

SARS-CoV-2 transmission dynamics in Belarus revealed by genomic and incidence data analysis.

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Abstract

Since the emergence of COVID-19, a series of non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) has been implemented by governments and public health authorities worldwide to control and curb the ongoing pandemic spread. From that perspective, Belarus is one of a few countries with a relatively modern healthcare system, where much narrower NPIs have been put in place. Given the uniqueness of this Belarusian experience, the understanding its COVID-19 epidemiological dynamics is essential not only for the local assessment, but also for a better insight into the impact of different NPI strategies globally. In this work, we integrate genomic epidemiology and surveillance methods to investigate the emergence and spread of SARS-CoV-2 in the country. The observed Belarusian SARS-CoV-2 genetic diversity originated from at least eighteen separate introductions, at least five of which resulted in ongoing domestic transmissions. The introduction sources represent a wide variety of regions, although the proportion of regional virus introductions and exports from/to geographical neighbors appears to be higher than for other European countries. Phylodynamic analysis indicates a moderate reduction in the effective reproductive number \mathcal{R}_e after the introduction of limited NPIs, with the reduction magnitude generally being lower than for countries with large-scale NPIs. On the other hand, the estimate of the Belarusian \mathcal{R}_e at the early epidemic stage is comparable with this number for the neighboring ex-USSR country of Ukraine, where much broader NPIs have been implemented. The actual number of cases by the end of May, 2020 was predicted to be 2-9 times higher than the detected number of cases.

Keywords: COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, Belarus, genomic epidemiology, phylodynamics, effective reproduction number

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NOTE: This preprint reports new research that has not been certified by peer review and should not be used to guide clinical practice.

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1 Introduction

The Republic of Belarus is a country in Eastern Europe with a population of approximately 9.5 million. In comparison to other ex-USSR and Central European countries, it is characterized by weaker socio-economic and political ties with the neighboring European Union [20, 52] and lower outward population mobility [9]. At the same time, Belarus has a relatively modern healthcare system [45], and the country's Human Development Index (HDI) is categorized as "very high" (vhHDI) [13].

The COVID-19 epidemic has reached Belarus later than most of Western European countries and approximately at the same time as its neighbors. The first confirmed imported case reported on February 28, 2020 was a person who arrived from Iran [5, 3]. Since then, there was a steady increase in the number of officially reported laboratory-confirmed cases that has surpassed 300,000 on March 13, 2021.

The major feature of the COVID-19 pandemic in Belarus is the significantly narrower scope of non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) in comparison to other vhHDI countries [17]. The implemented NPIs included a mandatory 14-day self-isolation for individuals who were arriving from abroad or were identified as close contacts of individuals with confirmed COVID-19; some social distancing measures such as the increase in frequency of public transportation operations to reduce crowding; remote teaching and delaying the class starting times at schools and higher education institutions [6]. No large-scale quarantines, lockdowns or other strict social distancing measures have ever been administered. The other widely practiced measures such as mask regimen and border closures were not mandated until November and December of 2020, respectively.

Given the uniqueness of the Belarusian experience, understanding of COVID-19 epidemiological dynamics in this country is essential not only for assessment of its past and current public health situation, but also for a better insight into the impact of different NPI strategies around the globe. However, the development of such understanding has been impeded by the limited amount of available data. Until the last quarter of 2020 the only available data have been the officially reported country-level counts that included daily incidence, numbers of conducted diagnostic tests, and COVID-related mortality. Such statistics are prone to biases and underreporting [31, 53]. While these drawbacks are well-known and common for all countries, they have a potential to be exacerbated in Belarus due to limited testing capacities provided by a handful of national-level laboratories [6].

In the meantime, whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data analyzed using genomic epidemiology methods provides a complementary and independent source of information. WGS SARS-CoV-2 data have already been used to study transmission histories and epidemiological dynamics in a variety of countries and administrative regions [35, 27, 15, 47, 37, 23, 28, 24, 22]. For Belarus sufficiently representative genomic dataset has become available only in the late 2020, when the limited sequencing data produced outside of the country on behalf of the World Health Organization (WHO) were extended by the locally produced sequences.

In this paper, we combined WGS genomic data and epidemiological data to carry out the first study of SARS-CoV-2 transmission dynamics in Belarus. In the absence of significant amounts of reliable epidemiological statistics, the integrated genomic and incidence analysis allowed to fill the information gap and provide a plausible picture of the emergence and spread of SARS-CoV-2 in the country. The obtained results also gave

47 insight into the effect of limited NPIs during the first epidemic wave.

