

1 **Title:**

2 **Lung Health in Africa: challenges and opportunities in the context of COVID-19**

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35 The emergence of the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in December 2019 caused
36 unprecedented challenges to healthcare worldwide. While at the beginning of the COVID-19
37 pandemic, it was projected that Africa would suffer a huge pandemic, the reality is that the
38 number of SARS- CoV2 infections and deaths from COVID -19 have not been as large as
39 projected. Africa has currently reported about 4.6 million confirmed cases of SARS-CoV-2
40 infection against a global total of 190.5 million confirmed infections and 107 000 deaths with
41 against the global total of 4 million deaths from COVID-19, with a contribution of 2.4% and
42 2.7% of all confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infections and COVID-19 deaths, respectively (1).
43 Reasons for this may include the relatively youthful population of the region, genetic factors,
44 climatic conditions, high exposure to other infectious diseases with development of trained
45 immunity and use of COVID-19 mitigation measures very early in the evolution of the COVID-
46 19 pandemic (2). However, lack of testing for diagnosis or poor access to health care facilities
47 with many deaths outside such facilities may also influence these estimates.

48

49 The COVID-19 pandemic has caused global devastation, in high and low- and middle-income
50 countries (LMICs). In Africa and other LMICs, the direct impact including COVID-related
51 illness and deaths, as well as the indirect effect on economies, other health related conditions,
52 education and social services has been overwhelming, and are likely to endure, threatening to
53 shape the future of its population.

54

55 This pandemic poses challenges to the wellbeing of both adults and children in Africa which is
56 made more profound by weak health systems, pre-existing poor population health and low
57 socio-economic status pervasive in the continent. Also, high exposure to potentially harmful
58 environmental factors such as tobacco smoke or air pollution may be associated with a greater
59 risk of severe COVID. Further the ability of health systems to deal with increased numbers of
60 people with COVID-related illness and to upscale and widely implement vaccination against
61 SARS-CoV-2 are challenges. However, within these challenges also lies opportunities for the
62 continent to leverage this health crisis to improve the lives of its people. The ability to mitigate
63 this pandemic requires a multi-faceted approach embracing global partnerships and alliances.

64

65

66 **Adult lung health in Africa, in the context of COVID-19.**

67 Chronic respiratory diseases (CRD), including asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary
68 disease (COPD) are common and rising public health concerns in Africa (3, 4). These diseases

69 were relatively neglected with no public health programs in place for them in most countries in
70 Sub-Saharan Africa (sSA) (5). Consequently, the provision of health care for CRD such as
71 asthma and COPD has been suboptimal even before the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic
72 has further compromised the situation and negatively impacted on care and treatment for these
73 diseases. Most guidelines recommend that pulmonary function tests should be limited to the
74 most essential tests when possible for fear of transmission of SARS-CoV-2 (6). This
75 recommendation is likely to constrain efforts that were being made to promote spirometry
76 testing in sSA and will further compromise the diagnosis of CRD in the continent (7).

77

78 We hypothesize that in the African setting the COVID-19 pandemic has reduced the number of
79 people diagnosed with asthma, worsening the already existing wide gaps between prevalent
80 cases of asthma and those accessing appropriate care and treatment for their disease for several
81 reasons. These reasons include inadequate services for asthma as health resources are diverted
82 to the COVID-19 response; fear of a diagnosis of COVID-19 and the attendant consequences,
83 including isolation, keeping away from health care facilities for fear of infection with SARS-
84 CoV-2 infection which is perceived by the population as fertile grounds for the transmission of
85 this virus. Patients with asthma exacerbations who arrive at health care facilities may have
86 delayed care for their disease as they are screened and tested for SARS-CoV-2 infection and
87 may be at increased risk of acquiring infection with this virus if they are placed in holding areas
88 where persons suspected to have COVID-19 are isolated as they await their COVID-19 tests
89 results. These interactions have not been studied in the African setting, and we urge African
90 researchers, their partners, and funders to prioritize this area of research to gather the evidence
91 needed to develop robust mitigation measures.

