

The resumption of sports competitions after COVID-19 lockdown: The case of the Spanish football league.

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Abstract

In this work we made use of a stochastic *SEIR Susceptible-Exposed-Infectious-Recovered* model and adapted it conveniently to describe the propagation of COVID-19 during a football tournament. Specifically, we were concerned about the re-start of the Spanish national football league (“*La Liga*”), which is currently stopped with 11 fixtures remaining. Our model included two additional states of an individual, namely, confined and quarantined, which can be reached when an individual has undergone a COVID-19 test with a positive result. The model also accounted for the interaction dynamics of players, considering three different sources of infection: (i) the player social circle, (ii) the interaction with his/her team colleagues during training sessions and (iii) the interaction with rivals during a match. First, we investigated how the time between matches influences the number of players that may be infected at the end of the season. Second, we simulated the effects of increasing the frequency of tests, whose sensitivity was also analyzed. Finally, we discussed different strategies to minimize the probability that COVID-19 propagates in case the season of “*La Liga*” were re-started after the current lockdown.

Keywords: Epidemics, SEIR, COVID-19, Sports

1. Introduction

The propagation of the virus SARS-CoV-2 officially started at the beginning of December 2019 in Wuhan (China), where the first COVID-19 victim was diagnosed with a new type of coronavirus. The virus first spread over different states in China before reaching other countries. On March 11th 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 a pandemic, pointing to more than 118000 cases of the coronavirus illness in over 110 countries around the world [1]. The evolution of the pandemic, which is still affecting many countries worldwide, has been a matter of debate, since different strategies can be adopted to mitigate the spreading of COVID-19, some of them with unclear or unpredictable consequences. Due to the novelty of this unforeseen pandemic, the use of mathematical models is being extremely useful to predict the dynamics of the coronavirus spreading and the effects of different policies on the eventual reduction of the number of affected individuals.

Despite there are different approaches for modeling the pandemics, both continuous-time and discrete-time SIR-based models are probably the most extended approaches. The Susceptible-Infected-Recovered (SIR) model was first proposed by Kermack and McKendrick in 1927 [2] and consists of a compartmental model where individuals are split into three different states: (i) Susceptible (S), when they are sane, (ii) Infected (I), when they have the virus and (iii) Recovered (R). More sophisticated models include more possible states, such as Deceased in the SIRD model [3] or Exposed (E) in the SEIR model. The latter model has been extensively applied to describe the exponential growth of the number of individuals infected by SARS-CoV-2, the effects of quarantine and confinement measures and, ultimately, to evaluate the most adequate way of leaving confinement measures without increasing the risk of a second outbreak [4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10].

In this manuscript, we developed a discrete-time SEIR-type mathematical model that describes the spreading of the coronavirus during a sports competition. The motivation behind our study is that there has been a lively debate about how sports competitions that were not completed before the coronavirus crisis should be re-started or, ultimately, cancelled [11, 12, 13]. However, to the best of our knowledges, this debate has not being confronted with mathematical models that describe the propagation of SARS-CoV-2 between athletes. Here, we are concerned about the eventual re-start of the Spanish national league, which is currently suspended with 11 pending

38 fixtures. We designed a mathematical model that incorporates the interac-
39 tion of players during training sessions, leading to intra-club spreading, and
40 during matches, responsible of inter-club contagions. Furthermore, we in-
41 corporated the use of tests to evaluate its consequences in identifying and
42 confining those players that already have been infected. The model, whose
43 main parameters were based on the scientific literature concerning the infec-
44 tion and recovery periods of COVID-19, could be easily adapted to describe
45 other kind of sports competitions just by modifying the number of players
46 and teams participating in the tournament.

47 2. Methodology

48 In SEIR models[14], a disease propagates through a network of individuals
49 whose dynamical state can be either Susceptible S (healthy and susceptible
50 to be infected), Exposed E (infected but in the latent period and therefore
51 unable to infect other individuals), Infectious I (infected and able to infect
52 other individuals), and Removed R (which includes (i) recovered individuals
53 after having suffered the infection and therefore immune and (ii) deceased
54 people).

