

1 **The COVID-19 Pandemic Vulnerability Index (PVI) Dashboard: Monitoring**
2 **county-level vulnerability using visualization, statistical modeling, and**
3 **machine learning**

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25 The authors declare they have no actual or potential competing financial interests.

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 **Background:** While the COVID-19 pandemic presents a global challenge, the U.S. response
30 places substantial responsibility for both decision-making and communication on local health
31 authorities, necessitating tools to support decision-making at the community level.

32 **Objectives:** We created a Pandemic Vulnerability Index (PVI) to support counties and
33 municipalities by integrating baseline data on relevant community vulnerabilities with dynamic
34 data on local infection rates and interventions. The PVI visually synthesizes county-level
35 vulnerability indicators, enabling their comparison in regional, state, and nationwide contexts.

36 **Methods:** We describe the data streams used and how these are combined to calculate the PVI,
37 detail the supporting epidemiological modeling and machine-learning forecasts, and outline the
38 deployment of an interactive web Dashboard. Finally, we describe the practical application of the
39 PVI for real-world decision-making.

40 **Results:** Considering an outlook horizon from 1 to 28 days, the overall PVI scores are
41 significantly associated with key vulnerability-related outcome metrics of cumulative deaths,
42 population adjusted cumulative deaths, and the proportion of deaths from cases. The modeling
43 results indicate the most significant predictors of case counts are population size, proportion of
44 black residents, and mean PM_{2.5}. The machine learning forecast results were strongly predictive
45 of observed cases and deaths up to 14 days ahead. The modeling reinforces an integrated concept
46 of vulnerability that accounts for both dynamic and static data streams and highlights the drivers
47 of inequities in COVID-19 cases and deaths. These results also indicate that local areas with a
48 highly ranked PVI should take near-term action to mitigate vulnerability.

49 **Discussion:** The COVID-19 PVI Dashboard monitors multiple data streams to communicate
50 county-level trends and vulnerabilities and facilitates decision-making and communication
51 among government officials, scientists, community leaders, and the public to enable effective
52 and coordinated action to combat the pandemic.

53 **Introduction**

54 Defeating the COVID-19 pandemic requires well-informed, data-driven decisions at all
55 levels of government, from federal and state agencies to county health departments. Numerous
56 datasets are being collected in response to the pandemic, enabling the development of predictive
57 models and interactive monitoring applications (Wynants et al. 2020; ESRI 2020). However, this
58 multitude of data streams—from disease incidence to personal mobility to comorbidities—is
59 overwhelming to navigate, difficult to integrate, and challenging to communicate. Synthesizing
60 these disparate data is crucial for decision-makers, particularly at the state and local levels, to
61 prioritize resources efficiently, identify and address key vulnerabilities, and evaluate and
62 implement effective interventions. To address this situation, we developed a COVID-19
63 Pandemic Vulnerability Index (PVI) Dashboard (<https://covid19pvi.niehs.nih.gov/>) for
64 interactive monitoring that features a county-level Scorecard to visualize key vulnerability
65 drivers, historical trend data, and quantitative predictions to support decision-making at the local
66 level (Figure 1).

67 We assembled U.S. county- and state-level datasets into 12 key indicators across four
68 major domains: current infection rates (infection prevalence, rate of increase), baseline
69 population concentration (daytime density/traffic, residential density), current interventions
70 (social distancing, testing rates), and health and environmental vulnerabilities (susceptible
71 populations, air pollution, age distribution, comorbidities, health disparities, and hospital beds).
72 These 12 indicators (some of which combine multiple datasets) are integrated at the county level
73 into an overall PVI score, employing methods previously used for geospatial prioritization and
74 profiling (Bhandari et al. 2020; Marvel et al 2018). The individual data streams comprising these
75 indicators measure either well-established, general vulnerability factors for public health
76 disasters or emerging factors relevant to the COVID-19 pandemic (Centers for Disease Control
77 and Prevention 2015).

78 In developing the PVI, we performed rigorous statistical modeling of the underlying data
79 to enable quantitative analysis and monitoring and provide short-term predictions of cases and
80 deaths. Our modeling efforts directly address the discussion raised by Chowkwanyun and Reed
81 (2020) about racial disparities in COVID-19 case and death rates. By contextualizing factors
82 such as these racial disparities, correcting for socioeconomic factors, health resource allocation,
83 and co-morbidities, and highlighting place-based risks and resource deficits, the PVI can help
84 explain differences in the spatial distribution of cases. Specifically, we performed three types of
85 modeling efforts, all of which are regularly updated. First, epidemiological modeling on
86 cumulative case- and death-related outcomes provides insights into the epidemiology of the
87 pandemic. Second, dynamic time-dependent modeling provides similar outcome estimates as
88 national-level models but with county-level resolution. Finally, a Bayesian machine learning
89 approach provides data-driven, short-term forecasts. Herein, we describe the development of the
90 PVI, including the epidemiological modeling and machine-learning forecasts, and its use in an
91 interactive web Dashboard.

