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1 **Citizen mobility and the growth of infections during the COVID-19**  
2 **pandemic with the effects of government restrictions in Western**  
3 **Europe**

4  
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13 **Abstract:** Mobility restrictions have been imposed by many countries in order to curb the spread  
14 the novel coronavirus disease. These vary in overall severity but also in the details of which  
15 kinds of activity and hence mobility has been permitted or restricted. This study uses the Oxford  
16 COVID-19 Government Response Tracker to measure the severity of restrictions on mobility in  
17 eight Western European countries but adds additional understanding on the nature of restrictions  
18 by combining this with mobility data from Google on different activities. The countries were  
19 classified into three categories based on the observed changes in mobility patterns, reflecting  
20 differences in the approach rather than severity. The paper then assesses the relationships  
21 between mobility patterns and the spread of the virus by looking at the growth rate ratio. The  
22 time lag for the highest correlation was observed to be in the range of 14-20 days in most cases.  
23 In some countries, however, there is no correlation between mobility in parks and spread of  
24 disease, suggesting this activity is relatively safe with appropriate social distancing. These  
25 findings support the use of social distancing measures in order to limit the spread of COVID-19  
26 and could also be helpful in case of any future outbreaks of similar infectious diseases.

27 **Keywords:** SARS-CoV-2, growth of infections, Google community mobility reports,  
28 government restrictions

29

30 **1. Introduction**

31 The Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic has led to a massive disruption in the daily lives of  
32 people all around the world. The novel coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) disease, also known as  
33 COVID-19 was first identified in December 2019 in the city of Wuhan, which is a part of the  
34 Hubei province in China. Due to a high frequency of travel and its highly infectious nature, it

35 quickly spread across the globe. On January 30<sup>th</sup>, 2021, the World Health Organization officially  
36 declared the coronavirus outbreak as a public health emergency of international concern. It was  
37 later declared a global pandemic, owing to a rapid rise in the number of cases and deaths across  
38 multiple countries, including many in Western Europe which is the focus in this research. As of  
39 August 10<sup>th</sup>, 2020, over 19.7 million confirmed cases and more than 720 thousand deaths have  
40 been reported (W.H.O., 2020).

41 Since there are currently no effective vaccines for the disease, the primary strategies to mitigate  
42 its rapid spread have been to encourage greater personal hygiene and more social distancing. For  
43 the latter, several countries placed restrictions on the movement of people outside the home and  
44 restricted certain kinds of social or economic activity. These measures, also referred to as  
45 ‘lockdowns’ in the more extreme cases, have varied in terms of severity or stringency, dependent  
46 on the extent of the disease outbreak as well as the political choice of the governments. They  
47 have also varied in the details of which activities were permitted at any time: which kinds of  
48 social activity were permitted or whether people were required to work from home, for example.  
49 Governments have also been concerned to keep social distancing measures to the minimum  
50 necessary, due to concerns about the social and economic impacts, and citizen compliance. To  
51 support compliance, it is important to study the effectiveness of these measures in limiting the  
52 transmission of the disease.

53 This research examines the mobility patterns across eight major Western European countries and  
54 their variation with the governmental responses. It seeks to identify different approaches to  
55 restrictions and to understand which kinds of restriction were most important for limiting the  
56 transmission of the disease. Mobility data is obtained from the COVID-19 Google Mobility  
57 Reports (Google, 2020), whereas data on governmental responses and the number of cases is  
58 derived from the Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker (Oxford: Blavatnik School  
59 of Government, 2020).

60

## 61 **2. Literature Review**

62 Several studies have analyzed the mobility patterns after the start of the pandemic. Saha et al.  
63 (2020) used Google’s Community Mobility Reports for India to analyze the impact of lockdown  
64 on community mobility. Exploratory analysis was used to plot state-wise changes in mobility at  
65 different categories of places. The data was divided into two timeframes: pre-lockdown and post-  
66 lockdown, and plots were generated showing the mobility changes for these timeframes.  
67 Additionally, spatial changes in mobility were shown for different times using maps. Warren and  
68 Skillman (2020) used anonymized data on mobile phone locations in the US to measure the  
69 changes in mobility. The location data for a designated time period before the lockdown was  
70 used to set up a baseline value for mobility. Then, the daily location data was used to calculate  
71 the percentage change in mobility for that day. These changes showed a dramatic drop in  
72 mobility across the US.

73 It is also important to understand the relationship between the transmission of COVID-19 and  
74 mobility to evaluate the impacts of the mobility restrictions. Most early studies in this regard

75 focused on China. Kraemer et al. (2020) used real-time mobility data from Baidu Inc., and case  
76 data with travel history in order to determine the role of travel in the transmission of the virus.  
77 They used a generalized linear model to predict the daily case counts in other provinces,  
78 considering the mobility patterns in and outside Wuhan. The model predicted the number of  
79 cases with high accuracy. This work also helped to ascertain the effectiveness of the control  
80 measures in limiting the spread. A similar study was done by Zhao et al. (2020) that used  
81 correlation analysis to quantify the relationship between travel behavior and the number of  
82 transmissions to other areas. It found a positive correlation between the passenger traffic and the  
83 number of confirmed cases in 10 cities around Wuhan. Vinceti et al. (2020) used anonymized  
84 data from mobile phone movements to track citizen mobility in the most affected provinces of  
85 Italy. They modelled the daily trends of mobility and the number of cases using linear regression.  
86 The results showed a positive association of governmental interventions with the number of  
87 cases and the reduction in mobility.

