



香港大學
THE UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG



**HKU
Med**

LKS Faculty of Medicine
The University of Hong Kong
香港大學李嘉誠醫學院

The Potential Effectiveness of Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions (NPIs)

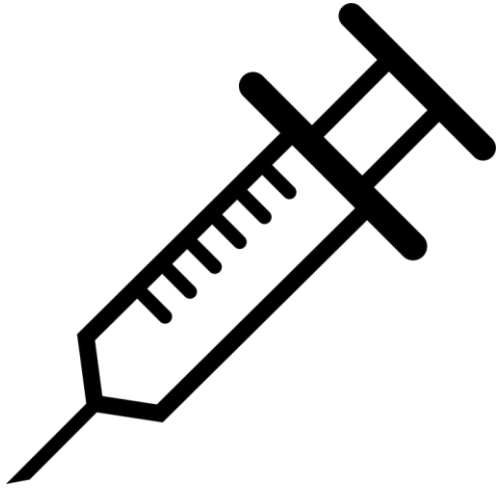
Ben Cowling

WHO Collaborating Centre for Infectious Disease Epidemiology and Control,
School of Public Health, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Special
Administrative Region, China

14 November 2024

Preparing for containment and mitigation of pandemic H5N1 influenza

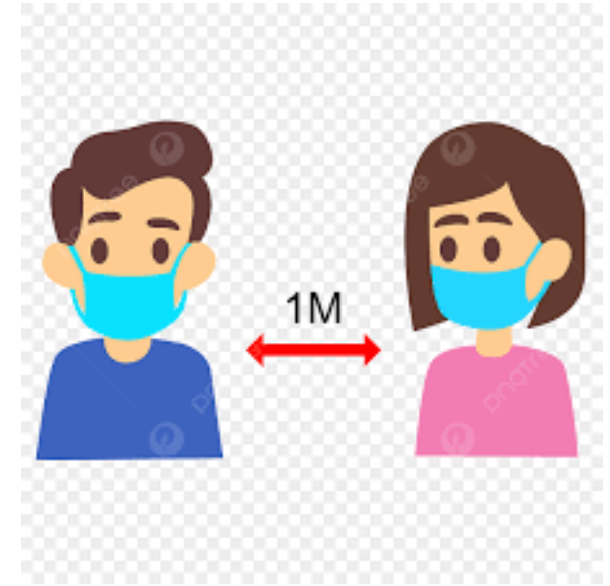
Options for the control of influenza pandemics



Vaccines



Antivirals



Public health and
social measures
(NPIs)

WHO pandemic influenza NPI guidelines

Update underway of our previous 2019 guidelines to incorporate latest evidence on influenza and experiences from COVID-19 pandemic

