Qingsong Qin ORCID iD: 0000-0001-6315-5809

Unique epidemiological and clinical features of the emerging 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia (COVID-19) implicate special control measures

Yixuan Wang¹, Yuyi Wang¹, Yan Chen², Qingsong Qin^{1,*}

- 1. Laboratory of Human Virology and Oncology, Shantou University Medical College, Shantou, Guangdong Province, 515041, China
- 2. Department of Pediatric, Union Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huang zhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, 430022, China

Correspondence to: Qingsong Qin, email: qsqin@stu.edu.cn

Abstract:

By Feb 27th, 2020, the outbreak of COVID-19 caused 82623 confirmed cases and 2858 deaths globally, more than Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) (8273 cases, 775 deaths) and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) (1139 cases, 431 deaths) caused in 2003 and 2013 respectively. COVID-19 has spread to 46 countries internationally. Total fatality rate of COVID-19 is estimated at 3.46% by far based on published data from Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention (China CDC). Average incubation period of COVID-19 is around 6.4 days, ranges from 0-24 days. The basic reproductive number (R₀) of COVID-19 ranges from 2-3.5 at the early phase regardless of different prediction models, which is higher than SARS and MERS. A study from China CDC showed majority of patients (80.9%) were considered asymptomatic or mild pneumonia but released large amounts of viruses at the early phase of infection, which posed enormous challenges for containing the spread of COVID-19. Nosocomial transmission was another severe problem. 3019 health workers were infected by Feb 12, 2020, which accounted for 3.83% of total number of infections, and extremely

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1002/jmv.25748.

burdened the health system, especially in Wuhan. Limited epidemiological and clinical data suggest that the disease spectrum of COVID-19 may differ from SARS or MERS. We summarize latest literatures on genetic, epidemiological, and clinical features of COVID-19 in comparison to SARS and MERS and emphasize special measures on diagnosis and potential interventions. This review will improve our understanding of the unique features of COVID-19 and enhance our control measures in the future.

Keywords: COVID-19, features, diagnosis and interventions

Running title: Unique epidemiological and clinical features of COVID-19

1. Introduction

In December of 2019, a cluster of patients with pneumonia of unknown cause was observed in Wuhan, China. A novel coronavirus was identified as the causative pathogen¹⁻⁶, provisionally named as 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) by the World Health Organization (WHO). On Feb 11, 2020, WHO named this novel coronavirus pneumonia as "COVID-19" (Corona Virus Disease 2019). Based on phylogeny, taxonomy, and established practice, the Coronavirus Study Group (CSG) of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses formally recognizes this virus as a sister to Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and renamed it as SARS-CoV-2⁷. SARS-CoV-2 belongs to species of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome related Coronavirus (SARSr-CoV) and genus Betacoronavirus². COVID-19 rapidly triggered a global health emergency alert and spread to 46 countries by Feb 27th, 2020. SARS-CoV-2 is the seventh member of the family of coronaviruses that infects humans. Like SARS-CoV and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus (MERS-CoV), SARS-CoV-2 is responsible for lower respiratory infection and can cause Acute Respiratory Distress Syndromes (ARDS). Other human coronaviruses (HCoV 229E, NL63, OC43, and HKU1) are responsible for upper respiratory infections and common cold⁸.

By Feb 27th, 2020, according to open data from China CDC as shown in table 1 and Fig 1, COVID-19 has caused 82623 confirmed cases and 2858 deaths globally. Total case fatality rate is 3.46% as showed in table 1. Because COVID-19 started from Wuhan, the capital city of Hubei province with a large population of nearly 14 million people, 58.3% cases are in Wuhan. 1932 health workers have been infected in Wuhan alone⁹, which overwhelmed the local health system and resulted in the highest case fatality rate (4.42 %). Excluding Hubei province, the rest of China has 13045 cases, 109 fatalities (0.84%). Outside of China, COVID-19

has spread to 46 countries and has caused 3664 infections and 67 fatalities (1.83%). Overall, case fatality rate of COVID-19 so far is much lower than either SARS (9.6%) or MERS (34.5%)¹⁰. Here we summarized common and discrete features of SARS-CoV-2 in comparison to its two predecessors (SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV) in genetics, epidemiology, clinical features, and further discussed challenges for diagnosis and special control measures for COVID-19.

2. Genetic biology of SARS-CoV-2

Full-length genome sequences of SARS-CoV-2 were obtained from early infected individuals related to a wild animal market in Wuhan by different research groups through next generation sequencing 1,2,11. Full genomic length of this novel coronavirus ranges from 29891 to 29903 nucleotides (nt)^{2,4}. All viral genome sequences obtained are extremely similar, showing more than 99.98% sequence identity. SARS-CoV-2 is 96.2% identical at the whole-genome level to a bat coronavirus isolate RaTG13 (GISAID accession no.EPI ISL 402131) collected from Yunnan province, China, and is 88% identical to two bat-derived SARS-like coronaviruses, bat-SL-CoVZC45 and bat-SL-CoVZXC21, collected in 2018 in Zhoushan, eastern China^{1,2,11}. The close phylogenetic relationship to RaTG13 suggests bats are probably natural hosts for SARS-CoV-2². Human SARS-CoV-2 have a unique RRAR motif in the spike protein which is not found in coronaviruses isolated from pangolins, suggesting SARS-CoV-2 may not come directly from pangolins¹². An evolutionary study¹³ based on 86 genomic sequences from GISAID (https://www.gisaid.org/) showed three deletions were found in isolates from Japan, USA, and Australia, ninety-three mutations found over the entire genomes. Of note, eight mutations were found in the spike surface glycoprotein, especially three mutations (D³⁵⁴, Y³⁶⁴, and F³⁶⁷) located in the spike surface glycoprotein receptor-binding domain, which suggested SARS-CoV-2 may rapidly evolve to evade immune response and adapt to other hosts in the future.