88 Growth rate (cases per day) has been used to evaluate the impact of changes in mobility on the  
89 spread of the virus. Utsunomiya et al. (2020) created a framework to enable real-time analysis of  
90 the growth rate and growth acceleration using the moving regression technique and a hidden  
91 Markov model. The results showed that the growth acceleration started to decrease within a  
92 week of the restrictions being put in place. It also predicted a constant but small growth after 6  
93 weeks. Badr et al. (2020) calculated the correlation between mobility and the growth rate of  
94 infections. Anonymized cell phone data was used to create a social distancing metric (mobility  
95 ratio), while the daily number of new cases were used to calculate the Growth Ratio.  
96 Correlations were then computed between these two metrics for different time lag intervals. The  
97 results showed that the correlation was highest for a time lag of 9-12 days, which is consistent  
98 with the incubation time of COVID-19.

99 Most studies have focused on a single country, with only a few (Seibold et al., 2020; Utsunomiya  
100 et al., 2020) expanding their analysis across multiple countries. However, only a few studies  
101 have used the Google Mobility Reports to compare the impacts of restrictions across various  
102 countries (Zhu et al., 2020), with no study focusing on different Western European countries  
103 with serious COVID-19 infection.

104

## 105 **3. Data**

### 106 **3.1 Mobility levels**

107 The COVID-19 Community Mobility dataset (Google, 2020) published by Google was used to  
108 assess the mobility levels. This data tracks the changes in mobility at six different categories of  
109 places using the location of mobile phones. Data is collected from devices that have ‘Location  
110 History’ setting turned on voluntarily by Google users. The mobility changes are compared to a  
111 baseline value for each day of the week. These baseline values are calculated by using the  
112 median mobility for the given day over a 5-weeks period over January and February 2020.  
113 Different days of the week have different baseline values, which means that comparison of day-  
114 to-day changes in mobility is not suitable. Another important point to note is the difference in the

115 calculation of mobility changes at residences and all other places. The residential changes are  
116 measured as a change in the average duration of time (in hours) spent at home. Since a day only  
117 has 24 hours, the percentage changes are limited in this case. On the other hand, the changes in  
118 all the other categories are measured in terms of the number of visitors, which means the changes  
119 are not bounded. The different categories of places are:

- 120 • Residential – areas earmarked as residential.
- 121 • Parks – areas officially designated as parks, such as National parks, castles and public  
122 gardens.
- 123 • Grocery and Pharmacy – places involving essential trips, like groceries and pharmacies.
- 124 • Retail and recreation – Shopping centers, restaurants, theatres and other places of  
125 recreational activities.
- 126 • Transit Stations – Bus, train and subway stations, as well as taxi stands and car rental  
127 agencies.
- 128 • Workplaces – locations marked as workplaces.

129 The values of transit and retail mobility were found to be highly correlated with the workplace  
130 mobility. Therefore, four categories of places are selected for this analysis: Residential, Parks,  
131 Grocery and Pharmacy, and Workplaces.

### 132 **3.2 Restrictions and Number of cases**

133 The restrictions on mobility are assessed using the Oxford COVID-19 Government Response  
134 Tracker (Oxford: Blavatnik School of Government, 2020). The governmental responses are  
135 measured through 17 indicators that correspond to various policy measures. Eight indicators  
136 identify the closure and containment policies, such as the closures of schools and workplaces.  
137 Five indicators measure healthcare responses such as testing policies and emergency  
138 investments, while the other four indicators correspond to the economic policies such as income  
139 support and fiscal measures. The Stringency Index, which is an average of eight closure and  
140 containment policy indicators and one healthcare measure, is used to quantify the responses of  
141 the governments to the pandemic (Hale et al., 2020). Using the Stringency Index has the  
142 advantage of having a graduated scale to model the restrictions, instead of a binary variable that  
143 denotes the presence of a lockdown. The Stringency Index ranges from 0 (no restrictions) to 100  
144 (most stringent restrictions). In order to better visualize the mobility trends with introduction of  
145 restrictions, the Stringency Index is converted to the Freedom of Association Index, which is  
146 calculated as:

147  $\text{Freedom of Association Index} = (100 - \text{Stringency Index})$

148 The OxCGRT dataset also tracks the total number of confirmed cases and deaths due to COVID-  
149 19. These cumulative values are used to calculate the daily rise in the number of cases.

150

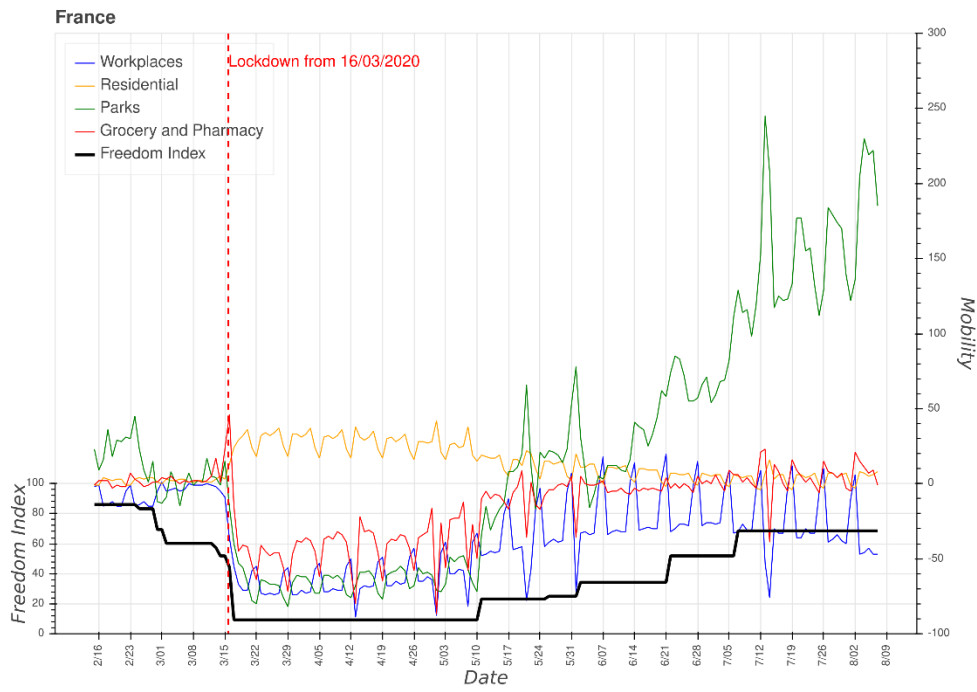
## 151 **4. Lockdown Level Classification based on Mobility Patterns**