92 **Methods**

93 Data Streams Included in the Pandemic Vulnerability Index

94 To the best of our knowledge, we have assembled the most extensive set of community-
95 level data streams related to COVID-19. These data streams span four major domains, namely
96 infection rate, population concentration, intervention measures, and healthcare vulnerability.
97 The specific components (i.e., datasets) comprising the current PVI model are provided in a
98 dedicated Details page linked from the Dashboard. Supplementary Table 1 describes each
99 component, outlines the rationale for its inclusion, and provides a link to the associated data
100 source. To empower additional modeling efforts, the complete time series of all daily PVI scores
101 and the source data are publicly available at <https://github.com/COVID19PVI/data>. The software
102 used to generate PVI scores and profiles from these data is freely available at <https://toxpi.org>
103 (Marvel et al. 2018).

104 These data streams comprise both static and dynamic data, including static measures of
105 population concentration and healthcare vulnerabilities. Many of the data streams are from the
106 CDC's Social Vulnerability Index (SVI), which was developed by the Agency for Toxic
107 Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR's) Geospatial Research, Analysis and Services

108 Program (GRASP). GRASP creates and maintains databases that help emergency response
109 planners and public health officials identify and map the communities most likely to need
110 support before, during, and after a disaster or hazard event such as the current pandemic. The
111 SVI has been successfully used in a variety of emergency response scenarios, including mapping
112 fire outbreaks to determine vulnerability metrics (Lue & Wilson 2017) and hazard mitigation
113 planning studies (Horney et al. 2017). The CDC's SVI uses U.S. Census data to rank each census
114 tract's social vulnerability based on 15 factors, including poverty, vehicle access, and housing
115 crowding. Additional data streams from the 2020 County Health Rankings that summarize the
116 prevalence of important co-morbidities and risk factors at the county level are also included
117 (Bhandari et al. 2020). Regarding interventions, it has been established that increased testing
118 rates and the implementation of social distancing are effective interventions to slow the spread of
119 COVID-19 and fatalities due to the disease (Wu et al. 2020). Testing rates are from the COVID
120 Tracking Project (The COVID Tracking Project 2020), and daily ordinal grades of social
121 distancing adherence are from Unacast (2020), which analyzes relative mobility compared to the
122 same period during the previous year using mobile device data. By anchoring movement to pre-
123 COVID-19 activity, this measure is applicable in both rural and urban settings, which have
124 different mobility patterns in general. Dynamic measures of disease spread and the number of
125 transmissible cases are estimated from John Hopkins University data (Dong, Du, & Gardner
126 2020).

127 PVI Calculation

128 For each county, the PVI, a dimensionless index score, is calculated as a weighted
129 combination of all data sources and represents a formalized, rational integration of information
130 from various domains. The score is calculated using the Toxicological Prioritization Index
131 (ToxPi) framework for data integration, as described in Reif et al. (2010). Briefly, the individual
132 factors are ranked for each county by scaling the raw value from 0 to 1. Factors for which lower
133 values represent higher risk (percent testing and social distancing) are reverse-scaled so that
134 higher values represent higher vulnerability. This allows all factors to be expressed on the same
135 scale (0 to 1) and removes the difficulties associated with applying different units to different
136 factors. The overall PVI is then calculated using a weighted sum. The choice of factors used in
137 the creation of the PVI score and the weights applied to them were informed by our
138 epidemiological modeling (described in subsequent section) as well as general knowledge of
139 contributors to general health morbidities.

140 The PVI profiles translate numerical results into visual representations as component
141 slices of a radar chart, with each slice representing one piece (or related pieces) of information.
142 For each profile, the radial length of a slice represents its rank relative to all other entities (i.e.,
143 counties), with a longer radius indicating higher concern or risk. The relative width (e.g.,
144 fraction of a full, 360° circle) of a slice indicates the contribution of its score to the overall
145 model. These visual profiles provide a risk assessment of the strength, relative contribution, and
146 robustness of the multiple data sources used in the model. Figure 2 illustrates the PVI workflow
147 and the results for two example counties. This type of data integration framework has been
148 proven effective for communicating risk prioritization and profiling information among
149 scientists, regulators, stakeholders, and the general public and has been featured in publications

150 by the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2017) and the World
151 Health Organization’s International Agency for Research on Cancer (Loomis et al. 2018).

152 Epidemiological Modeling

153 The diverse array of data assembled for the epidemiological modeling that informs the
154 COVID-19 PVI Dashboard represents an advance over the ever-increasing number of models
155 related to COVID-19. To provide context and ensure that the data streams provide conclusions
156 and priority rankings that are broadly consistent with other epidemiological models, we
157 performed cross-sectional analysis of cumulative (i) cases, (ii) deaths, (iii) deaths as a proportion
158 of the population, and (iv) deaths as a proportion of reported cases using data current as of
159 8/24/2020. We emphasize that the PVI is not intended to be an epidemiological modeling tool
160 per se as it does not explicitly distinguish between factors of vulnerability for cases vs. deaths.
161 Our modeling described here is intended to anchor the components of the PVI and provide
162 context within the larger field of COVID-19-related epidemiological modeling. Additionally, this
163 modeling is not intended to provide forecasts, which are the primary focus of projection models,
164 as discussed in the subsequent section (see Forecasting).