Personal protective measures

Hand hygiene

Respiratory etiquette

Face masks

Face shields

Environmental measures

Surface and object cleaning

UV light

Increasing ventilation

Modifying humidity

Community-wide measures

School closure

School measures

Workplace closure

Workplace measures

Catering and fitness measures

Stay-at-home order

Restrictions on gatherings

Targeted measures

Isolation of sick individuals

Contact tracing

Quarantine of exposed individuals

Mass rapid antigen testing

Travel related measures

Travel advice

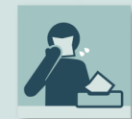
Entry and exit screening

Travel restrictions and border closures

On-arrival quarantine

GLOBAL INFLUENZA PROGRAMME

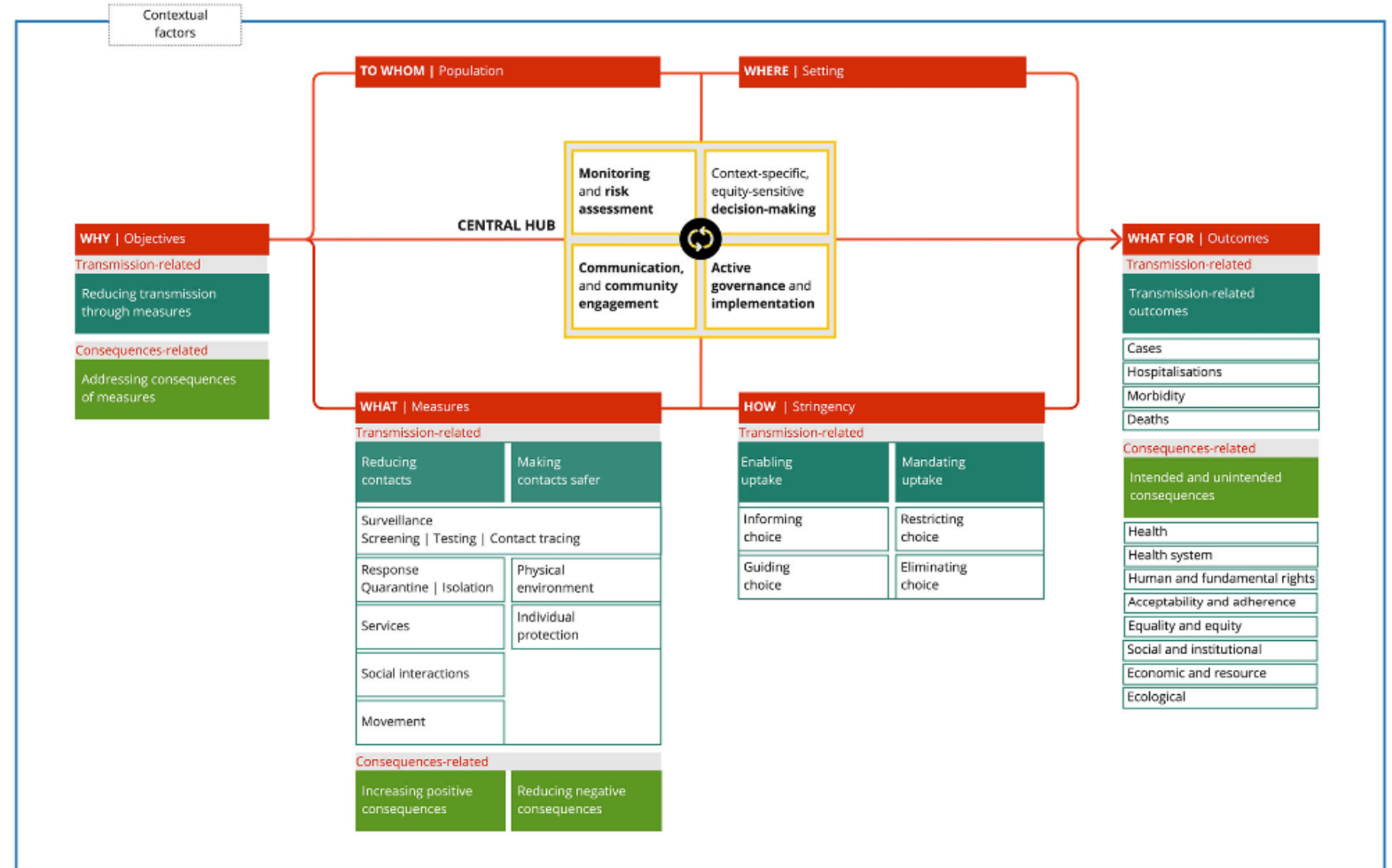
Non-pharmaceutical
public health measures
for mitigating the risk and
impact of **epidemic** and
pandemic influenza



Framework to conceptualize and classify NPIs

Two categories of NPIs:

1. Reducing person-to-person contacts (reducing opportunities for transmission)
2. Making person-to-person contacts safer when they do occur



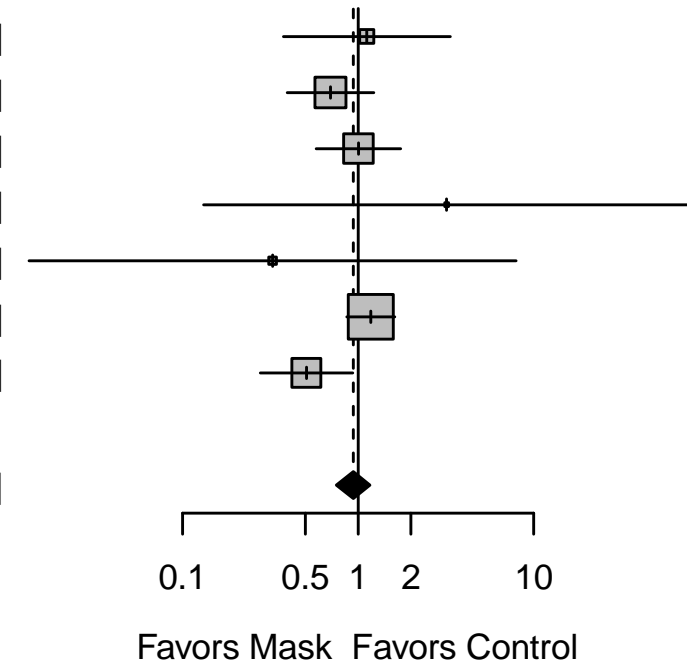
Face masks for influenza in households

Systematic review of trials which used face masks (with or without hand hygiene intervention) to prevent influenza transmission in households