152 Plots are created for each country using the mobility changes at the selected categories of places  
153 (Residential, Parks, Grocery and Pharmacy, Workplaces) as well as the freedom of association  
154 index (All the analysis source codes are available at <https://github.com/mdsarim/COVID-19>). As  
155 the data captures weekly changes, the x-axis is divided into weeks to better understand the  
156 patterns of mobility. For each country, a dramatic change in mobility is observed around the  
157 dates when there is a sharp decline in the freedom of association index ('lockdown date').  
158 However, the freedom of association started to decline before the lockdown date. This was found  
159 to be the result of preventive measures taken before a full lockdown was put in place. These  
160 measures included closure of educational institutions, ban on gatherings and in some cases,  
161 restrictions on movement of people.

162 For all countries, some days witnessed unusual decreases in workplace mobility, and  
163 corresponding increases in residential mobility. Further examinations revealed those days to be  
164 public holidays. Each country witnessed a significant rise in residential mobility after the  
165 lockdown. There was a weekly pattern where the weekends saw lower changes than weekdays,  
166 which is understandable as workers tend to remain at home on weekends. The mobility changes  
167 for other categories, however, were not similar for each country. Based on the values for  
168 different categories, three distinct patterns were observed for the eight Western European  
169 countries:

#### 170 **4.1 Strict - France, Italy and Spain**

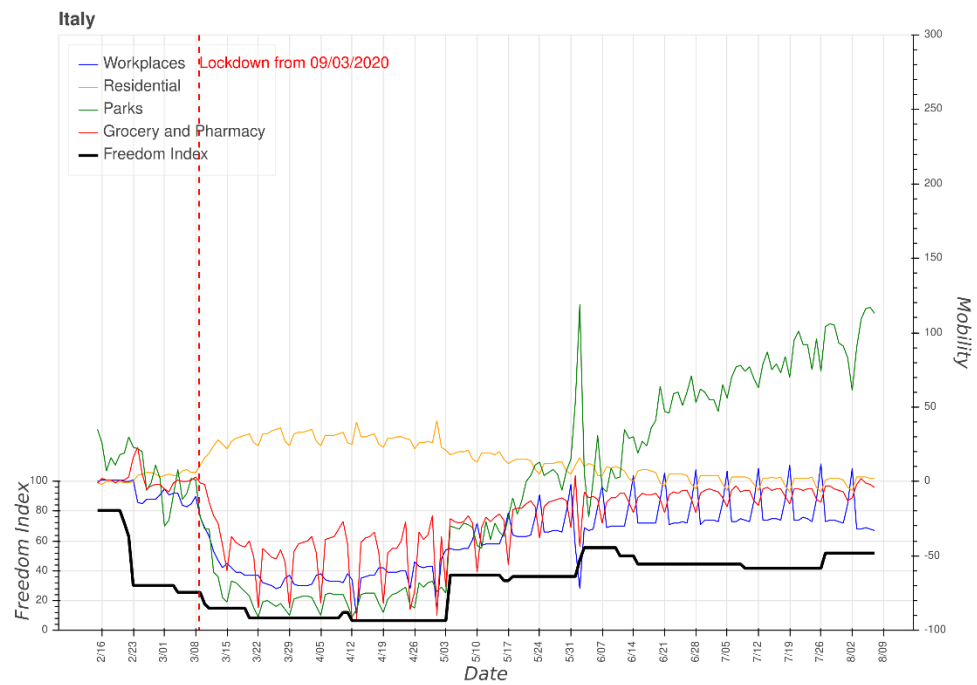
171 The mobility patterns in France, Italy and Spain were found to be similar (Figure 1, 2 and 3).  
172 Following the lockdown, there was a sharp decline in mobility at workplaces, parks and  
173 groceries in these countries. The freedom of association was the lowest (amongst the eight  
174 countries considered), suggesting the imposition of the strictest measures to curb the spread of  
175 the virus. This also pointed to a high compliance among the people. Such strict measures were  
176 deemed necessary as these were some of the worst-affected countries in terms of infections and  
177 deaths.



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Figure 1. Mobility and freedom of association in France.



180

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Figure 2. Mobility and freedom of association in Italy.