165 As the initial analyses displayed evidence of count overdispersion, we performed
166 generalized linear modeling in R version 3.5 with the `gam()` procedure using a negative binomial
167 model with observed cumulative counts as the response (see Supplementary Tables 2–5) (R Core
168 Team 2018). For analyses (i), (ii), and (iv), we used $\log(\text{population size})$ values as predictors
169 with estimated coefficients. For analysis (iii), we used the “offset” command to model the death
170 rate. Similarly, for analysis (iv), we used $\log(\text{cumulative cases})$ as an offset to model the death
171 rate among cases, which may produce biased results due to regional variation in reporting rates.
172 It should be noted that a constant underreporting bias across counties would be absorbed into the
173 intercept and would otherwise produce valid coefficient estimates for the predictors. Analysis
174 (iv) may provide important clues about the death risk as including cases in the denominator
175 removes a large portion of the stochastic variation. Moreover, for all analyses, we used the
176 proportion of the state population that has been tested as a predictor to account for additional
177 sources of bias.

178 To anchor our efforts to previous work, we included as additional fixed predictors those
179 from Wu et al. (2020), who focused primarily on the effects of a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ air pollution index using
180 an analysis analogous to our model (iii). Before analysis, we removed predictors with pairwise
181 correlation with any other predictor greater than 0.85 and predictors that would be collinear with
182 a series of predictors, such as the overall proportion of minority residents. For pairs exceeding
183 the correlation threshold, we favored predictors with the lower missingness rate (if any) or those
184 that are reported in other work. Dynamic predictors (i.e., those that changed substantially over
185 the modeled period) were incorporated using simple county averages over the March-August
186 period covered by the PVI. With over 3,100 counties (according to FIPS codes), most with >0
187 cases and deaths, the analysis can easily support the 27 to 28 final predictors used. To facilitate
188 comparison with previous sources, we used predictors as they are given in their source.
189 Accordingly, in some instances, predictors are represented as proportions and, in other instances,
190 they are represented as percentages.

191 To provide additional context, we also performed negative binomial modeling (R version
192 3.5 bam() with “REML” fitting) (R Core Team 2018) of daily cases up to 6/11/2020
193 (Supplementary Table 6), using the fixed county predictors as well as unaveraged dynamic
194 predictors. Due to the nature of the model, we included the two-week-lagged cumulative number
195 of cases as an additional predictor, as well as a smoothing spline time-dependent term to reflect a
196 nationwide component of risk. Although it is formally a fixed-effects model, we refer to this
197 model as dynamic and treat each day outcome as an independent realization, with the rate
198 determined by the predictors. To account for potential time-dependent latent correlation
199 structures, we determined standard errors for the coefficients by bootstrapping, treating each
200 county across all dates as an observational unit for bootstrap resampling. We also built a
201 dynamic version of the generalized linear model for cases and deaths as a proportion of the
202 population to further investigate the effects of social distancing and other predictors that change
203 daily. Final significance testing was based on bootstrapping to account for potential time-
204 dependent correlation structures.

205 Forecasting

206 For the accurate prediction of future COVID-19 cases and deaths, it is necessary to
207 account for the fluid nature of the data streams comprising the PVI. Accordingly, we developed a
208 Bayesian spatiotemporal random-effects model that jointly describes the log-observed and log-
209 death counts to build local forecasts. Log-observed cases for a given day are predicted using
210 known covariates (e.g., population density, social distancing metrics), a spatiotemporal random-
211 effect smoothing component, and the time-weighted average number of cases for these counts.
212 This smoothed time-weighted average is related to a Euler approximation of a differential
213 equation; it provides modeling flexibility while approximating potential mechanistic models of
214 disease spread. The smoothed case estimates are used in a similar spatiotemporal model that
215 predicts future log-death counts based on a geometric mean estimate of the estimated number of
216 observed cases for the previous seven days as well as the other data streams. The Dashboard
217 shows the resulting county-level predictions and corresponding confidence intervals (Fig. 1).
218 Details of the model are provided in the Supplemental Information.

219 Dashboard Technical Details

220 We used the ArcGIS JavaScript API (v4.13) (ESRI 2020) and custom PHP and JavaScript
221 files to build the Dashboard web application. The API is used to overlay county borders,
222 COVID-19 count data, and PVI model images on a Basemap or custom WebMap. County
223 boundary data is from a feature service, while all other data is stored in an SQL database. PVI
224 model images are base64-encoded scalable vector graphics (SVGs) rendered as inline images.
225 The custom scripts controlling the Dashboard’s functionality optimize the efficiency of HTTP
226 requests and other computational overhead to promote real-time interactivity. The Dashboard is
227 hosted by the National Institute of Environmental Health (NIEHS) Office of Scientific
228 Computing, which provides high-availability HTTPS load balanced with NGINX and a secure
229 environment for web applications. Automated data updates are pushed to the public servers
230 daily, and the daily update process is paralleled on a private server to permit independent data
231 integrity assessment.

232 Complete, continually-updated documentation is available from a link on the Dashboard to
233 a Quick Start Guide that introduces the PVI and Dashboard tools
234 (<https://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/programs/coronavirus/covid19pvi>). A Details page provides
235 additional in-depth information
236 (<https://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/programs/coronavirus/covid19pvi/details/index.cfm>). The
237 Supplemental Information and Figure S2 explain in detail the main features. The Dashboard is
238 also mirrored as an iFrame on the CDC's COVID Data Tracker, under the Unique Populations
239 tab (<https://covid.cdc.gov/covid-data-tracker/>).

