

# A Global-Scale Ecological Niche Model to Predict SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus Infection Rate

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## Abstract

COVID-19 pandemic is a global threat to human health and economy that requires urgent prevention and monitoring strategies. Several models are under study to control the disease spread and infection rate and to detect possible factors that might favour them, with a focus on understanding the correlation between the disease and specific geophysical parameters. However, the pandemic does not present evident environmental hindrances in the infected countries. Nevertheless, a lower rate of infections has been observed in some countries, which might be related to particular population and climatic conditions.

In this paper, *infection rate* of COVID-19 is modelled globally at a 0.5° resolution, using a Maximum Entropy-based Ecological Niche Model that identifies geographical areas potentially subject to a high infection rate. The model identifies locations that could favour infection rate due to their particular geophysical (surface air temperature, precipitation, and elevation) and human-related characteristics (CO<sub>2</sub> and population density). It was trained by facilitating data from Italian provinces that have reported a high infection rate and subsequently tested using datasets from World countries' reports. Based on this model, a *risk index* was calculated to identify the potential World countries and regions that have a high risk of disease increment.

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22 The distribution outputs foresee a high infection rate in many locations where real-  
23 world disease outbreaks have occurred, e.g. the Hubei province in China, and reports a  
24 high risk of disease increment in most World countries which have reported significant  
25 outbreaks (e.g. Western U.S.A.). Overall, the results suggest that a complex combination  
26 of the selected parameters might be of integral importance to understand the propagation  
27 of COVID-19 among human populations, particularly in Europe. The model and the data  
28 were distributed through Open-science Web services to maximise opportunities for re-  
29 usability regarding new data and new diseases, and also to enhance the transparency of the  
30 approach and results.

31 *Keywords:* Ecological Niche Modelling, Coronavirus, SARS-CoV-2, COVID-19,  
32 Maximum Entropy

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### 33 **1. Introduction**

34 The spread of the COVID-19 pandemic, caused by the SARS-CoV-2 virus, is signifi-  
35 cantly afflicting both society and the global economy, and urgently calls for the develop-  
36 ment of systems capable of monitoring and predicting the risk of infection. The modelling  
37 of SARS-CoV-2 spread is being approached with heterogeneous methodologies, ranging  
38 from pure time series analysis to ecological models using climatic parameters, especially  
39 temperature and humidity (Giuliani et al., 2020; Nickbakhsh et al., 2020; Sajadi et al.,  
40 2020; Wang et al., 2020). However, the pandemic seems to be spreading in all World  
41 cities without evident environmental hindrances. Nevertheless, some countries are experi-  
42 encing a lower rate of disease cases that might be related to their particular population and  
43 climatic conditions, but the exact effect of these conditions on infection rate is still unclear  
44 (Roser et al., 2020). Several approaches have been used to estimate the potential spatial

45 outreach of the virus and the geophysical and climatic data that may foster disease trans-  
46 mission. Ecological Niche Models (ENMs) have been extensively and effectively used in  
47 this context (Davison, 2007; Misra and Kalita, 2010; Wahlgren, 2011; Costa and Peterson,  
48 2012; Zhang et al., 2019). ENMs' aim is to predict the presence of a particular species in  
49 a geographical area by correlating species-specific occurrence records in its native habitat  
50 (presence records) with specific environmental parameters (Elith and Leathwick, 2009).  
51 The species' niche can be defined as the space within a hypervolume of numerical vectors  
52 - corresponding to environmental parameter ranges - which is correlated with the species'  
53 presence, and that fosters population persistence (*Hutchinsonian* ecological niche). Accu-  
54 racy in the identification of this hypervolume can also be enhanced if the species' absence  
55 information is included in the model, as either expert-estimated or mathematically simu-  
56 lated information (Pearson, 2012; Chuine and Beaubien, 2008; Peterson et al., 2011; Coro  
57 et al., 2015b, 2016). ENMs have heterogeneous approaches and implementations, for ex-  
58 ample they can explicitly model a species' environmental preferences and physiological  
59 limits (*mechanistic models*), or they can automatically estimate the correlation between  
60 the parameter vectors and the species' presence (*correlative models*). Once the model has  
61 estimated the species' ecological niche, it can then project the niche characteristics across  
62 the native geographical area to reproduce the actual species' distribution, and subsequently  
63 extrapolate across another area (even at the global scale) to discover new potential suitable  
64 places for the species' persistence. Most ENMs that predict virus' spread use *correla-*  
65 *tive* approaches implemented as machine-learning or statistical models. These models can  
66 reach a high prediction accuracy on disease outreach because viruses and pandemics are  
67 known to be supported by particular geophysical characteristics and, potentially, by eco-

68 logical and socioeconomic changes (Earn et al., 2000; Scheffer, 2009; Morse et al., 2012;  
69 Carlson et al., 2016; Scheffer and Van Nes, 2018). ENMs have been extensively used to  
70 discover these characteristics directly, or indirectly by tracing viruses' principal vectors  
71 (Linden, 2006; Peterson et al., 2006; Tachiiri et al., 2006; Medley, 2010; Walton et al.,  
72 2010; Fuller et al., 2013; Valiakos et al., 2014; Zhu and Peterson, 2014; Signorini et al.,  
73 2014; Samy et al., 2016). In particular, the Maximum Entropy model (MaxEnt) has been  
74 often used as an ENM due to its flexibility to work with both presence and presence/ab-  
75 sence data scenarios (Phillips et al., 2004; Elith et al., 2011; Coro et al., 2013, 2015b).  
76 Also, MaxEnt can estimate the influence of each parameter on the identification of the  
77 niche, i.e. the most important parameters to understand a virus' preferred conditions. For  
78 these reasons, MaxEnt has often been used to trace the ecological niche of a virus based  
79 on pure geophysical parameters or human-related parameters (e.g. population density and  
80 urbanised area), and also to understand how climate change might foster the virus' spread  
81 (Peristeraki et al., 2006; Miller et al., 2012; Koch et al., 2016; Samy and Peterson, 2016).