SARS-CoV-2 share 79% nt sequence identity to SARS-CoV and around 50% to MERS-CoV². However, the seven conserved replicase domains in ORF1ab (used for CoV species classification) of SARS-CoV-2 are 94.6% identical to SARS-CoV, implying the two belong to same species^{1,2}. The receptor binding protein spike (S) gene of SARS-CoV-2 is highly divergent to all previously described SARSr-CoVs with less than 75% nt sequence identity to except a 93.1% nt identity to RaTG13. Homology modelling revealed SARS-CoV-2 had a similar receptor-binding domain structure to that of SARS-CoV¹¹. Further study showed SARS-CoV-2 uses the same cell entry receptor, ACE2, as SARS-CoV, not CD26 as MERS-CoV². Structural analysis by Cryo-EM revealed SARS-CoVs protein binds ACE2 with 10-20 folds

higher affinity than SARS-CoV¹⁴, which suggests that SARS-CoV-2 may be more infectious to human than SARS-CoV.

3. Epidemiology of COVID-19

Transmission of infectious diseases must rely on three conditions: sources of infection, routes of transmission, and susceptible hosts. As the COVID-19 continues spreading, more epidemiologic features of SARS-CoV-2 have been revealed. Based on recently published literatures, we compared transmission features of SARS-CoV-2 with SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV in table 2. All three epidemics caused by these three coronaviruses are linked to wild animal markets. SARS and MERS are defined as zoonotic disease, and transmitted by intermediated hosts (palm civets and dromedary camels respectively)¹¹. Recent studies showed pangolins¹⁵ and snakes¹⁶ at wild animal markets were likely to be intermediate hosts of SARS-CoV-2.

Human-to-human transmission was considered as a major transmission mode. According to the sixth version of the guidance for diagnosis and treatments for COVID-19 issued by the National Health Commission of China, SARS-CoV-2 was transmitted through respiratory aspirates, droplets, contacts, and feces, and aerosols transmission is highly possible. Chan JF et al. 6 reported that six familial members got COVID-19, but none of them had contacts with Wuhan markets or animals, although two had visited a Wuhan hospital. Based on data from China CDC, 58.3% of COVID-19 cases are in Wuhan, while rest of cases are imported from Wuhan. Wuhan is the capital of China's Hubei province, with over 14 million inhabitants, and is a major transportation hub, which increases person-to-person contacts and adds to the possibility of exporting cases to other locations. The early outbreak data largely followed the exponential growth before the implementation of quarantine strategies by governments on Jan 24th, 2020. The basic reproductive values (R₀) of COVID-19 at the early stage were calculated between 2 and 3.5, indicating that one patient could transmit the disease to two to three other people¹⁷⁻²⁰, which was higher than SARS and MERS. Phylodynamic analysis based on 52 genomic sequences of SARS-CoV-2 strains sampled in different countries publicly available at GISAID showed the estimated mean evolutionary rate was 7.8 x 10⁻⁴ subs/site/year (range 1.1x10⁻⁴–15x10⁻⁴), which was in line with that of SARS and MERS, and the mean time of the most recent common ancestor (tMRCA) was 73 days²¹. With enforced implementation of isolation strategies, R₀ was expected to decline in coming days. The mean incubation period was around 6.4 days (ranges from 0 to 24 days)^{19,22}.

Similar to SARS and MERS, nosocomial transmission was a severe problem to COVID-19, and even worse. A recent retrospective study indicated that a total of 1716 health workers were infected, accounting for 3.84% of total cases. Nosocomial infections extremely burdened the health system and hindered early infected individuals from getting immediate medical supports, therefore resulting in high case fatality rate in Wuhan as shown in table 1. In Wuhan alone, 1080 health workers were infected, in return case fatality rate of Wuhan is the highest. Wang D et al.²³ reported that among 138 hospitalized patients with COVID-19, 41% of patients were suspected to be infected via hospital-related transmission, 26% of patients received ICU care, and mortality was 4.3%. A lot of respiratory treatments for critically ill patients are deemed as high-risk factors for nosocomial transmission, such as intubation, manual ventilation by resuscitator, noninvasive ventilation, high-flow nasal cannula, bronchoscopy examination, suction and patient transportation, etc²⁴. Unexpectedly, a large portion of nosocomial transmissions occurred through contacts between clinicians and visitors with no or mild symptoms of COVID-19 at the early phase of this outbreak. Similarly, presymptomatic transmission occurred through familial $^{25\text{-}27}$ and social gatherings²⁷, such as banquets, church activities, sports, cruise traveling, and so on.

Vertical transmission was sporadically reported in some media but not yet proved. Chen et al.²⁸ investigated nine pregnant women with COVID-19 in their third trimester who underwent caesarean section. SARS-CoV-2 was tested in the amniotic fluid, cord blood, neonatal throat swab, and breastmilk samples from six pregnant women with COVID-19 pneumonia, and got all negative results. None of the neonates has clinical signs of infection. This result suggested no intrauterine fetal infections occurred as a result of COVID-19 infection during the late stage of pregnancy. Previous studies also showed no evidence of perinatal infection of SARS-CoV or MERS-CoV during pregnancy²⁹. However, a neonate born to a pregnant woman with COVID-19 pneumonia tested positive for SARS-CoV-2 infection 36 hr after birth at Wuhan Tongji Hospital²⁸. It is reasonable to assume that a newborn could be infected, either in utero or perinatally, and thus newborns should be placed in isolation to avoid exposure to any source of infection.

In terms of susceptible populations, all groups were generally susceptible to COVID-19 regardless of age or gender⁹. Patients aged from 30 to 79 accounted for 86.6 % of all cases⁹. The median age of the patients was 47 years³⁰.

Unlike SARS and MERS, patients diagnosed as COVID-19 have presented with high viral loads even when those have no fever or mild symptoms³¹. High titers of SARS-CoV-2 were detected in travelers who recently visited Wuhan and have no

fever or mild symptoms in the United States³¹ and Germany³² and other places³³. A study showed high viral loads were detected in upper respiratory specimens of patients with COVID-19, and viral shedding pattern of patients resembles that of patients with influenza³³. This suggests SARS-CoV-2 may stay around for some time like influenza viruses.