55 Figure 1 represents a sketch of the model. The individuals (players from
56 now on) can be infected at any time from people different to the players
57 (technical staff of the team, family, etc.) with a probability β_{ext} . The second
58 source of infection occurs during the training period, where they can be
59 infected from other players of their own team with probability β_{train} . Finally,
60 during the matches, players are exposed to infection from the players of their
61 own team and the adversary team with probability β_{match} .

62 Once a player has been infected and becomes exposed, he/she has a prob-
63 ability σ of finishing the latent period and become infectious. Exposed and
64 infectious players have, respectively, probabilities μ_E and μ_I of being detected
65 as infected by COVID-19 via a virus test or because they show disease symp-
66 toms. If this is the case, players will be confined at their homes remaining in
67 two possible states: exposed E_C or infectious I_c . Asymptomatic infectious
68 players (belonging to class I, but not detected by virus tests), and confined
69 infectious players, overcome the disease with probability γ . Note that con-
70 fined players that have been recovered will remain quarantined (class Q)
71 during a convalescence until they are prepared for playing again and become
72 recovered (R) with probability γ_Q .

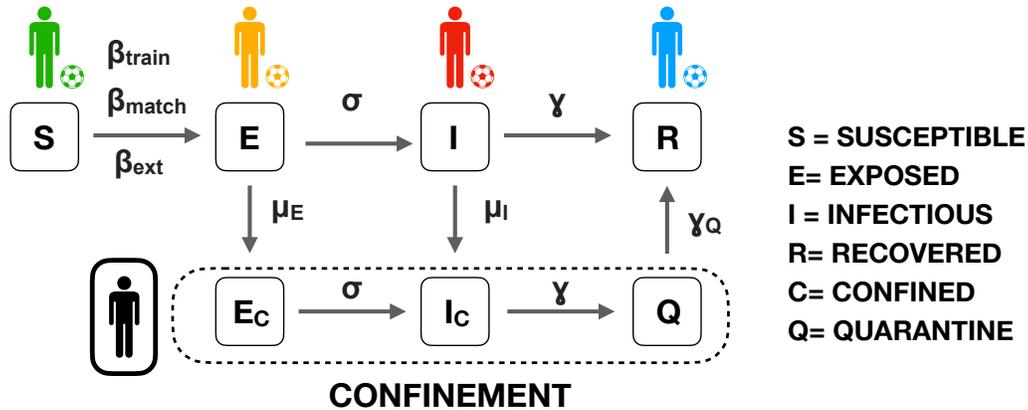


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the SEIR model adapted to a football competition. Players can be in different states: Susceptible (S), Exposed (E), Infectious (I) and Quarantined (Q). In case players are detected to be infected by the virus, they remain confined (indicated by the C suffix). After confinement, players will undergo a quarantine before being eligible to play again. Parameters β_{train} , β_{match} and β_{ext} account for the probability of becoming Exposed (E) during training, matches or externally (player social circle) respectively. Probability σ describes the transition from Exposed to Infectious (I). Probability γ controls the transition from Infectious to Recovered (R) or Quarantined (Q). Finally, γ_Q is related to the quarantine period a player must follow after recovery.

73 The days between virus tests N_{test} and the days between matches N_{match}
74 are two critical variables for controlling the number of infected players dur-
75 ing the championship, and therefore their influence in the model should be
76 studied carefully. Note that the virus tests should be done in this context via
77 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) controls. The reason is that fast antibody
78 or antigen detectors are only reliable more than a week after the infection,
79 and in many cases even after the patient has already shown symptoms. This
80 fact would allow the infectious (but not identified as infected) players to
81 spread the virus during several days, making the control of the disease a
82 hard task.