240 **Results**

241 PVI and Vulnerability

242 The summarization and communication goals of the PVI and the corresponding scorecards
243 are human-centric and designed to convey and distill high-dimensional complex data. Our PVI
244 model communicates an integrated concept of vulnerability that accounts for both dynamic
245 (infection rate and interventions) and static (community population and healthcare
246 characteristics) drivers. To gauge the association of daily PVI scores versus observed death
247 outcomes, we assessed the rank-correlation between the overall PVI and the key vulnerability-
248 related outcome metrics of cumulative deaths (Figure S1A), population adjusted cumulative
249 deaths (Figure S1B), and the proportion of deaths from cases (Figure S1C). The Spearman Rho
250 values for the PVI (from March 15 to August 12th) versus outcomes 1, 7, 14, 21, and 28 days
251 ahead of a given day are displayed. All daily rank-correlation estimates were highly
252 significant (p -values $< 5.1E-14$). The mean Rho values increase with a longer time horizon (blue
253 text on Supplementary Figures 1A, 1B, 1C) and thus a highly-ranked PVI provides evidence that
254 local actions should be taken to mitigate undesirable outcomes.

255 Epidemiological Modeling

256 Supplementary Tables 2-7 display the regression coefficients produced with generalized linear
257 modeling in a cross-sectional analysis of county cases and deaths up to 8/24/2020. As expected,
258 the most significant predictor for the case count is population size ($p < 1E-300$). The next most
259 significant predictors associated with case counts are the proportion of black residents ($p = 1.28E-$
260 61) and mean $PM_{2.5}$ ($p = 9.08E-32$), followed by Insurance percent coverage (positively
261 associated, $p = 1.51E-27$) and proportion of Hispanic residents ($p = 6.92E-20$) (Supplementary
262 Table 2). In addition, the proportion of the population tested for SARS-Cov-2 infection is
263 associated with case counts ($p = 3.39E-13$), which we attribute to statewide responses to emerging
264 infection clusters. In this cumulative analysis, social distancing and travel-related predictors were
265 significant even though they represent aggregate values per county. For deaths as a proportion of
266 the county population (Supplementary Table 4), the same predictors are highly significant,
267 although the Insurance percent coverage is much less significant than for cases ($p = 4.48E-05$).
268 We note that cases and deaths per county population represent overall societal risk, for which
269 vulnerability measures are relevant. The rank correlation coefficients for the PVI vs. the fitted
270 values for the number of cases and the death rate are 0.54 and 0.55, respectively ($p < 10^{-16}$ for
271 both).

272 Our analysis of the proportion of deaths per cases is enlightening, despite the previously
273 noted caveat regarding potential bias due to testing variation. We note that a true case fatality
274 rate potentially involves very different predictors than a case rate model, and deaths per county
275 population are also closely tied to case rates. Our modeling (Supplementary Table 5) shows that
276 after multiple test corrections, state testing rates are no longer significant in comparison to
277 multiple-testing thresholds ($p=0.036$), which is consistent with the hypothesis that testing
278 uncovers cases but does not predict case fatalities. The proportion of black residents ($p=2.64E-$
279 12) and mean $PM_{2.5}$ ($p=1.92E-04$) were significant, but less so than in the deaths/population
280 model. Deaths/reported cases were found to be associated with the proportion of owner-occupied
281 residences ($p=9.31E-07$) and inversely associated with median house value ($p=0.000863$). Both
282 measures tend to be associated with wealth, but the relationship is complicated by the fact that
283 high housing prices impede home ownership.

284 The results of the dynamic model for cases (Supplementary Table 6) with bootstrapped p -
285 values had much stronger significance than the results of the cumulative case model, which we
286 attribute to the dynamic model's ability to account for additional sources of variation due to the
287 use of lagged case counts, a smooth time-dependent term to account for national trend, and the
288 inclusion of daily dynamic predictors. Again, the most significant predictors are the population
289 size ($p<1E-300$), the proportion of black residents ($p<1E-300$), the two-week-lagged cumulative
290 number of cases as a predictor of current cases ($p<1E-300$), and mean $PM_{2.5}$ ($p<1E-300$). We
291 also ran the analogous model for deaths/population size (Supplementary Table 7) and the same
292 predictors were found to be highly significant. In summary, the dynamic versions of the
293 generalized linear model reinforce and amplify the conclusions from the previous cumulative
294 models. However, the models are not designed to perform forecasting, which can be viewed as
295 essentially a machine learning exercise. For forecasting, careful cross-validation approaches can
296 be used to assess the accuracy of the results.

297 The most consistent significant predictors for COVID-19 related case rates and mortality
298 are the proportion of black residents and the mean $PM_{2.5}$, reinforcing conclusions from previous
299 reports (Dong, Du, & Gardner 2020). A one-percentage-point increase in the proportion of black
300 residents is associated with a 2.9% increase in the COVID-19 death rate. The effect of a 1 g/m^3
301 increase in $PM_{2.5}$ is associated with an approximately 14.5% increase in the COVID-19 death
302 rate, which is at the high end of a previously reported confidence interval from a report in late
303 April 2020 (Wu et al. 2020) when deaths had reached 38% of the total as of June 2020. We find
304 that these effects persist when including numerous additional predictors and correcting for
305 factors such as socioeconomic status, housing density, and comorbidities. Moreover, the effects
306 persist for a range of response values, including cumulative (i) cases, (ii) deaths, (iii) deaths as a
307 proportion of the population, and (iv) deaths as a proportion of reported cases (Supplemental
308 Tables 2-5). These results strongly suggest the important role of structural variation by location,
309 which results in drastic health disparities. The results of the dynamic version of the generalized
310 linear model (Supplemental Tables 6-7) support the importance of social vulnerability indicators
311 and may be viewed as a sensitivity test that the impact of social distancing and other dynamic
312 measures do not alter the significance of many of the social vulnerability indicators.