4. Clinical features of COVID-19

The full spectrum of disease severity as shown in the guidelines for diagnosis and treatments for COVID-19⁴⁴ issued by the National Health Commission of China had been updated for 6 times by Feb 19th, 2020. COVID-19 is now classified as 4 levels based on the severity of symptoms: mild, moderate, severe, and critical. Mild patients only present mild symptoms without radiographic features. Moderate patients present with fever, respiratory symptoms, and radiographic features. Severe patients meet one of three criteria: (1) dyspnea, RR>30 times/min, (2) oxygen saturation <93% in ambient air, (3) PaO2/FiO2<300 mmHg. Critical patients meet one of three criteria: (1) respiratory failure, (2) septic shock, (3) multiple organ failure. The largest epidemiology study done by China CDC⁹ showed among 44672 confirmed cases, 86.6% of confirmed patients were aged 30-79 years, 80.9% were considered mild/common pneumonia, 13.8% were severe cases, 4.7% were critical cases. Case fatality rate for critical patients was 49%. Patients with comorbidities (cardiovascular disease, diabetes, chronic respiratory disease, hypertension, cancers) had higher case fatality rates (10.5%, 7.3%, 6.5%, 6.0%, 5.6% respectively) than those without comorbidities (0.9%). This indicated comorbidities were high risk factors for COVID-19 patients.

Clinical symptoms of severe and critical patients with COVID-19 resembled most of SARS and MERS as listed in table 3, including fever, dry cough, myalgia, fatigue, dyspnea, anorexia, diarrhea, ARDS, arrhythmia, acute kidney injury, various degrees of liver damage, and septic shock. Common symptoms of hospitalized patients with COVID-19 included fever (98.6%), fatigue (69.6%), and dry cough^{23,46}, diarrhea⁴⁷. Less common symptoms included muscle ache, confusion, headache, sore throat, rhinorrhoea, chest pain, sputum production⁴⁷, and nausea and vomiting⁴⁶. Severe complications included acute respiratory distress syndrome, RNAaemia, acute cardiac injury, and multiple organ failure⁴⁷. The median time from first symptom to dyspnea was 5.0 days, to hospital admission was 7.0 days, and to ARDS was 8.0 days²³. A few patients had symptoms such as nasal congestion, runny nose, sore throat, myalgia and diarrhea⁴⁴. Most patients had a good prognosis according to the guidelines for diagnosis and treatments for COVID-19⁴⁴. Wang D et al.²³ reported that age and comorbidity may be risk factors. A recent study showed that renal damage was

caused by virus and antiviral drugs⁴⁸. Meanwhile, SARS-CoV-2 might cause various degrees of liver damage⁴⁹ and damages in testicular tissue⁴⁸. Mild patients showed only low fever, mild fatigue, and no pneumonia. Severe patients usually had dyspnea/hypoxemia one week after the onset. Critical patients could quickly progress to ARDS, shock, metabolic acidosis, coagulation dysfunction and multiple organ functional failure, etc⁴⁴. Dyspnea, abdominal pain, and anorexia were also more common in critically ill patients²³. It had to be noted that severe and critically ill patients might present moderate to low fever, even without obvious fever⁴⁴.

Laboratory features of COVID-19 included Lymphopenia with depletion of CD4 and CD8 lymphocytes, prolonged prothrombin time, elevated lactate dehydrogenase²³, elevated D-Dimer, elevated alanine transaminase, C-reactive protein, and creatinine kinase⁴⁷. ICU patients had higher plasma levels of IL2, IL7, IL10, GSCF, IP10, MCP1, MIP1A, and TNFα, compared with non-ICU patients⁴⁷. Patients who received ICU care had numerous laboratory abnormalities that suggested COVID-19 might be associated with cellular immune deficiency, coagulation activation, myocardia injury, hepatic injury, and kidney injury as showed in table 3. Laboratory abnormalities were similar to those previously observed in patients with MERS-CoV and SARS-CoV infection^{23,50}. Most patients had elevated C reactive protein, erythrocyte sedimentation rate, and normal procalcitonin. In severe cases, D-dimer increased and peripheral blood lymphocytes progressively decreased. Severe and critically ill patients had elevated inflammatory factors⁴⁴. In the nonsurvivors, the neutrophil count, D-dimer, blood urea, and creatinine levels continued to increase²³.

X-ray and chest computed tomographic scans showed bilateral patchy shadows or ground glass opacity in the lungs of moderate and severe patients⁴⁶. It had to be noted that majority of COVID-19 patients with mild/moderate symptoms can quickly transit into severe or critical statuses if without immediate care⁵¹. These virus- carriers with no or mild symptoms can fool health workers and could be huge challenges for controlling this epidemic.

5. Challenges for diagnosis of COVID-19

Diagnosis of COVID-19 has been facing difficulties because laboratory detections and radiographic images are not always in agreement with clinical features and contact histories of patients⁷¹. Laboratory detections included genomic sequencing, RT-PCR, and serological methods (such as Enzyme-linked immunoassay, ELISA). Additionally, because manifestations of the novel coronavirus pneumonia were diverse and changed rapidly, judging by

radiographic images for early detection and evaluation of disease severity and follow-up of patients were heavily depended on experience⁵¹. As a result, clinically suspected patients, with a history of exposure, fever, and positive findings on chest CT, had to receive rapid diagnosis with molecular technologies⁷².

Genomic sequencing was a way for identifying disease associated pathogens^{2,11} at the beginning of the outbreak of COVID-19. But it was too complicated and expensive for a large scale of detections. RT-PCR methods based on spike gene and N gene developed by several companies and China CDC were widely used for detecting viral RNA, and were considered a gold standard^{2,11,44,73}. However, this method had its limitations, such as short detection window from nasophrygeal swabs, false sampling, cross-contamination of samples, inconsistence of sample collections and preparations.

RT-PCR methods generated false-positive or false-negative results^{72,74}, which caused troubles for isolating sources of infections and determining hospitalization days. According to current guidelines for diagnosis and treatments for COVID-19, if one is tested by RT-PCR negative for twice, he/she is considered the cured and should be discharged. However, some of cured and discharged patients later have been tested positive by RT-PCR⁷⁵. Presumably, many factors mentioned above could lead to "false negative" in these cases. On the other hand, a proportion of patients with fever or pneumonia were wrongly isolated together with other confirmed patients with COVID-19 in general medical wards because RT-PCR could produce false positive results due to sample contaminations or other reasons. These patients turned out to be infected by influenza or other pneumonia associated pathogens. A recent large diagnostic study⁷² showed 316 patients were confirmed infected with multiple respiratory pathogens including common human coronavirus (5 cases), influenza A virus (2), rhinovirus (12), and influenza A H3N2 (12), respiratory syncytial virus (7), influenza B virus (6), metapneumovirus (4). In addition, RT-PCR methods could generate inconsistent results. A fluorescence-based quantitative PCR kit urgently distributed by the China CDC was designed to detect NP and ORF1ab regions on the SARS-CoV-2 genome. Sometimes, the results from the two pairs of primers did not agree with each other⁷². Besides technical difficulties, deletions and mutations in genome of SARS-CoV-2 occurred during viral evolution may also contribute to false results generated by RT-PCR.