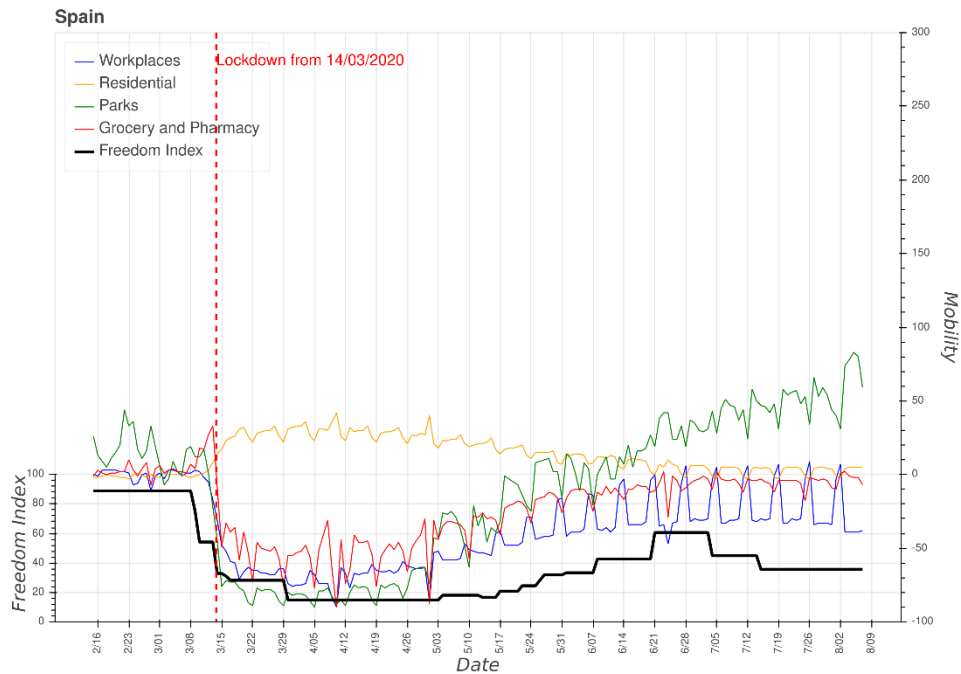


Figure 3. Mobility and freedom of association in Spain.

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184

185 Mobility changes in Italy started when lockdown measures were imposed in the Italian provinces  
 186 of Lodi and Padua on February 21<sup>st</sup>. Educational institutions and workplaces were closed, and  
 187 public gatherings were banned (Metro, 2020). France and Spain also initiated similar restrictions  
 188 in early March. This led to a decline in the freedom of association even before the official  
 189 lockdown date, as seen in the plots. Later, due to a continuous rise in the number of infections,  
 190 country-wide lockdown measures were imposed in Italy (March 9<sup>th</sup>), Spain (March 14<sup>th</sup>) and  
 191 France (March 16<sup>th</sup>). All non-essential businesses were ordered to close, and workers were  
 192 encouraged to work from home if possible. Strict stay-at-home orders meant that people could go  
 193 out only for essential supplies and in emergencies. This resulted in a decline of 60-70% in  
 194 workplace mobility. Due to the closure of parks and public spaces, mobility for parks also saw a  
 195 sharp decline (Reuters, 2020), with the weekdays witnessing a fall of at least 60%. The weekends  
 196 saw even more decline, suggesting a higher baseline value at parks during weekends. Mobility at  
 197 groceries and pharmacies also decreased significantly post lockdown, with a change of 40%  
 198 compared to the baseline levels until late April.

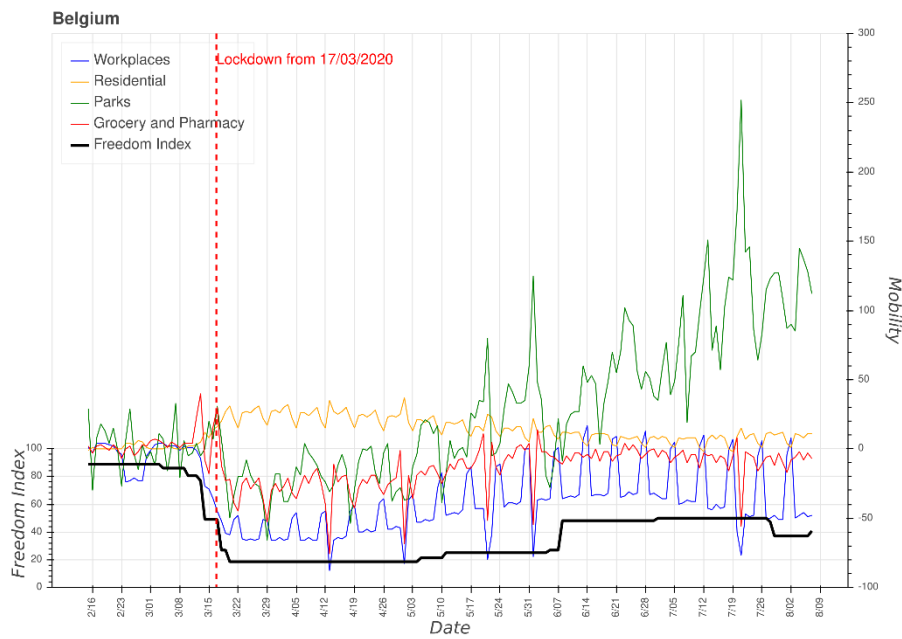
199 Lockdown measures were gradually eased since May, with workplaces and parks allowed to  
 200 open (Aljazeera, 2020; The Guardian, 2020a). This resulted in a significant increase in grocery  
 201 and parks' mobility patterns, and a decrease in time spent at homes. While the mobility at  
 202 groceries and homes hit pre-lockdown levels, more and more people were visiting parks. In case  
 203 of workplaces, the mobility increased with the easing of restrictions, but did not reach pre-  
 204 lockdown levels. Amid fears of a second wave of infections, Spain and Italy reintroduced some  
 205 restrictions, but these did not have much impact on mobility.