82 In this paper, MaxEnt is used to estimate a *global-scale distribution of SARS-CoV-2*  
83 *high infection rate*, and consequently of potential COVID-19 high spread rate. Differing  
84 from the other cited works, this model concentrates on infection *rate* rather than on abso-  
85 lute *spread* numbers. Further, the proposed model uses a complex combination of param-  
86 eters to identify locations that could favour infection due to their particular geophysical-  
87 and human-related characteristics. As a result, it predicts a high probability of infection  
88 increase in many actual known infection areas, e.g. the Hubei province in China. The  
89 presented ENM is trained based on locations in Italy that have reported a high rate of new  
90 infections. Also, it facilitates geophysical (surface air temperature, precipitation, and ele-

91 vation) and human-related (carbon dioxide and population density) data-vectors associated  
92 with these locations. The implemented model produces a probability map where higher  
93 values indicate a correlation with high infection rate; lower non-zero values indicate a  
94 lower correlation, and zero indicates unsuitable conditions for infection increase. A *risk*  
95 *index* is also calculated out of the produced probability distribution and identifies most  
96 World countries, with known high COVID-19 spread rate, as high-risk zones. Overall,  
97 the present work suggests that the involved parameters may play a key role in monitoring  
98 COVID-19 spread rate. The research question answered by the present work is: *Given the*  
99 *climatic, geophysical, and human-related parameters that other studies have individually*  
100 *correlated with a high COVID-19 infection rate, and that are publicly accessible, can we*  
101 *infer their overall weights and predict infection rate with high accuracy?*

102 This paper is organised in the following way: Section 2 describes the used data and the  
103 modelling approach and subsequently Section 3 reports performance evaluation metrics,  
104 model's parametrisation, and performance at predicting global high-infection-rate zones.  
105 Section 4 discusses results and conclusions, reporting the possible applications and future  
106 extensions of the presented model.

## 107 **2. Material and Methods**

### 108 *2.1. Data*

#### 109 *2.1.1. Data Selection Methodology and Data Availability*

110 The methodology presented in this paper aims to be repeatable, reproducible, and re-  
111 usable for experiments on COVID-19 and other diseases. For this reason, only data which  
112 met the principles of findability, accessibility, interoperability, and re-usability were used

113 (FAIR data). Geospatial data accessible through representational standards, published on  
114 public geospatial services, were preferred in order to maximise their usage in the im-  
115 plemented model and further experiments. All used data (Table 1) were post-processed  
116 and transformed into gridded raster files, and were made available through the Zenodo  
117 open-access repository (Coro, 2020a) and the Unidata Thredds service of the D4Science  
118 e-Infrastructure (Coro, 2020b) while respecting their primary sources' citation require-  
119 ments. The model used an annual data set so as not to be limited to the last winter/spring  
120 season.

### 121 *2.1.2. Training and Test Data*

122 The Italian Civil Protection Department - the national body that deals with emergency  
123 events - publishes daily updates on the number of people infected, recovered, and mortali-  
124 ties from COVID-19 per region and province (Italian Civil Protection Department, 2020).  
125 Data up to the end of March 2020 (Figure 1-a), i.e. the period of maximum infection  
126 rate in Italy, were used as a reference to identify locations with high infection rates on  
127 the basis of the derivative of the values. Among all available COVID-19 global reports,  
128 Italian data are particularly applicable to train an ENM because (i) Italy has been the first  
129 European country to be both heavily impacted by the virus and to study the virus, and (ii)  
130 infections in Italy have been reported on the basis of tens of thousands blanket tests. In  
131 Italy, a correlation between temperature and humidity increase and COVID-19 spread has  
132 been assessed (Italian Ministry of Health, 2020; Tuscany Regional Health Agency, 2020;  
133 Scafetta, 2020), in agreement with studies on other areas (Section 2.1.3). Indeed, despite  
134 the easing of the lockdown to lower levels and the consequential increase of human in-  
135 teractions, the disease spread has been decreasing from May 2020 (GEDI, 2020). At the

136 end of April 2020, the Italian Prime Minister presented a plan of progressive lockdown  
137 level reduction, which also included possible regional restrictions in the case of a localised  
138 disease rate increase (Italian Government, 2020). However, significant increments were  
139 not observed and thus special regional restrictions were not applied. To better understand  
140 this phenomenon, Italy has started national projects to investigate the cause and effect re-  
141 lationships between the lockdown, environmental factors, and tourism, and to publish data  
142 and results under FAIR principles (CNR, 2020). Due to this range of considerations, Italy  
143 presents an optimum scenario to apply the proposed analysis. However, other countries  
144 are experiencing a high infection rate but have climatic conditions that are very different  
145 from the European ones. The identification of all these conditions would require more  
146 significant research and data collection initiatives.

147 For the scopes of the presented experiment, Italian locations with a high virus infection  
148 rate were selected, by first calculating average rates of infected people per province and  
149 then by studying the distribution of these quantities. A total of 54 provinces was selected  
150 by applying this approach (the detailed table is available in Coro (2020a)). A Chi-squared  
151 test confirmed that the distribution of infection rates could be approximated by a log-  
152 normal distribution. Consequently, provinces with a high infection rate were identified and  
153 selected as those with infection rates over the geometric mean of the rates. These data were  
154 used as reference observations of the modelled phenomenon to train an ecological niche  
155 model. It is worth noting that using average infection *rate* instead of absolute infection  
156 *counts* helps reducing a data bias due to the number of undetected cases of infection in  
157 Italy.

158 John Hopkins University publishes daily updates regarding COVID-19 infections and

159 mortality statistics by collecting reports from the World countries (Dong et al., 2020).  
160 Data are given at a national scale for most countries, and at a regional scale for other coun-  
161 tries (e.g. China, U.S.A., and Canada) (Figure 1-b). Unfortunately, reports from different  
162 countries are poorly comparable between them, given the different countries approaches  
163 to disease identification and monitoring (Reuters, 2020). Thus, mixing these data with  
164 Italian province data was not optimal for modelling. Nevertheless, global data were used  
165 as a reference to test the prediction performance of an aggregated *risk index* built upon  
166 the model's output (Section 2.3). To this aim, the countries/regions with the highest infec-  
167 tion rates were selected using the same statistical analysis applied to Italian data, which  
168 resulted in 72 locations (the detailed table is available in Coro (2020a)).