83 *Modeling the Spanish national league*

84 Our model can be applied to a diversity of competitions related to team
85 contact sports, but we have focused on the re-start of the Spanish male
86 national league. Therefore, we considered a competition with $M = 20$ teams
87 composed of $L = 25$ players, the latter being the upper limit of players that
88 can be registered by a team in the competition. The generalization to *Liga*

89 *Iberdrola* (Spanish feminine first division football league, with 16 teams), to
90 the masculine or feminine football leagues of other countries, or even to other
91 team sports (such as basketball, handball, rugby, etc.) is direct. Every team
92 plays a match every N_{match} days, and during the $N_{match} - 1$ days in between
93 the players train at their own stadiums. We supposed no resting days, as
94 there is a clear interest for finishing the leagues as soon as possible, but
95 including them in the model is trivial. We represented the training dynamics
96 of the players, and contacts between them, using social networks instead of
97 mean-field contacts. In this way, players' social networks during the team
98 training followed a random structure of connections and were generated using
99 an Erdős-Rényi model [15] with a probability $p = 0.2$ of connecting two
100 players. This was done to describe the internal professional and friendship
101 dynamics that every player has during training times and also during lunch
102 time, etc. During training time, the infectious players (class I) might infect
103 their neighbours in the social network with probability β_{train} . During the
104 match day, every infected player on the pitch can infect any other player of
105 its own team or the adversary with probability β_{match} (here we used a mean-
106 field approach due to the inevitable contact dynamics that players follow
107 during a match). Note that players cannot avoid voluntarily the contact
108 with other players in the contest (with the exception, perhaps, of celebrating
109 a goal, that could be forbidden if necessary), and therefore the contagion
110 probability during a match might be larger than expected at first glance.

111 There is a wide range of values in the recent literature regarding each
112 of the parameters that define the different steps of the disease (see Table
113 1 for a summary of the parameters of the model). The latent period σ^{-1}
114 is the average time from infection to infectiousness, the incubation period
115 is the average time from infection to the appearance of the first symptoms,
116 and the infectious period γ is the average time that the patient is infectious.
117 Depending on the virus, the latent period can be shorter or larger than the
118 incubation period. In the case of COVID-19 the latent period is 1 or 2 days
119 shorter in average than the incubation period, which makes it specially easy
120 for the disease to spread among the population during the time in which
121 people are infectious but asymptomatic. Regarding the mean incubation
122 period, in [18] it was shown to be around 5 days, similar to that of SARS,
123 and in [19] it was affirmed that it could be as short as 4 days. Note, however,
124 that this quantity was not used in our model.

125 In [16] it was used a mean latent period σ^{-1} of 3 days and a mean infection
126 period of $\gamma^{-1} = 5$ days, based on the Wuhan data. We selected these values

Parameter	Value (days ⁻¹)
β_{exp}	1/100000
β_{train}	1/10
β_{match}	1/100
σ	1/3; Refs. [16, 17]
γ	1/5; Refs. [16, 17]
γ_Q	1/5
μ_E	$\mu_I/3$
μ_I	[0,1], 0.9
N_{match}	[3-7]
N_{test}	[1-7]

Table 1: **Summary of the main parameters of the model.**

127 because they were also used in other more recent studies [17]. Note, however,
128 that these are mean values: in [20] it was shown that the probability that
129 patients with mild symptoms infected other people was very low after a week
130 from the appearance of symptoms, but these means that in mild cases of
131 COVID-19 patients can be infectious for as much as 10 days.

132 The values of the probability μ_I of being detected as infectious, either
133 because a player shows disease symptoms or because the virus test yields a
134 positive result, has been considered to be within the window [0,1], being 0
135 in case of not doing any test and being asymptomatic and 1 when tests have
136 100% sensitivity. However, when sensitivity of the test is not analyzed, we
137 considered a value of 0.9 which is the typical one attributed to PCR tests.
138 Concerning the probability of detecting an exposed individual, we set it as
139 $\mu_E = \mu_I/3$, i.e. three times less than detecting an infected individual through
140 the same test. The reason is that the viral load of an exposed individual is
141 lower than that of an infectious one, therefore reducing the probability of a
142 positive test result.

143 Furthermore, we have fixed the quarantine period σ_Q^{-1} to be 5 days, but
144 varying slightly this quantity would not affect the model substantially. Also,
145 there is no clear experimental data to fix the infecting probabilities β_{exp} ,
146 β_{train} and β_{match} . The probability β_{ext} of being infected during a day from
147 people different to the players will slowly decrease as more and more people

148 in the country recover from the disease, but for simplicity we have supposed it
149 constant during the whole league. The probabilities of being infected during
150 a training day or a match have been fixed at moderate values and we checked
151 that slightly varying them did not qualitatively change the results.

