

**The effectiveness of eight nonpharmaceutical interventions against COVID-19 in 41 countries.** Jan Markus Brauner, Sören Minderhann, Mrinank Sharma, AnnaB Stephenson, Tomáš Gavenčík, David Johnston, Gavin Leech, John Salvatier, George Altman, Alexander John Norman, Joshua Teperowski Monrad, Tamay Besiroglu, Hong Ge, Vladimir Mikulik, Meghan A. Hartwick, Yee Whye Teh, Leonid Chindelevitch, Yarin Gal, Jan Kulveit  
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This non peer-reviewed preprint article presents the results of a study evaluating the effectiveness of eight nonpharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) for reducing transmission of SARS-CoV-2 in 41 countries.

**QUESTION** The study PICO is as follows;

**P** – 34 European and 7 non-European countries

**I** – 8 Non-pharmaceutical interventions: (1) mandating mask-wearing in (some) public spaces, (2) limiting gatherings to  $\leq 1000$  people, (3) to  $\leq 100$  people, (4) to  $\leq 10$  people, (5) closing some high-risk businesses, (6) closing most non-essential businesses, (7) closing schools and universities and (8) issuing stay-at home orders

**C** – No non-pharmaceutical intervention

**O** – viral transmission

**METHODS** Data on NPI implementation for each country was obtained from internet searches by two independent authors with cross-checking against public datasets and comparison to the extraction of paid contractors. A Bayesian hierarchical model was used to estimate NPI effectiveness by linking NPI implementation dates to national case and death counts (when a country reached 100 confirmed cases and 10 deaths). Case and death data were used to infer the number of new infections at each point in time, which was then used to infer reproduction number (R). Data on generation interval (time between successive infections; Mean 6.67 days) and delay from infection to confirmation (mean 10.35 days) and to death (mean 22.9 days) were entered into the model.

**RESULTS** The largest percentage reductions in reproduction number (R) across countries, was for limiting gatherings to  $\leq 10$  people (36%; 95% credible interval 16%-53%), closing schools and universities (39%; 21%-55%) and closing most nonessential businesses (40%; 22%-55%). Percentage reductions in R for mandating mask-wearing was 2% (95% CI -14%-16%), limiting gatherings to  $\leq 1000$  people 2% (95% CI -20%-22%), to  $\leq 100$  people 21% (95%CI 1%-39%) closing some high-risk businesses 31% (95%CI 13%-46%) and issuing stay-at home orders 18% (95%CI 4%-31%). (Figure 1)

**COMMENTS** The following points were discussed:

–The method for ascertaining NPI implementation information was considered robust. Bias from attrition was difficult to judge – only countries from which sufficient detail of policy implementation could be obtained were included, but once a country was included, all NPIs within that country were evaluated.

- As a non-randomised study, there is potential for factors that may affect viral transmission (other than implementation of the NPIs assessed), to confound the results reported. For example, the estimates of the effect for the evaluated NPIs are not adjusted for the test/trace/quarantine/isolate policies of the country, a key factor affecting transmission.

-The study is estimating the effect of policy decisions rather than actual behaviours.

-The percentage reductions in R presented in Figure 1 are for individual NPIs independent of the other implemented NPIs. However, it is likely the effectiveness of an NPI depends on the context of implementation, including the presence of other NPIs and the order in which they are implemented, and country-specific factors. For example, in all countries in this study, masks were mandated only at a later stage of intervention implementation, when strategies such as limiting gatherings and closing businesses has already occurred. The effects of masks in this context are likely to be minimal. However, when worn in other contexts mask effectiveness may vary from what is seen in this study. As such, the estimates for all of the NPIs reported should be understood to represent the average effectiveness over the contexts in which the NPI is used across the 41 (predominantly European) countries included in the study.

