

Supplementary appendix

Supplement to: Global malaria infection risk from global warming

Authors

Chao Li¹, Shunsuke Managi*¹

Affiliations

¹ Urban Institute, Kyushu University, Japan

* Correspondent to: Shunsuke Managi, managi@doc.kyushu-u.ac.jp, Kyushu University
744 Motoooka, Nishi-ku, Fukuoka 819-0395 Japan

Materials

Plasmodium falciparum Parasite Rate (PfPR)

The Malaria Atlas Project offers malaria infection prevalence annually, termed PfPR, in 2-10 olds globally from 2000 to 2019 ¹ (<https://malariaatlas.org/explorer/#/>). This data set is a series of spatial grid data with a 5-km resolution, covering the regions from 60° N to 60° S. Malaria is widely infected in Africa, though the infection prevalence has apparently decreased in the past 20 years ¹. To make the spatial resolution of PfPR concordant with the climatic data set, we upscale the spatial data set to 0.25 arc degree by the average method. **Figure S1** shows the spatial distribution of the temporally averaged value of PfPR in 2-10 olds (PfPR₂₋₁₀) from 2000 to 2019. In those past 20 years, although the coverage of the contemporary malaria control inventions was skyrocketing ¹, the public health regarding malaria infection in developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan African countries, was still remarkably weak. For example, even in 2019, the PfPR₂₋₁₀ is still over 60% in many Sub-Sahara African regions ¹.

Temperature

Temperature data are extracted from the United States National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) data set, NASA Global Land Data Assimilation System Version 2 (GLDAS-2.1). The GLDAS-2.1 system is based on a combination of model and observation data from 2000 to the present, whose products are a variety of monthly average climatic variables with a 0.25-arc-degree spatial resolution ². Firstly, we obtain several climatic variables from GLDAS-2.1, including temperature, air pressure, absolute

humidity, precipitation and wind speed. These variables are all monthly average values and have converted into annual average values. However, the correlations among these climatic variables are too high, which would lead to multicollinearity in the regressions. For example, the correlation coefficient between annual average air pressure and temperature is 0.745 (p -value $< 0.1\%$). Additionally, another critical independent variable, vegetation index, is significantly correlated with absolute humidity (correlation coefficient: 0.807, p -value $< 0.1\%$), precipitation (0.805, p -value $< 0.1\%$) and wind speed (-0.716, p -value $< 0.1\%$). Therefore, the only annual average temperature is kept among those five climatic variables. Secondly, evidence shows that malaria transmission through *Anopheles gambiae* peaks at 25°C ³. Hence, the relationship between malaria infection rate and temperature is non-linear and similar to the U-shape⁴⁻⁶. We take the temperature square into account. Furthermore, extreme low and high temperatures are unsuitable for transmission vector survival. In this way, the standard deviation of monthly average temperature in a specific year would also affect the PfPR. In terms of climate, three variables, involving annual average temperature, annual average temperature square, and standard deviation of monthly average temperature in a specific year, are incorporated into the analysis.

Vegetation Index

Local vegetation affects malaria vector population size, survival, biting, among others⁷⁻⁹. Therefore, the local vegetation status should be considered in the analysis. The normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) is a widely used indicator to assess how much the observed grid contains live green vegetation^{10,11}. The NDVI ranges from -100% (no live green vegetation) to 100% (full of live green vegetation). MODIS Terra and Aqua

satellites provide monthly NDVI data from 2000 to the present with a 0.05-arc-degree spatial resolution. The MODIS vegetation index products used in the analysis are MOD13C2 and MYD13C2¹². To link the NDVI data set to the temperature and PfPR₂₋₁₀ data set, we upscale the NDVI data set to 0.25 arc degree by the average method. Then, these data are further converted into annual average values.

Population Density and GDP per Capita

The population density data are obtained from the WorldPop Project. The WorldPop Project provides spatial grid data set of population count from 2000 to 2020 with a 1-km resolution^{13,14}. Because the length of the latitudes decreases with the increasing latitude, the conversion of population count from 1-km to 0.25-arc-degree resolution is not perfect. At least, we cannot use the direct sum method. To solve this issue, we regard the population count in every grid as the population density, and the unit of this data set is regarded as capita per square kilometer (Cap/km²). Here, we upscale the data from 1-km to 0.25-arc-degree resolution by the average method. The data set eventually illustrates the annual population density with a 0.25-arc-degree resolution.

GDP per capita is associated with development level and public health investment. The higher development level and more public health investment, including a wide range of international aids, are linked with a relatively lower malaria infection rate^{1,15}. However, the spatial grid data set about GDP per capita is unavailable. We employ the country-level GDP per capita from the World Bank. The unit of GDP per capita is the current U.S. dollar. We assume that the GDP per capita in every grid is the same in a country.

81

82 *Climate Change Scenarios and Temperature Prediction*

83 Malaria infection rate is associated with temperature ^{3,4,6}. The different climate
84 change scenarios definitely lead to diverse malaria infection rates, assuming other
85 conditions are the same. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) relies on
86 the Coupled Model Intercomparison Projects (CMIP) to predict the future temperature
87 based on several future emission scenarios ^{16,17}. The 2013 IPCC fifth assessment report
88 (AR5) features four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) according to various
89 possible future greenhouse gas emissions ¹⁷. Based on the RCPs and the CMIP5 model, the
90 IPCC projects four scenarios, specifically RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5, which
91 are well-known. In 2021, the IPCC sixth assessment report (AR6) is released. In the IPCC
92 AR6, updated emission scenarios are derived from different socioeconomic assumptions,
93 called the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) ¹⁶. These scenarios are the updated
94 version of the four scenarios in the IPCC AR5, so the new scenarios listed in the IPCC
95 AR6 are named SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5 and projected by the CMIP6
96 model ¹⁶. Except SSP3-7.0, the other three scenarios are advanced from the previous
97 scenarios in the AR5. Simply speaking, the SSP1-2.6 scenario predicts that the
98 temperatures stabilize about 1.8°C by the end of the century. In the SSP2-4.5 scenario, the
99 temperatures rise 2.7°C by 2100. According to the SSP3-7.0 scenario, the temperatures go
100 up around 3.6°C by the end of the century. Finally, the SSP5-8.5 scenario predicts that the
101 temperatures grow 4.4°C or higher by 2100. The IPCC projects global temperatures in four
102 periods, including 2021-2040 (near term), 2041-2060 (medium term), and 2081-2100 (long
103 term), based on the different scenarios. In each period, the data set contains 12 grid data of

monthly average temperature. The IPCC provides open access data based on over 30-model stimulation with a 1-arc-degree resolution (<https://interactive-atlas.ipcc.ch/>).

Grids

We integrate the abovementioned data set to build a long panel spatial grid data set. Because we only focus on the endemic areas, the grids are dropped, whose PfPR₂₋₁₀ is always 0. Additionally, every grid is required to have at least two-year complete records. Without enough records, the grid is also removed. Accordingly, 65,705 grids are kept. The coverage of our study is over 40 million km². Our analysis includes temperature, NDVI, population density, and GDP per capita according to statistical tests and data availability. Previous studies indicate that climate change affects vector-borne diseases ¹⁸⁻²⁰, so temperature-related variables and NDVI are considered. Moreover, population density and prevention also play a critical role in malaria transmission ^{1,21}. Although detailed prevention investments are unavailable, we replace them with GDP per capita.