313

314 Functional Power-Adjusted Relative Rate Model Forecasting

315 Data-driven machine learning was implemented for near term predictions of case and death
316 outcomes at a local level. The resulting county-level predictions and corresponding confidence
317 intervals for the next seven days are shown in the Dashboard ‘Predictions’ element. Additional
318 details of the model and implementation are included in the Supplemental Information. The
319 accuracy of the predictions were assessed by calculating the Pearson Correlation (Rho) of the
320 predicted values versus the observed from June 3 through August 5, 2020. To avoid weekend-
321 related reporting variation in cases and deaths, both predictions and observed cases/deaths were
322 summed to weeks based on Wednesday through Tuesday. The accuracy of county-level
323 predictions of Covid19-cases and -deaths were assessed by calculating the Pearson Correlation
324 (Rho) of weekly predicted values versus weekly actual values across U.S. counties. For the 10
325 forecasts of Covid19 cases made each Wednesday from June 3rd through August 5th, the median
326 Rho for 1-week out was 0.96. For deaths, the 1-week out median Rho for these 10 periods was
327 0.88. Summary Rho distributions are shown in Supplemental Figure 3, and scatterplots for all
328 counties for the most recent analysis week are shown in Supplemental Figure 4.

329 Dashboard Features

330 The interactive visualization within the PVI Dashboard communicates factors underlying
331 vulnerability and empowers community action. On loading, the Dashboard displays the top 250
332 PVI profiles (by rank) for the current day. The data, PVI scores, and predictions are updated
333 daily, and users can scroll through historical PVI and county outcome data. Individual profiles
334 are an interactive map layer with numerous display options and filters that allow sorting by
335 overall score and combinations of slice scores, clustering by profile similarity (i.e., vulnerability
336 “shape”), and searching for counties by name or state. Any user-selected county overlays the
337 summary Scorecard and populates the surrounding panels with county-specific information
338 (Figure 1). Scrollable panels on the left include plots of vulnerability drivers relative to their
339 nationwide distribution across all U.S. counties, with the location of the selected county
340 delineated. The panels across the bottom of the Dashboard report cumulative county numbers of
341 cases and deaths; timelines of cumulative cases, deaths, PVI scores, and PVI ranks; daily
342 changes in cases and deaths for the most recent 14-day period (a measure commonly used in
343 reopening guidelines); and predicted cases and deaths for a seven-day forecast horizon.

344 Taken together, the Dashboard features support the interactive evaluation and visualization
345 of current data for localities while providing context with respect to all U.S. counties. Full time
346 series of case, death, and PVI trends enable the examination of the track records of counties of
347 interest as well as the comparison of trajectories for peer, or comparable, counties in terms of
348 varying success with specific interventions. For example, using Orleans County (home to New
349 Orleans, LA) as an exemplar, we employed the multi-criteria filtering capabilities in the
350 Dashboard to find a peer county for comparison. By bounding the PVI to similar ranges of
351 vulnerability drivers (i.e., slices) for population mobility, residential density, and population
352 demographics, we identified a subset of candidate counties and ultimately chose Clayton County,
353 GA to illustrate the effects of dramatic differences in public action/interventions. Figure 3 shows
354 detailed results for the two counties, which have similar baseline vulnerabilities but implemented
355 divergent interventions at the outset of the pandemic. Specifically, pronounced differences in

356 intervention measures (social distancing and testing) are associated with varying dynamics of the
357 infection rates in these counties, as visualized through the considerable differences in magnitude
358 of the blue (intervention-related) and red (infection-related) slices over time. Note that all data
359 streams are scaled so that a larger slice indicates increased vulnerability (e.g., the larger blue
360 slices represent less adherence to social distancing and lower testing rates). As visualized in
361 Figure 3, the PVI rank for Orleans County improves over time (i.e., follows a downward
362 rank/percentile path), effectively blunting the curve caused by the accelerated increase in the
363 number of cases through early interventions. There is no similar positive change for Clayton
364 County, reflecting differences due to varying interventions in the two areas. In this way, the PVI
365 Dashboard enables customized empirical comparisons and evaluations across peer counties.

366 **Discussion**

367 Numerous expert groups have coalesced around a general roadmap to address the current
368 COVID-19 pandemic that comprises (i) reducing the spread through social distancing, (ii)
369 gradually easing restrictions while monitoring for resurgence and healthcare overcapacity, and
370 (iii) eventually moving to pharmaceutical interventions. However, the responsibility for
371 navigating the COVID-19 response falls largely on state and local officials, who require data at
372 the community level to make equitable decisions on allocating resources, caring for vulnerable
373 sub-populations, and enhancing/relaxing social distancing measures. The goal of the COVID-19
374 PVI Dashboard is to empower informed actions to combat the pandemic from the local to the
375 national levels on multiple time scales. The Dashboard accomplishes this goal by combining
376 underlying COVID-19-specific structural vulnerabilities with dynamic infection and intervention
377 data at the county level to produce an integrated concept of vulnerability that can inform
378 decision-making on actions at the local level.