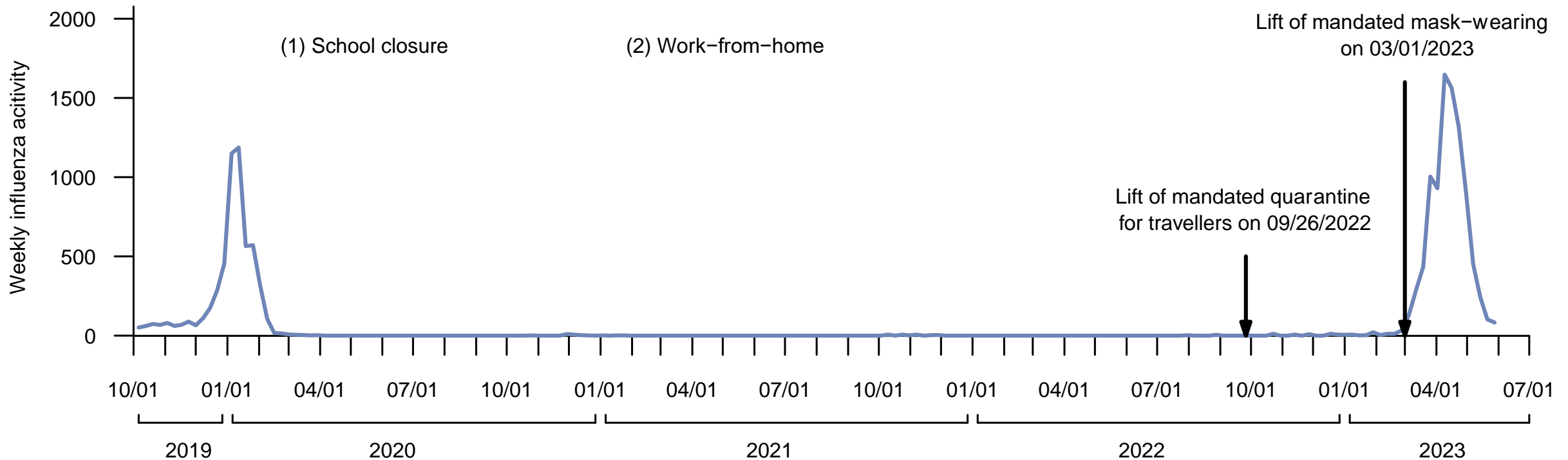
Author (Year)	Mask use		Control		Weight	Risk Ratio	95% C.I.
	Events	Total	Events	Total			
Cowling (2008)	4	61	12	205	3.9%	1.12	[0.37; 3.35]
Cowling (2009)	18	258	28	279	19.3%	0.70	[0.39; 1.23]
Larson (2010)	25	938	24	904	17.5%	1.00	[0.58; 1.74]
MacIntyre (2009)	1	94	0	100	0.3%	3.19	[0.13; 77.36]
MacIntyre (2016)	0	302	1	295	1.1%	0.33	[0.01; 7.96]
Simmerman (2011)	66	291	58	302	40.8%	1.18	[0.86; 1.62]
Suess (2012)	16	136	19	82	17.0%	0.51	[0.28; 0.93]
Fixed effect model	2080		2167	100.0%		0.94	[0.75; 1.17]

Heterogeneity: $I^2 = 27\%$, $\tau^2 = 0.0640$, $p = 0.22$

Test for overall effect: $z = -0.58$ ($p = 0.56$)



