

# The coevolutionary mosaic of betacoronavirus emergence risk

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Driven by the need to understand the ecological factors involved in the emergence of *Betacoronavirus* (the genus causing the SARS, MERS, and COVID-19 in human) through bat hosts, we develop an approach to the assessment of spillover risk based on the Geographic Mosaic Theory of Coevolution. In doing so, we provide a global mapping of the spillover risk posed by betacoronaviruses, reflecting the fact that this risk is best understood through the multi-faceted prism of ecological and evolutionary mechanisms. Our framework reveals that reservoir richness alone, although a component of viral hazard, is not a sufficiently integrative predictor of risk. We offer alternative insights based on viral sharing, host compositional uniqueness, and host phylogenetic diversity and phylogeographic regions. By comparing our aggregated measure of risk to a proxy for human density, namely the proportion of each pixel that is covered by urban or built land, we provide a synthetic risk map, allowing the identification of hotspots where the bat-betacoronavirus system may originate novel viruses in humans.

1 Disease emergence is complex, and is driven not only by animal-human contact, but also by the  
2 underlying evolutionary dynamics in viral reservoirs.<sup>1</sup> Although host richness is often used as a superficial  
3 proxy for spillover risk,<sup>2,3</sup> these approaches oversimplify the relevant interspecific heterogeneity in  
4 immunology, behavior, and other traits, and therefore overlook unique host pools that allow for the rapid  
5 evolution of highly divergent viruses.<sup>4</sup> In the case of generalist pathogens like betacoronaviruses, there is  
6 conceptual and empirical support to the idea that these community-level mechanisms are even more  
7 important,<sup>5</sup> particularly given that cross-species transmission may, as a rule, structure viral evolution  
8 more than co-divergence with hosts.<sup>6</sup> This creates a disconnect between coevolutionary theory (including  
9 empirical evidence from virology) and most existing ecological frameworks for mapping spillover risk.

10 The Geographic Mosaic Theory of Coevolution (GMTC) attempts to explicitly connect microevolutionary  
11 dynamics to the macroecology and biogeography of symbiotic interactions.<sup>7</sup> The GMTC posits that  
12 coevolutionary processes among pairs<sup>8</sup> or complexes<sup>9</sup> of species are structured in space by the rippling  
13 effects of abiotic conditions onto evolutionary mechanism, giving rise to fragmented systems with  
14 different structure and ecologically dynamics over large spatial extents.<sup>10</sup> The GMTC predicts a spatial  
15 fragmentation of coevolutionary dynamics under the joint action of three processes:<sup>11</sup> coevolutionary hot-  
16 and coldspots, which appear when the intensity of *interaction* (in terms of reciprocal fitness consequences)  
17 varies spatially; selection mosaics, wherein the intensity of *selection* varies across space, driven by both the  
18 biotic complexity of the community (locally diverse hosts and viruses are more biotically complex) and the  
19 local favorability of the environment;<sup>12</sup> and trait remixing, which occurs when coevolutionary dynamics  
20 are driven by the arrival (or departure) of *functional traits*, through changes in community composition  
21 due to invasions, meta-community dynamics, and dispersal.

22 Here, we apply the GMTC to explore and explain the global biogeography of betacoronaviruses, the group  
23 that includes SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2. In their bat reservoirs, coronaviruses evolve  
24 through a mix of host jumps, recombination among disparate lineages, and, to a lesser degree,  
25 co-divergence with their hosts—<sup>2</sup>a mix of mechanisms that creates a complex and nonlinear relationship  
26 between host diversity and viral emergence. Working from a recently published database of bat hosts of  
27 betacoronaviruses, we develop the first global maps of both host and virus evolutionary distinctiveness  
28 and biogeographic regions for this system. Aiming to explain these patterns, we develop a generalized  
29 framework for applying the GMTC to host-virus interactions, with a specific emphasis on the potential to  
30 create independent coevolutionary dynamics (and therefore spatial fragmentation in risk) through

31 heterogeneity. We develop a trivariate risk assessment system that connects each GMTC mechanism to a  
32 quantifiable aspect of host-virus interactions: (i) viral sharing rates in host communities, representing the  
33 strength of potential interaction between viruses and any one host (i.e., places where viruses undergo  
34 constant host switching may be coevolutionary coldspots); (ii) the phylogenetic diversity of hosts, as a  
35 proxy for variation in the immunological mechanisms that antagonize viruses (i.e., the selection mosaic);  
36 and (iii) the local uniqueness of the bat community, representing the potential for viruses to be exposed to  
37 novel host traits (e.g., variation in receptor sequences). Together, we argue that these can be used to  
38 identify and map the evolutionary drivers that—in conjunction with transmission processes (e.g., viral  
39 prevalence in reservoirs and animal-human contact rates)—determine disease emergence risk.

40 **Host richness does not predict virus distinctiveness**

41 Bats, the second most diverse group of mammals, are found worldwide and serve as the main animal  
42 reservoir for different strains of betacoronaviruses.<sup>13</sup> This has attracted attention to areas where high  
43 diversity of bats, and therefore presumably high diversity of betacoronaviruses, can be an important issue  
44 for human health.<sup>14,15</sup> By overlaying the IUCN range maps for confirmed bat hosts of betacoronaviruses  
45 [fig. 1; top], we see that the main hotspots (both in terms of size and higher values) of host richness are  
46 primarily South-Eastern Asia, parts of Southern Europe, and to a lesser extent parts of Africa in the -25-0  
47 range of latitudes. The description of host richness is an important first step towards understanding risk,  
48 as previous research<sup>2,16</sup> states that locally diverse bat communities could maintain more viruses and  
49 hence, a higher probability of having a pathogen that could represent a risk for human health.

50 [Figure 1 about here.]