### 169 2.1.3. *Input Parameters*

#### 170 **Surface air Temperature and Precipitation**

171 The NASA Earth Exchange platform hosts long-term daily forecasts between 1950 and  
172 2100 at a  $0.25^\circ$  resolution for minimum and maximum surface air temperature and pre-  
173 cipitation at the surface (NASA-NEX, 2020). Forecasts come from 20 weather models  
174 developed by the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5, 2019). The  
175 D4Science e-Infrastructure hosts these data sets averaged in time and space, for 2018 and  
176 at a  $0.5^\circ$  resolution as gridded NetCDF-CF files (Coro and Trumpy, 2020a). In particular,  
177 data of average surface air temperature and precipitation (Figures 1-c and -d) were used  
178 due to their correlation with COVID-19 and similar viruses (Casanova et al., 2010; Chan  
179 et al., 2011; Chaudhuri et al., 2020; Ficetola and Rubolini, 2020; Ma et al., 2020; Oliveiros  
180 et al., 2020; Qi et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020), and their general coupled  
181 involvement in virus ecological niche models (Patz, 1998; Fuller et al., 2013; Valiakos



182 et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2016). Additionally, precipitation was also used as a surrogate  
183 of humidity (Chen et al., 2012; Masunaga, 2012; Baskerville and Cobey, 2017). Italian  
184 provinces present a high variability of surface air temperature and precipitation. At the  
185 same elevation, there are temperature differences as high as 7° and precipitation differing  
186 of more than one order of magnitude. This variability increases the representativeness of  
187 Italian provinces as a training set.

### 188 **Elevation**

189 The United States National Geophysical Data Center (NGDC) hosts a global dataset of ele-  
190 vation and depth at a 0.33° resolution (ETOPO2, NOAA (2001)), which includes localised  
191 correction and integration of satellite, ocean sounding, and land data. Elevation has been  
192 used in several ecological niche models for viruses (Peterson et al., 2006; Miller et al.,  
193 2012; Valiakos et al., 2014) and thus was included in this experiment. The D4Science  
194 e-Infrastructure hosts a FAIR ETOPO2 dataset as a gridded NetCDF-CF file (Coro and  
195 Trumpy, 2020a,b) down-sampled at a 0.5° resolution (Figure 1-e).

#### 196 *2.1.4. Human-related Parameters*

### 197 **Carbon Dioxide**

198 The Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service hosts a global-scale uniform distribution  
199 of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) flux with monthly estimates (CAM5, 2019) deriving from both  
200 human and natural activity. A FAIR dataset of averaged data from January 1979 to De-  
201 cember 2013 with a 0.5° spatial resolution is hosted by D4Science (Coro and Trumpy,  
202 2020a) as a gridded NetCDF-CF file (Figure 1-f). This dataset aims at combining CO<sub>2</sub>  
203 values preceding the higher industrialisation rate of the last decades with the natural pres-  
204 ence of CO<sub>2</sub> in the soil. It summarises both natural emission and the evolution of human

205 emission (Coro and Trumpy, 2020b). For the scope of this paper, this dataset was used  
206 as a surrogate of air pollution and human-related activity, which are generally correlated  
207 with virus spread and may foster COVID-19 spread (Lam et al., 2016; Ye et al., 2016; Clay  
208 et al., 2018; Tasci et al., 2018; Godzinski and Suarez Castillo, 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Han  
209 et al., 2020; ISPRA, 2020; BBC, 2020). Alternative parameters of CO<sub>2</sub>, correlated with  
210 air pollution, were also tested but produced more adverse results (Section 3.2).

### 211 **Population Density**

212 Studies on complex systems' dynamics have highlighted that epidemics happen only be-  
213 yond a critical threshold of population density that depends on infectivity, recovery, and  
214 mortality rates (Earn et al., 2000; Scheffer, 2009). The Center for International Earth Sci-  
215 ence Information Network openly publishes up-to-date population density data as gridded  
216 datasets with resolutions ranging from 30'' to 1° (Warszawski et al., 2017). For the scopes  
217 of this paper, the Gridded Population of the World dataset - Version 4, was used at a 0.5°  
218 resolution (Figure 1-g) to include population density factors that could be correlated with  
219 infection rate.

### 220 *2.2. Modelling*

221 The experiment presented required training of MaxEnt models with several alterna-  
222 tive parametrisations in order to identify the model with the highest performance and the  
223 best combination of parameters (Section 2.3). To this aim, the *gCube DataMiner* cloud  
224 computing platform was used. This is an open-source system that is able to process big  
225 data and offers over 400 free-to-use processes as-a-service from multiple domains (Coro  
226 et al., 2015a; Assante et al., 2019). This platform maximises the re-usability of processes  
227 through a standard Web Processing Service (WPS) interface (Coro et al., 2017). Further,

228 DataMiner parallelises the training of models on a network of 100 machines while choos-  
229 ing the best computational configuration among a range of powerful multi-core virtual  
230 machines (Ubuntu 14.04.5 LTS x86 64 with 16 virtual CPUs, 16 GB of random access  
231 memory and 100 GB of storage capacity). Additionally, the system stores all trained  
232 models and their respective parametrisations under the standard and exportable Prov-O  
233 ontological format (Lebo et al., 2013). This representation allows to recover the complete  
234 set of input/output data and metadata which enable any other authorised user to reproduce  
235 and repeat an experiment (*provenance* of the computation). The Open Science concepts of  
236 re-usability of processes, and of reproducibility and repeatability of the experiments, allow  
237 the implementation of a methodology that can, in principle, be extended to analyse other  
238 diseases (Section 4). To this aim, DataMiner hosts a MaxEnt model as-a-service (CNR,  
239 2019; Phillips et al., 2019), which can work on textual input files (CSVs) - that include  
240 pairs of coordinates related to a certain phenomenon - and FAIR input geospatial data.  
241 The WPS interface allows (i) inclusion of this service in complex workflows through a  
242 wide range of workflow management systems which support this standard (Berthold et al.,  
243 2009; QGIS, 2011; Wolstencroft et al., 2013), and (ii) re-use of the service across multiple  
244 domains (Coro et al., 2013, 2015b, 2018; Coro and Trumpy, 2020b).