206 **4.2 Intermediate - Belgium and the UK**

207 The freedom of association values for Belgium and the UK were close to those of the first group  
208 (scores around 20-22/100 as compared to 6-16/100, Figure 4 and 5). While they witnessed a  
209 steep decline in workplace mobility, they saw relatively small decrease in that of parks and  
210 groceries post-lockdown.

211 Belgium banned public gatherings and closed schools, cafes and other public places from March  
212 12<sup>th</sup>. The UK government also advised against non-essential travel and public gatherings on  
213 March 16<sup>th</sup>, and ordered the closure of schools, restaurants and pubs from March 20<sup>th</sup>. These are  
214 also reflected in the freedom of association, which declined around the same time. Following a  
215 rise in cases, a country-wide lockdown was imposed from March 17<sup>th</sup> in Belgium, and from  
216 March 23<sup>rd</sup> in the UK. Stay-at-home orders were put in place, along with the closure of all non-  
217 essential businesses and shops (Belgian Federal Government, 2020). The UK also introduced the  
218 ‘Coronavirus Act 2020’, which assigned emergency powers to the government for tackling the  
219 pandemic (Cabinet Office, 2020; UK Legislations, 2020). As a result, workplace mobility  
220 decreased by more than 60%. These countries did not close parks and allowed citizens to go out  
221 for physical activities such as running and cycling. However, such visits were limited by visiting  
222 frequency. As a result, the mobility at parks initially remained below pre-lockdown levels.



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Figure 4. Mobility and freedom of association in Belgium.

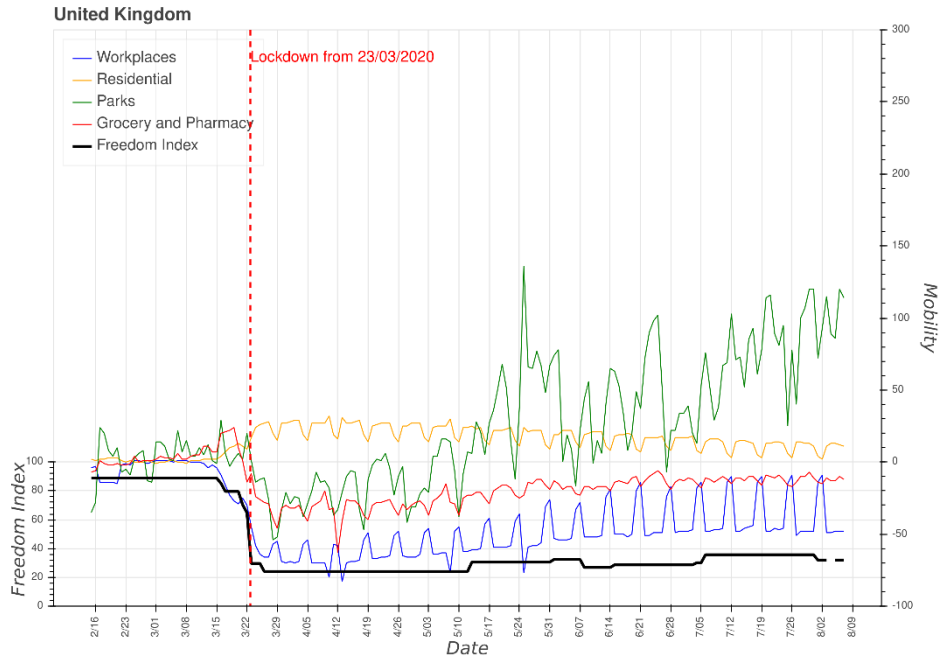


Figure 5. Mobility and freedom of association in the UK.

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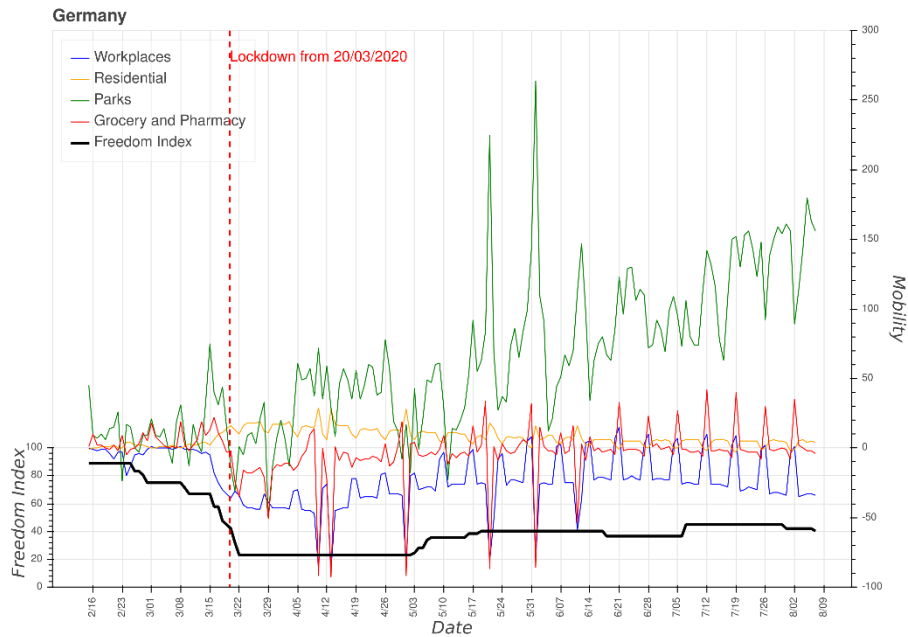
227 Both Belgium and the UK started easing the lockdown restrictions in early May (The Guardian,  
 228 2020b). This resulted in a gradual increase in mobility. However, the changes were different for  
 229 each category. While mobility at groceries and workplaces increased slowly, there was a huge  
 230 rise in park visits. This could be due to the lifting of restrictions on the number of park visits, as  
 231 well as good weather conditions. One important point to note is that despite easing of  
 232 restrictions, the workplace mobility in Belgium peaked in June and started going down long  
 233 before some restrictions were imposed again.