51 Nevertheless, locally diverse and virus-rich bat communities could represent an increased risk of spillover  
52 under climate change through the creation of novel interactions,<sup>17</sup> and therefore the diversity of  
53 *Betacoronavirus* strains should similarly be accounted for. In fig. 1 (bottom), we contrast the evolutionary  
54 distinctiveness of bats and viruses – this reveals a slightly different portrait than bat richness alone.  
55 Chiropterans can be classified, from a macro-evolutionary standpoint, as Yangochiroptera and  
56 Yinpterochiroptera elsewhere.<sup>18,19</sup> Specifically, we would expect that the so-called “New World” group of  
57 bats, being more evolutionary distinct, would also have evolutionary distinct viruses. Indeed fig. 1  
58 (bottom) reveals it to be the case, and this region harbors a distinct bat-betacoronaviruses complex. This

59 can be explained by the fact that Yangochiroptera, although not limited to the western hemisphere,  
60 contain the highly diverse adaptive radiation in the Phyllostomidae,<sup>20</sup> which is restricted to the western  
61 hemisphere. By contrast, South-Eastern Asia has a lot of non-evolutionary distinct bats, who nevertheless  
62 hosted evolutionary-distinct viruses.

63 It is noteworthy that outside of South America, viral evolutionary distinctiveness does not accurately track  
64 host diversity, with some areas having over-distinct viruses (eastern China but, oddly, not the rest of  
65 southeast Asia). There are a number of likely explanations. First, given the richness of bats in southeast  
66 Asia, many betacoronaviruses likely remain to be discovered in this region. Indeed, global predictions  
67 highlight that southeast Asia is a likely hotspot of unconfirmed hosts of betacoronaviruses,<sup>21</sup> which would  
68 likely result in additional viral discoveries. This idea is unsurprising given the growing realization,  
69 especially since the emergence of SARS-CoV-2, that unique lineages of similar viruses are widespread in  
70 bats but still mostly undescribed. The most distinct bats-betacoronaviruses complex is found in South  
71 America, a region with a comparatively lower number of hosts; this matches with the isolation through  
72 variance of the host group, and may highlight a different co-evolutionary dynamic. Alternatively, this  
73 distinctiveness hotspot may be a product of under-sampling: South-America is one of the places where the  
74 fewest *Betacoronavirus* sequences have been discovered,<sup>2,22,23</sup> resulting in sparser phylogenetic tree,  
75 thereby artificially inflating distinctiveness. Adding more viruses would bring the distinctiveness of  
76 known sequences down. Finally, South-America is the range of Phyllostomidae, a group of bats that  
77 underwent explosive diversification events,<sup>20</sup> which may drive the emergence of multiple viral lineages.

## 78 **The phylogeographic regions of hosts and their viruses overlap**

79 Despite the difference in evolutionary distinctiveness globally, there are reasons to expect that the  
80 phylogeography of bats and betacoronaviruses should show some degree of congruence.<sup>24,25</sup> In particular,  
81 this should be the case if viruses can circulate among hosts and co-evolve with local hosts communities,  
82 making their evolutionary process more than a byproduct of host evolution. High density of hosts sharing  
83 the same virus (albeit possibly different strains) can drive or result from evolution of the bat antiviral  
84 immune system, resulting in spatially distinct immunological responses, as evidenced in several bat  
85 species.<sup>26</sup> Immune characteristics that allow bats to be better adapted to infection by emerging viruses,<sup>27,28</sup>  
86 in addition to being hardcoded in their genome,<sup>29</sup> may be related to a wide variety of diets,<sup>26,30</sup> themselves  
87 likely to be driven by spatial effects, especially at the local scale – bats, indeed, occupy a variety of

88 environments, and therefore display a variety of adaptations to these environments.<sup>31</sup>

89 [Figure 2 about here.]

90 In fig. 2, we show a projection of the phylogeographic signal of bats (top) and viruses (bottom) in space;  
91 the distinct groupings (represented by different colors symbolizing positions in the subspace formed by  
92 the first two axes of the PCoA) are essentially equivalent between the two groups, and can be coarsely  
93 delineated as southeast Asia, Eurasia above a northing of 25, and Africa and south America. These results  
94 suggest that, although the evolutionary distinctiveness of the bat-betacoronaviruses complex varies  
95 spatially, the system shows an important degree of spatial consistency, with a reduced number of  
96 bioregions. Available information describing the spillover of zoonotic betacoronaviruses of bat origin  
97 where data was available before and up through the COVID-19 pandemic puts spillover events of  
98 SARS-CoV-2 in Wuhan, China; SARS-CoV in Guangdong, China based on the presence of closest known  
99 viruses circulating in nature, and a nearby location where serological (antibody) evidence has indicated  
100 human exposure to SARS-like viruses;<sup>32</sup> MERS-CoV in Saudi Arabia based on index cases available from a  
101 recently-published compendium of cases.<sup>33</sup> For the latest event, most if not all index cases are presumed to  
102 be camel-to-human transmission, and the precise origin point (if it exists) of MERS-CoV in bats is  
103 uncertain. Recent recombinant canine coronavirus spillover events in Haiti<sup>34</sup> and Europe<sup>35</sup> are not  
104 relevant here, as bats' involvement in these cycles of transmission have been supposed to be non-existent.  
105 These index cases fall within different phylogeographic bioregions (fig. 2), which further highlight the  
106 issue that different host-virus sub-systems may lead to widespread emergence.

## 107 Coevolution-informed emergence risk is different in space

108 As host richness, joint distinctiveness, or phylogeographic structure suggest that the bat-betacoronaviruses  
109 complex is globally fragmented enough to give rise to both different levels of risk (as evidenced by the  
110 spatial location of spillover events) and different types of co-evolutionary dynamics, we turn to the  
111 Geographic Mosaic Theory of Coevolution<sup>7</sup> to provide a measure of risk accounting for multiple processes.  
112 In fig. 3, we overlapped three components of spillover risk: viral sharing, *i.e.* the chance that two bats will  
113 share viruses overall; Local Contribution to Beta Diversity, *i.e.* the fact that a bat community is  
114 compositionally unique compared to the average compositional similarity across the entire system; finally,  
115 host phylogenetic diversity, *i.e.* how dispersed the bats in a location are within the tree of life. This

116 approach leads to the definition of broad biogeographic regions of risk, where the same color represents  
117 the same type of risk. By way of contrast to figures fig. 1 and fig. 2, these regions do not necessarily  
118 overlap with previous spatial partitions of the bat-betacoronaviruses complex.