### 245 2.2.1. Model Description

246 MaxEnt is a machine learning model commonly used in ecological niche modelling  
247 (Phillips et al., 2004, 2006; Phillips and Dudik, 2008; Baldwin, 2009; Coro et al., 2015b,  
248 2018). It simulates a probability density function  $\pi(\bar{x})$  defined on real-valued vectors  
249 of parameters  $\bar{x}$  taken at locations where a species occurs in its native habitat (Pearson,  
250 2012; Coro et al., 2018). The advantage of MaxEnt with respect to other models is that

251 it can learn from positive examples only. Thus, it does not necessarily need absence data,  
252 which are instead automatically estimated. Considering the high-infection-rate of Italian  
253 provinces as species occurrences, the parameters associated with these areas were treated  
254 as a positive example of input vectors to train the model. One drawback of MaxEnt, is that  
255 its prediction performance is very sensitive to data quality (Elith and Leathwick, 2009),  
256 an additional consideration for using only Italian data and not combining data from other  
257 countries (Reuters, 2020).

258 The MaxEnt training algorithm adjusts the model's internal variables so that (i) the  
259 simulated density function  $\pi(\bar{x})$  is compliant with pre-calculated mean values at training-  
260 set locations and (ii) the entropy of the density function  $H = -\sum \pi(\bar{x}) \ln(\pi(\bar{x}))$  is max-  
261 imum for these locations (Elith et al., 2011). MaxEnt maximises the entropy function for  
262 training locations divided by the entropy values of the parameters of random points taken  
263 in the training-set area (*background points*, Phillips et al. (2006)). The model involves a  
264 linear combination of the input parameters, whose coefficients reproduce the influence of  
265 each variable on the prediction of the training set locations (*percent contribution*). Fur-  
266 ther, the model estimates the dependency of the performance on the permutation of each  
267 parameter in the training vectors (*permutation importance*).

268 In this experiment, MaxEnt uses the data vectors  $\bar{x}$  of Italian high-infection-rate provinces  
269 (and of *background points* in Italy) to estimate the probability density  $\pi(\bar{x}) = P(\text{high} -$   
270 *infection - rate}|\bar{x}) that a location would foster a high infection rate. To this aim, the  
271 model estimates the ratio between the probability density  $f(\bar{x})$  of the vectors across Italy  
272 and the probability density in the high-infection-rate locations  $f_1(\bar{x})$ . The Bayes' rule*

273 defines the relation between  $P(\text{high-infection-rate}|\bar{x})$ ,  $f(\bar{x})$ , and  $f_1(\bar{x})$ :

$$P(\text{high-infection-rate}|\bar{x}) = \frac{f_1(\bar{x})P(\text{high-infection-rate})}{f(\bar{x})}$$

274 with  $P(\text{high-infection-rate})$  being the prior distribution of high-infection-rate zones  
275 in Italy (*prevalence*), fixed to 0.5 by default (i.e. no prior assumption is given). MaxEnt  
276 hypothesises that the optimal  $f_1(\bar{x})$  distribution is the closest distribution to  $f(\bar{x})$ , because  
277 without any training-set location there would be no expectation about certain conditions  
278 over the others (i.e.  $f(\bar{x})$  is a null model for  $f_1(\bar{x})$ ). Also, the model constraints  $f_1(\bar{x})$  to  
279 reflect the observations on the training set, i.e.  $f_1(\bar{x})$  should estimate high probability on  
280 parameters' values close to the parameters' means over the training set. The model uses  
281 Kullback-Leibler divergence (relative entropy) to measure the distance between the two  
282 functions:

$$d(f_1(\bar{x}), f(\bar{x})) = \sum_{\bar{x}} f_1(\bar{x}) \log_2 \left( \frac{f_1(\bar{x})}{f(\bar{x})} \right)$$

283 The aim of the training algorithm is to minimise this distance under the above constraints,  
284 which in turn maximises the entropy of the target probability density. It can be demon-  
285 strated that this characterization uniquely determines  $f_1(\bar{x})$  as belonging to the following  
286 family of Gibbs distributions (Phillips et al., 2006):

$$f_1(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x})e^{\eta(\bar{x})}$$

287 with  $\eta(\bar{x}) = \alpha + \beta h(\bar{x})$ ;  $\alpha$  being a normalization constant that makes  $f_1(\bar{x})$  sum to 1;  $h$  be-  
288 ing an optional transformation of the vectors  $\bar{x}$  that possibly models complex relationships

289 between parameters;  $\beta$  being the vector of coefficients that reports the *percent contribu-*  
290 *tion* of each parameter. Thus, the ratio  $f_1(\bar{x})/f(\bar{x})$  is equal to  $e^{\eta(\bar{x})}$ , i.e. MaxEnt needs  
291 to solve a log-linear model based on the background and training vectors to estimate the  
292  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  parameters, which can be implemented through a penalised maximum likelihood  
293 algorithm (Phillips and Dudík, 2008).

294 After the training phase, the parameters' *percent contribution* can be used to select the  
295 most influential parameters for the model. This potentially allows to use MaxEnt as a filter  
296 to select those parameters carrying the highest quantity of information (Coro et al., 2015b,  
297 2013, 2018). A MaxEnt model trained on 0.5° resolution parameters can be reasonably  
298 used to produce probability distributions at the same resolution. Given the semantics of  
299 the selected training locations, the model produced a distribution function that could be  
300 interpreted as a global-scale probability distribution for SARS-CoV-2 high infection rate.

### 301 2.3. Evaluation Metrics

302 The model training phase estimates the average Area Under the Curve (AUC), i.e.  
303 the integral of the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve that plots *sensitivity*  
304  $(\frac{True\ Positives}{True\ Positives+False\ Negatives})$  against *1-specificity*  $(1 - \frac{True\ Negatives}{True\ Negative+False\ Positives})$ . AUC val-  
305 ues closer to 1 indicate high classification performance of training sites. Reference cut-off  
306 thresholds on  $\pi$  were also calculated during the training phase (Phillips et al., 2019) and  
307 represent (i) the value balancing *omission rate*  $(\frac{False\ Negatives}{True\ Positives+False\ Negatives})$  and *sensitiv-*  
308 *ity (balanced threshold)*, (ii) the value at which *sensitivity* and *specificity* are equal, and  
309 (iii) the minimum threshold at which all training locations are correctly classified as high-  
310 infection-rate areas.