48 **2 Methods**

49 **2.1 Data**

50 The SARS-CoV-2 genomic data for analysis were downloaded from GISAID [48] on March
51 15, 2021. The Belarusian dataset consists of 41 full-length genomes sampled between
52 March 2020 and February 2021. One sequence was obtained from a citizen of Azerbaijan
53 who was tested in Belarus to be allowed to return to his home country. This sequence is
54 marked as Azerbaijani in GISAID, but is considered as Belarusian here. The Ukrainian
55 dataset that was analyzed for comparison purposes consists of 116 sequences. Daily
56 numbers of new cases and conducted tests were collected from the official Telegram channel
57 of the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Belarus [10]

58 **2.2 Global phylogenetic analysis**

59 For the phylogeny reconstruction, we utilized the SARS-CoV-2-specific phylogenetic in-
60 ference pipeline implemented in Nextstrain [29]. The sequences from Belarus were an-
61 alyzed together with 12,064 background sequences from the global SARS-CoV-2 popu-
62 lation. To obtain a representative sample with those background sequences, a country-
63 specific Nextstrain context subsampling was used [29]. The sequences were aligned using
64 MAFFT [34], and a maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree was constructed using
65 IQ-TREE [39] under Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano (HKY)+ Γ nucleotide substitution model
66 with a gamma-distributed site rate variation [30].

67 In the resulting time-labelled tree, ancestral geolocation traits have been inferred using
68 so-called “migration model” [46]. In this model, countries of origin of the tree nodes are
69 considered as discrete traits, and the virus spread between countries is considered as a
70 general time reversible process. We augmented this model by incorporating the human
71 mobility statistics provided by European Commission Knowledge Center on Migration
72 and Demography (KCMD) [44] via KCMD Dynamic Data Hub [9]. Even though global
73 travel has been affected by COVID-19-related restrictions, this statistics are still assumed
74 to representatively reflect the *relative* density of human mobility between countries even
75 in quarantine settings. Specifically, the transition rates between traits were assumed to
76 be proportional to the normalized average numbers of inter-country trips. The resulting
77 transition rate matrix has been used to estimate the maximum joint likelihood traits
78 of internal nodes using the dynamic programming algorithm [40]. This trait inference
79 algorithm has been implemented in Matlab (v. R2019b).

80 Belarusian clades were defined as those having the most recent common ancestors
81 (MRCA) with “Belarus” trait, and intra-Belarusian lineages were inferred as the maximal
82 subtrees inside these clades. Upon examination of the Belarusian clades, we joined two
83 clusters that have the same estimated source trait and the MRCA at the tree distance of 4
84 from both of them. Finally, global lineages of sequences were determined using Pangolin
85 SARS-CoV-2 Lineage Assigner [11].

86 2.3 Intra-country phylodynamic analysis

87 In this work we largely followed a general analytic pipeline adopted in other similar
88 country-level studies (see e.g. [27, 36, 35, 47]), with several modification tailored for the
89 specifics of the analyzed data. At first, temporal signal was evaluated by constructing
90 an ML phylogeny under HKY+ Γ nucleotide substitution model and by regressing root-
91 to-tip genetic divergence against sampling dates using TempEst (v.1.5.3) [43]. Next,
92 BEAST (v.2.6.3) [18] was used to fit the Coalescent Bayesian Skyline model to the full
93 set of Belarusian sequences. As before, HKY+ Γ nucleotide substitution model was used
94 together with a strict molecular clock. The clock rate was assumed to follow a gamma
95 (Γ) distribution with the mean equal to 8×10^{-4} mutations/site/year and the standard
96 deviation of 5×10^{-4} [16, 27], where the distribution density was parametrized using the
97 corresponding shape and rate parameters. Four segments were assumed for the effective
98 population size that roughly corresponded to growth and decline periods of the first
99 and second COVID-19 epidemic waves. The model parameters were sampled from the
100 corresponding posterior distribution using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method
101 with 3×10^7 iterations, sampling every 3×10^3 iterations and the initial 10% “burn-
102 in” iterations. The MCMC sampling quality was assessed using Tracer (v.1.7.1) [41]
103 and accepted if all parameters had effective sampling sizes (ESS) higher than 200. The
104 obtained maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree was annotated using Tree Annotator
105 (v.1.8.4) [33]. The reliability of intra-Belarusian clusters detected by the ML phylogenetic
106 inference was re-confirmed by verifying their correspondence to monophyletic clades in
107 the MCC tree. For each cluster, time to the most recent common ancestor (TMRCA)
108 was estimated.