Enzyme-linked immunoassay (ELISA) was highly recommended and expected to improve detection rate for COVID-19⁷² because sampling blood was much less stringent than sampling nasal or oral swabs for detecting viruses, and antibodies allows much longer detection window than viruses. Furthermore, ELISA had a

quick turnaround time and relatively low costs. The strength of ELISA methods could make up of the shortages of RT-PCR⁷⁴. ELISA method based on SARSr-CoV Rp3 nucleocapsid protein was successfully developed to detect IgM and IgG against SARS-CoV-2 in early COVID-19 cases². A caveat is that this ELISA method may generate false positive results as N protein is the most conservative viral protein among human β -coronavirus genus⁷⁶. Antigens used in ELISA may react with antibodies against 4 other human coronaviruses that occurred in common colds. S protein is the most diverse protein and may be good candidate for ELISA development².

Differential diagnosis is also critical for confirming cases of COVID-19. Winter usually has higher prevalence of flu and other pathogens associated pneumonia. In all, diagnosis of COVID-19 has to be based on comprehensive understanding of epidemic history, clinical features, radiographic features, and laboratory detection⁴⁴.

6. Potential interventions

Isolation is still the most effective means of containing COVID-19⁷⁷. Effective surveillance is the prerequisite for blocking the source of infections. Many methods are applied to recognize source of infections (laboratory confirmed patients, suspected infected persons, and closely contacted persons), including community registration, tracing suspected carrier by cell phones. Those evaluated at moderate/high risk of exposure are encouraged to report conditions daily. General medical wards were used to collectively monitor and treat mild patients^{72,78}.

Therapeutics of COVID-19 primarily include symptomatic treatments and antiviral therapies. Early supportive interventions are critical for treating mild patients including nutrient supplements, oxygen therapy, Chinese herbal medicine, antibacterial therapy. Patients infected with COVID-19 are mostly middle-aged and elderly generally with low resistance to infection ⁷². Supportive treatments are necessary for patients with mild symptoms at the early stage of infection. For critically ill patients, high-flow oxygen therapy, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, glucocorticoid therapy and administration of convalescent plasma are applied ^{44,79}. There are several suggested antiviral treatments: lopinavir/ritonavir, ribavirin, interferon- α , chloroquine phosphate, and abidor. It is not recommended to use three or more antiviral drugs above simultaneously ^{44,80,81}. Combinational use of lopinavir, ritonavir and ribavirin in the treatment of SARS was reported to be associated with better outcome ⁸². It was previously reported that Chloroquine could inhibit SARS-CoV ⁸³ and was

tested for treating COVID-19 in clinical trials in China. Recently, several studies suggested remdesivir effectively inhibit RNA viruses (including SARS/MERS-CoV/2019-nCoV) infection 81,84,85. Remdesivir was used on the first patient in the United States and showed promising results 31. Currently, three clinical trials were registered for testing remdesivir on the treatment of COVID-19 (http://clinicaltrials.gov). In addition, a pan-coronavirus fusion inhibitor EK1 targeting the HR1 domain of human coronavirus spike was reported to have the potential to treat COVID-1986. Convalescent sera were used for treating critically ill patients and show some effects87.

Recent report indicated that transmission may occur from individuals with no symptoms or from convalescents 72,88. It is likely that SARS-CoV-2 will stay around for some time and even coevolve with its hosts. Due to uncertainty of clinical spectrum of virus carriers, vaccination is highly recommended for susceptible populations, especially for those with comorbidities (cardiovascular disease, diabetes, chronic respiratory disease, hypertension, cancers). Vaccines based on S protein, T cell epitopes and RBD (receptor binding domain) have been studied for SARS and MERS ^{86,89-91}. Recently, an oral vaccine based on yeast expressed S protein developed by a group of scientists in Tianjing University of China provoked a lot of interests after it was reported by Jingyun News. However, it needs to be further tested in clinical trials. On Feb 24^{th} , 2020, Moderna, a pharmaceutical company in the United States announced that its experimental mRNA COVID-19 vaccine, known as mRNA-1273, was ready for human testing and the initial batch of the vaccine were shipped to U.S. government researchers from the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID). We have reasons to believe that vaccines would be a way to prevent viral infection because convalescent sera could improve conditions of critically ill patients⁸⁷. In addition to the protective and therapeutic measures mentioned above, psychological interventions were expected to be helpful for infection control⁹².

7. Conclusion

Latest literatures and official data from China CDC revealed the epidemic of COVID-19 caused more infections and deaths than either SARS or MERS by far, despite of the fact that its case fatality rate is much lower. SARS-CoV-2 appears to be more infectious than SARS-CoV or MERS-CoV based on R₀ values calculated at the early stage of this outbreak. Majority of infected individuals with no or mild symptoms can release viruses and spread viruses to others, which is extremely challenging for preventing the spread of COVID-19. Therefore, intense surveillance is vital for preventing sustained transmission. Active interventions including nutrition supplement, symptomatic treatment, and antiviral treatment

are critical for mild patients as well as severe patients. Finally, prophylactic vaccination is highly demanded for future prevention of emerging coronavirus related epidemics or pandemics.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the funding to Qingsong Qin (No. 2017KTSCX067) from the Department of Education of Guangdong province of China and the funding to Qingsong Qin (No.2018A030307061) from the natural scientific foundation of Guangdong province of China.