311 In order to numerically estimate the prediction performance of the trained model, a *risk*

312 *index* was also calculated, defined as the normalised density of non-zero MaxEnt proba-  
313 bility locations (McGeoch et al., 2006; Coro et al., 2018) for all countries/regions reported  
314 in the global dataset of infection rates (Section 2.1). High-risk zones were identified as  
315 those with a *risk index* higher than the geometric mean of the *risk* values. Accuracy on  
316 the correct identification of *high-infection-rate countries/regions* as *high-risk zones* was  
317 calculated as  $\frac{n. of high-infection-rate areas identified}{overall n. of high-infection-rate areas}$ . Moreover, agreement between high-risk  
318 zones' classification and high-infection-rate country/region reports was calculated using  
319 Cohen's Kappa (Cohen et al., 1960). This statistical coefficient estimates the agreement  
320 between the two classifications with respect to purely random classifications (agreement  
321 by chance). An overall interpretation of this value was assigned using Fleiss' tables (Fleiss,  
322 1971).

### 323 **3. Results**

#### 324 *3.1. Global-scale distribution and Performance*

325 The MaxEnt model was trained using different combinations of parameters associated  
326 with Italian locations reporting a high rate of infections up to the end of March 2020 (Sec-  
327 tion 2.1). Training the model on all parameters produced the highest AUC and optimal  
328 estimates for the three model's thresholds (Table 2-a). When the model was trained with  
329 any other parameter subset, AUC resulted lower. This property indicates that all parame-  
330 ters bring useful information to estimate training set locations correctly. Nevertheless, the  
331 *percent contribution* and *permutation importance* of carbon dioxide, surface air tempera-  
332 ture, and precipitation are much higher than the ones of elevation and population density  
333 (Table 3). The model using all parameters also indicates a correlation with high infec-

334 tion rate for particular parameter ranges (i.e. the boundaries of the niche hypervolume):  
335 CO<sub>2</sub> has the highest correlation around 0.03 (0.01;0.08)  $g C m^{-2} day^{-1}$  (*moderate-high*),  
336 air temperature around 11.8 (8.0;16.0) °C (*moderate-low*), and precipitation around 0.3  
337 (0.2;0.45)  $10^{-4} kg m^{-2} s^{-1}$  (*moderate*).

338 The model was projected at the global scale to produce a global infection-rate probabil-  
339 ity distribution at a 0.5° resolution (Figure 2). For each cell, this map reports the probabil-  
340 ity that the cell has suitable conditions for infection increase. Locations with a value higher  
341 than the balanced threshold ( $\pi(\bar{x}) \geq 0.4$ ) can be classified as high-infection-rate locations,  
342 whereas the other two thresholds indicate medium infection-rate ( $0.1 \leq \pi(\bar{x}) < 0.4$ ) and  
343 low infection-rate ( $0.008 \leq \pi(\bar{x}) < 0.1$ ) locations. Zero probability locations indicate  
344 unsuitable areas for an infection rate increase.

345 As a qualitative evaluation, it can be observed that the model correctly and precisely  
346 identifies the locations of real World high infection rates, e.g. the Hubei Chinese region,  
347 Western United States, and most of Europe. Instead, wrongly classified places are, for  
348 example, Peru and Brazil, that have parameter ranges out of the niche hypervolume. The  
349 identification of the climatic/geophysical parameters fostering infection rate increase in  
350 these countries would require further research, based on a more extensive and globally  
351 shared data collection (Section 3.3).

352 In order to quantify the prediction accuracy of the map, the *risk index* was used to select  
353 high-risk zones and compare them with global reports of high infection rates (Figure 3 and  
354 Table 2-b). Accuracy at predicting high-infection-rate countries/region reached 77.25%,  
355 and the overall agreement (0.46) was *good* according to Fleiss' classification. This result  
356 indicates that most countries/regions are correctly and non-randomly classified, and thus



357 the model has extracted a correct characterisation of the actual risk of infection increase  
358 based on the considered parameters.

### 359 3.2. *The weight of the CO<sub>2</sub> parameter*

360 The high correlation of CO<sub>2</sub> with high infection rate requires a further investiga-  
361 tion, starting from the correlation between air pollution and COVID-19 spread (Section  
362 2.1.4). The Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service provides FAIR data correlated  
363 with greenhouse gas concentration and fluxes, i.e. methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O),  
364 and CO<sub>2</sub> (CAMS, 2020). The CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O influence on prediction performance was  
365 evaluated by substituting these parameters to CO<sub>2</sub> in the all-parameter model (*individual*  
366 models), and then by using them together with CO<sub>2</sub> (*mixed* model). The aggregated data  
367 used for this analysis were published as FAIR data on Zenodo (Coro, 2020a). Execut-  
368 ing the MaxEnt individual models revealed that CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O have a much lower *per-*  
369 *cent contribution* (~52% for both models) to infection rate prediction than CO<sub>2</sub> (87.2%).  
370 Furthermore, their individual models reported a lower AUC (0.90 v.s. 0.994 of the CO<sub>2</sub>  
371 model). However, in these models, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O were always the parameters having the  
372 highest *percent contribution* to infection rate prediction. This property indicates that the  
373 parameters correlated with greenhouse gases concentration are of high importance for pre-  
374 diction accuracy, which confirms the correlation between air pollution and infection rate  
375 highlighted by other studies (Section 2.1.4). The mixed model further confirmed this re-  
376 sult because it gained the same performance as the CO<sub>2</sub> individual model to predict high  
377 risk zones (77.25%). However, the mixed model reported a much higher *percent contri-*  
378 *bution* of CO<sub>2</sub> (85.9%) than of CH<sub>4</sub> (0.4%) and N<sub>2</sub>O (0.4%). This result indicates that  
379 CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O are not adding a substantially more predictive information than CO<sub>2</sub>. Over-

380 all, this analysis indicates that CO<sub>2</sub> is the correct choice to represent air pollution in the  
381 experiment.