92

93 It has been documented that people with chronic respiratory disease are at increased risk of
94 developing severe disease when infected with SARS-CoV-2 (8). Data in the African setting are
95 however sparse and it remains unclear if people with asthma and COPD, especially those with
96 COPD unrelated to tobacco smoking and people with TB-associated chronic lung disease,
97 which are common forms of chronic respiratory disease in Africa, have an elevated risk of
98 severe COVID-19.

99 Similarly, there is a high burden of HIV-associated disease especially in sSA; HIV-infected
100 people, especially those whose disease is not well controlled with antiretroviral therapy or those
101 with co-morbidities such as diabetes or renal impairment may be at increased risk for
102 developing severe COVID-19 (9). Other underlying illnesses that place people at risk for

103 developing severe COVID-19 are common in Africa. Cardiovascular disease including
104 hypertension is one of the commonest non-communicable diseases in the African populations
105 (10). Diabetes and obesity are increasingly emerging as important chronic illnesses in African
106 populations (11). Each of these places individuals at increased risk for developing severe
107 COVID-19.

108

109 Acute lower respiratory infections (ALRIs) are more common in LMICs with about 70%
110 occurring in South Asia and sSA (12). Pneumonia due to COVID-19 may be difficult to
111 distinguish from bacterial community-acquired pneumonia. The lack of diagnostic tests for
112 SARS-CoV-2 in the early days of the pandemic might have delayed the diagnosis and optimal
113 management of bacterial pneumonia. Avoidance of medical settings by patients might have led
114 to the late diagnosis of pneumonia from other causes and consequent increase in pneumonia
115 related mortality overall.

116

117 The COVID-19 outbreak has again brought the weaknesses of health systems in Africa to the
118 fore. In emergency departments of many hospitals across sSA, there is a lack of equipment and
119 commodities, such as pulse oximeters and oxygen, that are critical for the identification and
120 treatment of people with serious lung disease. This situation implies that outcomes for people
121 presenting to these facilities with COVID-19 and other respiratory emergencies, including
122 asthma and COPD exacerbations, are likely to be poor.

123

124 **Child lung health in Africa in the context of COVID-19.**

125 Respiratory illnesses remain a predominant cause of morbidity and mortality in African
126 children, from both infectious causes and chronic non-communicable disease. As children
127 constitute a third to half of African populations, this comprises a large burden of illness.
128 Pneumonia and tuberculosis (TB) disease remain key challenges for child health, while asthma
129 is the commonest non-communicable disease in children and adolescents. African children have
130 been largely spared from moderate or severe illness with SARS-CoV2 through the COVID-19
131 pandemic, as has occurred globally, but the indirect effects have substantially impacted on child
132 health.

133

134 The incidence and severity of childhood pneumonia has reduced substantially with socio-
135 economic improvement, improved immunization strategies, particularly pneumococcal
136 conjugate vaccine (PCV) and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b conjugate vaccine (HiB) and

137 better prevention and management of HIV. Nevertheless, pneumonia remains the commonest
138 cause of death in children under 5 years outside the neonatal period, with almost 800,000 deaths
139 in 2018, with more than half of deaths occurring in Africa or South-East Asia (12) (13) .

140

141 Childhood TB is common in Africa, and has been reported to contribute up to 20% of the overall
142 caseloads (14), although this is probably an underestimate given the challenges in confirming
143 TB in children and lack of notification of childhood cases. *M tuberculosis* has increasingly
144 been recognized as a pathogen in the context of acute pneumonia in children, comprising a large
145 proportion of cases.