Authors' contributions

Qingsong Qin Conceived, wrote, and revised the paper. Yixuan Wang, Yuyi Wang, and Yan Chen equally contribute to writing. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript before submission.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

Reference

- Zhu N, Zhang D, Wang W, et al. A Novel Coronavirus from Patients with Pneumonia in China, 2019. N Engl J Med. 2020;382(8):727-733.
- Zhou P, Yang XL, Wang XG, et al. A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat origin. *Nature*. 2020.
- Wu F, Zhao S, Yu B, et al. A new coronavirus associated with human respiratory disease in China. *Nature*. 2020.

- Chen L, Liu W, Zhang Q, et al. RNA based mNGS approach identifies a novel human coronavirus from two individual pneumonia cases in 2019 Wuhan outbreak.
 Emerg Microbes Infect. 2020;9(1):313-319.
- 5. Ren LL, Wang YM, Wu ZQ, et al. Identification of a novel coronavirus causing severe pneumonia in human: a descriptive study. *Chin Med J (Engl)*. 2020.
- Chan JF, Yuan S, Kok KH, et al. A familial cluster of pneumonia associated with the 2019 novel coronavirus indicating person-to-person transmission: a study of a family cluster. *Lancet*. 2020;395(10223):514-523.
- Gorbalenya AE, Baker SC, Baric RS, et al. Severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus: The species and its viruses a statement of the Coronavirus Study Group. bioRxiv. 2020:2020.2002.2007.937862.
- 8. Chen Y, Liu Q, Guo D. Emerging coronaviruses: Genome structure, replication, and pathogenesis. *J Med Virol.* 2020;92(4):418-423.
- 9. [The epidemiological characteristics of an outbreak of 2019 novel coronavirus diseases (COVID-19) in China]. Zhonghua Liu Xing Bing Xue Za Zhi. 2020;41(2):145-151.
- Zumla A, Chan JF, Azhar EI, Hui DS, Yuen KY. Coronaviruses drug discovery and therapeutic options. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2016;15(5):327-347.

- Lu R, Zhao X, Li J, et al. Genomic characterisation and epidemiology of 2019 novel coronavirus: implications for virus origins and receptor binding. *Lancet*.
 2020.
- 12. Li X, Zai J, Zhao Q, et al. Evolutionary history, potential intermediate animal host, and cross-species analyses of SARS-CoV-2. *J Med Virol.* 2020.
- 13. Phan T. Genetic diversity and evolution of SARS-CoV-2. *Infect Genet Evol.* 2020:104260.
- 14. Wrapp DN, Wang & Corbett, Kizzmekia & Goldsmith, Jory & Hsieh, Ching-Lin & Abiona, Olubukola & Graham, Barney & Mclellan, Jason. Cryo-EM Structure of the 2019-nCoV Spike in the Prefusion Conformation.. bioRxiv. 2020.
- 15. Tommy Tsan-Yuk Lam MH-HS, Hua-Chen Zhu. Identification of 2019-nCoV related coronaviruses in Malayan pangolins in southern China. 2020.
- 16. Ji WaW, Wei and Zhao, Xiaofang and Zai, Junjie and Li, Xingguang. Homologous recombination within the spike glycoprotein of the newly identified coronavirus may boost cross-species transmission from snake to human. *Journal of Medical Virology*. 2020;92.
- Li Q, Guan X, Wu P, et al. Early Transmission Dynamics in Wuhan, China, of Novel Coronavirus-Infected Pneumonia. N Engl J Med. 2020.

- 18. Riou J, Althaus CL. Pattern of early human-to-human transmission of Wuhan 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV), December 2019 to January 2020. *Euro Surveill.* 2020;25(4).
- 19. Wu JT, Leung K, Leung GM. Nowcasting and forecasting the potential domestic and international spread of the 2019-nCoV outbreak originating in Wuhan, China: a modelling study. *Lancet.* 2020.
- Liu Y, Gayle AA, Wilder-Smith A, Rocklov J. The reproductive number of COVID-19 is higher compared to SARS coronavirus. *J Travel Med.* 2020.
- Lai A, Bergna A, Acciarri C, Galli M, Zehender G. Early Phylogenetic Estimate of the Effective Reproduction Number Of Sars-CoV-2. *J Med Virol.* 2020.
- 22. Backer JA, Klinkenberg D, Wallinga J. Incubation period of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) infections among travellers from Wuhan, China, 20-28 January 2020. *Euro Surveill.* 2020;25(5).
- Wang D, Hu B, Hu C, et al. Clinical Characteristics of 138 Hospitalized Patients
 With 2019 Novel Coronavirus-Infected Pneumonia in Wuhan, China. *Jama.* 2020.
- 24. Respiratory care committee of Chinese Thoracic S. [Expert consensus on preventing nosocomial transmission during respiratory care for critically ill patients infected by 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia]. *Zhonghua Jie He Hu Xi Za Zhi.* 2020;17(0):E020.

- 25. Tong ZD, Tang A, Li KF, et al. Potential Presymptomatic Transmission of SARS-CoV-2, Zhejiang Province, China, 2020. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2020;26(5).
- 26. Bai SL, Wang JY, Zhou YQ, et al. [Analysis of the first cluster of cases in a family of novel coronavirus pneumonia in Gansu Province]. *Zhonghua Yu Fang Yi Xue Za Zhi.* 2020;54(0):E005.
- 27. Rocklov J, Sjodin H, Wilder-Smith A. COVID-19 outbreak on the Diamond Princess cruise ship: estimating the epidemic potential and effectiveness of public health countermeasures. *J Travel Med.* 2020.
- 28. Huijun Chen P, Juanjuan Guo M, Chen Wang P, et al. Clinical characteristics and intrauterine vertical transmission potential of COVID-19 infection in nine pregnant women: a retrospective review of medical records. *Lancet* 2020.
- 29. Rasmussen SA, Smulian JC, Lednicky JA, Wen TS, Jamieson DJ. Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) and Pregnancy: What obstetricians need to know. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2020.
- 30. Guan WJ, Ni ZY, Hu Y, et al. Clinical Characteristics of Coronavirus Disease 2019 in China. *N Engl J Med.* 2020.
- 31. Holshue ML, DeBolt C, Lindquist S, et al. First Case of 2019 Novel Coronavirus in the United States. *N Engl J Med.* 2020.
- 32. Hoehl S, Berger A, Kortenbusch M, et al. Evidence of SARS-CoV-2 Infection in Returning Travelers from Wuhan, China. *N Engl J Med.* 2020.