Methods

Spatially Stationary Model

At first, we assume that relationships between PfPR₂₋₁₀ and other selected independent variables are the same in each grid. For example, the marginal effects of a 1% increase in the NDVI in Africa and South America are the same, even though they are thousands of kilometers away. Without considering the spatial contexts, those relationships do not vary spatially ^{22,23}. To estimate the links among variables, we apply the panel

regression method. Because our data set is a panel data set, the hypotheses on the time-fixed effects of each grid should be carefully tested. Three typical panel regression models based on different time-fixed effect hypotheses, including fixed effects model (FEM), random effects model (REM), and pooled ordinary least square (POLS), are widely used. We perform several statistical tests to select the reasonable spatially stationary model. Firstly, we execute the F test for individual effects ^{24,25}. The significant result indicates that the time-fixed effects exist since the null hypothesis is that no time-fixed effects are needed ²⁵. Hence, the POLS is rejected because this model assumes that no time-fixed effects exist. Then, we implement the Hausman test to detect that either the REM or the FEM is reasonable ²⁶. The null hypothesis of the Hausman test that the preferred model is the REM is rejected due to the significant test result. Therefore, the FEM is preferred in the spatially stationary analysis.

Here, the FEM is illustrated as follows:

$$PfPR_{it} = \beta X'_{it} + \alpha_i + \mu_{it} \quad (1)$$

where $PfPR_{it}$ denotes the annual PfPR₂₋₁₀ (ranging from 0 to 1) in grid i in t year, X_{it} denotes a matrix of independent variables, including annual average temperature (°C), annual average temperature square (°C²), the standard deviation of monthly average temperature in t year (°C), NDVI, population density (Cap/km^2), and GDP per capita (USD/Cap) in measurement i in t year, α_i denotes the time-fixed effects, μ_{it} denotes an idiosyncratic error, and β is a vector of parameters to be estimated.

Spatially Non-stationary Model

Obviously, the marginal effects of the climate variable on malaria infection rate are not always, even never, the same spatially in the real world. For instance, Giesen et al. summarize the impacts of climate change on malaria in Africa in their review, and the marginal effects of climate change are different country by country²⁷. Two possible reasons flash. Firstly, the relationship between climate change, especially global warming, and the malaria infection rate is non-linear³⁻⁶. To solve this issue, we employ the temperature square term. Secondly, the association of malaria infection rate with temperature spatially varies²⁸. To grasp this spatial variability, the advanced spatially non-stationary model should be employed.

Geographically weighted panel regression (GWPR) is an improvement of geographically weighted regression, which allows the regression coefficients to vary spatially^{29,30} and is widely used in spatial analyses. Basically, the GWPR divides the total data set into a large amount of sub-dataset, according to the optimal bandwidth. The bandwidth of the GWPR is a threshold distance to judge whether two grids have a spatial relationship^{22,29,31}. The number of sub-datasets equals the number of grids. Every sub-dataset takes one grid as the center and the bandwidth as the radius to select the other grids. Of note, every grid could be utilized several times in the dividing process. The bandwidth calibration is the essential step in the analysis. The mean square prediction error of the regression is the critical index to calibrate the bandwidth. The lowest mean square prediction error means the highest goodness of fit³². In the GWPR bandwidth calibration, the mean square prediction error is calculated as follows:

$$MSPE(b) = \frac{m \sum_j [y_j - \widehat{y_j(b)}]^2}{(m - p + 1)^2} \quad (2)$$

where $MSPE(b)$ is the mean square prediction error when the bandwidth is b , m is the data size, y_j is the dependent variable of the j th record, $\widehat{y_j(b)}$ is the predicted value of the j th record when the bandwidth is b , and p is the number of the parameters in the analysis. In the GWR, the basic version of the GWPR, in a way, previous studies generally assume that **Equation 2** is a U-shape function without statistical or mathematical evidence^{22,23,32}. This assumption helps to reduce calculating time but also brings enormous risks to the analysis.

We apply the step increment selection without assuming that **Equation 2** is a U-shape function. The bandwidth selection extent is from 0.25 to 20 arc degrees, and the examined bandwidth increases 0.25 arc degree every time because the spatial resolution of the grid data is 0.25 arc degree. The optimal bandwidth is 4.25 arc degrees (**Figure S2**). The mean square prediction error reaches the minimum when the bandwidth equals 0.75, but we reject it. According to the grid data set spatial resolution, every sub-dataset at most has 25 grids, but some of them might only have one grid. If the sub-datasets have only one grid, they do not fit FEM's statistical requirements. Moreover, some grids would not be spatially linked with other grids, which leads to a not robust GWPR result. Therefore, the optimal bandwidth, 4.25 arc degrees, is calibrated.

The GWPR is performed after the optimal bandwidth has been calibrated. The GWPR model is written as follows:

$$PfPR_{it} = \beta_i X'_{it} + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

where β_i denotes a vector of parameters in the regression with the sub-dataset taking the grid i as the center. There are 65,705 sub-datasets, so the number of regressions on sub-

188 datasets is also 65,705, and every estimation is based on the sub-dataset's spatial weight
 189 vector. For this reason, the parameters, β_i , vary spatially. The spatial weight vector is
 190 calculated as follows:

$$\mathbf{w}_i = \begin{cases} [1 - (\frac{\mathbf{d}}{b})^2]^2, & d_k \in \mathbf{d} \text{ if } d_k \leq b \\ 0, & d_k \notin \mathbf{d} \text{ if } d_k > b \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

191 where \mathbf{W}_i denotes a vector of spatial weights between the grid i and its neighbors, \mathbf{d}
 192 represents a vector of distances between the grid i and its neighbors, b is the calibrated
 193 optimal bandwidth, and d_k is the distance between the grid i and the grid k . Then, the
 194 GWPR estimates the parameters, based on the spatial weight vectors. Because the time-
 195 fixed effects term (α_i) in is unknown in **Equation 3**²⁴, we transform that equation as
 196 follows:

$$PfPR_{it} - \overline{PfPR}_i = \beta_i(\mathbf{X}_{it} - \overline{\mathbf{X}}_i)' + (\epsilon_{it} - \overline{\epsilon}_i) \quad (5)$$

197 where \overline{PfPR}_i denotes the mean of the PfPR₂₋₁₀ of the grid i , $\overline{\mathbf{X}}_i$ denotes a vector of means
 198 of independent variables of the grid i , and $\overline{\epsilon}_i$ denotes the mean of the error of the grid i . To
 199 simplify **Equation 5**, we define the matrix of transformed independent variables \mathbf{x}_{it} and
 200 the transformed dependent variable $pfpr_{it}$ as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}_{it} = \mathbf{X}_{it} - \overline{\mathbf{X}}_i \quad (6)$$

$$pfpr_{it} = PfPR_{it} - \overline{PfPR}_i \quad (7)$$

$$\sigma_{it} = \epsilon_{it} - \overline{\epsilon}_i \quad (8)$$

201 In the light of **Equation 6-8**, **Equation 3** is rewritten as follows:

$$pfpr_{it} = \beta_i \mathbf{x}'_{it} + \sigma_{it} \quad (9)$$

202 The parameter estimation could be displayed as follows:

$$\beta_i = [x_{it}^T W_i x_{it}]^{-1} x_{it}^T W_i p f p r_{it} \quad (10)$$

203

204 *Statistical Indicators and 10-fold Cross Validation*

205 Because we need to make the prediction based on the results of IPCC stimulations,
 206 we must confirm the model's accuracy. Several statistical indicators, including R^2 , root
 207 mean square error (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE), correlation coefficient (r) between
 208 observed and predicted values, and regression coefficients between observed and predicted
 209 values (intercept α and slope β), are applied to depict the accuracy of the model. R^2 is a
 210 critical statistical indicator describing the goodness of fit, which is expressed as follows:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (OPfPR_k - PPfPR_k)^2}{\sum_{k=1}^n (OPfPR_k - \overline{OPfPR})^2} \quad (11)$$