109 The effective reproduction number \mathcal{R}_e and the sampling proportion have been es-
110 timated for the two best-sampled Belarusian transmission lineages with a total of 19
111 genomes (Supplemental Table S3) using Birth Death Skyline Serial (BDSKY) model [49]
112 implemented in BEAST. The analyzed lineages were likely co-circulating over the same
113 susceptible population (see Results). Thus, we used a linked model where both lineages
114 evolve and are being sampled independently but share the substitution model parameters,
115 the molecular clock rate and the effective reproduction number drawn from the same re-
116 spective priors. Given the relative sparsity of available genomic data, this approach allows
117 to use larger and more representative combined sample for the analysis. The same settings
118 as above have been used for the substitution model, molecular clock and MCMC. Since
119 BDSKY model is parameter-rich, we equipped it with the informative priors on several
120 parameters. Specifically, the sampling proportions were assumed to have a $Beta(\alpha, \beta)$
121 distribution prior with parameters $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = 9.99 \cdot 10^5$, thus reflecting the sparsity of
122 Belarusian sequence sample (the proportion of sequenced cases from the total number of
123 cases is assumed to vary between 10^{-6} and 10^{-3}). The prior for the origin of each cluster
124 was assumed to be normally distributed with the mean equal to the time estimated using
125 the Coalescent Bayesian Skyline. For the rate of becoming non-infectious, we assumed an
126 infectious period of 10 days [27, 32, 35, 38]. Finally, we considered the models with one
127 and two changes of the effective reproduction number \mathcal{R}_e and the sampling proportion.
128 The times of the parameters change were fixed to July 1, 2020 for the first model and
129 May 1 and July 1, 2020 for the second model. The list of model parameters is reported
130 in the Supplemental Table S1.

131 2.4 Inference of case counts

132 Here we used two complementary approaches. In the first approach, trees and BDSKY
133 parameters sampled by BEAST were used to reconstruct cumulative case count trajec-
134 tories using the particle filter algorithm implemented in EpiInf (v.7.3.0) [51]. In the second
135 approach, we utilized the method of [53]. It quantifies the case counts underestimation
136 from the numbers of confirmed cases and conducted tests up to a specified date in a semi-
137 Bayesian way under the assumptions that the observed data are subject to sampling,
138 reporting and diagnosis biases. The model [53] has been used with the default settings.
139 The case count trajectories were inferred by taking 10^4 samples from model-defined prior
140 distributions of testing probabilities for individuals with different severity of symptoms.

141 3 Results

142 **SARS-CoV-2 genomic diversity** Despite the sparse sampling, the observed Belaru-
143 sian SARS-CoV-2 sequences belong to 11 genomic lineages (by the nomenclature of [42],
144 Fig.1A). In particular, the genome that was sampled on February 23, 2021 belongs to
145 B.1.1.7 lineage that emerged in the UK in November 2020 and had been rapidly spread-
146 ing toward fixation [21]. The root-to-tip regression analysis demonstrated moderately
147 strong temporal signal ($R^2 = 0.56$, $p < 10^{-6}$, Fig.1B).

148 **SARS-CoV-2 transmission history** We identified 18 distinct intra-Belarusian clades
149 that most likely correspond to separate introductions of SARS-CoV-2 into the country.
150 The inference of between-country importations of SARS-CoV-2 is usually complicated,
151 since during the global pandemic close genomic variants can be observed in multiple
152 geographic locations. Therefore, the results of such inference should be treated with
153 caution. With that in mind, we note that the inferred transmission history agreed with the
154 travel records for those cases when they were available. In particular, the first confirmed
155 SARS-CoV-2 case was the individual who arrived from Iran [3], and the phylogenetics
156 reaffirmed that. The agreement also held for the second detected case brought by the
157 travelled from Italy [1]. The first introduction produced at least one secondary case as
158 indicated by the tree; however, both lineages were not sampled after March, 2020 (Fig.2B).
159 This can be attributed to the timely isolation of those individuals and their first order
160 contacts [2]. In general, SARS-CoV-2 importations into the country could be attributed
161 to a mixture of regional and global transmissions. As illustrated in Fig.1B the most
162 frequent alleged virus introduction sources were the neighboring countries of Russia (5
163 introductions) and Poland (3 introductions).