- 33. Zou L, Ruan F, Huang M, et al. SARS-CoV-2 Viral Load in Upper Respiratory Specimens of Infected Patients. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2020.
- 34. Chen J. Pathogenicity and Transmissibility of 2019-nCoV-A Quick Overview and Comparison with Other Emerging Viruses. *Microbes Infect*. 2020.
- 35. Zhao S, Lin Q, Ran J, et al. Preliminary estimation of the basic reproduction number of novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) in China, from 2019 to 2020: A data-driven analysis in the early phase of the outbreak. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2020;92:214-217.
- 36. Hui DSC, Zumla A. Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome: Historical, Epidemiologic, and Clinical Features. *Infect Dis Clin North Am.* 2019;33(4):869-889.
- 37. Cao C, Chen W, Zheng S, Zhao J, Wang J, Cao W. Analysis of Spatiotemporal Characteristics of Pandemic SARS Spread in Mainland China. *Biomed Res Int.* 2016;2016:7247983.
- 38. Hui DS. Epidemic and Emerging Coronaviruses (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome). *Clin Chest Med.* 2017;38(1):71-86.
- 39. de Wit E, van Doremalen N, Falzarano D, Munster VJ. SARS and MERS: recent insights into emerging coronaviruses. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2016;14(8):523-534.

- 40. Judson SD, Munster VJ. Nosocomial Transmission of Emerging Viruses via

 Aerosol-Generating Medical Procedures. *Viruses*. 2019;11(10).
- 41. Sharif-Yakan A, Kanj SS. Emergence of MERS-CoV in the Middle East: origins, transmission, treatment, and perspectives. *PLoS Pathog.* 2014;10(12):e1004457.
- 42. Aevermann BD, Pickett BE, Kumar S, et al. A comprehensive collection of systems biology data characterizing the host response to viral infection. *Sci Data*. 2014;1:140033.
- 43. Malik YS, Sircar S, Bhat S, et al. Emerging novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) -Current scenario, evolutionary perspective based on genome analysis and recent developments. Vet Q. 2020:1-12.
- The guidelines for diagnosis and treatment of novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) infected pneumonia (the sixth edition draft) issued by the National Health Commission of China In. http://www.gov.cn/zhengce/zhengceku/2020-02/19/content_5480948.htm2020.
- 45. Wei-jie Guan Z-yN, Yu Hu. Clinical characteristics of 2019 novel coronavirus infection in China. 2020.
- 46. Chen N, Zhou M, Dong X, et al. Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of 99 cases of 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study.
 Lancet. 2020;395(10223):507-513.

- 47. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, et al. Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10223):497-506.
- Caibin Fan KL, Yanhong Ding. ACE2 Expression in Kidney and Testis May Cause
 Kidney and Testis Damage After 2019-nCoV Infection. *medRxiv*. 2020.
- Xiaoqiang Chai LH, Yan Zhang. Specific ACE2 Expression in Cholangiocytes May
 Cause Liver Damage After 2019-nCoV Infection. bioRxiv. 2020.
- 50. Hui DS, Wong PC, Wang C. SARS: clinical features and diagnosis. *Respirology*. 2003;8 Suppl:S20-24.
- 51. Pan Y, Guan H, Zhou S, et al. Initial CT findings and temporal changes in patients with the novel coronavirus pneumonia (2019-nCoV): a study of 63 patients in Wuhan, China. *Eur Radiol.* 2020.
- 52. Peiris JS, Lai ST, Poon LL, et al. Coronavirus as a possible cause of severe acute respiratory syndrome. *Lancet.* 2003;361(9366):1319-1325.
- 53. Leung WK, To KF, Chan PK, et al. Enteric involvement of severe acute respiratory syndrome-associated coronavirus infection. *Gastroenterology*. 2003;125(4):1011-1017.
- 54. Guidelines for the prevention and treatment of SARS. *Dongguan Science and Technology Journal*. 2003(5): 7-7.
- 55. Chau TN, Lee KC, Yao H, et al. SARS-associated viral hepatitis caused by a novel coronavirus: report of three cases. *Hepatology*. 2004;39(2):302-310.

- 56. Du H WQ, Ma Y. Analysis of SARS Inpatients in Beijing in 2003. *Chinese General Practice*. 2004;7(4):231-232.
- 57. Assiri A, Al-Tawfiq JA, Al-Rabeeah AA, et al. Epidemiological, demographic, and clinical characteristics of 47 cases of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus disease from Saudi Arabia: a descriptive study. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2013;13(9):752-761.
- 58. Hijawi B, Abdallat M, Sayaydeh A, et al. Novel coronavirus infections in Jordan, April 2012: epidemiological findings from a retrospective investigation. East Mediterr Health J. 2013;19 Suppl 1:S12-18.
- 59. Assiri AaM, Allison and Perl, Trish and Price, Connie and Rabeeah, Abdullah and Cummings, Derek. Hospital outbreak of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus. N Engl J Med. 2013;19:1-10.
- State of Knowledge and Data Gaps of Middle East Respiratory Syndrome
 Coronavirus (MERS-CoV) in Humans. *PLoS Curr.* 2013;5.
- 61. Guery B, Poissy J, el Mansouf L, et al. Clinical features and viral diagnosis of two cases of infection with Middle East Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus: a report of nosocomial transmission. *Lancet.* 2013;381(9885):2265-2272.
- 62. Memish ZA, Zumla AI, Al-Hakeem RF, Al-Rabeeah AA, Stephens GM. Family cluster of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus infections. *N Engl J Med.* 2013;368(26):2487-2494.

- 63. Diagnosis and Treatment Plan for Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Cases (2015 Edition). *Virologica Sinica*. 2015(5):352-354.
- 64. Lee JY, Kim YJ, Chung EH, et al. The clinical and virological features of the first imported case causing MERS-CoV outbreak in South Korea, 2015. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2017;17(1):498.
- 65. World Health Organization. WHO MERS global summary and assessment of risk.

 https://www.who.int/csr/disease/coronavirus_
 infections/risk-assessment-august-2018.pdf.
- 66. Wong RS, Wu A, To KF, et al. Haematological manifestations in patients with severe acute respiratory syndrome: retrospective analysis. *Bmj.* 2003;326(7403):1358-1362.
- 67. Zaki AM, van Boheemen S, Bestebroer TM, Osterhaus AD, Fouchier RA. Isolation of a novel coronavirus from a man with pneumonia in Saudi Arabia. N Engl J Med. 2012;367(19):1814-1820.
- 68. Drosten C, Seilmaier M, Corman VM, et al. Clinical features and virological analysis of a case of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus infection.