119 [Figure 3 about here.]

120 From the perspective of spillover risk, the most important combination of factors is a high phylogenetic  
121 diversity of hosts with low viral sharing; this, essentially, means that very different betacoronaviruses  
122 could co-exist within the same place. This is particularly the case given that betacoronaviruses often  
123 evolve and even achieve host shifts through recombination, which requires the co-occurrence of  
124 sufficiently distinct viruses to be a major driver of emergence. In fig. 3, this corresponds to yellow to pale  
125 green areas, which are essentially limited to South-Eastern Asia, and to some part of Sub-Saharan Africa.  
126 Adopting a geographic mosaic theory perspective on risk, other regions of the world are of lesser concern  
127 fig. 4. Our risk decomposition does not account for viral diversity or distinctiveness. The simple rationale  
128 behind it is that the acquisition of viral data is rarely disconnected from the acquisition of host data. There  
129 are more sources of information on hosts than on viruses, allowing to develop a host-centric perspective  
130 on risk (although this estimate would be more accurate with viral traits related to e.g. ability to switch hosts  
131 or pathogenic potential). Areas with high bat diversity and high turnover *may* facilitate the evolutionary  
132 radiation of viruses, matching previous findings that the diversification of bat coronaviruses is driven  
133 largely by host shifts (inter-genus or higher levels of cross-species transmission) and, to a lesser degree,  
134 cospeciation and sharing.<sup>intra-genus cross-species transmission; 2</sup> This diversification is not an actual risk factor for  
135 spillover itself, but acts downstream of a spillover event by increasing the random chance of the  
136 emergence of a virus with the raw genomic components required for the potential to infect humans.

137 [Figure 4 about here.]

138 From another perspective, areas of high host uniqueness and virus sharing (red-to-pink) could provide  
139 hotspots of *Betacoronavirus* risk through mixing of unique viruses (via codivergence) and in turn  
140 recombination. Under our framework, such a hotspot was identified in Madagascar, where most bat  
141 species are endemic following evolutionary divergence from sister species in both African and Asian  
142 continents.<sup>e.g. 36</sup> Recent surveillance<sup>37</sup> has identified a novel *Betacoronavirus* (in the subgenus

143 *Nobecovirus*) in Madagascar-endemic pteropid bat species (*Pteropus rufus*, *Rousettus madagascariensis*),  
144 emphasizing strong proof of principle in model predictions.

145 **Human occupancy drives different levels of effective risk globally**

146 Based on the previous result, we extracted the risk component from the composite map (see Methods), to  
147 provide a single measure of risk varying between 0 and 1. This measure is presented in fig. 4. As this map  
148 represents the potential risk, it must be weighed by the potential for contacts with humans. As a proxy for  
149 this measure, we used the proportion of build/urban land from the EarthEnv dataset: this is a reasonable  
150 proxy for the density of humans per unit area, which increases the probability of pathogen spread more  
151 widely.<sup>38</sup> Since human activity is required to amplify the frequency of virus encounters and thus create  
152 areas of viral amplification, mapping the potential risk against measures of land use is required to generate  
153 a more actionable assessment of risk. This map is presented in fig. 5. Most of South America and Europe  
154 are at comparatively lower risk, as although densely populated, settlements tend to be in areas with lower  
155 potential risk. Regions like Malaysia and the North coast of Australia have a high risk component, but  
156 should represent a relatively lower effective risk due to low human density. However, this mapping reveals  
157 that South-East Asia, the Indian subcontinent, and parts of sub-Saharan Africa, are at high risk due to the  
158 overlap between built areas and bat communities representing more opportunities for cross-species  
159 transmission of betacoronaviruses. In looking for the origins of SARS in China,<sup>39</sup> present serological  
160 evidence that strongest human-animal contact results in higher risk of virus exposure, regardless of the  
161 animal species, but that different types of contact had different impacts. Ideally, finer-grained information  
162 about human activity (rather than human presence through anthropisation) could allow to partition this  
163 risk further, albeit at the cost of more hypotheses required to estimate the amount of risk represented by  
164 each activity. Our map of risk overlays with recent results from<sup>40</sup> – areas of purported high  
165 risk/diversitification potential (Madagascar, South-America) overlay with sampling gaps for  
166 *Betacoronavirus*, stressing the need for spatially targeted monitoring and discovery.

167 [Figure 5 about here.]

168 **Conclusion**

169 Bats are important reservoir hosts for different classes of microorganisms, many of which a threat to  
170 human health.<sup>24,25</sup> Chiropterans emerged around 64 million years ago and are one of the most diverse  
171 mammalian orders, with an estimated richness of more than 1400 species.<sup>41,42</sup> They exhibit a broad variety  
172 of habitat use, behaviour, and feeding strategies, putting them at key positions in the delivery and  
173 provisioning of several ecosystem services, tied to important ecosystem-derived benefits to human.<sup>43</sup> For  
174 example, bats are an essential component of many seed-dispersal networks.<sup>44</sup> Over two-thirds of bats are  
175 known to be either obligate or facultative insectivores, therefore actively contributing for agricultural pest  
176 control,<sup>45,46</sup> and vectors of pathogens that put a risk on human health.<sup>47,48</sup> Because bats are globally  
177 distributed and have a long evolutionary history, phylogeographic and biogeographic approaches are  
178 required to shed light on the contemporary distribution of coevolutionary processes between bats and the  
179 pathogens they host. Not all areas in which bats, viruses, and human are co-occurring are facing a risk of  
180 spillover towards human populations, and the areas in which this risk exist may not be facing risks of the  
181 same nature and magnitude.