164 Five SARS-CoV-2 introductions (28%) are associated with clusters of two or more
165 sequences, and thus are hypothesized to establish intra-country transmission lineages.
166 Three largest transmission lineages are paraphyletic and may indicate virus re-export
167 from Belarus to other countries. Even though some alleged export cases could be sampling
168 artefacts, those of them involving large lineages are more reliable. Such cases include two
169 SARS-CoV-2 introductions to the neighboring country of Latvia in June, 2020 (95% CI:
170 May 31, 2020 - June 26, 2020) and in October, 2020 (95% CI: October 1, 2020 - October 22,
171 2020) that established substantial Latvian transmission lineages (Supplemental Fig.S2)

172 **Effective reproduction number and the effect of NPIs.** Most observed clades orig-
173 inated between March and July of 2020, and the majority of their times to MRCA fall

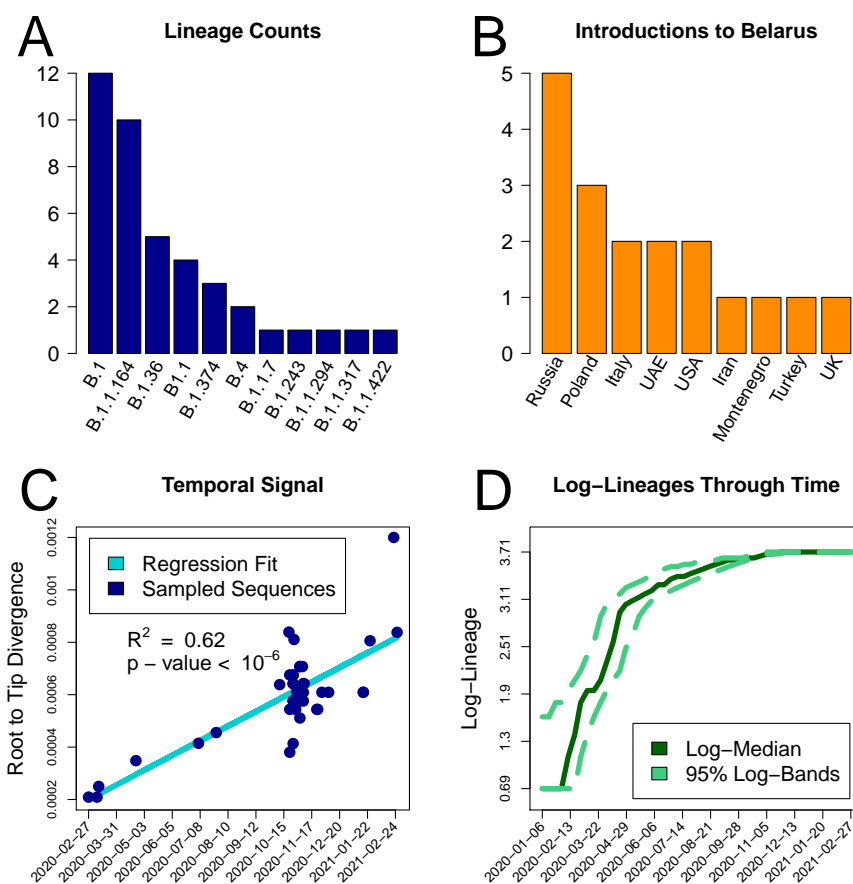


Figure 1: Lineages summaries: A) Abundances of genomicthe c lineages. B) Estimated introduction sources to Belarus. C) Temporal signal. D) Lineages-through-time (on logarithmic scale).

174 into April (Fig. 1D, Fig.2B and Supplementary Table S4). The majority of branching
 175 events also belonged to the same time period. It implies that, despite sequencing being
 176 performed mostly in late 2020 – early 2021, the phylodynamic analysis of currently avail-
 177 able Belarusian genomes allows us to reliably assess only the first epidemic wave prior
 178 to July 2020. Another reason to choose July, 1 for the endpoint of our phylodynamics
 179 analysis is the dynamics of the daily percentage of positive tests. The WHO criterion for
 180 influenza-like-illnesses (ILI) assumes that epidemic is “under control” if the percentage of
 181 positive tests is below 5% for at least two weeks [14]. According to the officially reported
 182 data, Belarus reached this state with respect to the first COVID-19 wave by the end of
 183 June, 2020 (Fig.4D), even though the reported incidence peaked several weeks earlier.

184 Best-sampled transmission clusters are well-mixed and have representatives from at
 185 least two Belarusian administrative regions (Fig.2B). This fact and the relative homo-
 186 geneity of the Belarusian demographical characteristics suggest that the corresponding
 187 viral lineages co-circulated over the same susceptible population. Thus, we estimated the
 188 effective reproduction number \mathcal{R}_e for these lineages using a linked BDSKY model. The
 189 model with three segments shows a moderate decline of the median $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ from $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e = 1.95$
 190 (95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval: (1.03; 2.99)) in March-April to $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e = 1.59$
 191 (95% HPD interval: (0.82; 2.39)) in May-June (Fig. 3B). The obtained HPD intervals,
 192 however, are rather wide due to the relatively small genome sample size. Thus, we also