### 234 4.3 Flexible - Germany, Switzerland and the Netherlands

235 Germany, Switzerland, and the Netherlands witnessed similar values of freedom of association  
 236 as Belgium and the UK (Figure 6, 7, and 8). However, the mobility changes were smaller at  
 237 groceries and workplaces, with a huge rise in park visits.

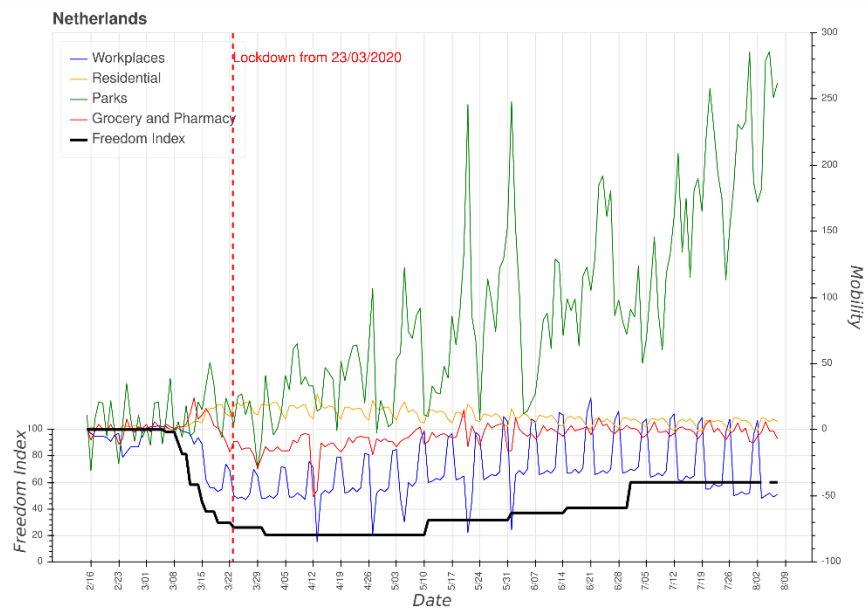
238 Preventive measures were initiated in Germany and Switzerland towards the end of February,  
 239 with closure of schools and cancellation of public events and gatherings (The Federal Council,  
 240 2020). Similar steps were taken by the Netherlands in early March. Consequently, the freedom of  
 241 association also started to decrease. The German states of Bavaria and Saarland were the first to  
 242 introduce lockdown from March 20<sup>th</sup> (The Independent, 2020), which was extended to other  
 243 parts of the country on March 22<sup>nd</sup>. Although there was no official lockdown in Switzerland,  
 244 schools and colleges were ordered to close from March 13<sup>th</sup>. Bars, restaurants and non-essential  
 245 shops were also closed from March 16<sup>th</sup>. The Netherlands also enforced lockdown measures  
 246 from March 23<sup>rd</sup>. As a result, mobility at workplaces decreased significantly, though it remained  
 247 less than 50% (except public holidays). Mobility at groceries only decreased slightly (< 20%)

248 after lockdown, and increase in residential mobility was also small relative to the other  
249 categories.



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Figure 6. Mobility and freedom of association in Germany.



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Figure 7. Mobility and freedom of association in the Netherlands.

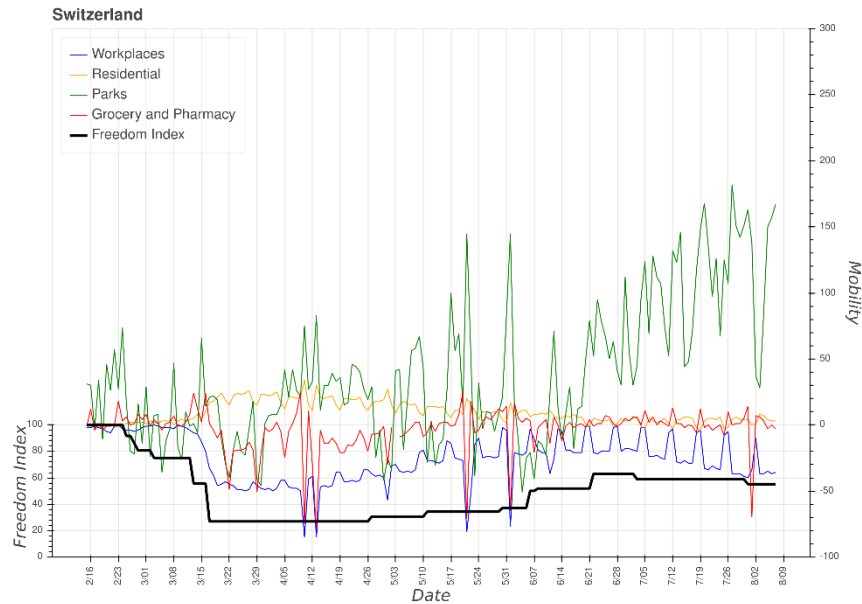


Figure 8. Mobility and freedom of association in Switzerland.