152 Finally, we simulated between 10^3 and 10^5 seasons using our discrete-
153 time model and obtained the main statistics of the accumulated number of
154 infected players at time t , $n(t)$. Importantly, the seed of all simulations
155 contained one player of the league who is already infected at the first day of
156 the tournament (i.e., $n(0) = 1$). By doing so, the epidemic spreading begins
157 at day one instead of any random day of the season, and therefore time t
158 should be understood as days after the first infection.

159 3. Results

160 Figure 2 analyzes the influence that the number of days between tests
161 and matches, N_{test} and N_{match} , have on the accumulated number of infected
162 players $n(t)$ along the rest of the season (i.e. 11 matches and the training
163 days in between). 1000 independent simulations were performed and the
164 mean values of $n(t)$, $\bar{n}(t)$, are plotted in the figure.

165 In Fig. 2A we see how the mean accumulated number of infected players
166 $\bar{n}(t)$ changes when the number of days between matches N_{match} is modified
167 within the interval $\{3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$, i.e., we set the minimum and maximum
168 number of days between matches to 3 and 7, respectively. Interestingly, we
169 can see that it is convenient to reduce the time between matches to the
170 minimum. The reason is twofold. On the one hand, with N_{match} being the
171 lowest, the competition would last fewer weeks and therefore the players
172 would be exposed for less time. On the other hand, the probability of being
173 infected is higher during a training day than during a match day, since players
174 are more exposed to physical contact with other players during trainings. For
175 this reason, the higher the number of days between matches, the higher the
176 slope of the curves of Fig.2A.

177 In Fig. 2B we show the different evolution of the mean value of the
178 accumulated number of infected players $\bar{n}(t)$ when PCR tests are or are
179 not performed. Matches are played with a separation of 7 days, in this
180 case. We can observe how skipping the tests increases substantially the
181 number of infected players, whose growth is specially higher at the beginning
182 of the spreading process. These results show that conducting a coronavirus
183 detection test is essential to prevent its spread among “La Liga” teams.