379 Furthermore, the general public must embrace interventions for them to be effective, and
380 interactive visualization is a proven approach to communication among diverse audiences. The
381 PVI Dashboard provides interactive, visual profiles of vulnerability atop an underlying statistical
382 framework that enables the comparison of counties by clustering and the evaluation of the PVI's
383 sensitivity to component data. The Dashboard's county-level Scorecards illustrate both overall
384 vulnerability and the components driving it. A key utility of a public-facing, interactive
385 dashboard is that decision-makers can point to it for support, thus promoting transparency and
386 public buy-in for actions taken in the interest of public health. Example use cases include the
387 priority distribution of medical resources such as hospital beds, targeted community outreach
388 activities, and the establishment of contact-tracing mechanisms. Eventually, the PVI could be
389 used to support the priority distribution of vaccines to highly-vulnerable communities.

390 The modeling efforts presented here support decision-making in multiple ways. The
391 epidemiological modeling enables testing the impact of changes in dynamic interventions, such
392 as changes in social distancing, and the forecasting efforts support short-term resource allocation
393 decisions, such as hospital staffing and the distribution of supplies. These forecasts also help
394 communicate the trends that are part of the CDC's reopening criteria (Centers for Disease
395 Control and Prevention 2020), such as whether interventions and local government actions
396 translate into flattened curves. The PVI score itself constitutes an integrated indicator of
397 vulnerability that is strongly associated with mortality outcomes in the near-to-medium term.

398 The overall PVI score highlights highly-ranked counties that should consider taking local actions
399 or receive targeted help to mitigate undesirable outcome trends. The *Timelines* panel of the
400 Dashboard illustrates observed county-level changes over time to answer questions such as
401 “Have we flattened the curve?” while the *Predictions* panel presents statistically robust forecasts
402 that consider all of the data to answer the question, “What’s next?”. Overall, the COVID-19 PVI
403 Dashboard can help facilitate decision-making and communication among government officials,
404 scientists, community leaders, and the public to enable more effective and coordinated action to
405 combat the pandemic.

406 A growing number of risk factors have been highlighted in the rapidly expanding scientific
407 studies on COVID-19. Infectious disease epidemiology is rapidly evolving, and new risk factors
408 and environmental variables (e.g., weather conditions) are continually being discovered. From
409 the early identification of older individuals’ vulnerability (Verity et al. 2020) to the dramatic
410 racial disparities that have been more recently highlighted (Coughlin et al. 2020), there is
411 mounting evidence that socially marginalized populations are suffering disproportionately. While
412 this is not unique to the ongoing pandemic, it is clear that pandemic vulnerability and response
413 are dynamic and differ across communities (Quinn & Kumar 2020). The COVID-19 PVI
414 Dashboard provides contextualized local summaries of differences in vulnerability and highlights
415 racial disparities, even when adjusting for multiple covariates. The Dashboard’s presentation of
416 information in a relative sense enables the fair comparison of communities of different sizes to
417 support prioritization decisions. Further, the PVI visualization is a human-centric and
418 communicates how particular communities’ drivers (i.e., slices) differ in terms of their
419 contribution to overall vulnerability. This visualization promotes transparency by clarifying the
420 judgments and trade-offs entering into such an assessment while maintaining a direct link to the
421 underlying quantitative data.

422 COVID-19 will continue to present public health challenges into the foreseeable future. By
423 integrating vulnerability information (both historical and forward-looking), the Dashboard
424 supports key decision-making for managing the ongoing pandemic. We will continue to update
425 the data streams combined to calculate the PVI and will add additional variables as evidence of
426 new risk factors and potential drivers of vulnerability emerge and supported by publicly
427 available data. We will also continually develop software tools so that people can actively build
428 their own models and will update the modeling efforts as needed. Combating endemic diseases
429 requires long-range thinking, informed action, and political will, and we offer the COVID-19
430 PVI Dashboard as an interactive monitoring tool to support these sustained efforts.

