Or just that ( $P(\tau \neq \tau^*) > zzz$ ) ? Or confidence intervals?**

113 In the following, we describe our findings on delayed and advanced start of NPI.

114 **Delayed effective start of NPI.** We find that our MAP estimates  $\hat{\tau}$  often differ significantly from the  
 115 official dates  $\tau^*$ . For example, in Italy, the first case officially confirmed on Feb 21, a lockdown was  
 116 delayed in Northern Italy on Mar 8, with social distancing implemented in the rest of the country, and

117 the lockdown was extended to the entire nation on Mar 11<sup>3</sup>. That is, the official date  $\tau^*$  is either Mar  
118 8 or 11. However, we estimate the effective date  $\hat{\tau}$  at Mar 16 (the posterior probability that  $\tau$  is later  
119 than Mar 11 is  $(P(\tau > \tau^*) = ???)$ . Similarly, in Wuhan, China, lockdown was declared on Jan 23<sup>4</sup>, but  
120 we estimate that the effective start of NPIs to be 3-4 days later  $(P(\tau > \tau^*) = ???)$ .

121 **Advanced effective start of NPIs.** In contrast, in some regions we estimate an effective start of  
122 NPIs  $\hat{\tau}$  that is *earlier* than the official date  $\tau^*$ . For example, social distancing was encouraged starting  
123 on Mar 8<sup>1</sup>, but mass gatherings still occurred on Mar 8, including a march of 120,000 people for the  
124 [International Women's Day](#), and a football match between [Real Betis and Real Madrid](#) (2-1) with a  
125 crowd of 50,965 in Seville. A national lockdown was only announced on Mar 14 ( $\tau^*$ )<sup>1</sup>. Nevertheless,  
126 we estimate the effective start of NPI  $\hat{\tau}$  at Mar 8 or 9, rather than Mar 14  $(P(\tau < \tau^*) = ???)$ .

127 **Match between effective and official start of NPI.** We have also found a single case in which the  
128 official and effective dates match: Switzerland ordered a national lockdown on Mar 20 ( $\tau^*$ ), after  
129 banning public events and closing schools on Mar 13 and 14<sup>1</sup>. Indeed, our MAP estimate  $\hat{\tau}$  is Mar 20,  
130 and the posterior distribution shows two density peaks: a smaller one between Mar 10 and Mar 14,  
131 and a taller one between Mar 17 and Mar 22. It's also worth mentioning that Switzerland was the first  
132 to mandate self isolation of confirmed cases<sup>1</sup>.

## 133 Discussion

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151 nonummy in, fermentum faucibus, egestas vel, odio.

152 As several countries (e.g. Austria, Israel) begin to relieve lockdowns and ease restrictions, we  
153 expect similar delays and advances to occur: in some countries people will begin to behave as if  
154 restrictions were eased before the official date, and in some countries people will continue to self-  
155 restrict even after restrictions are officially removed. Such delays and advances could confuse analyses  
156 and lead to wrong conclusions about the effects of NPI removals.

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