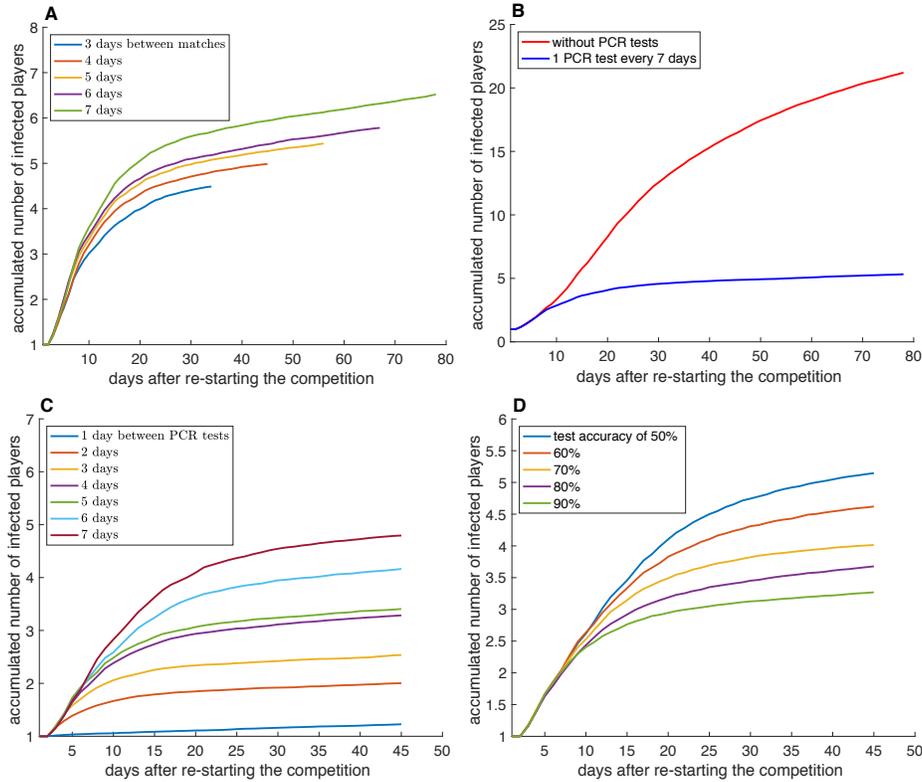


Figure 2: Dependence of the mean of the accumulated number of players that have been infected at the end of the season $\bar{n}(t)$ on the main parameters of the system: the days between matches (N_{match}) (A) and the days between PCR tests (N_{test}) (B-D). We simulated 1000 times the rest of the season, that consists of 11 matches and the training days in between. Parameters of the simulation are indicated in Table 1, with $\mu_I = 0.9$, unless specified otherwise. The seed of all simulations contained one player infected at the first day of the tournament. (A) Influence of the number of days between two consecutive matches, N_{match} , on $\bar{n}(t)$. In this simulation, PCR tests with 90% sensitivity were carried out every $N_{match} = 7$ days. In (B) we compare the outcome of not doing any tests during the rest of the season and doing them every $N_{test} = 7$ days (matches played every 7 days), while in (C) we focus on the number of days N_{test} between each PCR control (matches played every 4 days, closer to the optimum frequency of 1 every 3 days). (D) Influence of test accuracy μ_I on $\bar{n}(t)$ (PCR tests and matches carried out every 4 days).

184 However, it is necessary to take into account the frequency and reliability of
 185 such tests. To investigate this issue, we assume that it is decided to play,
 186 for example, every 4 days, a measure close to the most favorable scenario
 187 of 3 days, although not so extreme. In Fig. 2C we see how important

188 it is to perform tests as often as possible, ideally every day. As the tests
189 are more separated over time, the risk of infecting more players inevitably
190 increases. Finally, it is possible to simulate how important the accuracy of
191 the tests is and the consequences of making use of low sensitive methods.
192 Figure 2D shows how the average number of infected players $\bar{n}(t)$ increases
193 as the reliability of the tests μ_E and μ_I decrease. These results support the
194 convenience of performing PCR testing, whose accuracy is estimated to be
195 close to 90% and larger than any other method.

196 As mentioned below, the curves shown in Fig. 2 are the mean values $\bar{n}(t)$
197 obtained after 1000 simulations of the model. While the standard deviation
198 of the mean $\bar{n}(t)$, $\sigma_{\bar{n}}$, is too small to be distinguished in any of the plots,
199 the standard deviation of $n(t)$, σ_n , is on the contrary very large –in some
200 cases of the order of the mean \bar{n} – and shows that the evolution of a single
201 process is highly unpredictable. To cast some light on this question, in Fig.
202 3 we have plotted the probability function of the accumulated number of
203 infected players $n(t)$ (i.e., probability of obtaining $n(t) = 1, 2, 3...$ accumu-
204 lated infected players after t days, calculated as the normalized histogram of
205 10^5 simulations of the process) when matches and PCR controls are carried
206 out every 7 days (green curve in Fig. 2A) after $t = 4$ days, 20 days, and
207 at the end of the league ($t = 78$ days). In the first days of the competi-
208 tion, the disease starts to spread in the team of the so-far unique infected
209 player. As expected, a Poisson distribution approximates accurately its func-
210 tion probability. However, the disease soon spreads towards other teams and
211 the function distribution becomes more complex: at moderate values of the
212 time ($t = 20$) the probability function presents a *hump* that certifies that
213 the curve is in fact the consequence of several spreading processes, that is,
214 the addition of intra- and interteam spreading, plus the potential infections
215 coming from outside the league. Finally, when the season reaches its end
216 ($t = 78$) the curve already presents several humps, as well as an exponential-
217 like tail, and in fact at that time the standard deviation σ_n is almost as large
218 as the mean \bar{n} (as it is verified in exponential probability density functions).
219 Note that, while a normal approximation is not accurate at this time, when
220 t grows substantially (many weeks after the end of the season, not shown)
221 the probability function becomes a Gaussian, as expected from the Central
222 Limit Theorem.