182 Here, we propose a simple framework with broad explanatory power that helps contextualize discoveries  
183 like highly divergent nobecoviruses in Madagascar and the previously-neglected adaptive radiation of  
184 sarbecoviruses outside of southern China and throughout southeast Asia. In doing so, it advances  
185 ecological theory beyond the current state of the art for global maps of emergence risk. For example,  
186 previous studies that have used host richness as proxy have predicted a high diversity of unsampled bat  
187 viruses,<sup>23</sup> bat coronaviruses,<sup>2</sup> and even specifically betacoronaviruses<sup>21</sup> in both the Amazon and southeast  
188 Asia. While we find that both regions are characterized by highly divergent host and viral communities,  
189 our framework identifies key differences between the regions. We find that Latin America is a hotspot of  
190 both host and viral distinctiveness, suggesting that this branch of the bat-betacoronavirus complex may be  
191 undergoing independent evolutionary dynamics from the rest of the global pool, but with limited potential  
192 for viral diversification—a finding that is supported by previous work indicating a higher rate of  
193 codivergence in Latin America.<sup>2</sup> In contrast, in southeast Asia, host richness and viral distinctiveness are  
194 high but sharing is low; this suggests a different type of evolutionary dynamics that could generate high  
195 local diversity of viruses through host switching and viral recombination (see e.g.,<sup>49</sup> as well as the  
196 discovery of recombinant viruses that share genetic material from both the SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2

197 branches of the Sarbecovirus lineage).<sup>50</sup> Both of these regions are priority areas for sampling, especially  
198 given predictions that they contain many bat hosts of undiscovered betacoronaviruses.<sup>21,40</sup> However, both  
199 the evolutionary and ecological aspects of emergence risk are likely higher in southeast Asia—a fact that  
200 will only become more relevant, as bats track shifting climates and exchange viruses with other species,  
201 creating a hotspot of cross-species transmission unique to the region.<sup>17</sup>

202 [Tim tinker with para about conservation] There are several factors that drive changes in the diversity of  
203 bats,<sup>51</sup> but human activities' effects on the ecosystem (like modifications of land use) could significantly  
204 decrease it. Therefore, it can be suggested that changes in the diversity of betacoronaviruses in bats are  
205 linked to their biogeographic variation, and human population density and other anthropogenic factors  
206 are decisive moderators for its implications in public health. With the increase of contact between humans  
207 and potential hosts, we also increase the risk of emergence of novel diseases,<sup>52</sup> as previous studies on RNA  
208 viruses suggest the importance of host phylogeography at the time of virus dispersal.<sup>53</sup> One of these  
209 scenarios where interaction between bats and humans can occur can be seed dispersal in tropical  
210 agroecosystems. It opens the discussion of whether the fruits thrown by bats not only disperse seeds but  
211 could also be a source of indirect interaction between viruses of bat origin and humans.<sup>54</sup> This represents a  
212 challenge for conservation strategies and disease ecology since some areas can have both potential for the  
213 acquisition of zoonotic viruses and bat-human interactions; in particular, the challenge lies in the fact that  
214 actual exposure must then be quantified accounting for several transmission scenarios, including both  
215 direct and indirect bat - human interaction.

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224 **Methods**

225 **Known *Betacoronavirus* hosts**

226 We downloaded the data on bats hosts of *Betacoronavirus* assembled by<sup>21</sup> from  
227 <https://www.viralemergence.org/betacov> on Apr. 2022, and filtered it to “known” hosts (established  
228 before the emergence of SARS-CoV-2) and “novel” hosts (confirmed through sampling and competence  
229 assays since the initial data collection). The original database was assembled by a combination of data  
230 mining and literature surveys, including automated alerts on the “bats” and “coronavirus” keywords to  
231 identify novel empirical evidence of bats-betacoronaviruses associations; this yielded a total of 126 known  
232 hosts, 47 of which were novel hosts.

233 **Bat occurrences**

234 We downloaded the rangemap of every current bat species that was classified as an empirically  
235 documented host of *Betacoronavirus* from the previous step, according to recent IUCN data.<sup>55</sup> The range  
236 maps were subsequently rasterized using the rasterize function from GDAL<sup>56</sup> at a resolution of  
237 approximately 100kmx100km. For every pixel in the resulting raster where at least one bat host of  
238 *Betacoronavirus* was present, we extract the species pool (list of all known bat hosts), which was used to  
239 calculate the following risk assessment components: bat phylogenetic diversity, bat compositional  
240 uniqueness, and predicted viral sharing risk.

241 **Bat phylogenetic diversity**

242 For every pixel, we measured Faith’s Phylogenetic Diversity<sup>57</sup> based on a recent synthetic tree with robust  
243 time calibration, covering about 6000 mammalian species.<sup>58</sup> Faith’s PD measures the sum of unique  
244 branches from an arbitrary root to a set of tips, and comparatively larger values indicate a more  
245 phylogenetic diverse species pool. We measured phylogenetic diversity starting from the root of the entire  
246 tree (and not from Chiroptera); this bears no consequences on the resulting values, since all branches  
247 leading up to Chiroptera are only counted one per species pool, and (as we explain when describing the  
248 assembly of the composite risk map), all individual risk components are ranged in [0,1]. This measure  
249 incorporates a richness component, which we chose not to correct for; the interpretation of the

250 phylogenetic diversity is therefore a weighted species richness, that accounts for phylogenetic  
251 over/under-dispersal in some places.