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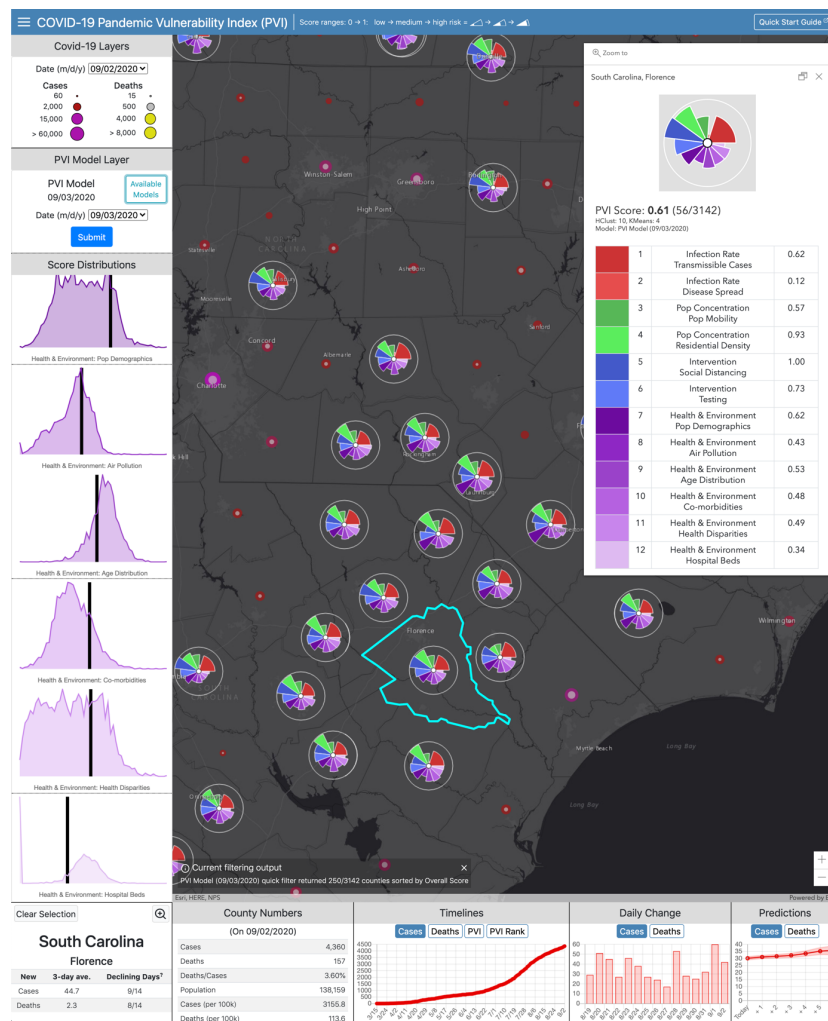
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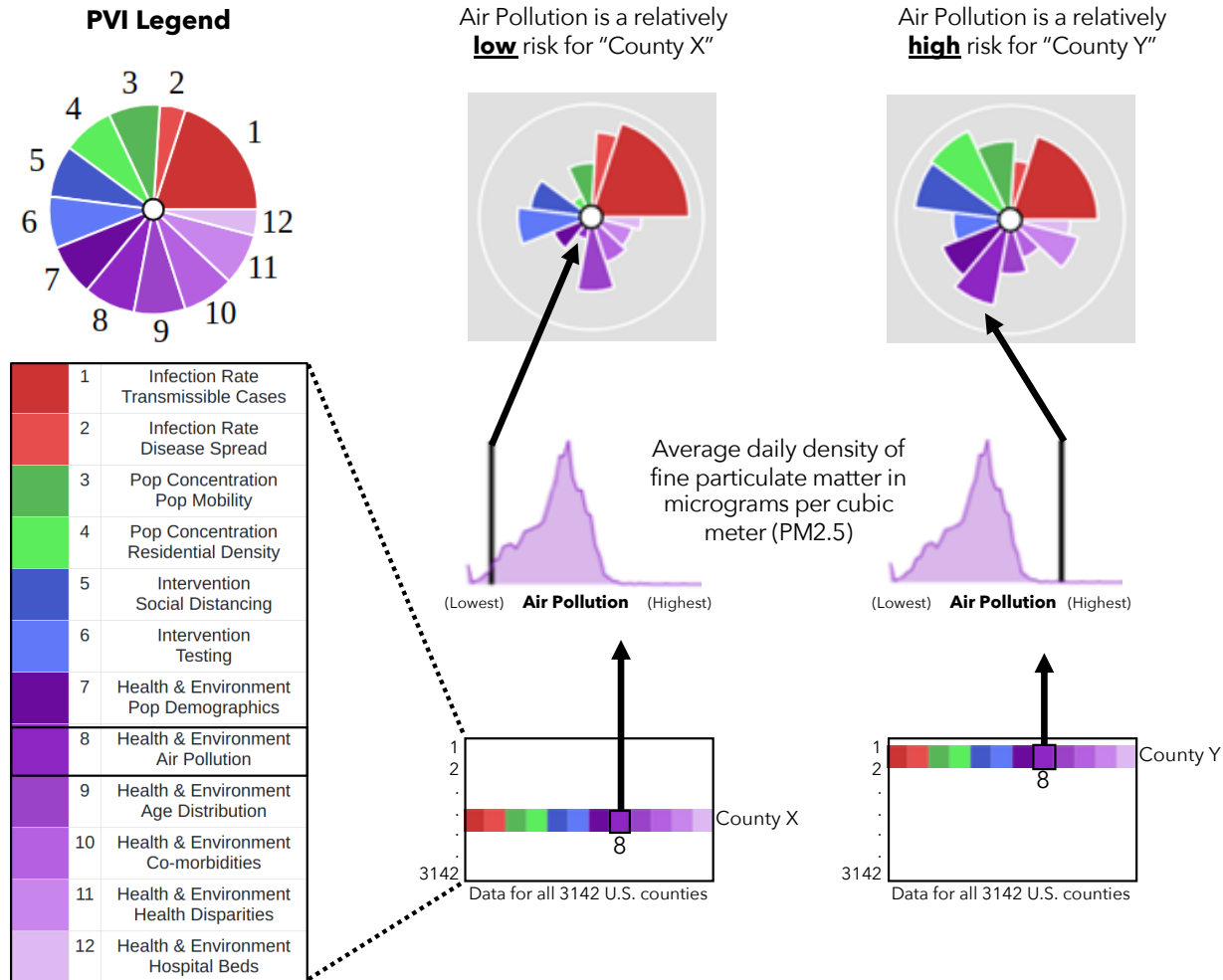
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541 **Figure 1. Dashboard displaying map view with PVI Scorecard and associated data for a**
 542 **selected county.** The Dashboard allows U.S.-wide navigation to area(s) of interest. The filter is
 543 set to display the top 250-ranked (i.e., most vulnerable) PVI profiles for the selected date
 544 (displayed in the upper left panels for each data layer). The Scorecard displayed shows the
 545 contribution of each indicator (slice) for Florence, SC, which is in a cluster of high-PVI counties
 546 across the rural Southeast U.S. The scorecard summarizes the overall PVI score and rank
 547 compared to all 3,142 U.S. counties. In the graphical profile, longer slices indicate higher
 548 vulnerability driven by a particular indicator, with corresponding indicator-wise scores (0 =
 549 minimum; 1 = maximum) provided in the lower portion of the Scorecard. The scrollable score
 550 distributions at left compare the selected county PVI to the distributions of overall and slice-wise
 551 scores across the U.S. The panels below the map are populated with county-specific information
 552 on observed trends in cases and deaths, observed numbers for the selected date, historical
 553 timelines (for cumulative cases, cumulative deaths, PVI, and PVI rank), daily case and death
 554 counts for the most recent 14-day period, and a 7-day forecast of predicted cases and deaths. The
 555 information displayed for both observed COVID-19 data and PVI layers is scrollable back
 556 through March 2020. Documentation of additional features and usage, including advanced
 557 options (accessible via the collapsed menu at the upper left), is provided in a Quick Start Guide
 558 (linked at the upper right corner).