 Lancet Infect Dis. 2013;13(9):745-751.
- 69. Dyall J, Gross R, Kindrachuk J, et al. Middle East Respiratory Syndrome and Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome: Current Therapeutic Options and Potential Targets for Novel Therapies. *Drugs.* 2017;77(18):1935-1966.

- 70. Chan PK, Tang JW, Hui DS. SARS: clinical presentation, transmission, pathogenesis and treatment options. *Clin Sci (Lond)*. 2006;110(2):193-204.
- 71. Fang Y, Zhang H, Xie J, et al. Sensitivity of Chest CT for COVID-19: Comparison to RT-PCR. *Radiology*. 2020:200432.
- 72. Wang M, Wu Q, Xu W, et al. Clinical diagnosis of 8274 samples with 2019-novel coronavirus in Wuhan. *medRxiv.* 2020:2020.2002.2012.20022327.
- 73. Chu DKW, Pan Y, Cheng SMS, et al. Molecular Diagnosis of a Novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) Causing an Outbreak of Pneumonia. *Clin Chem.* 2020.
- 74. Xiao SY, Wu Y, Liu H. Evolving status of the 2019 novel coronavirus infection: Proposal of conventional serologic assays for disease diagnosis and infection monitoring. J Med Virol. 2020.
- 75. Lan L, Xu D, Ye G, et al. Positive RT-PCR Test Results in Patients Recovered From COVID-19. *JAMA*. 2020.
- 76. Sun ZF, Meng XJ. Antigenic cross-reactivity between the nucleocapsid protein of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) coronavirus and polyclonal antisera of antigenic group I animal coronaviruses: implication for SARS diagnosis. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2004;42(5):2351-2352.
- 77. ZHOU G, CHI C. A model simulation study on effects of intervention measures in Wuhan COVID-19 epidemic. *medRxiv*. 2020:2020.2002.2014.20023168.

- 78. Bernard Stoecklin S, Rolland P, Silue Y, et al. First cases of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in France: surveillance, investigations and control measures, January 2020. *Euro Surveill.* 2020;25(6).
- 79. Notice on the issuance of strategic guidelines for diagnosis and treatment of novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) infected pneumonia(first edition draft) In.
- 80. Lim J, Jeon S, Shin HY, et al. Case of the Index Patient Who Caused Tertiary

 Transmission of COVID-19 Infection in Korea: the Application of

 Lopinavir/Ritonavir for the Treatment of COVID-19 Infected Pneumonia Monitored

 by Quantitative RT-PCR. *J Korean Med Sci.* 2020;35(6):e79.
- 81. Wang M, Cao R, Zhang L, et al. Remdesivir and chloroquine effectively inhibit the recently emerged novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) in vitro. *Cell Res.* 2020.
- 82. Chu CM, Cheng VC, Hung IF, et al. Role of lopinavir/ritonavir in the treatment of SARS: initial virological and clinical findings. *Thorax.* 2004;59(3):252-256.
- 83. Vincent MJ, Bergeron E, Benjannet S, et al. Chloroquine is a potent inhibitor of SARS coronavirus infection and spread. *Virol J.* 2005;2:69.
- 84. Sheahan TP, Sims AC, Graham RL, et al. Broad-spectrum antiviral GS-5734 inhibits both epidemic and zoonotic coronaviruses. *Sci Transl Med.* 2017;9(396).
- 85. Warren TK, Jordan R, Lo MK, et al. Therapeutic efficacy of the small molecule GS-5734 against Ebola virus in rhesus monkeys. *Nature*. 2016;531(7594):381-385.

- 86. Xia S, Yan L, Xu W, et al. A pan-coronavirus fusion inhibitor targeting the HR1 domain of human coronavirus spike. *Sci Adv.* 2019;5(4):eaav4580.
- 87. Li XY, Du B, Wang YS, et al. [The keypoints in treatment of the critical coronavirus disease 2019 patient]. *Zhonghua Jie He He Hu Xi Za Zhi.* 2020;43(0):E026.
- 88. Bai Y, Yao L, Wei T, et al. Presumed Asymptomatic Carrier Transmission of COVID-19. *JAMA*. 2020.
- 89. Liu WJ, Zhao M, Liu K, et al. T-cell immunity of SARS-CoV: Implications for vaccine development against MERS-CoV. *Antiviral Res.* 2017;137:82-92.
- 90. Chen WH, Du L, Chag SM, et al. Yeast-expressed recombinant protein of the receptor-binding domain in SARS-CoV spike protein with deglycosylated forms as a SARS vaccine candidate. *Hum Vaccin Immunother*. 2014;10(3):648-658.
- 91. Yu F, Du L, Ojcius DM, Pan C, Jiang S. Measures for diagnosing and treating infections by a novel coronavirus responsible for a pneumonia outbreak originating in Wuhan, China. *Microbes Infect.* 2020.
- 92. Chen Q, Liang M, Li Y, et al. Mental health care for medical staff in China during the COVID-19 outbreak. *Lancet.* 2020.

Table 1: The global distribution of mortality of COVID-19 (by 2-27-2020)

	Number of confirmed cases	Percentage of total cases	Number of deaths	Fatality rate
Wuhan	48137	58.3%	2132	4.42%
Rest of Hubei	17777	21.5%	550	3.09%
Hubei	65914	79.8%	2682	4.07%
Rest of China	13045	15.8%	109	0.84%
China	78959	95.6%	2791	3.53%
International (46 countries)	3664	4.43%	67	1.83%
Total	82623	100%	2858	3.46%

Table 2: epidemiological characteristics of SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2.