## 252 **Bat compositional uniqueness**

253 For every species pool, we measured its Local Contribution to Beta-Diversity;<sup>59</sup> LCBD works from a  
254 species-data matrix (traditionally noted as  $\mathbf{Y}$ ), where species are rows and sites are columns, and a value of  
255 1 indicates occurrence. We extracted the  $\mathbf{Y}$  matrix assuming that every pixel represents a unique location,  
256 and following best practices<sup>60</sup> transformed it using Hellinger's distance to account for unequal bat  
257 richness at different pixels. The correction of raw community data is particularly important for two  
258 reasons: first, it prevents the artifact of richer sites having higher importance; second, it removes the effect  
259 of overall species richness, which is already incorporated in the phylogenetic diversity component. High  
260 values of LCBD indicate that the pixel has a community that is on average more dissimilar in species  
261 composition than what is expected knowing the entire matrix, i.e. a more unique community. Recent  
262 results by<sup>61</sup> shows that LCBD measures are robust with regards to spatial scale, and are therefore  
263 applicable at the global scale.

## 264 **Viral sharing between hosts**

265 For all bat hosts of *Betacoronavirus*, we extracted their predicted viral sharing network, generated from a  
266 previously published generalized additive mixed model of virus sharing by a tensor function of  
267 phylogenetic distance and geographic range overlap.<sup>62</sup> This network stores pairwise values of viral  
268 community similarity. To project viral sharing values into a single value for every pixel, we averaged the  
269 pairwise scores. High values of the average sharing propensity means that this specific extant bat  
270 assemblage is likely to be proficient at exchanging viruses.

## 271 **Composite risk map**

272 To visualize the aggregated risk at the global scale, we combine the three individual risk components  
273 (phylogenetic diversity, compositional uniqueness, and viral sharing) using an additive color model.<sup>63</sup> In  
274 this approach, every risk component gets assigned a component in the RGB color model (phylogenetic  
275 diversity is green, compositional uniqueness is red, and viral sharing is blue). In order to achieve a valid

276 RGB measure, all components are re-scaled to the [0,1] interval, so that a pixel with no sharing, no  
277 phylogenetic diversity, and no compositional uniqueness is black, and a pixel with maximal values for  
278 each is white. This additive model conveys both the intensity of the overall risk, but also the nature of the  
279 risk as colors diverge towards combinations of values for three risk components. Out of the possible  
280 combinations, the most risky in terms of rapid diversification and spillover potential is high phylogenetic  
281 diversity and low viral sharing,<sup>64,65</sup> in that this allows multiple independent host-virus coevolutionary  
282 dynamics to take place in the same location. In the colorimetric space, this corresponds to yellow – because  
283 the HSV space is more amenable to calculations for feature extraction,<sup>see e.g.</sup><sup>66</sup> we measured the risk level  
284 by calculating the angular distance of the hue of each pixel to a reference value of 60, and weighted this  
285 risk level by the value component. Specifically, given a pixel with colorimetric coordinates  $(h, s, v)$ , its  
286 ranged weighted risk value is

$$v \times \left[ 1 - \frac{|\text{atan}(\cos(\text{rad}(h)), \sin(\text{rad}(h))) - X|}{2\pi} \right],$$

287 where  $X$  is  $\text{atan}(\cos(\text{rad}(60)), \sin(\text{rad}(60)))$ , a constant approximately equal to 0.5235.

## 288 Viral phyogeography and evolutionary diversification

289 To next represent phyogeography of betacoronaviruses in bats, we aggregated and analyzed  
290 betacoronavirus sequence data. We used the following query to pull all *Betacoronavirus* sequence data  
291 from the GenBank Nucleotide database except SARS-CoV-2; (“Betacoronavirus”[Organism] OR  
292 betacoronavirus[All Fields]) NOT (“Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2”[Organism] OR  
293 sars-cov-2[All Fields]). We added a single representative sequence for SARS-CoV-2 and manually curated  
294 to remove sequences without the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) sequence or that contained  
295 words indicating recombinant or laboratory strains including “patent”, “mutant”, “GFP”, and  
296 “recombinant”. We filtered over-represented taxa including betacoronavirus 1, hCoV-OC43, Middle East  
297 respiratory syndrome coronavirus, Murine hepatitis virus, and hCoV-HKU1. Curated betacoronavirus  
298 RdRp sequences were then aligned using MAFFT v 1.4.0 [<sup>67</sup>; Algorithm FFT-NS-2, Scoring matrix  
299 200PAM / k=2, gap open penalty 1.53m offset value 0.123] and a maximum likelihood tree reconstructed  
300 in IQ-TREE v 1.6.12<sup>68</sup> with ModelFinder<sup>69</sup> ultrafast bootstrap approximation<sup>70</sup> with a general time  
301 reversible model with empirical base frequencies and the 5-discrete-rate-category FreeRaye model of

302 nucleotide substitution (GTR+F+R5).

303 We first tested the hypothesis that hotspots of viral diversification would track hotspots of bat  
304 diversification. To do so, we plotted the number of known bat hosts (specifically only those included in the  
305 phylogeny, so there was a 1:1 correspondence between data sources) against the “mean evolutionary  
306 distinctiveness” of the associated viruses. To calculate this, we derived the fair proportions evolutionary  
307 distinctiveness<sup>71</sup> for each of the viruses in the tree, then averaged these at the bat species level, projected  
308 these values onto their geographic distributions, and averaged across every bat found in a given pixel. As  
309 such, this can be thought of as a map of the mean evolutionary distinctiveness of the known viral  
310 community believed to be associated with a particular subset of bats present.

### 311 **Co-distribution of hosts and viral hotspots**

312 Subsequently, we tested the hypothesis that the biogeography of bat betacoronaviruses should track the  
313 biogeography of their hosts. To test this idea, we loosely adapted a method from,<sup>72,73</sup> who proposed a  
314 phylogenetic method for the delineation of animal biogeographic regions. In their original method, a  
315 distance matrix - where each row or column represents a geographic raster’s grid cell, and the dissimilarity  
316 values are the “beta diversity similarity” of their community assemble - undergoes non-metric  
317 multidimensional scaling (NMDS); the first two axes of the NMDS are projected geographically using a  
318 four-color bivariate map. Here, we build on this idea with an entirely novel methodology. First, we  
319 measure the phylogenetic distance between the different viruses in the betacoronaviruses tree by using the  
320 cophenetic function in ape;<sup>74</sup> subsequently, we take a principal components analysis of that distance  
321 matrix (readily interchangeable for NMDS in this case) to project the viral tree into an n-dimensional  
322 space. We then take the first two principal components and, as with the evolutionary distinctiveness  
323 analysis, aggregated these to a mean host value and projected them using a four-color bivariate map.