146

147 Factors associated with the high burden and severity of respiratory disease in African children
148 also include high exposure to air pollution or tobacco smoke, under resourced health systems
149 and lack of access to effective preventive or management strategies. Further, early life
150 respiratory infection particularly pneumonia or TB may lead to long-term impairment of health,
151 setting a trajectory for the development of CRD through the life course (15).

152

153 Asthma is the commonest chronic disease in African children, with an increasing prevalence in
154 both urban and rural settings. While childhood asthma was regarded as rare in Africa, global
155 epidemiological studies have shown that the prevalence in African children is similar or higher
156 than the global average (16). Further, asthma in Africa may be frequently undiagnosed,
157 untreated and be more severe (17). Access to routine health services and follow-up during the
158 pandemic may have compromised care of these children further. HIV-associated chronic lung
159 diseases or bronchiectasis or bronchiolitis obliterans following lower respiratory tract infection
160 or TB are other causes of chronic respiratory illness in African children.

161

162 Although children and adolescents constitute a very small proportion of cases of COVID-19
163 and of COVID-associated mortality in Africa similar to the patterns seen globally, the indirect
164 effects on child health have been substantial. These include disruptions in delivery of essential
165 healthcare services such as immunization, HIV or TB programs, increasing poverty levels,
166 disrupted schooling, lack of access to school feeding schemes and diversion of resources away
167 from maternal and child health to adult COVID responses. With a large informal economic
168 sector with little social protection in Africa, levels of poverty and hunger are increasing at an
169 alarming rate increasing susceptibility of children to severe pneumonia from other pathogens
170 is of concern.

171 However, the use of non-pharmacologic interventions including universal mask wearing,
172 social distancing and hand hygiene has reduced the incidence of influenza or RSV-related
173 illness, with reductions in number of cases and hospitalization of children. Nevertheless, late
174 presentation with severe disease may occur as families may be reluctant to attend health
175 facilities in the context of COVID-19 or these may be inaccessible. Parental or family loss due
176 to COVID-19 has compounded the effects on child health. While immunization program
177 against COVID-19 have been initiated in many African countries, rollout is slow (18). Greater
178 coverage is urgently needed, to protect populations including children and adolescents, who
179 may be indirectly protected with high coverage of adult population groups.

180

181 **Tuberculosis and COVID-19 in Africa; What has happened?**

182 Sub-Saharan Africa bears a disproportionate burden of tuberculosis. It is currently estimated
183 that about 14% of the global population of about 7.8 billion people live in sSA, however, in
184 2019, this region accounted for 25% of all incident cases of TB in the world (19). The drivers
185 of the large burden of TB in the African setting include the concurrent HIV epidemic and
186 rampant poverty. Nearly 75% of all people living with HIV are in sSA (20) and of the 736
187 million people who lived on less than \$1.90 in 2015, 413 Million (56%) lived in sSA (21). The
188 link between poverty and TB has been firmly established and known for nearly a century and
189 it is therefore not surprising that Africa, with a large proportion of people living in extreme
190 poverty suffers a high burden of TB.

191

192 An important question that needs to be addressed is the impact that COVID-19 has had on the
193 TB epidemic in the African setting and what may be expected to happen as the COVID-19
194 pandemic continues to evolve. The first major concern has been the influence of COVID-19 on
195 TB case finding. As a result of both societal fear of a new disease that had been depicted to be
196 highly lethal and the mitigation measures put in place to protect society and the health care
197 system, TB case finding declined significantly. Tuberculosis surveillance data from high TB
198 endemic settings have revealed significant declines in TB notification between 2019 (the pre-
199 COVID era) and 2020 (the COVID era) (22). The decline in TB notification in the African
200 settings has been of the order of about 20% (23, 24). The decline in TB notifications has been
201 attributed to disruption in TB service provision, some of which has been related to closure of
202 facilities that provide TB services and redirection of resources, including human, financial,
203 equipment such as the Xpert platforms and others, to the COVID-19 response to confront a
204 public health threat that was perceived to be more urgent and bigger. Additionally, travel

205 restrictions and the fear of health facilities, contributed to alterations in population health
206 seeking behavior. The full impact of these developments is not yet known but it has been
207 projected that TB incidence and deaths will rise globally to set the world back by several years
208 in the fight against this age-old disease.