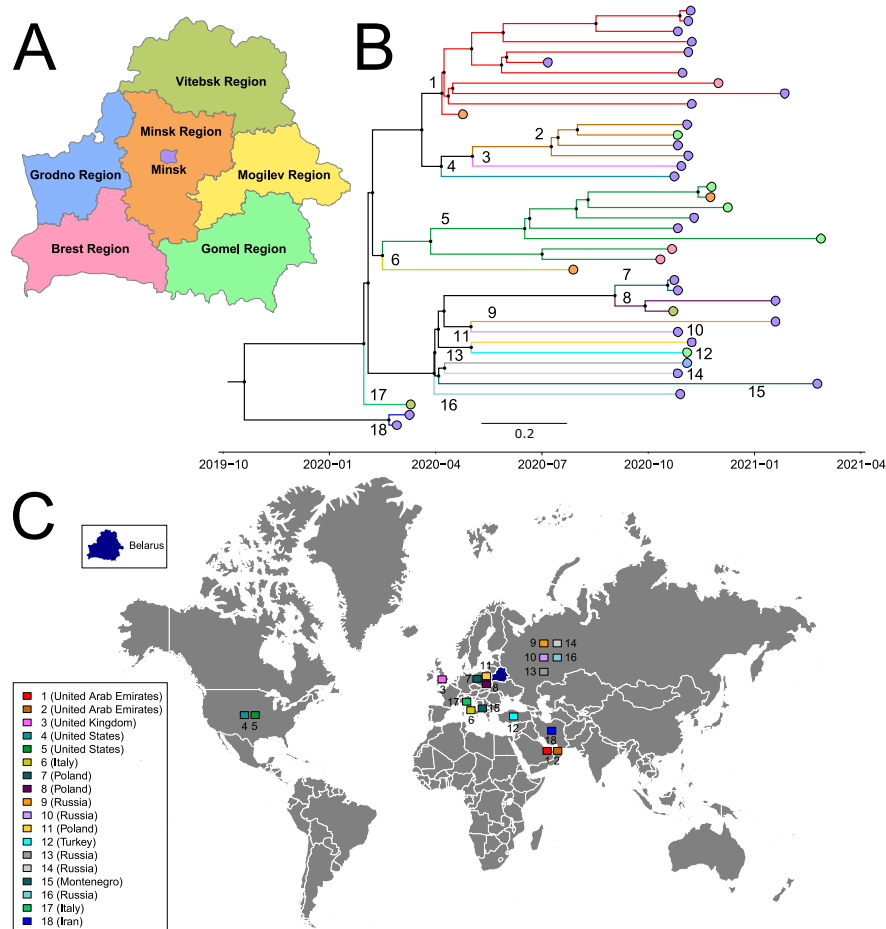


Figure 2: The annotated maximum clade credibility tree. A) Administrative regions of Belarus. B) The tree with the leaves color-coded by sampling regions (using the colors from panel A) and with the branches coded by the corresponding clusters. C) Cluster sources marked on the world map by their ids that correspond to panel B. Maps for figures were downloaded from Vemaps.com

193 estimated the median $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ for the entire period of March-June, which turned out to be
 194 $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e = 1.70$ (95% HPD interval: (1.45; 1.96)). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for
 195 the formal comparison of prior and posterior distribution samples for $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ and resulted in
 196 $p < 10^{-10}$ for all of them.

197 In addition, we matched the estimate of the effective reproduction number $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ for
 198 Belarus against that for Ukraine - the neighboring ex-USSR non-EU country with sim-
 199 ilar demographics. The major difference in COVID-19 epidemics between Belarus and
 200 Ukraine is the scope of NPIs, with Ukraine implementing much stricter lockdown and
 201 physical distancing policies [17]. The same Birth-Death Skyline Serial model was applied
 202 to two best-sampled Ukrainian clusters with the total of 28 sequences defined as in [25]
 203 (Supplemental Table S3). The median Ukrainian $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ over the same time period was es-
 204 timated to be $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e = 1.64$ (95% HPD interval: (1.49; 1.81)). This assessment agrees with
 205 the previous estimation based on Exponential Coalescent model [25] and appeared to be
 206 comparable to $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ estimates for Belarus.