211 where n represents the observation number in the whole data set, $OPfPR_k$ represents the
 212 k th record of the observed PfPR₂₋₁₀, $PPfPR_k$ represents the k th record of the predicted
 213 PfPR₂₋₁₀, and \overline{OPfPR} represents the mean of the observed PfPR₂₋₁₀. The RMSE is sensitive
 214 to both systematic error and random error, expressed as follows:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (OPfPR_k - PPfPR_k)^2} \quad (12)$$

215 The MAE is computed as follows:

$$MAE = \text{mean}(|OPfPR_k - PPfPR_k|) \quad (13)$$

216 In the analysis, the MAE is expected to be lower. Additionally, the regression coefficients
 217 between observed and predicted values are estimated as follows:

$$OPfPR_k = \alpha + \beta PPfPR_k + \delta_k \quad (14)$$

where α is the intercept of the regression, the ideal value of α is 0, β is the slope, its ideal value is 1, and δ_k is a random error term.

To check the reliability of the GWPR model, we perform the 10-fold cross validation. In the 10-fold cross validation, the whole data set is randomly divided into ten subsets. In every individual fold cross validation, nine subsets are used to train the GWPR model, while the left one subset is employed to test the accuracy and ability of prediction. All statistical indicators, involving R^2 , RMSE, MAE, r , α , and β , are reported based on the training and testing results.

Effects of Temperature Change on PfPR₂₋₁₀

The effects of temperature change on PfPR₂₋₁₀ cannot directly be estimated because other necessary variables, such as NDVI, population, and GDP per capita, cannot be precisely predicted. The errors from the other variable predictions would drastically affect the estimation of PfPR₂₋₁₀. However, if we assume that other variables are the same in the various scenarios, we could extract the difference among the impacts of temperature change in different periods. The difference between the two temperature scenarios is calculated as follows:

$$\Delta PfPR_{it} = S2PfPR_{it} - S1PfPR_{it} \quad (15)$$

where $\Delta PfPR_{it}$ denotes the difference between the estimation of PfPR₂₋₁₀ with the different temperature scenarios in the grid i during the period t , $S1PfPR_{it}$ denotes the estimation of PfPR₂₋₁₀ based on the temperature scenario $S1$ in the grid i during the period t , and $S2PfPR_{it}$ denotes the estimation of PfPR₂₋₁₀ based on the temperature scenario $S2$

239 in the grid i during the period t . We hope to obtain the impacts of the higher greenhouse
 240 gas emission on PfPR₂₋₁₀, so the SSP1-2.6 scenario is always set as the temperature
 241 scenario $S1$ and the temperature scenario $S2$ is one of the other three scenarios, including
 242 SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5.

243 To estimate $S1PfPR_{it}$ and $S2PfPR_{it}$, we expand **Equation 3** as follows:

$$S1PfPR_{it} = \beta_{1i}TeS1'_{it} + \beta_{2i}TeS1^{2'}_{it} + \beta_{3i}TSDS1'_{it} + \beta_{4i}NDVI'_{it} \quad (16)$$

$$+ \beta_{5i}POP'_{it} + \beta_{6i}GDP'_{it} + \alpha_i$$

$$S2PfPR_{it} = \beta_{1i}TeS2'_{it} + \beta_{2i}TeS2^{2'}_{it} + \beta_{3i}TSDS2'_{it} + \beta_{4i}NDVI'_{it} \quad (17)$$

$$+ \beta_{5i}POP'_{it} + \beta_{6i}GDP'_{it} + \alpha_i$$

244 where β_{1i} , β_{2i} , β_{3i} , β_{4i} , β_{5i} , and β_{6i} are parts of the estimated GWPR parameters β_i
 245 from **Equation 10**, $TeS1_{it}$ denotes the stimulated annual average temperature under
 246 SSP1-2.6 scenario in the grid i during the period t , $TSDS1_{it}$ denotes the standard
 247 deviation of stimulated monthly average temperature under SSP1-2.6 scenario in the grid
 248 i during the period t , $TeS2_{it}$ denotes the stimulated annual average temperature under
 249 another scenario in the grid i during the period t , $TSDS2_{it}$ denotes the standard deviation
 250 of stimulated monthly average temperature under another scenario in the grid i during the
 251 period t , and $NDVI_{it}$, POP_{it} , and GDP_{it} denote the NDVI, population density, and GDP
 252 per capita in the grid i during the period t , respectively.

253 In view of **Equation 16** and **17**, **Equation 15** is rewritten and simplified as follows:

$$\Delta PfPR_{it} = \beta_{1i}(TeS2_{it} - TeS1_{it})' + \beta_{2i}(TeS2^2_{it} - TeS1^2_{it})' \quad (18)$$

$$+ \beta_{3i}(TSDS2_{it} - TSDS1_{it})'$$

254

Results

The R^2 of the GWPR model is 94.75%, indicating the high accuracy of the estimation. The outcomes of 10-fold cross validation are listed in **Table S1**. In the 10-fold cross validation, the R^2 s of the training and testing data sets are over 94%, which hints at the model's stability. Besides, the RMSEs, MEAs, α s, β s, and r s are close to their ideal values, further proposing the high reliability of the estimated impacts of temperature change on PfPR₂₋₁₀.

Figure S3-S5 illustrate the difference between the estimation of PfPR₂₋₁₀ with the different temperature scenarios during 2041 – 2060, including the difference between SSP2.4-5 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2021-2040}^{SSP245-SSP126}$), the difference between SSP3.7-0 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2021-2040}^{SSP370-SSP126}$), and the difference between SSP5.8-5 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2021-2040}^{SSP585-SSP126}$). **Figure S6** demonstrates the statistical distribution of $\Delta PfPR_{2021-2040}^{SSP245-SSP126}$, assuming that all conditions are the same except temperatures. The higher temperature scenario SSP2-4.5 positively impacts the malaria infection rate in many grids, resulting in a potential fall in PfPR₂₋₁₀ during 2041 - 2060. Nevertheless, most grids show an increasing trend. Manifest in Africa, the rising trends in Congo (CD), Central African Republic (CF), Cameroun (CM), Burkina Faso (BF), Nigeria (NG), etc., mark the adverse effects of climate change. Since the difference of temperature change between SSP2-4.5 and SSP1-2.6 is tiny, the impacts of climate change are not potent, but they appear the worst malaria-affected areas (**Figure S1**). According to **Figures S7** and **S8** that illuminate the statistical distributions of $\Delta PfPR_{2021-2040}^{SSP370-SSP126}$ and $\Delta PfPR_{2021-2040}^{SSP585-SSP126}$, respectively, the influences of climate change shift partially. In **Figure S7**, the impacts of temperature change from SSP1-2.6 to SSP3-7.0 on PfPR₂₋₁₀ range from -1.68% to 2.66%,

and the grid number of positive impacts outstrips the number of grids with negative effects. **Figure S8**'s distribution is similar to **Figure S7**'s. Moreover, we compare the geographical distributions of average PfPR₂₋₁₀ and temperature change's impacts. Notably, CD, CF, CM, BF, and NG are the worst hit by malaria in the past 20 years, compared with other countries. Worse, they might face the most harmful impacts of climate change on the malaria infection rates during 2021 - 2040.