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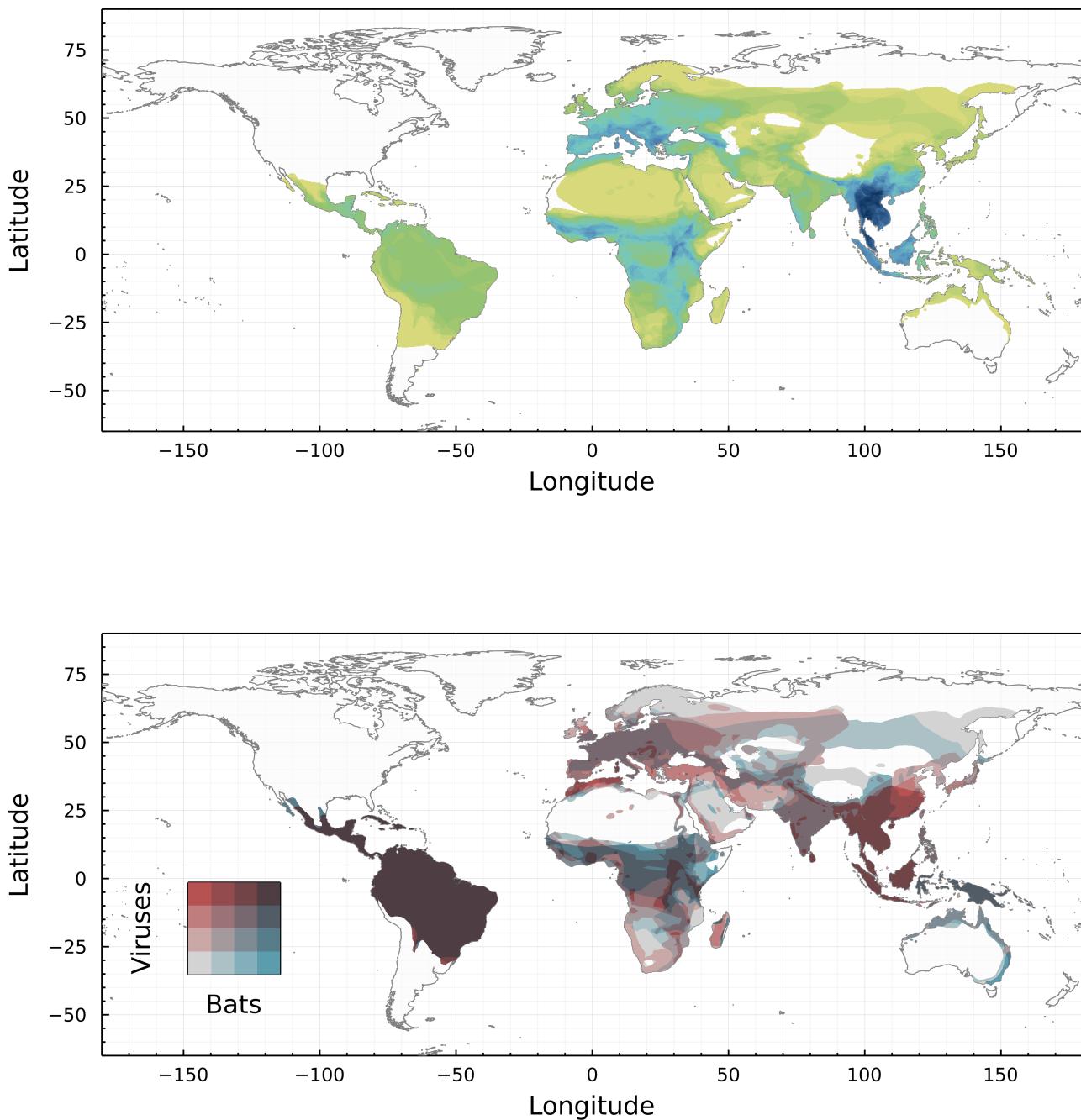


Figure 1: Top panel: relative diversity of known bat hosts of betacoronaviruses. This map shows that the region with the largest number of possible hosts is South-Eastern Asia. Bottom panel: congruence between the evolutionary distinctiveness of the hosts (grey to blue) and the viruses (grey to red). By contrast to the richness map, this reveals that South America has the most evolutionary distinct hosts *and* viruses, whereas South-Eastern Asia and the Rift Valley region have mostly distinct viruses. This is congruent with known results about New World bats being evolutionary distinct, and suggests that they similarly have distinct viruses.