	SARS-CoV	MERS-CoV	SARS-CoV-2
Estimated R ₀	2~5 ^{34,35}	<1 ³⁴	2.68 (95% CI, 2.48 to 2.86) ¹⁹
Host of virus	natural host: chinese horseshoe bats ³⁶	natural host: bats ¹¹ intermediate host:	natural host: bats ¹¹ intermediate host:
	intermediate host: masked palm civet ¹¹	dromedary camels ¹¹	pangolins ¹⁵
	terminal host: humans ¹¹	terminal hosts: humans ¹¹	terminal hosts: humans ¹¹
Virus	person-to-person	respiratory	person-to-person
transmission mode	transmission through droplets ³⁷ ,	transmission ⁴¹ ,	transmission through respiratory droplets,
	opportunistic airborne transmission ³⁸ ,	sporadic zoonotic transmission ³⁸ ,	contact and fomites ³⁴ , zoonotic transmission ⁴³ ,
		nosocomial	
	nosocomial transmission ³⁹ ,	transmission ³⁹ ,	nosocomial transmission ⁹ ,
	sporadic zoonotic	via aerosols ⁴⁰ ,	fecal-oral transmission, and aerosol transmission
	transmission,	limited human to human transmission ⁴² .	is highly possible ⁴⁴ .
	aerosol transmission ⁴⁰ ,		
	fecal-oral transmission ³⁶ .		
Median incubation	4.6 days (95% CI, 3.8– 5.8 days) ³⁸	5.2 days (95% CI, 1.9– 14.7) ³⁸	6.4 days (range, 0 to 24.0 days) ⁴⁵

period

Case-fatality worldwide (WHO): 9.6% worldwide (WHO): Wuhan, China:3%.³⁴

34.5%

rate mainland China:6.4% South Korea: 20.4%. 19

Hong Kong: 17%. 19

Table 3: clinical, laboratory and radiologic characteristics of SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2.

	SARS-CoV	MERS-CoV	SARS-CoV-2
Clinical	1. persistent fever,	1. begins with fever,	1. fever, dry cough, myalgia,
features	chills/rigor, myalgia,	cough, chills, sore	fatigue, dyspnea, anorexia ²³ .
	dry cough,	throat, myalgia,	Fever and cough were the
	headache, malaise	arthralgia, followed by	dominant symptoms, diarrhea
	and dyspnea ³⁸ .	dyspnea and rapid	is uncommon ⁴⁵ .
		progression to	
	2. sore throat,	pneumonia within the	2. multiple organ failure,
	rhinorrhea, sputum	first week ⁵⁷⁻⁶⁰ .	including renal damage ⁴⁸ , liver damage ⁴⁹ , and testicular tissue
	production, nausea		
	and vomiting,	2. gastrointestinal	damage ⁴⁸ .
	watery	symptoms, including	A mild matinutes lass faces mild
	diarrhea ^{52,53} and	diarrhea, vomiting ⁵⁷⁻⁶² ,	4.mild patients: low fever, mild
	dizziness were less	and abdominal pain ⁵⁷ .	fatigue, and no pneumonia ⁴⁴ .
	common ³⁸ .	2 anuara anna ADDC	5. severe patients: dyspnea or
	2	3. severe cases: ARDS,	hypoxemia one week after the
	3. severe cases:	acute renal failure and	onset ⁴⁴ .
	accelerated	even multiple organ	
	breathing, shortness	failure ⁶³ , including Liver	6. critical patients: ARDS, facial shock etc ⁴⁴ . Dyspnea,
	of breath, or	function damage ⁶⁴ .	
	obvious respiratory distress ⁵⁴ .	4. 21% of cases had	abdominal pain, and anorexia
	distress.	no/mild symptoms,	were also common ²³ .
	4. organ failure	while 46% had severe	
	including Liver	disease or died ⁶⁵ .	7. 80.9% were considered mild/common pneumonia,

were critical cases. 5. 11.1% severe respiratory illness, 61% mild symptom⁵⁶. 1. lymphopenia, DIC, 1. depressed total Laboratory 1. similar to SARS, elevated LDH, CK³⁸. common laboratory lymphocytes, prolonged PT, elevated levels of LDH²³, AST, White blood cell findings include leukopenia^{57,58,62,67}, ALT⁴⁵, blood urea, creatinine ²³. count is generally elevated LDH, AST, not high⁵⁴. 2. most patients have elevated thrombocytopenia, and 2. CD4 and CD8 CRP and erythrocyte lymphopenia⁵⁷. T-lymphocyte sedimentation rate and normal procalcitonin⁴⁴. counts fell in the 2.several cases: viral early course, it was RNA in blood, urine, and 3. severe cases: D-dimer associated with stool but at much lower increases and peripheral blood viral loads^{58,68} adverse clinical lymphocytes progressively outcome⁶⁶. compared to SARS. decreased⁴⁴. 3. Elevated liver 3. 4. critically ill patients: enzymes⁶⁹, which may thrombocytopenia, elevated inflammatory be related to liver prolonged APTT, factors⁴⁴. elevated D-Dimer, injury. ALT⁵⁰. 5. nonsurvivors: the neutrophil count, D-dimer, blood urea,

Radiologic features

features

1. the predominant involvement of lung periphery and the lower zone. Absence of pleural effusion³⁸.

damage⁵⁵.

- 2. ground-glass opacification and
- 1. bilateral hilar infiltration, unilateral or bilateral patchy densities or infiltrates, ground-glass opacities, and small pleural effusions³⁸.
- 2. lower lobes are
- 1. bilateral distribution of patchy shadows and ground glass opacity was a typical hallmark of CT scan for NCIP²³.

and creatinine levels is very

high²³.

13.8% were severe cases, 4.7%

2. radiologic abnormality occurs in a substantial proportion of patients on initial presentation⁴⁵. Pleural

lobe thickening ⁷⁰ .	affected with more	effusion is rare ⁴⁴ .
	rapid radiographic	
	progression than	
	SARS ³⁸ .	

ARDS=acute respiratory distress syndrome. PT=prothrombin time. AST=aspartate aminotransferase. ALT=alanine aminotransferase. LDH=lactate dehydrogenase. CK=creatine kinase. CRP=C-reactive protein. DIC=disseminated intravascular coagulation. APTT=activated partial thromboplastin time.

Figure

Fig 1. Case numbers and fatality rates of COVID-19 in Wuhan and other areas.