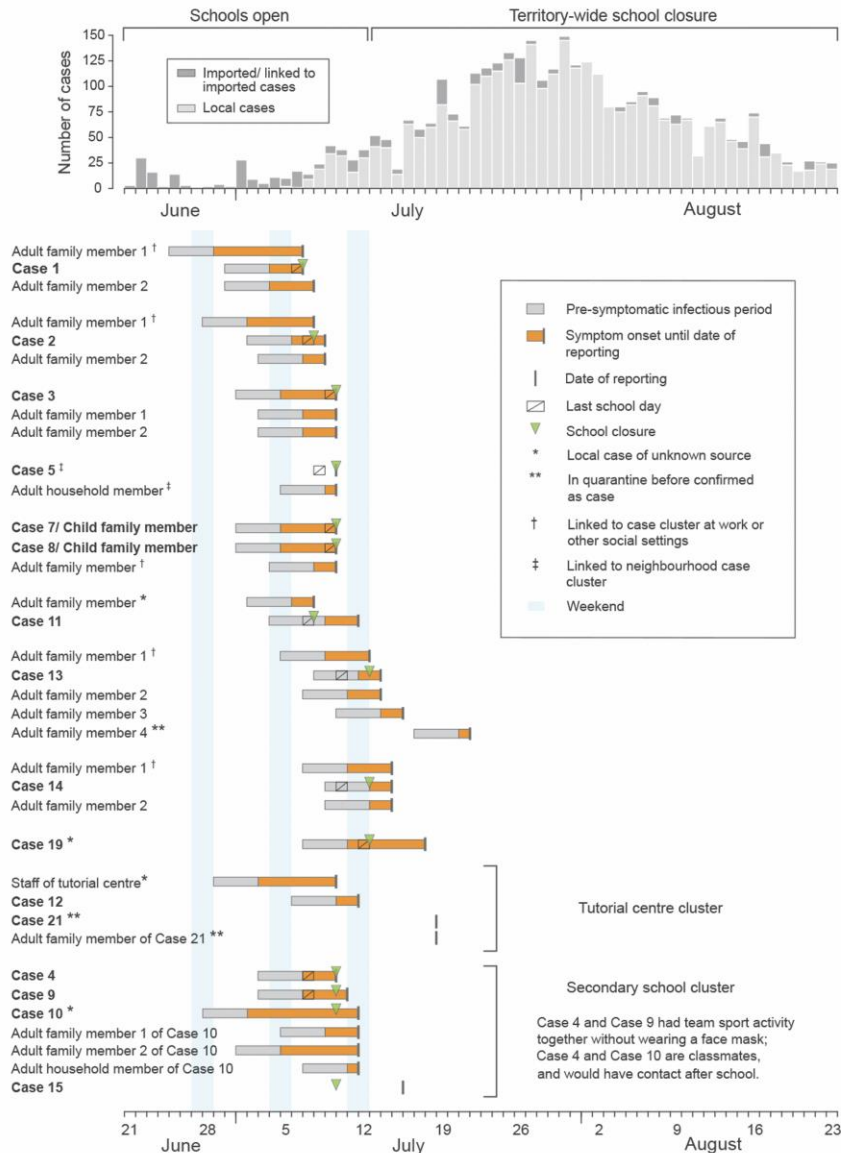
Return of influenza in Hong Kong after 3 years



The mask mandate was the last COVID NPI to be relaxed in Hong Kong

In an ecological analysis, the mask mandate was estimated to be associated with 25% reduction (95% CI: 1% to 43%) in influenza transmission, after accounting for other preventive measures.

School measures in Hong Kong in Jun-Jul 2020



- Schools were closed between February and May 2020 but reopened for a period of around 4-6 weeks (depending on age group) in June and July while community incidence of COVID-19 was at a low level. Various measures were implemented to protect against transmission:
 - Daily temperature checks
 - Universal masking
 - All schools switched from full-day to half-day, omitting lunch hours
 - Arrival and dismissal times staggered or spread
 - Increased desk spacing and use of partitions. Group work and contact sports were limited as much as possible. Assemblies, extra-curricular and after-school activities were cancelled.
- We identified 15 cases in children where there could have been opportunities for transmission in schools, but transmission did not occur, perhaps because children could be less efficient spreaders of COVID-19, and perhaps because of the precautionary measures in place.