207 **Cumulative incidence and case counts.** Cumulative case count trajectories for Be-

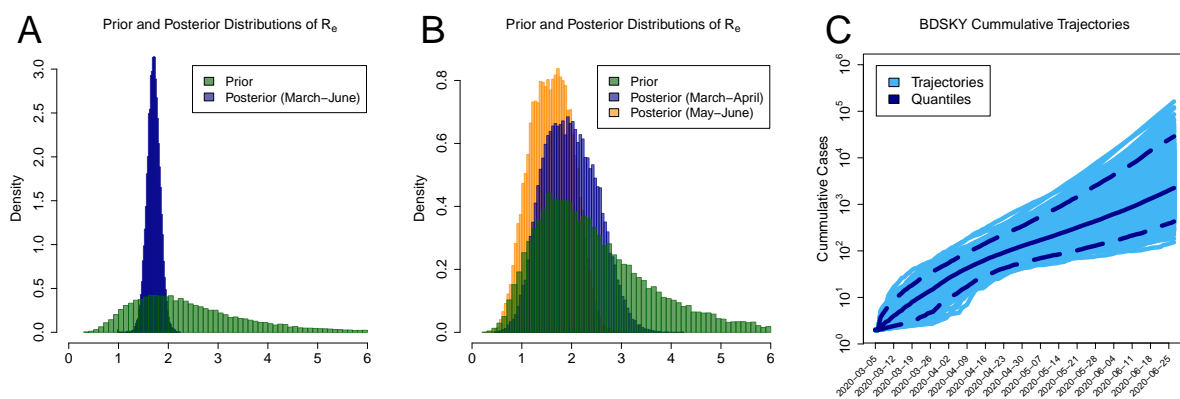


Figure 3: BDSKY model estimations. A), B) prior (green) and posteriors (blue and orange) distributions of the effective reproduction number estimate $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e$ for Belarus during the first COVID-19 wave. C) The cumulative case count trajectories on \log_{10} scale. Solid blue and dashed lines represents a median and 95% confidence intervals, respectively.

larus implied by the BDSKY model are reported on Fig.3C. The cumulative number of cases by July 1, 2020 falls into the 95% prediction interval: (364; 17066). It should be kept in mind that these estimates apply only to two transmission lineages out of possibly many more.

The results of the complementary analysis based on the number of officially reported cases $D(t)$ and conducted tests $T(t)$ over time are presented in Fig.4. The model [53] was designed for the initial phase of the epidemics with the exponential growth of $D(t)$. Therefore, we calibrated and used it to estimate the cumulative number of infections $C(t)$ for the time interval from April 1 (the first date when the number of conducted tests was available) to May 16, 2020 (officially reported peak of the first wave) with a 15-day increments. The obtained results suggested a substantial underestimation of the cumulative number of cases through the study period (Fig.4B). In particular, on $t^* =$ May 16, 2020 the model predicted $C(t^*) = 118,521$ cases (95% PI: (54,057; 249,000)) while the reported number was $D(t^*) = 28,681$. Hence, 76% of infections occurred by that date were supposedly undetected (95% PI: (47%; 88%)). The model-inferred case detection rate $D(t)/C(t)$ increases over time as more tests are being conducted (Fig.4C).

4 Discussion

In this paper we presented the first detailed study of COVID-19 epidemic in Belarus using the officially reported incidence data, testing data and genomic data collected between March, 2020 and February, 2021. The reported results significantly expand our understanding of COVID-19 dynamics and effects of limited NPIs in Belarus, and reflect several key epidemiological issues that it shares with other countries around the globe.

First, the analysis revealed the diverse history of transmissions of SARS-CoV-2 into, from and inside the country. It identified 18 introductions within 13 genomic lineages, but this estimate is most likely a lower bound on the real number of introductions, since only a very small fraction of all SARS-CoV-2 genomic diversity has been sampled. In contrast to most Western European and North American countries [27, 15, 47, 37, 23, 28, 24, 38, 22], the larger portion of estimated transmission links was with geographic neighbors. It