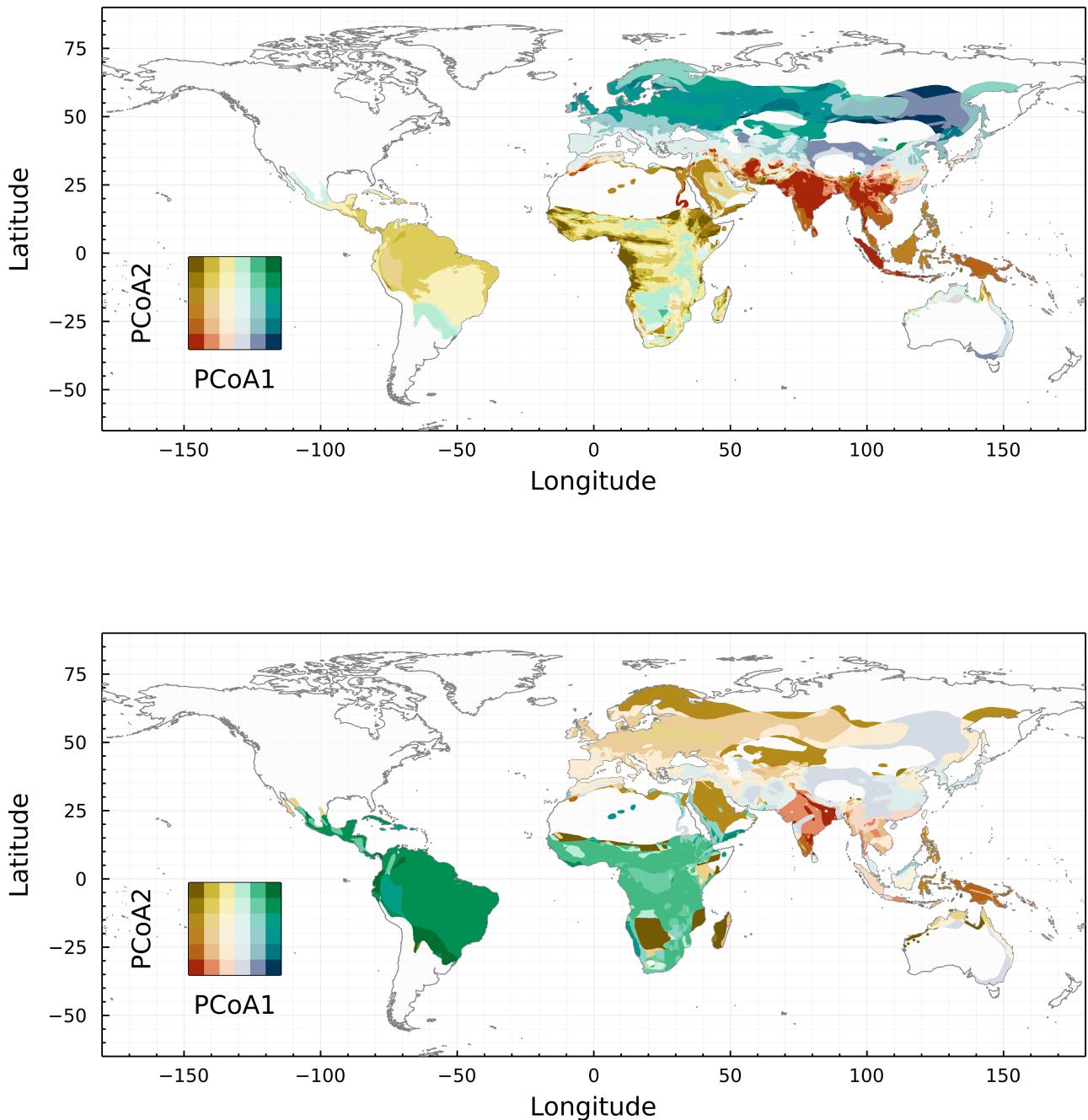


Figure 2: Phylogeographic regions of bats (top) and viruses (bottom) based on the joint analysis of their occurrence and phylogenetic relatedness. The different colors show tendencies to separate alongside the first two components of a PCoA. Note that the PCoA for the bats and viruses are independent, and so cannot be compared directly – that being said, the regions can be compared across maps.

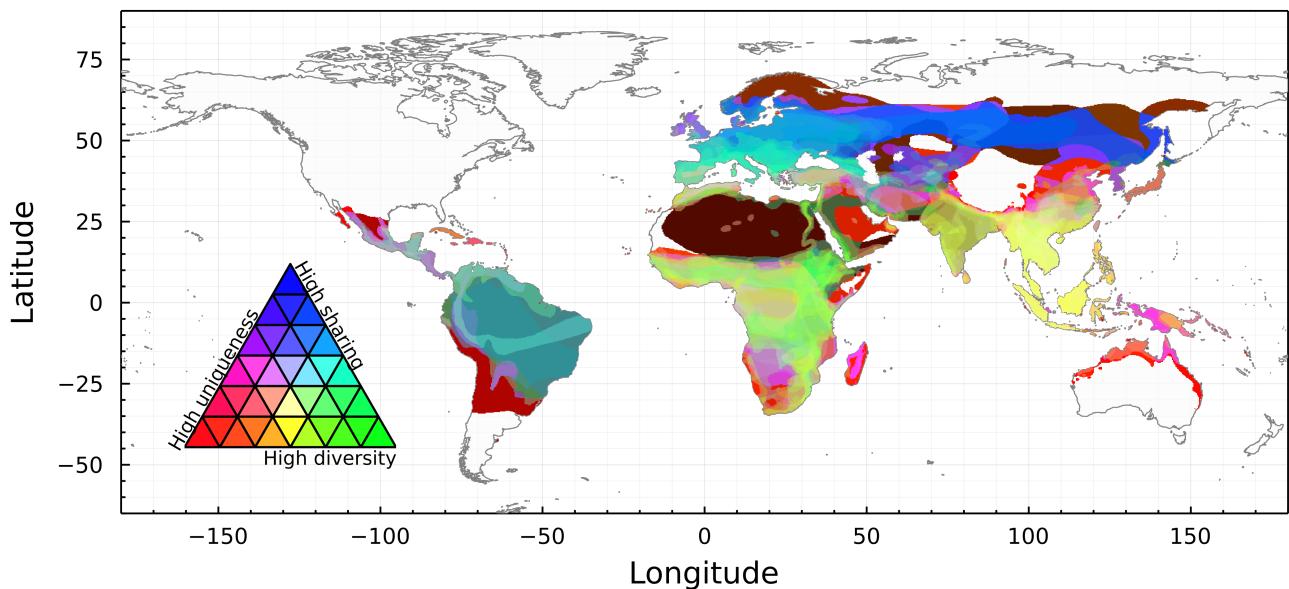


Figure 3: Trivariate additive mapping of the components of risk in the red/green/blue, where high virus sharing is encoded in the blue channel, host phylogenetic diversity in the green channel, and compositional uniqueness in the red channel. A pixel that would maximize all measures (highest possible risk) would be a pure white (specifically  $\text{RGB}(1.0, 1.0, 1.0)$ ), and a pixel with the lowest possible values would be pure black (specifically  $\text{RGB}(0.0, 0.0, 0.0)$ ). Therefore, lighter values (the sum of the three channels gets closer to 3) indicate higher risk, and the color indicates the proportional distribution of the factors making up the total risk.