254

255

256 A distinct feature of this category was the mobility at parks. These countries did not restrict visits  
 257 to parks, which led to a general increase in mobility. Notably, the baseline values used were from  
 258 January, when the weather is generally cold. Nevertheless, this continuous upward trend is not  
 259 present for any of the other groups of countries, which suggests that lockdown did not reduce the  
 260 number of visitors in parks. In Germany and Switzerland, there was a dip at the end of March  
 261 and mid-May. On further examination, these days were found to have bad weather and low  
 262 temperatures.

263 Since the end of April, these countries also started easing restrictions. This resulted in an  
 264 increase in workplace mobility, and a corresponding decrease in time spent at home. The grocery  
 265 mobility crept back to pre-lockdown levels, while there was a huge increase in park visits. Like  
 266 Belgium, these countries also saw a peak in workplace mobility in June, and a downward trend  
 267 afterwards.

## 268 5. Mobility Correlation Analysis

### 269 5.1 Correlation between Freedom of Association and Mobility

270 To further understand the relationship between the freedom of association and the mobility at  
 271 various places, correlation coefficients were calculated between the freedom of association index  
 272 and each category (Table 1). These correlation coefficient values are consistent with the earlier  
 273 classification. Residential mobility for each country shows a strong negative correlation with the  
 274 freedom of association, since the lockdown required people to stay at home. France, Italy and  
 275 Spain show strong correlation for all other categories as well, which means that restrictions were  
 276 imposed and followed at all places. As mentioned earlier, parks in these countries were closed  
 277 during the lockdown, which caused a large decrease in mobility. In case of Belgium and the UK,

278 all categories except parks were found to be highly correlated with the freedom of association.  
 279 The mobility at groceries was highly correlated with the freedom of association except in the  
 280 third group of countries (Germany, Switzerland and the Netherlands).

281 Table 1. Correlation coefficients between freedom of association and mobility.

Country	Residential	Parks	Grocery	Workplaces
France	-0.829**	0.739**	0.741**	0.678**
Italy	-0.828**	0.771**	0.699**	0.769**
Spain	-0.777**	0.571**	0.714**	0.802**
Belgium	-0.803**	0.185	0.593**	0.680**
United Kingdom	-0.783**	-0.116	0.790**	0.821**
Germany	-0.636**	-0.146	0.287**	0.558**
Netherlands	-0.754**	-0.015	0.411**	0.507**
Switzerland	-0.793**	0.171*	0.328**	0.716**

\* p<0.05 \*\* p<0.01

282  
283  
284 **5.2 Correlation between Growth Rate Ratio and Mobility Change**

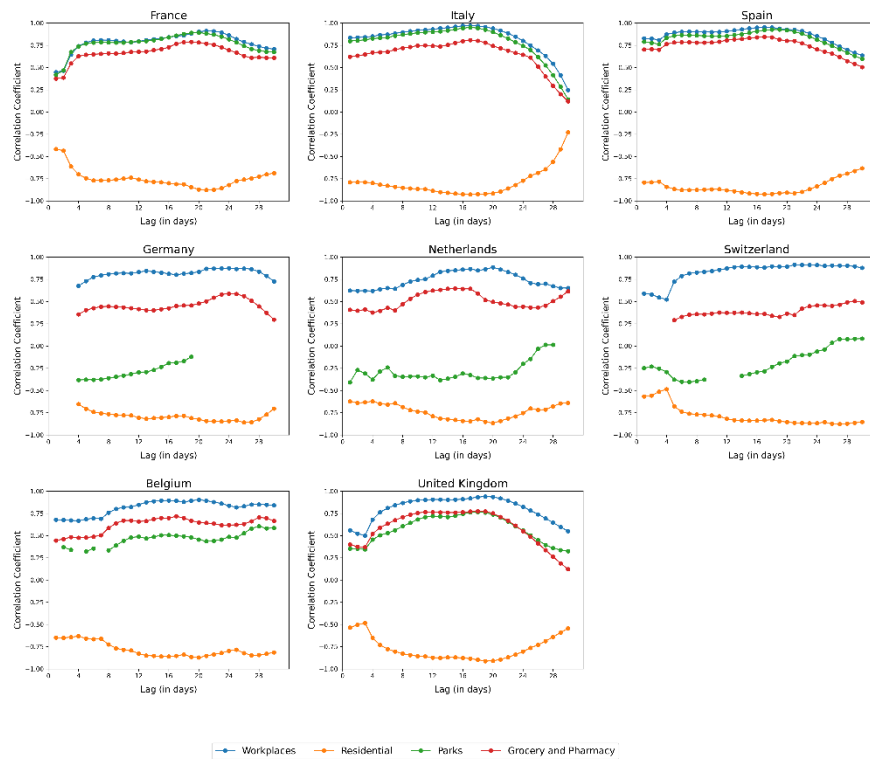
285 The OxCGRT dataset tracks the cumulative number of confirmed cases for each country. The  
 286 daily number of cases on a particular day was calculated by subtracting the number of cases on  
 287 the previous day from the number of cases on that day. To quantify the growth of infections, a  
 288 measure called the Growth Rate Ratio (GRR) was used. The GRR, defined by Badr et al. (2020)  
 289 in their study, is the ratio of the logarithmic change of cases over previous 3 days to that over the  
 290 previous week. The daily cases were used to calculate the GRR using the following equation:

291 
$$GRit = \log_t - 2tCit3 \log_t - 6tCit7 \#1$$

292 where  $GRit$  is the GRR and  $Cit$  is the number of cases in country  $i$  on day  $t$ . A GRR greater than 1  
 293 suggests a relative increase in growth rate compared to the previous week, with a decrease  
 294 denoted by a value of less than 1.