Contact tracing

Article

The epidemiological impact of the NHS COVID-19 app

Table 2 | Scenarios for improvements

Analysis	Per cent reduction in total case burden in phase 2 (in addition to reductions observed for the current implementation of the app)	
	Modelling	Statistical extrapolation
Increase uptake to 35.9%—current 90th percentile—for all LTLAs (improve equity)	11% (5–15%)	21.0% (14.5–26.8%)
Increase uptake across the board by 20 percentage points (mass improvement)	24% (10–34%)	41.5% (29.5–51.5%)
Switch to opt-out notification (5% drop-off) ^a	6.6% (2.5–11%)	Not applicable with this method
Improve adherence to quarantine by 20 percentage points	6.8% (5–8.7%)	Not applicable with this method
Reduce time to test result by one day ^b	3.6% (0.6–6.7%)	Not applicable with this method

Results are the per cent reduction in total case burden that would have occurred during phase 2. This is the further reduction relative to the cases that actually occurred, not relative to cases inferred in the absence of the app. Ranges shown are 95% confidence intervals for regressions, 2.5–97.5% sensitivity intervals for modelling.

^aCurrently, the app requires consent after the receipt of a positive test for contact tracing to be initiated, which is provided by 72% of users. We assume that changing to opt-out consent, for example, by consent at registration, would increase this to 95%.

^bReducing test turnaround time has many benefits not modelled here; we consider only faster digital tracing.

A “de-centralized” digital contact tracing app reduced COVID-19 transmission in the UK.

Limitation – high frequency of exposure alerts when community prevalence increases

Estimating the effects of non-pharmaceutical interventions on COVID-19 in Europe

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2405-7>
Received: 30 March 2020
Accepted: 22 May 2020
Published online: 8 June 2020

Seth Flaxman^{1,7}, Swapnil Mishra^{2,7}, Axel Gandy^{1,7}, H. Juliette T. Unwin², Thomas A. Mellan², Helen Coupland², Charles Whittaker², Harrison Zhu¹, Tresnia Berah¹, Jeffrey W. Eaton², Mélodie Monod¹, Imperial College COVID-19 Response Team*, Azra C. Ghani², Christl A. Donnelly^{2,3}, Steven Riley², Michaela A. C. Vollmer², Neil M. Ferguson², Lucy C. Okell² & Samir Bhatt^{2,7}✉