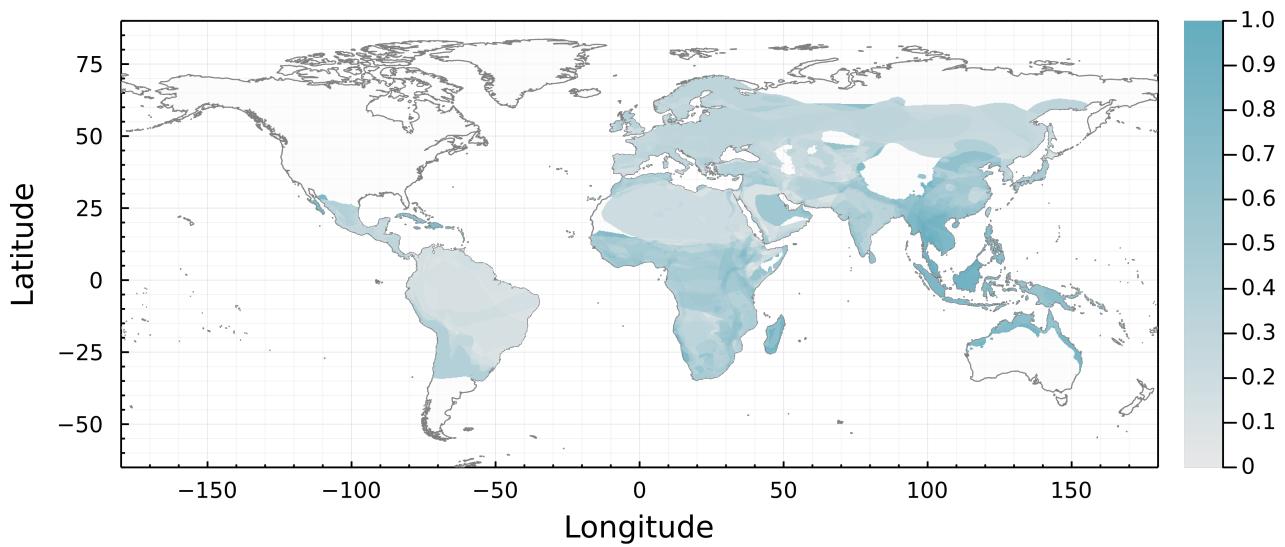


Figure 4: Extraction of a measure of *Betacoronavirus* spillover risk from bat hosts based on the colorimetric space from fig. 3. The risk is a composite measure of the color value and angular distance to the yellow hue, as defined in the methods, ranged in the unit space. Based on this analyses, regions at high risk of spillover are southeast Asia and Madagascar.

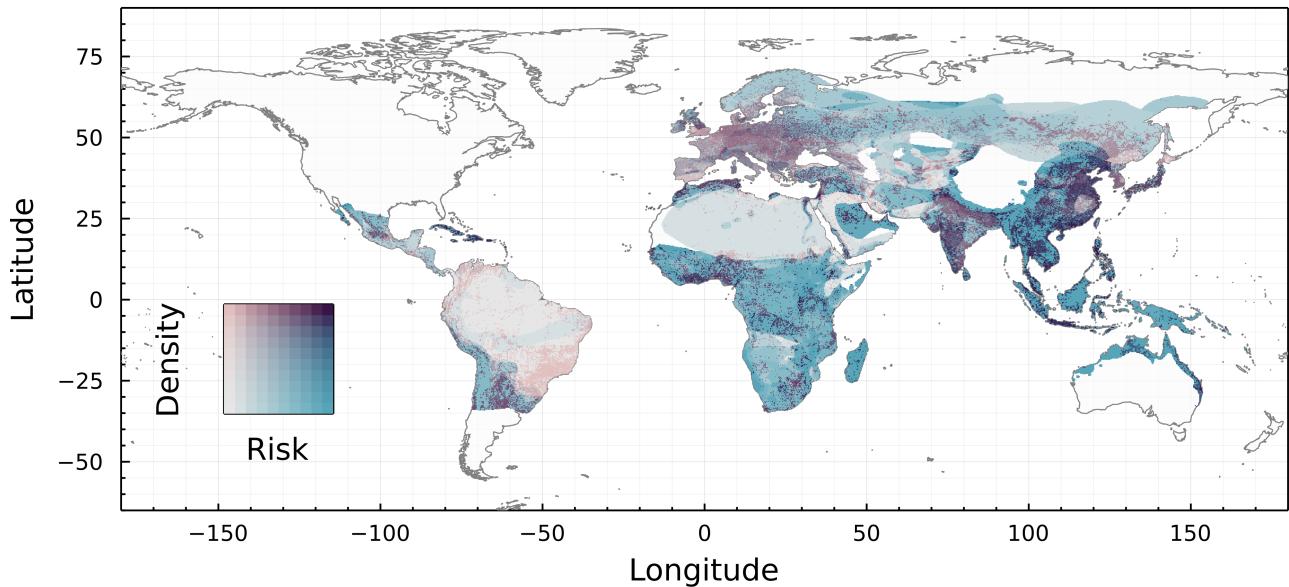


Figure 5: Overlap of the percent of each pixel occupied by urbanized structures, representing the degree of settlement, on the spillover risk map (where the risk comes only from wildlife, and ignores multi-hosts chains of transmissions including non-bats hosts). Darker pixels correspond to more risk, in that the GMTC-derived risk of fig. 4 is high *and* the pixel is densely occupied by human populations. This approach increases the relative risk of several regions in Africa, and highlights the risk in India, southeast China, and the Arabian peninsula where areas of high to moderate risk overlap with areas of denser population.