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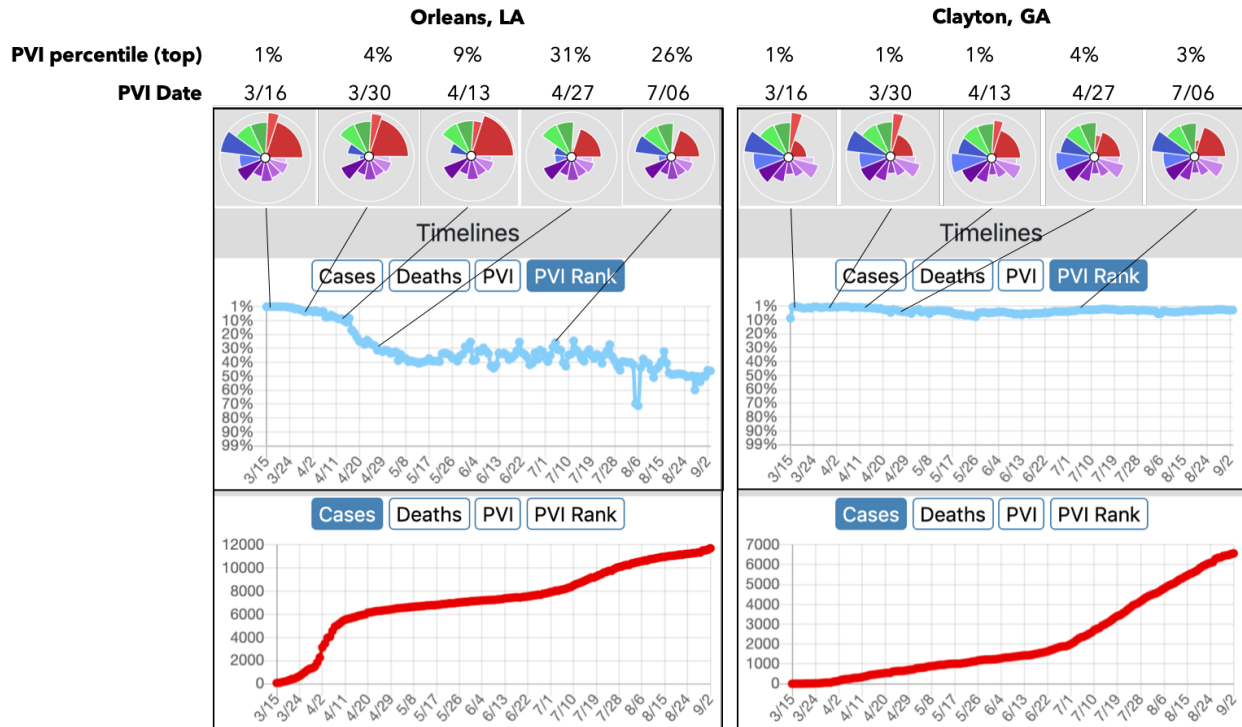


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561 **Figure 2. Translation of data into PVI profiles.** Information from all 3,142 U.S. counties is
 562 translated into PVI slices. The illustration shows how *Air Pollution* data (average density of
 563 PM_{2.5} per county) are compared for two example counties. The county (County Y) with the
 564 higher relative measurement has a longer *Air Pollution* slice than the county (County X) with a
 565 lower measurement. This procedure is repeated for all slices, resulting in an integrated, overall
 566 PVI profile.

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Figure 3. PVI data from the PVI Dashboard are shown for Orleans County, LA (left) and Clayton County, GA (right). The PVI profiles from March 15th, 2020 are shown above the timelines for each county. Comparing Orleans Parish (County) to Clayton County, they have similar ranks for Population Concentration (green slices) and Health and Environment (purple slices). For Intervention Practices (blue slices), differences can be seen; Orleans County’s adherence to social distancing measures and increased COVID-19 testing (reverse-scored and indicated by smaller blue slices) is visualized compared to Clayton. The changes in overall PVI rank across the timeline of the pandemic are shown. While the trajectory of new cases was blunted in Orleans County, it continued increasing in Clayton. Note that both counties observed spikes in the Cases trajectory as Social Distancing measures were relaxed at the end of June.