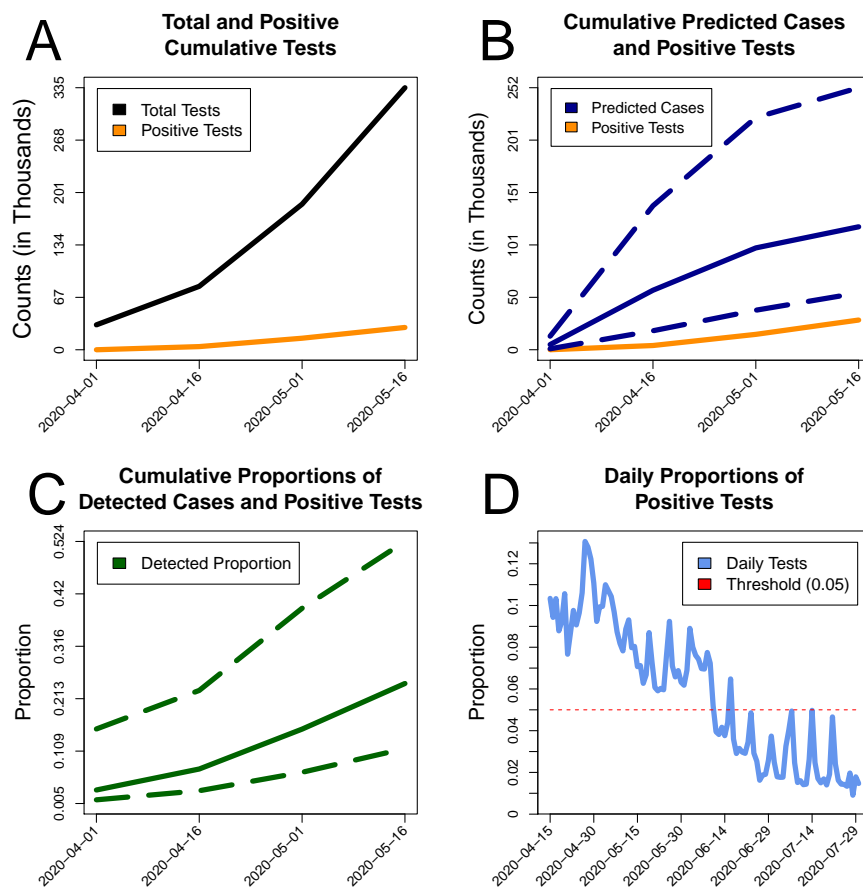


Figure 4: The summary of counts data analysis. A) Input data: officially reported cumulative numbers of cases $D(t)$ (orange) and conducted tests $T(t)$ (black). B) The cumulative numbers of officially reported cases ($D(t)$, orange) and the counts that were inferred by the model ($C(t)$, blue). C) Model-based case detection rate $D(t)/C(t)$ (green). D) The daily proportion of positive tests (light blue) together with the suggested WHO threshold of 0.05 (red). In panels B and C, solid blue and green lines represent median estimates across 10^4 model runs, while dashed lines depict 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles.

236 is not entirely surprising, given the comparatively lower outward mobility of Belarusian
 237 population. It is also worth mentioning that much stricter travel restrictions implemented
 238 by the Belarus' neighbors failed to stop the flow of SARS-CoV-2 across the borders in
 239 both directions. Furthermore, approximately half of estimated introductions did not
 240 appear directly across the border, which emphasize that Belarus, like most countries in
 241 the world, is a part of global interconnected environment and as such, affects and is
 242 affected by epidemiological developments in other countries.

243 **Second**, the estimation of the effective reproduction number \mathcal{R}_e allowed the prelimi-
 244 nary assessment of the effect of limited NPIs implemented in the country during the first
 245 epidemic wave. These estimates should be interpreted only in comparison with similar esti-
 246 mates for other countries. The analysis suggests a moderate but statistically significant
 247 decrease of \mathcal{R}_e after the NPIs were put in action (Fig. 3B). The magnitude of decrease,
 248 however, is lower in comparison to the countries with broader and stricter NPIs (Table
 249 S2). Furthermore, the estimated median effective reproduction number $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_e = 1.70$ (CI:
 250 (1.45; 1.96)) over the entire analyzed period for Belarus is comparable with the estimates

251 of \mathcal{R}_e in developed countries *before the introduction of strict NPIs* [47, 37, 19, 38]. For
252 example, for Victoria, Australia this value is 1.63 (CI: (1.45;1.8)) [47]. On the other
253 hand, the estimate of \mathcal{R}_e for Belarus is also close to the estimate of \mathcal{R}_e over the same
254 time period for neighboring Ukraine, where the scope of implemented NPIs has been sig-
255 nificantly broader. In our opinion, the latter fact is not entirely surprising and is more
256 reflective of the reported extensive violations of lockdown and distancing measures in
257 Ukraine and limited ability of authorities to control the epidemics [4, 7]. Similar estimate
258 $\mathcal{R}_e = 1.76$ (0.91; 2.71) has been also reported for Russia [35] which borders both Belarus
259 and Ukraine. This comparison of three ex-USSR countries suggests that regional demo-
260 graphic and social specifics could be important factors for COVID-19 epidemiology along
261 with NPIs. Study of such factors should be the subject of further investigation.

262 **Third**, the true number of infections by the end of May, 2020 is most likely ~ 4 (CI
263 : (2; 9)) times higher than the detected number of cases, which is expected for respiratory
264 diseases in general and for COVID-19 in particular [53, 50]. For example, according
265 to observed seroprevalence of SARS-CoV-2 antibodies, in the USA the total number of
266 COVID-19 infections in March-May, 2020 was probably between 6 to 24 times the number
267 of reported cases [31].