### 382 3.3. Training and input data completeness

383 In order to evaluate if Italian provinces were a sufficient representative training set  
384 for the reported experiment, the all-parameter MaxEnt model was executed by incremen-  
385 tally adding more World areas to the training set. First, the geographical areas of large  
386 cities correctly predicted by the original model were added, i.e. Madrid, London, Istan-  
387 bul, Buenos Aires. This operation did not change the model's risk prediction performance  
388 (77.25%), which indicates that Italian provinces are strong representation of the correctly  
389 detected World cities. As an additional step, World city areas that were wrongly predicted  
390 by the original model were incrementally introduced, i.e. São Paulo, Lima, Santiago de  
391 Chile, Guayaquil. This process produced a continuously decreasing AUC, also if CH<sub>4</sub> and  
392 N<sub>2</sub>O were used instead of CO<sub>2</sub>. When involving these World cities, one major effect on  
393 the parameter ranges was a change in the upper confidence limit, which increased for tem-  
394 perature (from 16.0 to 18.8 °C) and precipitation (from 0.45 to 0.6 10<sup>-4</sup> kg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and  
395 the decreased for CO<sub>2</sub> (from 0.08 to 0.05 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>). The decreasing AUC, indicates  
396 that these ranges are not able to make the model cover all the areas of the training set. This  
397 result indicates that the used input parameters are insufficient to understand the infection  
398 rate increase in these areas, independent of the use of Italian provinces as the training set.

## 399 4. Discussion and Conclusions

400 This paper has presented a methodology to estimate a geographical probability distri-  
401 bution of *high infection rate* for SARS-CoV-2, based on geophysical and human-related

402 parameters. A *risk index* has been proposed based on this probability distribution, to  
403 identify global countries and regions that would mostly favour a high infection rate. A  
404 *good* concurrence with country-reported data and a moderate-high accuracy at predict-  
405 ing high-infection-rate countries/regions indicates that the model was able to identify real  
406 conditions of increased infection rate in many World areas. Generally, the model indi-  
407 cates a high infection rate in areas characterised by an annual moderate-high level of CO<sub>2</sub>,  
408 moderate-low temperatures, and moderate precipitation. The most notable result is that,  
409 although the model was trained only with Italian cities, it assigns a high-infection-rate  
410 probability and a high-risk classification to most real World scenarios where a high in-  
411 fection rate has been actually reported. Also, the results indicate that climatic parameters  
412 such as air temperature and precipitation (or air humidity) play a critical role at defin-  
413 ing locations that may be subject to a high infection rate. The model also indicates a  
414 temperature range which other studies have also correlated with the spread of COVID-19  
415 (Sajadi et al., 2020). Additionally, estimated high-rates in moderate-precipitation regions  
416 might be related to reduced transmission in high-humidity zones (Wang et al., 2020). Car-  
417 bon dioxide is the most influential parameter, which is correlated directly with pollution  
418 (which concurs with COVID-19 spread, Han et al. (2020)) and indirectly with population  
419 density. Correlation with population density could be one reason for the lower influence  
420 of this parameter on prediction performance. However, the fact that all parameters are  
421 necessary to achieve the optimal model performance indicates that they all contain com-  
422plementary information. Thus, population density is not entirely covered by CO<sub>2</sub>. Indeed,  
423 it affirms the complex system dynamics theory that if a population is vulnerable to a virus  
424 and its density exceeds a threshold, an epidemic will occur (Scheffer, 2009). In the case of

425 SARS-CoV-2, the presented results indicate a likely scenario where, after this threshold,  
426 population density does not influence infection rate anymore. This observation is valid in  
427 Italy, where provinces with population densities distant of almost two orders of magnitude  
428 have reported similar infection rates for a long period (e.g. Lucca and Naples). As for  
429 elevation, the model indicates that this is not a discriminant feature, as also demonstrated  
430 by the variability in the altitudes of high-infection-rate Italian provinces. However, eleva-  
431 tion brings some information to the model - probably related to drier weather conditions -  
432 because without this parameter the model's AUC decreases.

433 Currently, the complete set of parameters correlated with COVID-19 infection rate  
434 increase remains unknown. The reported results indicate that the used parameters are  
435 sufficient to predict the situation in Europe and in many World countries, however there are  
436 additional unknown factors to be investigated in the misidentified countries (e.g. Brazil,  
437 Ecuador, and Peru). The identification of all these factors is a broader question that goes  
438 beyond this paper and would require on-the-field data collection and a global-scale effort,  
439 also to make data available under FAIR principles.

440 The proposed Open Science-oriented methodology is quickly reusable on new infec-  
441 tions and epidemics, for example, to predict the risk that a particular country will be subject  
442 to a high rate of cases of a new infection. Also, the results may be the basis of other mod-  
443 els that may refine the resolution of the presented model and revise the parameters used.  
444 One fundamental step is to collect and prepare FAIR data correlated to infection rate as  
445 open-access standardised geospatial datasets. The D4Science e-Infrastructure can be used  
446 freely and openly to this aim. Moreover, the Maximum Entropy process was published as  
447 a free-to-use service (CNR, 2019) intended for global health-care systems and epidemic

448 prevention organizations, and for possibly contributing to COVID-19 spread control.

449 Overall, the presented results clearly indicate and identify that the influence of geo-  
450 physical, climatic, and human-related parameters on COVID-19 infection rate should be  
451 further investigated. As a future extension, the model will be enhanced by increasing the  
452 projection resolution to  $0.1^\circ$  on specific areas to produce regional-scale distributions. The  
453 corresponding cloud computing service will be used to (i) explore a more extensive set of  
454 parameters taken from open-access repositories, (ii) understand the importance of climatic  
455 factors with respect to human-related factors in COVID-19 infection rate, and (iii) detect  
456 seasonal trends.

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<b>Data</b>	<b>Primary Source</b>
Infection per Italian Province	Italian Civil Protection Department
World Infections	John Hopkins University
Surface Air Temperature	NASA Earth Exchange Platform
Precipitation	NASA Earth Exchange Platform
Elevation	United States National Geophysical Data Center
Carbon Dioxide	Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service
World Population Density	Center for International Earth Science Information Network

Table 1: Summary of all used data along with their primary sources. Details about how these data were accessed and post-processed are given in the article.