209

210 In Sub-Saharan Africa, it has been projected that COVID-19 will lead to economic declines,
211 with shrinkage of the Gross Domestic Product of African countries of up to 1.4% with smaller
212 economies contracting by a margin of up to 7.8% which will increase poverty rates (25). The
213 rise in poverty in Africa because of the COVID-19 pandemic implies a rise in the burden of
214 TB. The second effect of the COVID-19 pandemic is on treatment outcomes. With disruptions
215 in TB service provision and the hurdles occasioned by COVID-19 mitigation measures in
216 accessing health services combined with societal fear of health services, disruptions in TB
217 treatment were expected to become more common. We need to see if this projection will be
218 confirmed as national TB programs carry out cohort analysis of treatment outcomes of persons
219 diagnosed with TB in 2020 and 2021 (in the COVID-19 era) to allow for comparisons to be
220 made with those diagnosed and placed on treatment in the pre-COVID period. Preliminary data
221 from Kenya, Malawi and Zambia suggest that TB treatment outcomes in the COVID -19 era
222 were slightly better than in the pre-COVID -19 era (26)

223

224 Thirdly, there have been concerns that persons with current or previous TB may have a worse
225 COVID -19 disease clinical course than those without these conditions. The data so far suggests
226 that this may be so (26), which is extremely worrying for countries in Sub-Saharan Africa with
227 a large burden of TB, highlighting the need to develop robust mechanisms to protect these
228 individuals from acquiring SARS-CoV2 infections and consequently developing severe
229 disease. Prioritizing these people in vaccination programs may be very helpful.

230

231 In a continent that is struggling with a myriad of health problems on the background of very
232 weak health systems, the COVID-19 pandemic could not have come at a worse time. The effect
233 of this pandemic on TB are expected to be enormous and will add to woes of a continent that
234 was already been off track with its efforts to achieve the End TB Strategy targets. All is not
235 lost, however, and with concerted efforts including advocacy efforts to ensure African
236 governments allocate sufficient resources to build and sustain robust and resilient health
237 systems, the expected trajectory of the TB epidemic in Africa during and post the COVID-19
238 pandemic can be re-set to get the African continent to reach the targets of the End TB Strategy.

239 African governments must address the social determinants of TB. Now is the time to ramp up
240 efforts to lift people out of poverty in Africa. On the other hand, National TB programs, TB
241 researchers in Africa, communities and other stakeholders need to develop, test, and scale up
242 innovations to expand TB case finding in Africa and to ensure all people on treatment for TB
243 are supported throughout their TB journey and beyond. Now is the time to step up the fight
244 against this disease. Africa should not and must not be left behind in the fight against TB,
245 COVID-19 notwithstanding.

246

247 **Strategies to mitigate the COVID-19 pandemic: where we are & where we need to be.**

248 Mitigation strategies for the COVID-19 pandemic aim to slow the spread of the disease and
249 protect the population, while being cognizant of the need to minimize the impact of these
250 strategies on the wellbeing of the people they aim to protect. Safe hygiene practices, physical
251 distancing and mask wearing are fundamental to any mitigation action and have been adopted
252 globally to curb the spread of SARS-CoV-2. Universal mask wearing has been found to be a
253 highly effective practice that reduces transmission both in experimental models and in real life
254 situations (27, 28). When adhered to, mask wearing also contributes to reduced spread of other
255 respiratory diseases including influenza virus or RSV. However, adherence to mask wearing
256 has varied; being politicized in some parts, unenforced in others or just simply ignored.