With further increase in temperature during 2041-2060, the distribution and intention of negative impacts shift. **Figure S9-S11** show the difference between SSP2.4-5 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP245-SSP126}$), the difference between SSP3.7-0 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP370-SSP126}$), and the difference between SSP5.8-5 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP585-SSP126}$) during 2041 – 2060. $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP245-SSP126}$ becomes minus in most areas of CD, CF, CM, BF, and NG. The positive impacts of the increase in temperature on PfPR₂₋₁₀ also rise, according to $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP370-SSP126}$ and $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP585-SSP126}$ because in SSP3.7-0 and SSP5.8-5, the predicted temperatures are higher than the scenario SSP2.4-5. The negative impacts mainly appear in Gabon (GA), Angola (AO), and Zambia (ZM), which are at the boundaries of high malaria-affected regions. The possible result of climate change, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, is that the increase in temperature would spur the high-risk area to spread to the higher latitude regions and coastlines. Moreover, the original high-risk areas are no longer suitable for human living, owing to extreme temperatures. **Figure S12-S14** demonstrate the statistical distribution of $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP245-SSP126}$, $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP370-SSP126}$, and $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP585-SSP126}$, respectively. Compared with differences among the scenarios during 2021- 2040, the values of $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP245-SSP126}$, $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP370-SSP126}$, and $\Delta PfPR_{2041-2060}^{SSP585-SSP126}$ are absolutely

larger. Moreover, the impacts of the increase in temperature are positive in most grids of Africa, Asia, and South America.

By the end of the 21st century, the four scenarios end in different temperature predictions. **Figure S15-S17** demonstrate the difference between SSP2.4-5 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP245-SSP126}$), the difference between SSP3.7-0 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP370-SSP126}$), and the difference between SSP5.8-5 and SSP1-2.6 ($\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP585-SSP126}$) during 2081 – 2100. Because the difference of temperatures of the four scenarios becomes more significant, the impacts of temperature change on PfPR₂₋₁₀ are intensified. The spatial distributions of $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP245-SSP126}$, $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP370-SSP126}$, and $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP585-SSP126}$ are similar to the situation of $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP585-SSP126}$, but the values of the difference become larger during 2080 – 2100. **Figure S18-S20** propose the statistical distribution of $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP245-SSP126}$, $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP370-SSP126}$, and $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP585-SSP126}$. In fact, $\Delta PfPR_{2081-2100}^{SSP585-SSP126}$ ranges -77.20% to 101.54%.

Figure S21 illustrates the shapes of the relationship between annual average temperature and PfPR₂₋₁₀ in each grid. The basic shapes of the relationship are two types, specifically, U-shape and inverted U-shape. The coefficient of temperature square term decides the basic shape of the relationship. Additionally, together with the coefficient of temperature term, the symmetry lines of the relationship of each grid can be pinned down. In **Figure S21**, we set the interested temperature range from 0°C to 50°C. If the symmetry lines of the relationships of some grids do not belong to the interested range, we consider those relationships are either monotonically decreasing or monotonically increasing in the range, mathematically. Therefore, the other four shapes are derived from the basic types, including increase based on inverted U-shape (Increase Inverted U), decrease based on U-

shape (Decrease U), decrease based on inverted U-shape (Decrease Inverted U), and increase based on U-shape (Increase U). Previous studies generally put forward that the relationship in national or regional levels is inverted U-shape, and the temperature impacts would peak at a specific temperature. However, the relationship at the grid level is obviously more complicated and various. Hence, we must treat the impacts of climate change carefully. Although we accept the assumption that the relationship between temperature and malaria infection rates is non-linear, we did not force to set the malaria-transmission peaking temperature to 25°C or other values, as the previous studies mentioned^{4,6}. In our results, most grids' transmission peaking temperatures are not 25°C. We employ the annual average temperature to probe the relationship, whereas previous studies use laboratory environments and real-time or shorter-term temperatures. As we have mentioned before, even though the annual average temperature is 25°C, how many days and hours are at that temperature remains unknown. For this reason, in many grids, the transmission peaking temperatures are not 25°C. The shapes in each grid are even different, though either U-shape or inverted U-shape. Furthermore, real-world environments are significantly more complex than laboratory environments. The ignored factors by the laboratory environments are also related to the malaria-transmission peaking temperature. These ignored variables lead to the difference in the transmission peaking temperatures between our result and previous studies.

Figure:

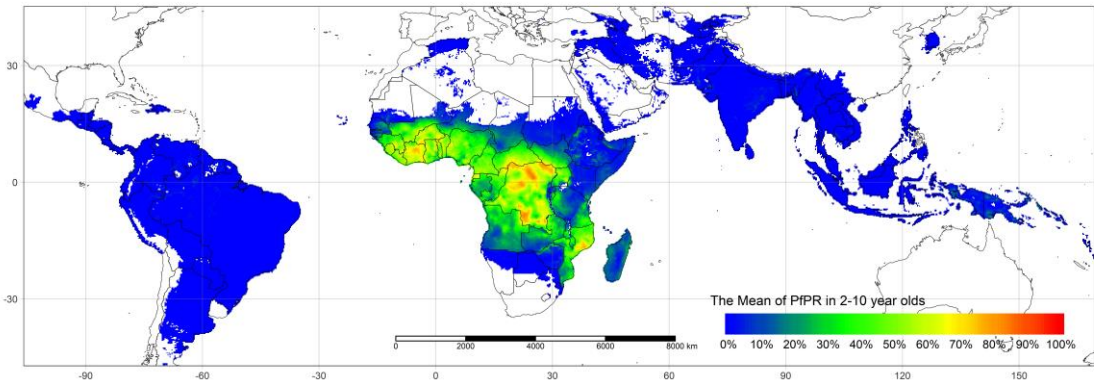


Figure S1: The mean of PfPR₂₋₁₀ from 2000 to 2019

(Note: if the PfPR₂₋₁₀ in a grid is always 0 from 2000 to 2019, the grids are blank)