<b>Model Performance - a</b>	
<b>AUC</b>	0.994
<b>Balanced omission-sensitivity threshold</b>	0.4
<b>Equal training sensitivity and specificity threshold</b>	0.1
<b>Minimum training presence threshold</b>	0.008
<b>Risk Index Performance - b</b>	
<b>Accuracy</b>	77.25%
<b>Kappa</b>	0.46
<b>Kappa Interpretation</b>	Good

Table 2: Report of (a) the performance and optimal thresholds of the trained MaxEnt model, and (b) the performance of the *risk index* on the identification of global high-infection-rate countries/regions.

Parameter name	Percent contribution	Permutation importance (%)
<b>Carbon Dioxide</b>	87.2	52.8
<b>Surface Air Temperature</b>	7.6	40
<b>Precipitation</b>	5.3	6.9
<b>Elevation</b>	0.01	0.01
<b>Population Density</b>	0.01	0.2

Table 3: Percent contribution and permutation importance of the parameters involved in the presented experiment, as estimated by the optimal Maximum Entropy model.

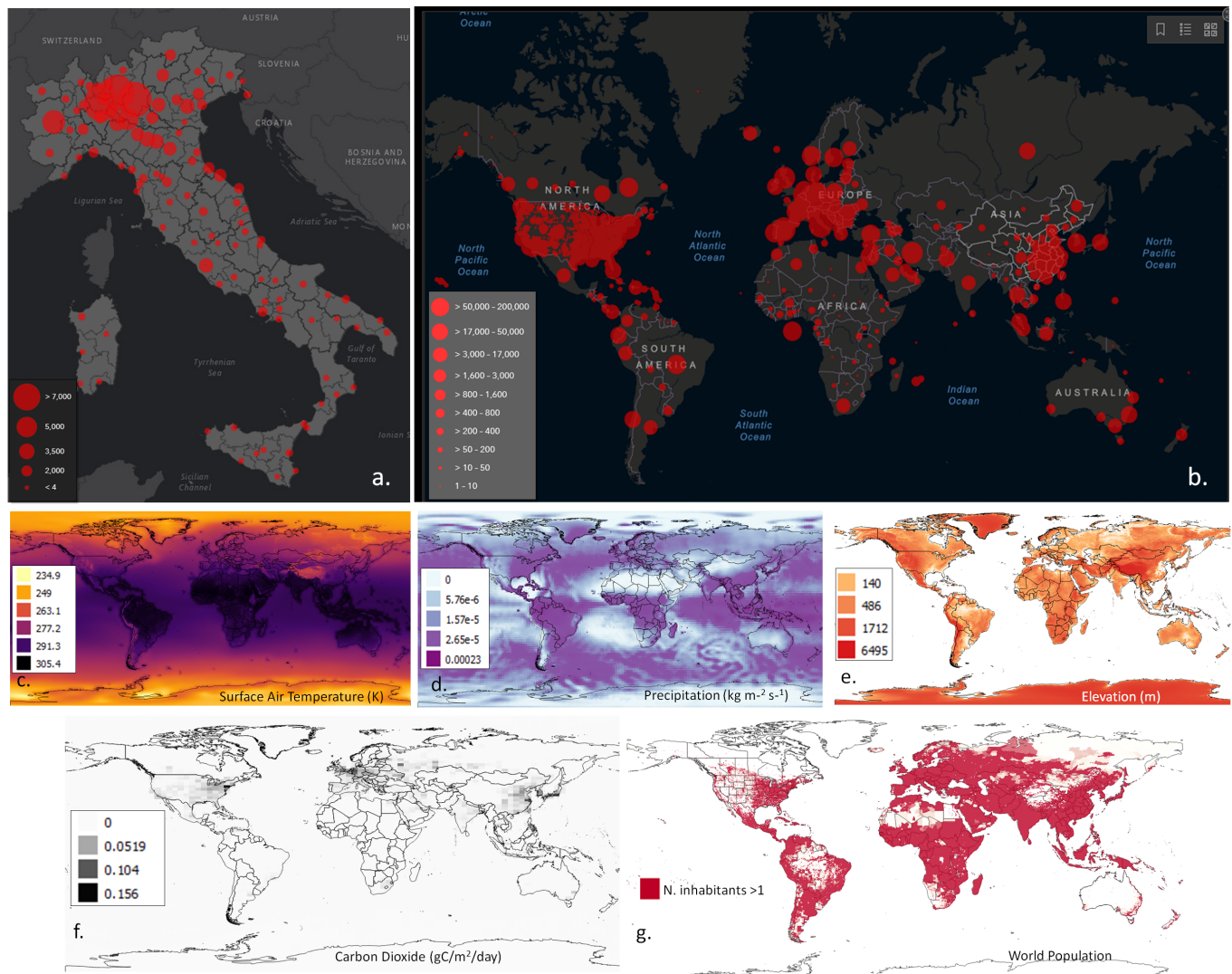


Figure 1: Visual comparison of the global-scale data used in the presented model: (a) number of infections in Italian provinces (31 March 2020), (b) global infections (31 March 2020), (c) surface air temperature, (d) precipitation, (e) elevation, (f) carbon dioxide, (g) World population.