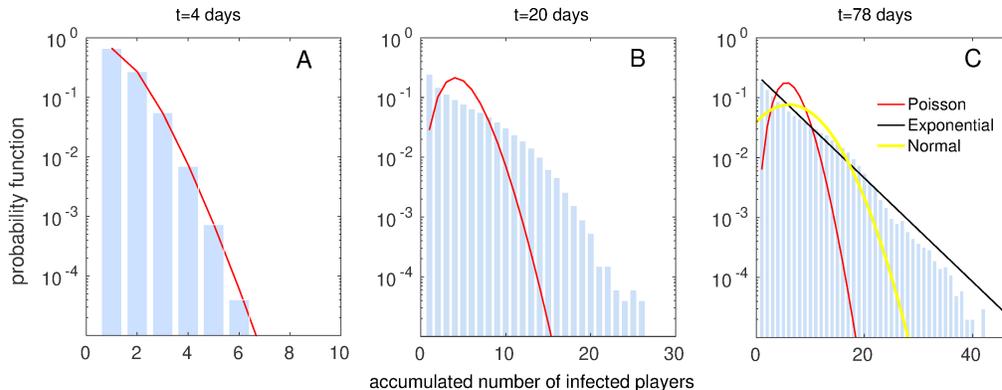


Figure 3: Probability function of the accumulated number of infected players $n(t)$ at the beginning of the re-start (A, $t = 4$ days), after few weeks (B, $t = 20$ days) and at the end of the season (C, $t = 78$ days), when matches and PCR controls are carried out every 7 days. For these 3 cases, $\bar{n} \pm \sigma_n = 1.4 \pm 0.6$, $\bar{n} \pm \sigma_n = 4.5 \pm 3.6$, $\bar{n} \pm \sigma_n = 6.0 \pm 5.2$, respectively. Approximations to a Poisson distribution of mean \bar{n} , to an exponential distribution of mean \bar{n} and to a normal distribution of mean \bar{n} and standard deviation σ_n are shown. 10^5 simulations of the league were performed.

223 4. Conclusions

224 “All the models are wrong, but some are useful”. This famous state-
 225 ment, attributed to the statistician George Box, sums up the usefulness of
 226 our model. Although it is not possible to predict the number of infected
 227 individuals, the model allows to describe in a qualitative way the influence
 228 that different measures can have to mitigate the spreading of the coronavirus
 229 during a competition. Based on the simulations carried out with the epi-
 230 demiological parameters estimated by the scientific community, the results
 231 of the study can be summarized in five points:

- 232 • Reducing the days between matches reduces the risk of spreading COVID-
 233 19 throughout the season. The more the season is compressed, the less
 234 risk of contagion.
- 235 • PCR tests should be performed on all football players participating the
 236 competition. Antibody and antigen tests should be ruled out in this
 237 context because they are less reliable and are not effective until the
 238 disease is well advanced.

- 239 • The tests should be carried out continuously along the competition,
240 with the optimum scenario being one test per day.
- 241 • The player’s environment is essential to avoid introducing the disease
242 into the system. It is necessary that the players try to limit their social
243 contacts as much as possible, and that their physical interaction with
244 the technical staff is as distant as possible.
- 245 • The process is highly unpredictable. While qualitative results are clear,
246 obtaining precise predictions for a single realization (the real case) is
247 not possible.

248 We must also note that applying all the measures suggested by the model
249 involves a cost. On the one hand, reducing the time between matches can be
250 a problem for players from a physical point of view. The physical recovery
251 time after a match would be reduced and the risk of injury would increase.
252 To reduce this risk, teams should increase player rotations. Regarding the
253 tests, football clubs should provide the necessary support and means to carry
254 out such a high number of tests in such a short time. Without an efficient
255 policy in this regard, the risk of reinfection in competition would skyrocket.
256 Players will also pay a personal cost to control the eventual spreading of
257 coronavirus. Minimizing their contacts with other individuals would mean
258 limiting their travels, public events and, in general, reducing interactions
259 with people outside the family environment. In fact, maintaining them in a
260 confinement during the rest of the season would be obviously the optimum
261 situation.

262 Finally, although the results shown here are focused on the resumption of
263 the men’s Spanish national league, the conclusions are equally valid for the
264 women’s competition. Furthermore, the model could be adapted to any com-
265 petition in which matches involves some physical contact between players,
266 such as basketball, handball or rugby.

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