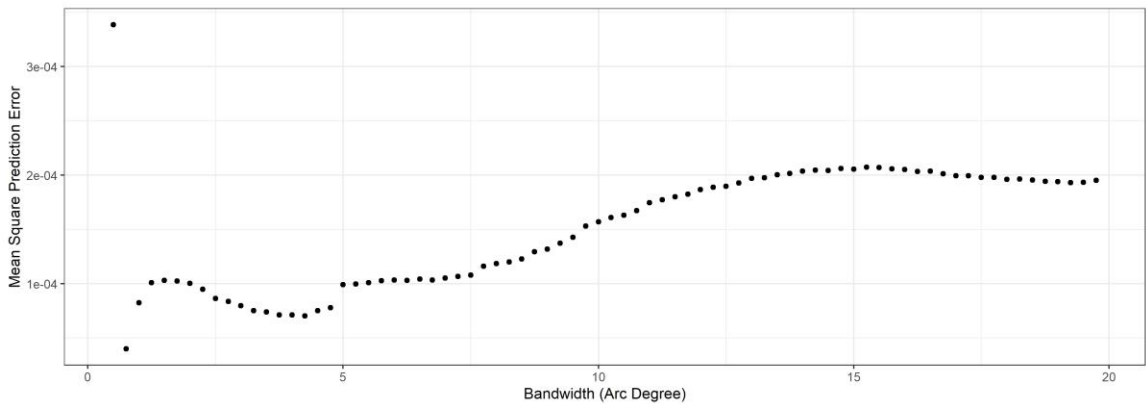
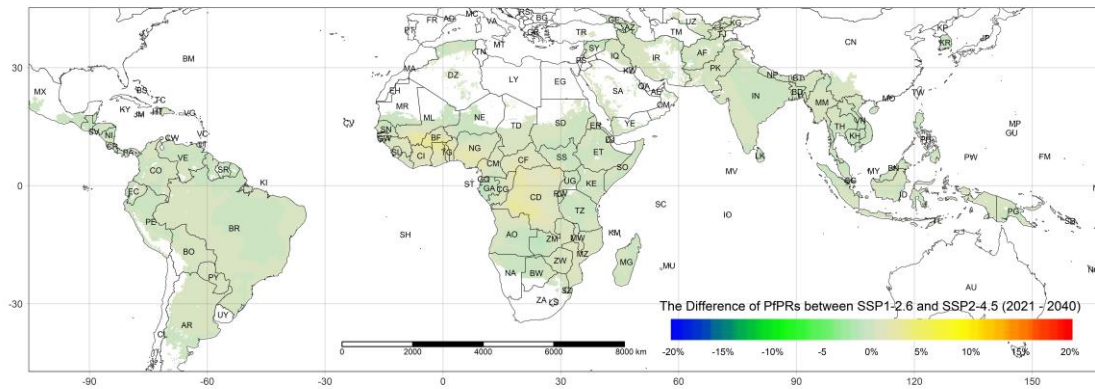
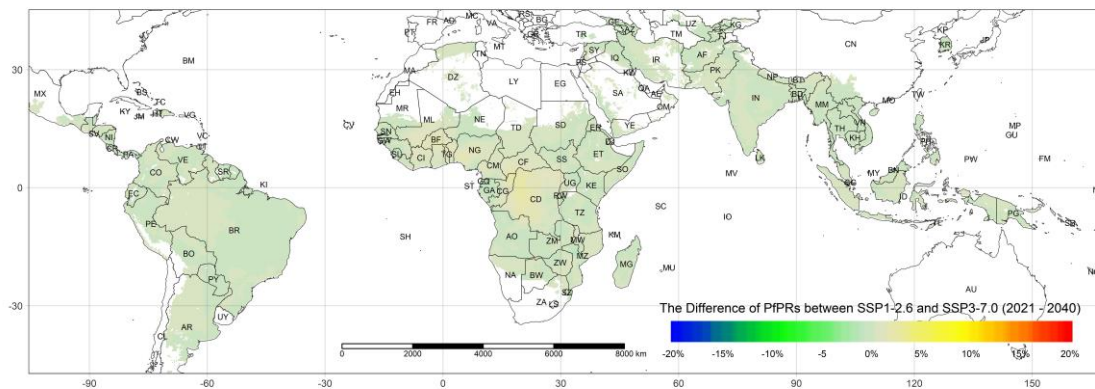


Figure S2: Step Increment Bandwidth Selection



351

352 **Figure S3: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (2041 - 2060)**



353

354 **Figure S4: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0 (2041 - 2060)**

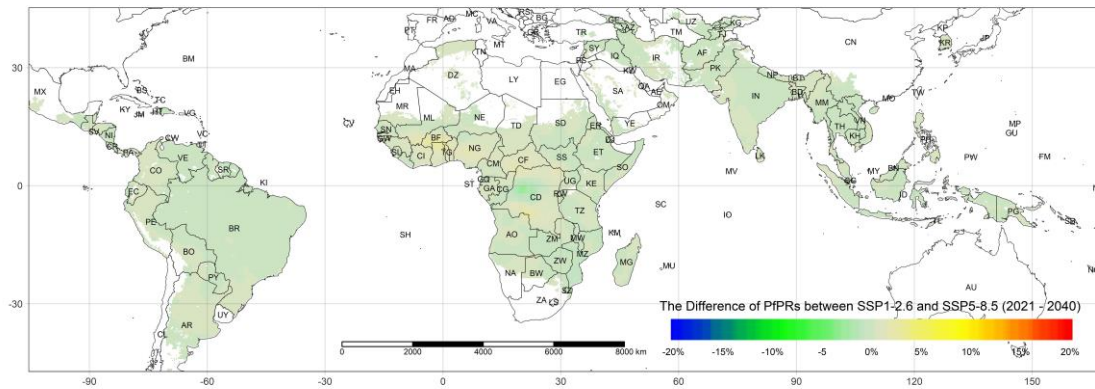


Figure S5: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (2041 - 2060)

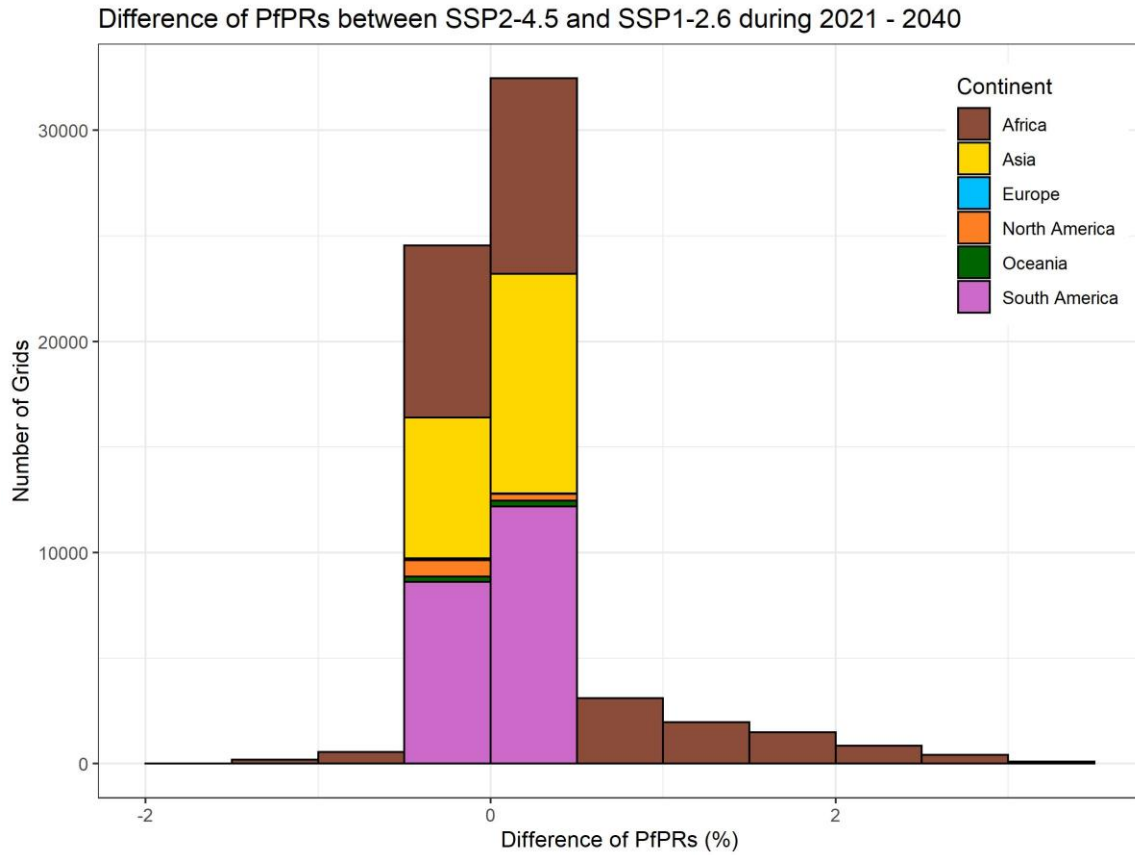


Figure S6: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (2041 - 2060)