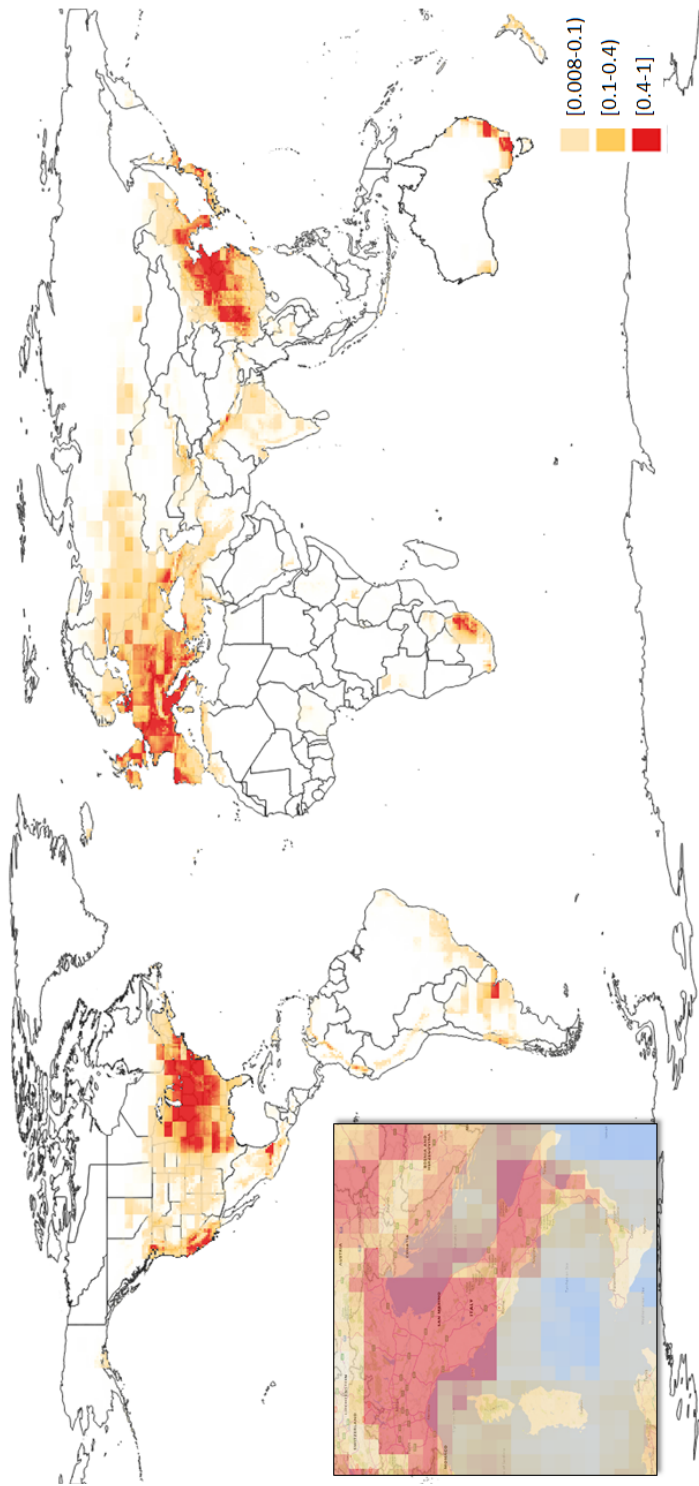


Figure 2: Global-scale probability distribution of SARS-CoV-2 infection rate produced by the presented model, with Italy magnified at the lower-left hand side.

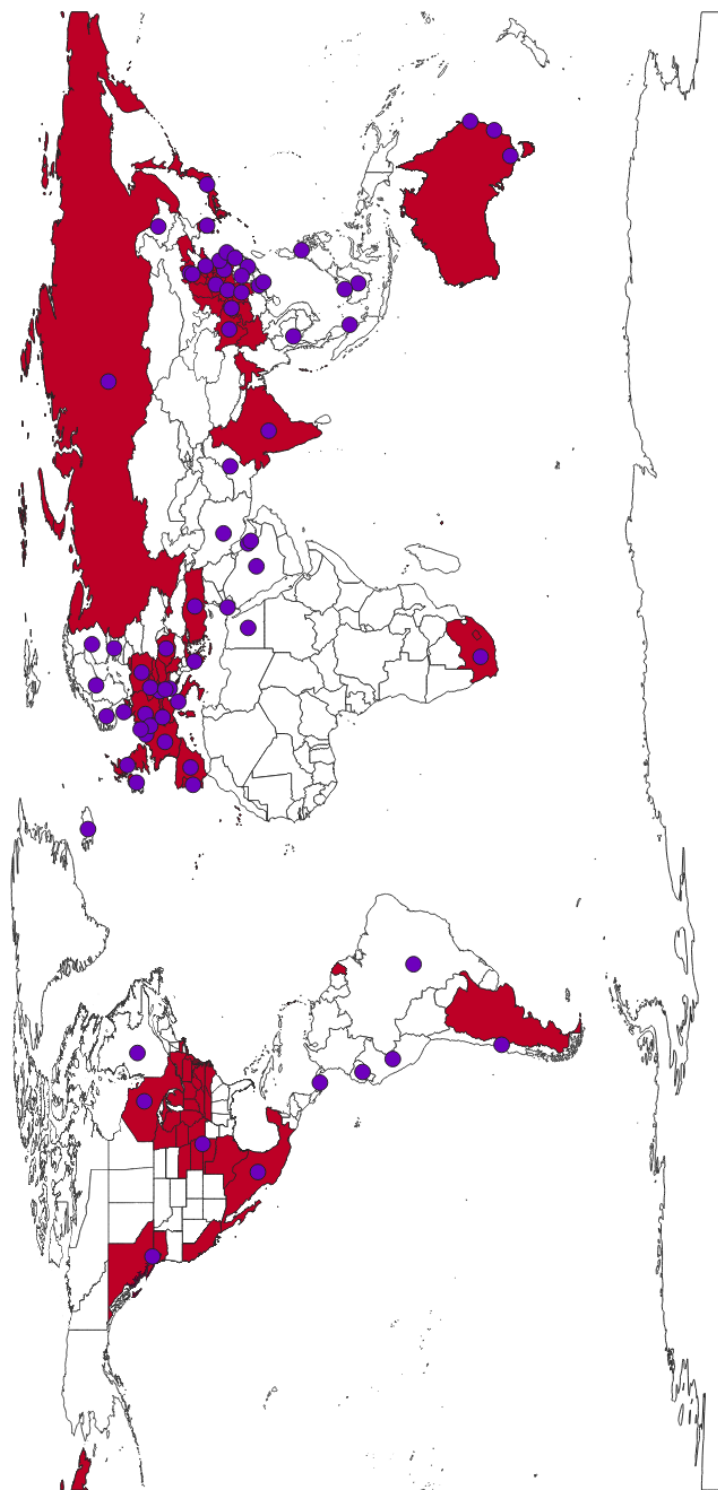


Figure 3: Overlap between estimated high-infection-rate risk zones (coloured countries/regions) and actual reported high-infection-rate countries/regions (circles).