295 Several studies have found the median incubation time of COVID-19 to be around 5 days, with  
 296 95% people showing symptoms within 12.5 days (Lauer et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020). As the  
 297 incubation time differs in each case, accounting for the delay in reporting, 14 days has been  
 298 considered the maximum incubation time. This has also been used by countries as the quarantine  
 299 period for anyone who has been at risk of infection. A time lag is expected between the change  
 300 in mobility and the subsequent change in growth rate, since mobility changes are not expected to  
 301 affect the growth rate immediately. Correlation coefficients were calculated between the mobility  
 302 changes at different places and the 7 days rolling average of GRR values using different time  
 303 lags. The statistically significant results for all countries are shown in Figure 9 (p<0.05).

304 The mobility values at each category of places were used to calculate correlation coefficients  
 305 with the GRR. For Spain and Italy, the correlations peaked between a lag of 14 and 18 days, with  
 306 all values above 0.6. Grocery mobility showed the weakest correlation with GRR, with all other  
 307 places showing values above 0.9 during the peak. After 20 days the correlations declined  
 308 sharply, which could be due to a decrease in the number of reported cases while mobility  
 309 remaining stable. In case of France, the correlations started peaking around a lag of 18 days, and  
 310 then started declining after 22 days. The GRR in Germany, Switzerland and the Netherlands  
 311 showed high correlation with the workplace and residential mobility, and only a weak correlation  
 312 with mobility at grocery and pharmacy. The mobility at parks showed a negative correlation for  
 313 most of the statistically significant correlation values. The coefficients in case of Belgium and  
 314 the UK also followed largely the same patterns, with the notable difference being with parks,  
 315 where the correlation was stronger than Germany, Netherlands, and Switzerland but weaker than  
 316 Italy, France, and Spain. A notable observation is that there is a different time lag value for  
 317 which the country achieves a peak value of correlation. This suggests that there are some-  
 318 country-specific factors in play that have influenced the rate of growth of new infections.  
 319 Nevertheless, there is satisfactory evidence to support the role of social distancing in reducing  
 320 the spread of the virus.



321  
 322 Figure 9. Correlation Coefficients between GRR and mobility change for different time lags.

323  
 324 **6. Discussion and Conclusions**

325 This research used aggregated mobility data provided by Google to monitor the changes in  
326 mobility in a number of major Western European countries. The mobility data was compared to  
327 the government responses, which were captured by the Oxford COVID-19 Government  
328 Response Tracker (OxCGRT). On the basis of mobility patterns, the eight countries were divided  
329 into three lockdown categories (strict, intermediate, and flexible). Furthermore, the daily number  
330 of cases was used to calculate the GRR for each country. Correlation coefficients were then  
331 calculated between GRR and the mobility changes, with different time lags. The results show  
332 that the GRR is highly correlated with the decrease in workplace and residential mobility for a  
333 time lag window, which suggests that the mobility restrictions could have been effective in  
334 decreasing the number of infections.

335 Based on the analysis of human mobility, freedom of association index, and COVID-19 growth  
336 rate ratio, the obvious conclusion is that the strict restriction of mobility such as working from  
337 home order is extremely important to limit the spread of COVID-19 infectious. Further, the  
338 limitation of mobility will not result in an immediate COVID-19 growth rate decline due to the  
339 virus incubation time. Thus, it is very important to impose enough time of lockdown (at least 2 to  
340 3 weeks) to see the control of the virus from mobility restriction. Specifically, doing essential  
341 shopping and exercising in the parks with carefully social distancing and usage of face masks is  
342 not necessary to increase the growth rate of the virus.

343 There are a few limitations of this research that need to be discussed. Firstly, discussing the  
344 growth rates for different countries presents various challenges. For instance, the testing policies  
345 are not the same for each country, which could have effects on the number of reported cases. The  
346 level of infection and community spread before the restrictions also varies between countries.  
347 Secondly, the relationship between cases and mobility could work both ways. An increase in the  
348 number of cases could also result in a decrease in mobility, as people refrain from going out due  
349 to rising infections. Finally, there may be other factors such as preventive measures  
350 (handwashing and wearing masks) that could also affect the growth rate. The effect of such  
351 factors has not been discussed in this analysis.

352 The use of Google's Community Mobility data as a measure of population mobility also has  
353 some limitation. Firstly, the data collection methodology is not clearly explained by Google, and  
354 it is not known whether any modelling techniques were used while collecting the data. Secondly,  
355 this type of data collection may only be suitable for developed countries. It may not work well  
356 for developing countries, where there may be a significantly lower percentage of people who  
357 own and use location-enabled smartphones, even with the access to the internet. The results in  
358 this analysis would be biased towards people who use smartphones and could be significantly  
359 different from the real-world scenario. Lastly, due to the reliance on the 'Location History'  
360 feature in the user's phone being turned on, the data might not represent the actual mobility  
361 patterns. Therefore, caution should be exercised while using the results derived from this type of  
362 data. Additional methods and data validation should be used to further confirm the findings from  
363 this analysis.

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