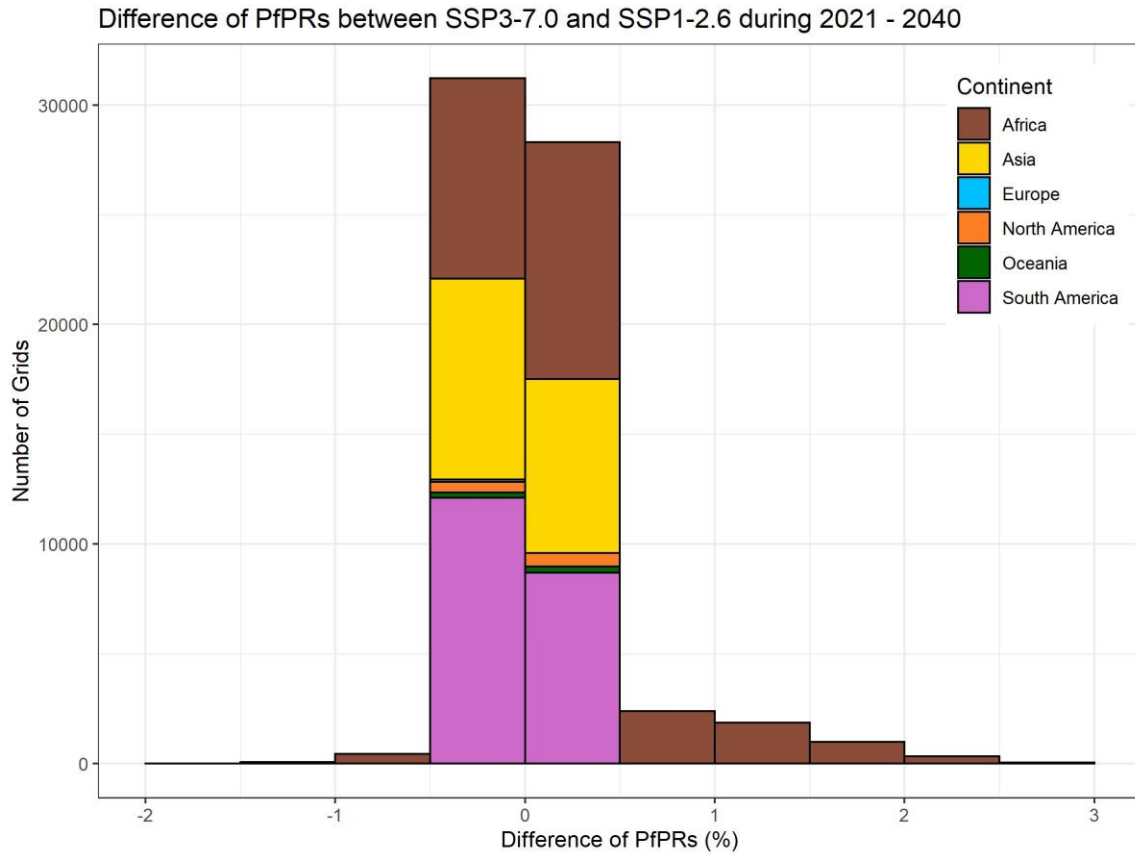


Figure S7: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0 (2041 - 2060)

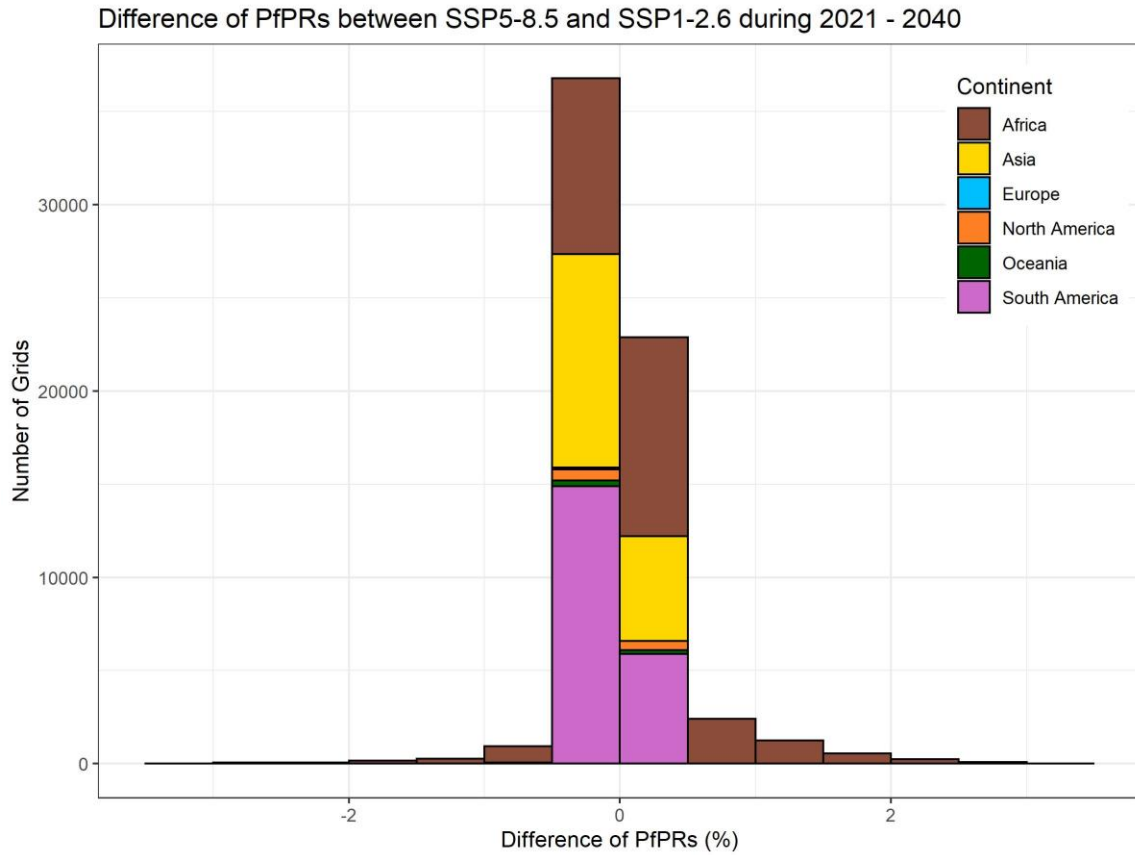


Figure S8: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (2041 - 2060)