268 It is important to highlight that the presented study has several limitations. The first
269 of them is the scarcity of currently available genomic data, especially in comparison with
270 most of other European countries. Our approach strives to compensate for it by utilizing
271 informative priors and linked models for phylogenetic and phylodynamics inference. BD-
272 SKY models are also sensitive enough and suitable for inference even for smaller genomic
273 datasets. For example, the numbers of sequences and/or density of branching events in
274 this study is similar to those in other studies [49, 38, 26], where meaningful estimates
275 of \mathcal{R}_e have been produced for several epidemics, including SARS-CoV-2. Nevertheless,
276 the inference precision could have been higher, if more SARS-CoV-2 genomes have been
277 available. For Belarus, however, significant expansion of the available genomic dataset in
278 the near future is unlikely, and in our opinion the lack of other studies justifies the need
279 to fill the knowledge gap and to report the results based on the existing data. We also
280 hope that this study will serve as a trigger for further SARS-CoV-2 genomic epidemiology
281 studies in Belarus and will encourage funding increase and the corresponding development
282 and expansion of sequencing facilities for molecular surveillance.

283 The second limitation is that phylogeographic inference of introduction sources can be
284 sensitive to sampling bias and can be affected by relatively slow accumulation of mutations
285 in SARS-CoV-2 genomes [35, 28, 38]. In particular, even though no transmission links
286 with Ukraine has been detected, it is likely that such links will emerge when more data
287 from both countries will become available. Thus, SARS-CoV-2 phylogeography analysis
288 should always be treated with a grain of salt, even though transmission history presented
289 in this study is consistent enough and agrees with the travel records for those cases
290 when they are available. The source inference for Belarus during the early pandemic can
291 actually be more accurate than for some other regions, since Belarusian lineages were
292 established after most of their source lineages were already sufficiently diversified. The
293 incorporation of the global travel statistics into the “migration model” of [46] may also
294 have contributed towards the increase in transmission inference accuracy. Finally, for
295 the case of Belarus, even if new data refine estimation of sources of some lineages, the
296 obtained results are likely reflecting a true trend towards the higher prevalence of regional
297 and neighbor-to-neighbor virus importations.

298 The third limitation is the sparsity of the SARS-CoV-2 incidence and testing data. In
299 contrast to other countries [8, 12], Belarusian COVID-19 statistics are currently reported
300 only for the entire country rather than for specific regions. The reported numbers of
301 tests are not dichotomized into first-time tests and retests, those conducted by state
302 or commercial laboratories, PCR and antibody tests. Furthermore, the sampling for
303 testing is likely incomplete and biased towards individuals with COVID-19 symptoms
304 and their close contacts and, for instance, persons who were tested upon arrival or prior
305 to departure from the country. These issues may result in underestimation of the true
306 number of cases, even though we are employing a method that is supposed to take them
307 into account. For example, if a significant number of recovered individuals were tested at
308 least twice, then the adjusted proportion of positive tests among those who are getting
309 tested the first time will be higher and, consequently, the estimates of the number of
310 cases will also increase. Furthermore, the aforementioned issues impede the development
311 of stochastic agent-based models that otherwise can be used for high-precision analysis
312 and forecasting. If (or when) more precise data will become available, it can be used to
313 improve the precision and accuracy of our estimates.

314 In conclusion, this study demonstrates the power of SARS-CoV-2 surveillance using
315 combined genomic and epidemiological data. For such resource-constrained countries as
316 Belarus, it is vitally important to develop sequencing facilities, detailed statistics and
317 analytical resources to the level already established in other countries. These facilities
318 and resources should become integral parts of the national mechanism to respond to
319 emergence, re-emergence and spread of SARS-CoV-2 and other pathogens.

320 5 Data availability

321 The sequences used in this study are available at GISAID [48]. The Matlab scripts,
322 Nextstrain configuration files, BEAST 2 XML files used to perform the described analy-
323 ses and the acknowledgements table with sequence accession numbers and names of re-
324 searchers and laboratories who produced the sequences are available at [https://github.com/](https://github.com/compbel/COVID-Belarus)
325 [compbel/COVID-Belarus](https://github.com/compbel/COVID-Belarus).

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329 7 Contributions

330 AN performed a phylogenetic analysis, analyzed genomic data and wrote the paper. AEA
331 performed a phylogenetic analysis and analyzed genomic data. EG, KB, LV and AK pre-
332 pared and handled genomic and associated epidemiological data, carried out the primary
333 sequence processing. OG analyzed genomic data and wrote the paper. AK supervised
334 the incidence data analysis, processed and analyzed incidence data, wrote the paper. PS
335 designed and supervised the study, designed and implemented bioinformatics algorithms,
336 performed a phylogenetic analysis, analyzed genomic data and wrote the paper.

337 References

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341 03-31.
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