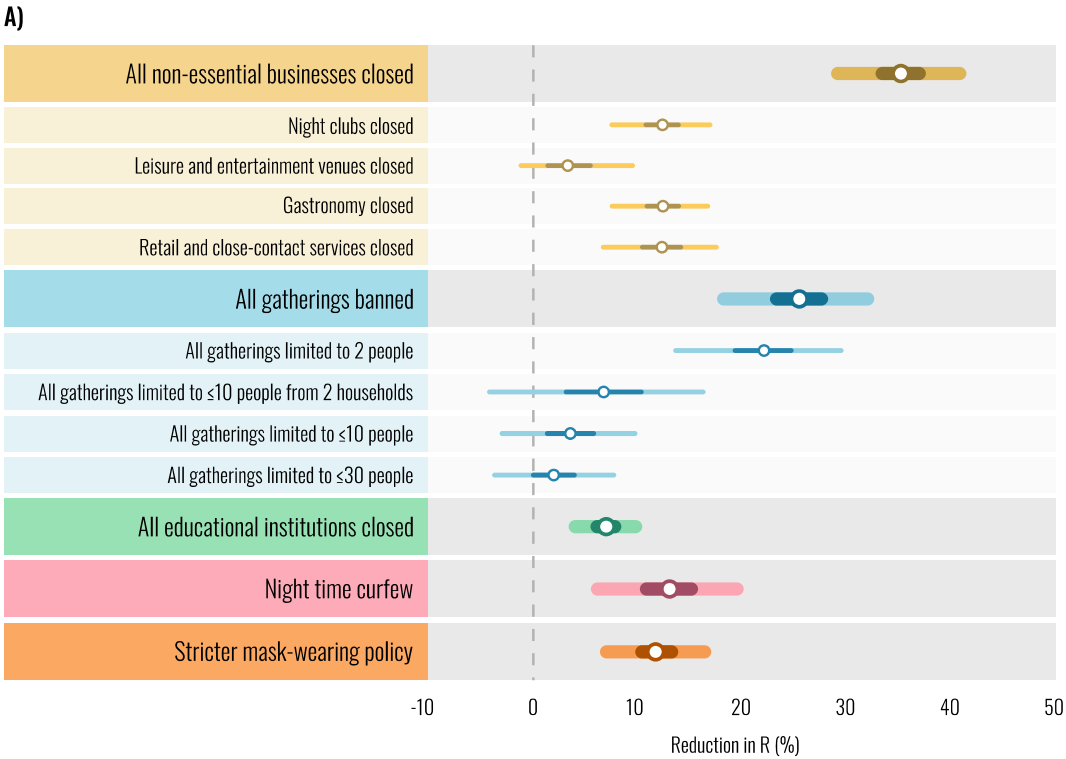
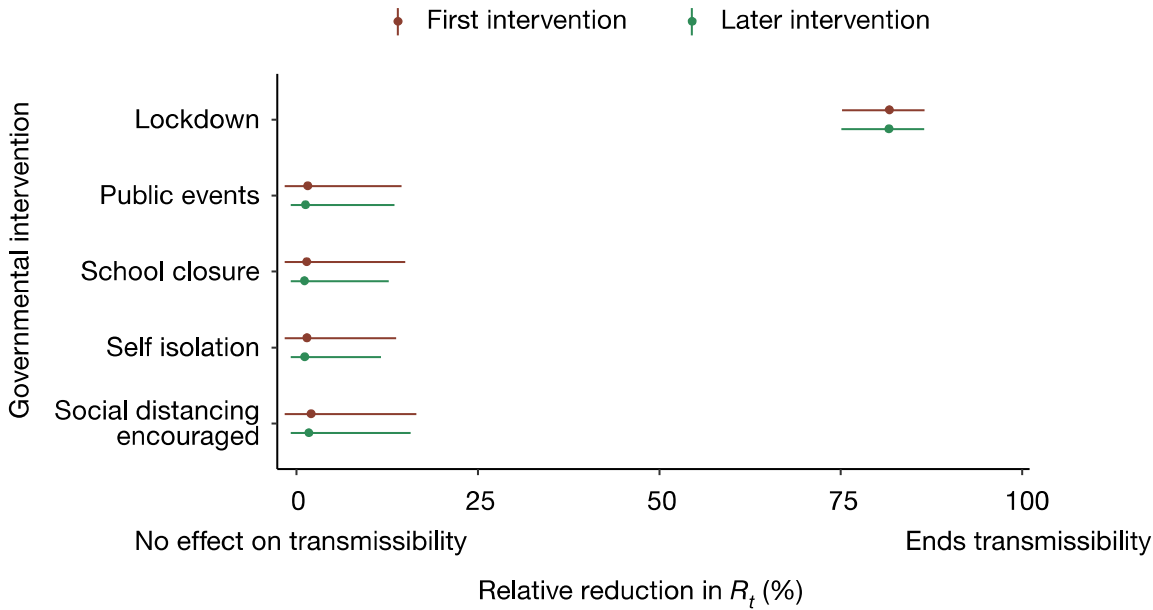


ARTICLE

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-26013-4> OPEN

Understanding the effectiveness of government interventions against the resurgence of COVID-19 in Europe

Mrinank Sharma^{1,2,3,22}✉, Sören Mindermann^{4,22}✉, Charlie Rogers-Smith⁵, Gavin Leech⁶, Benedict Snodin³, Janvi Ahuja^{3,7}, Jonas B. Sandbrink^{3,7}, Joshua Teperowski Monrad^{3,8,9}, George Altman¹⁰, Gurpreet Dhaliwal^{11,12}, Lukas Finnveden³, Alexander John Norman¹³, Sebastian B. Oehm^{14,15}, Julia Fabienne Sandkühler¹⁶, Laurence Aitchison⁶, Tomáš Gavenčiak¹⁷, Thomas Mellan¹⁸, Jan Kulveit³, Leonid Chindelevitch¹⁸, Seth Flaxman¹⁹, Yarin Gal⁴, Swapnil Mishra^{18,20,23}✉, Samir Bhatt^{18,20,21,23}✉ & Jan Markus Brauner^{3,4,22,23}✉



Impact of COVID-19 on influenza pandemic plans

- Many lessons to learn about the implementation of NPIs
 - Best measures or combination of measures to achieve particular objectives?
 - When is the right time to implement a measure? And the right time to relax?
 - Recommendations versus mandates (and fines)?
 - School-based measures versus school closures
 - How to mitigate the negative social and economic consequences of NPIs?
 - Optimal uses of lateral flow tests (right)
- Many knowledge gaps remain
- How to manage not only anti-vaccination sentiments but also to anti-NPI sentiments now?
- Any differences in transmission of H5N1 specifically?