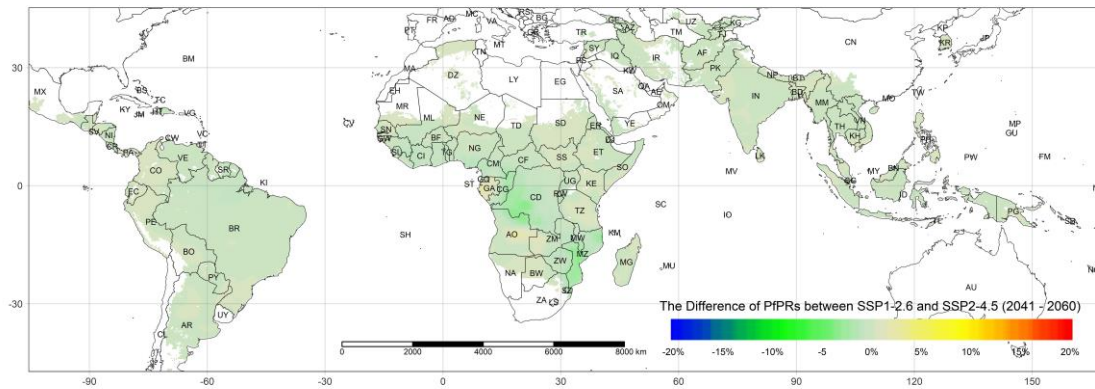


Figure S9: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (2061 - 2080)

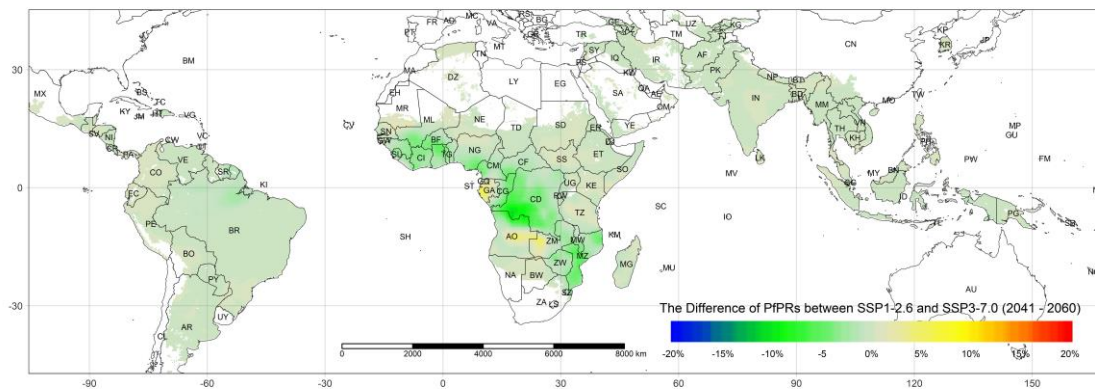


Figure S10: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0 (2061 - 2080)

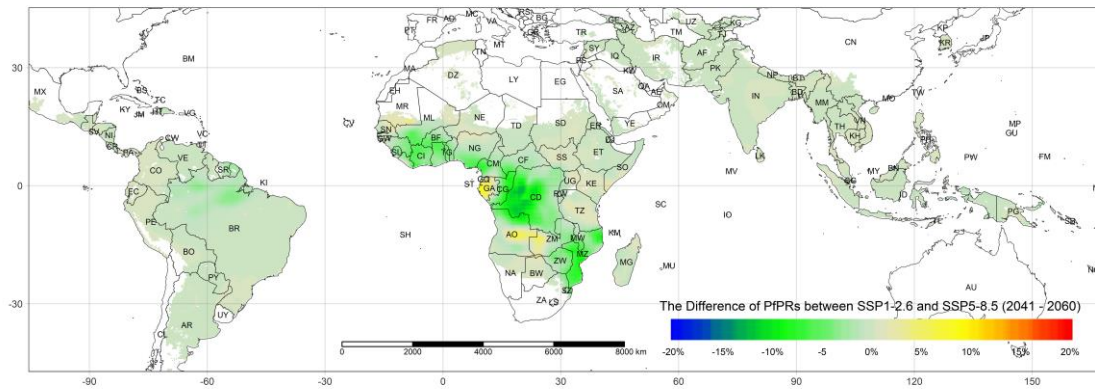


Figure S11: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (2061 - 2080)

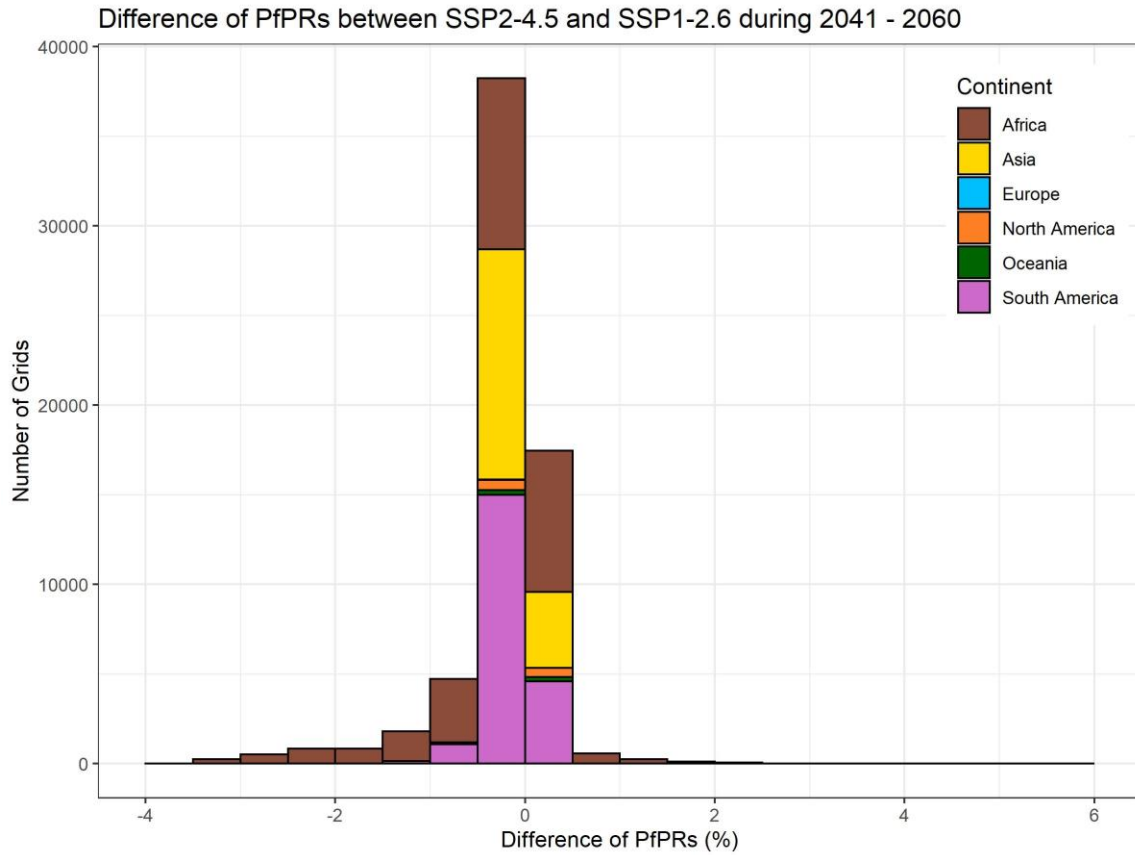


Figure S12: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (2061 - 2080)