-The NPIs evaluated frequently co-occur (they are collinear). When collinearity is high and the dataset is small, effectiveness estimates are highly sensitive to variations in the data and the model parameters. The study investigators state that while collinearity in this dataset is manageable, it should be taken into consideration when evaluating the combined effects of the NPIs (e.g. when two NPIs are usually implemented together, there may be more certainty about the combined effect than about the effect of the two NPIs individually). Figure 2 shows the combined effectiveness of sets of NPIs. Using a reproduction number of 3.8 (the mean R without any NPIs across the countries included in this study), R maybe reduced to below 1 by closing schools and universities, high-risk businesses and limiting gathering sizes.

**OVERALL SUMMARY** This review addresses an issue of critical importance for informing policy decisions during second waves of SARS-CoV-2 infection and future pandemics. The study contributes useful information on the independent and combined effect of NPIs, but the estimates represent an ‘average’ effect over the contexts in which the NPI was implemented in the dataset and as such, effectiveness is likely to vary according to the context in which an NPI is implemented.

Figure 1: Effectiveness of individual NPIs on reproduction number (R), with description of each NPI

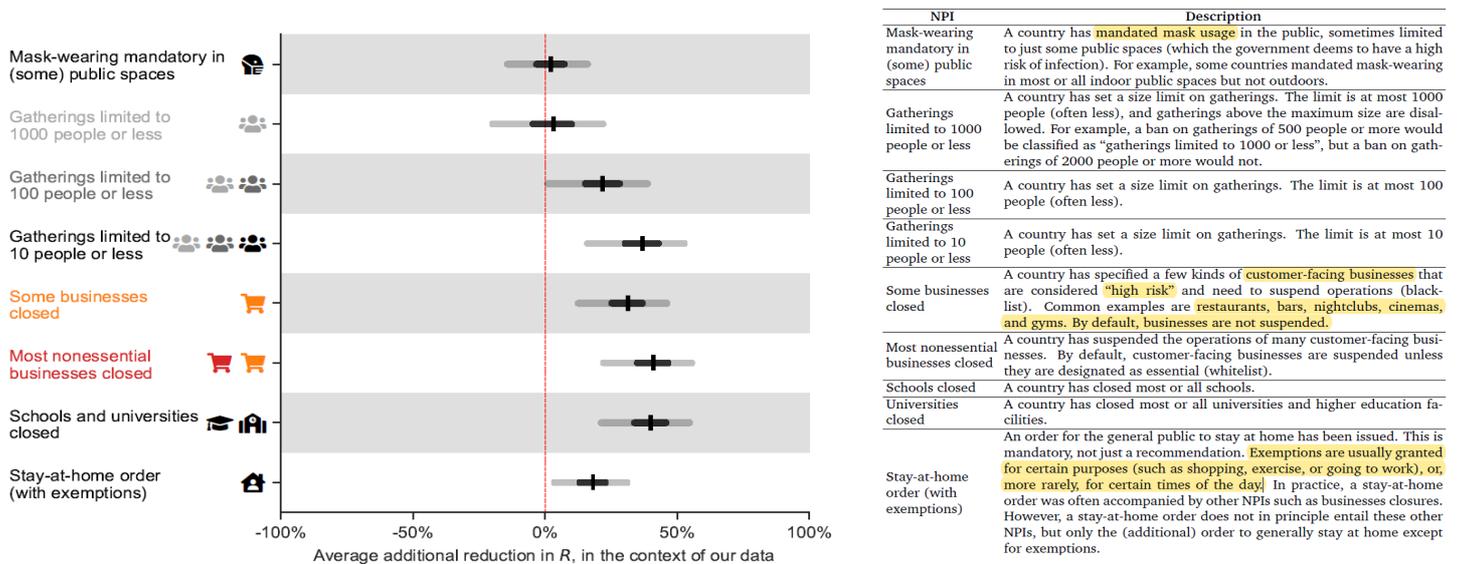


Figure 2: Combined NPI effectiveness for the most common sets of NPIs in the dataset, by size of the NPI set. Shaded areas are 50% and 95% credible intervals. The left panel shows the maximum  $R_0$  that can be reduced to below 1 for each set of NPIs. The right panel shows the predicted  $R$  after implementation of each set of NPIs (from an  $R_0$  of 3.8)