257

258 Lockdown or mandatory stay at home measures as a mitigation strategy truncates the spread of
259 the virus and protects the health system, but has adverse social, economic, educational and
260 health consequences (29). The adverse economic impacts of COVID-19 related lockdowns
261 have been found to be more profound in the African setting due to high rates of poverty, high
262 reliance on daily wages, and lack of social safety nets (30). Further, reports of increases in
263 gender-based violence during lockdowns in many parts of Africa and non-COVID deaths due
264 to limited access to healthcare services have been documented (31, 32). Therefore, lockdown
265 as a COVID-19 mitigation strategy has not worked well in Africa and in many instances its
266 enforcement has been met with protests and crack downs resulting in further loss of lives.
267 Lockdowns disproportionately affect the poor and widen the already existing inequities within
268 these societies.

269

270 Mitigating the pandemic must of necessity include the provision of adequate healthcare services
271 to treat all people with COVID-19, which remains a challenge within Africa's fragile health
272 systems. Inadequate supply of oxygen was a pre-pandemic challenge in many parts of Africa

273 which has been exacerbated by the pandemic as increased demand for oxygen far outstripped
274 supply. While some efforts have been made to mitigate the deficits in oxygen supply with some
275 African countries such as Nigeria and Malawi having made some strides in improving oxygen
276 supply by establishing new infrastructure for production and delivery, these efforts have not
277 been enough. One major health need in the COVID-19 pandemic is the availability of critical
278 care services including care and treatment of respiratory failure using supportive ventilation.
279 Across sSA availability of critical care beds and associated resources for the provision of care
280 and treatment of critically ill COVID-19 patients is dismal. This calls for the mobilization of
281 resources not only for infrastructural development, but also for capacity building. Trained
282 healthcare workers in this area are limited and task shifting for critical care has proven feasible
283 in Africa and requires further consideration (33).

284

285 Vaccination which is considered as one of the most cost-effective strategies for mitigating and
286 containing this pandemic has underscored the global inequities that exist today. While countries
287 such as Canada, United Kingdom and Israel have achieved nearly 70% vaccination rate, Africa
288 is yet to reach the 3% mark targeted by the World Health Organization (WHO) under the
289 COVAX facility as at mid-July, 2021. Indeed, most African countries have vaccinated <1% of
290 the population with one dose of the vaccine.

291

292 The decisive and pro-active measures taken by the African Center for Disease Control to
293 mitigate this pandemic which included the Partnership to Accelerate COVID-19 Testing
294 (PACT) and more recently procurement and equitable distribution of donated vaccines through
295 the COVAX facility is commendable. The early development of a continental wide African
296 strategy endorsed by African leaders in the early phases of this pandemic may have contributed
297 to the unexpected low numbers of COVID-19 cases and related deaths in Africa. However,
298 much more needs to be done with regards to vaccine access and widespread effective
299 implementation in Africa. COVAX will receive about 600 million doses of the vaccine which
300 can cover only a third of the African population, implying that countries need to purchase
301 vaccines to meet additional needs. Vaccine availability, affordability and implementation will
302 remain key challenges for the African setting and there is need for the global community to
303 consider additional strategies to scale up vaccine coverage for poorer African countries.
304 Additionally, vaccine hesitancy in the African setting will need to be decisively dealt with to
305 ensure vaccines made available through the various initiatives are taken up by the population
306 in a timely manner. Addressing vaccine hesitancy in high context societies of Africa where key

307 opinion leaders sway behavior regardless of scientific rationale is an important mitigation
308 strategy that requires public health action. The rapid spread of conspiracy theories through the
309 wide penetration of social media in Africa must be matched by alternative messaging that is
310 grounded in the local realities to enhance vaccine uptake when vaccines become more available.

311

312 As rich countries begin to emerge from this pandemic due to confidence in the high rates of
313 vaccination, Africa must not be left behind. The spread of the SARS CoV-2 from China to a
314 global pandemic serves as a lesson and reminder that global health is everyone's business.

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