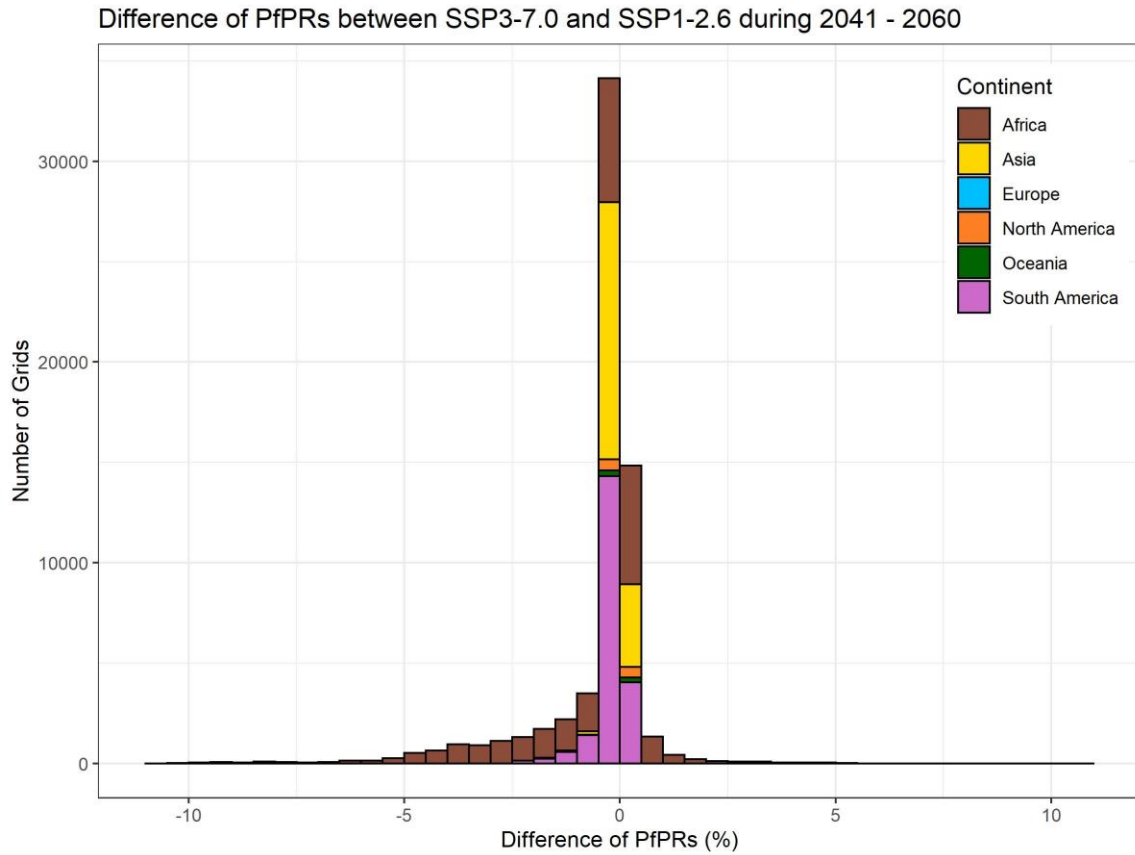


Figure S13: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0 (2061 - 2080)

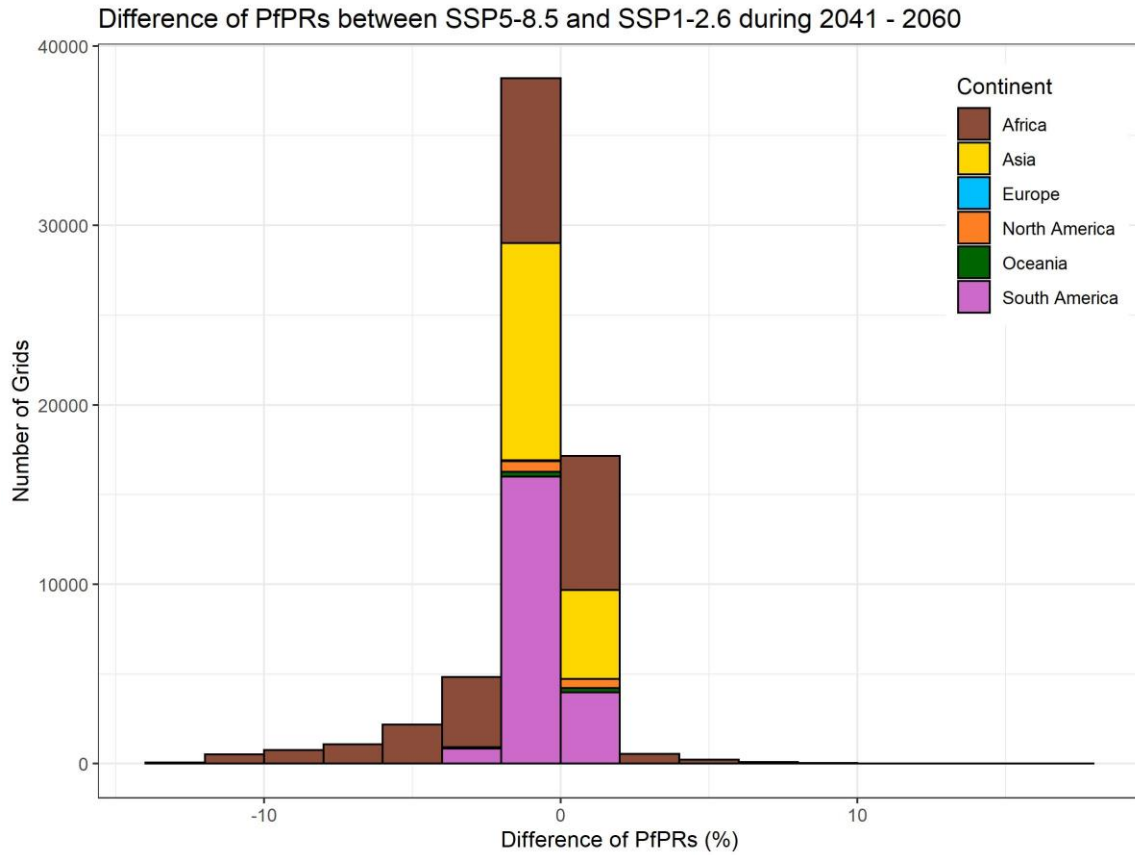
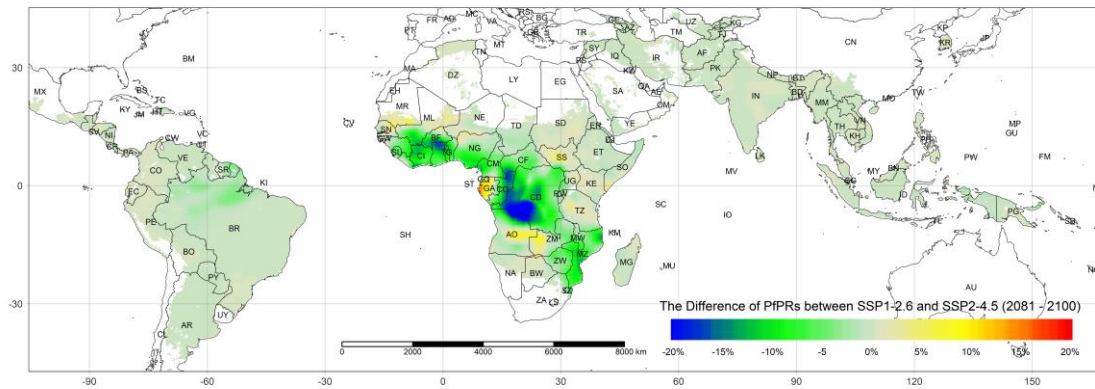
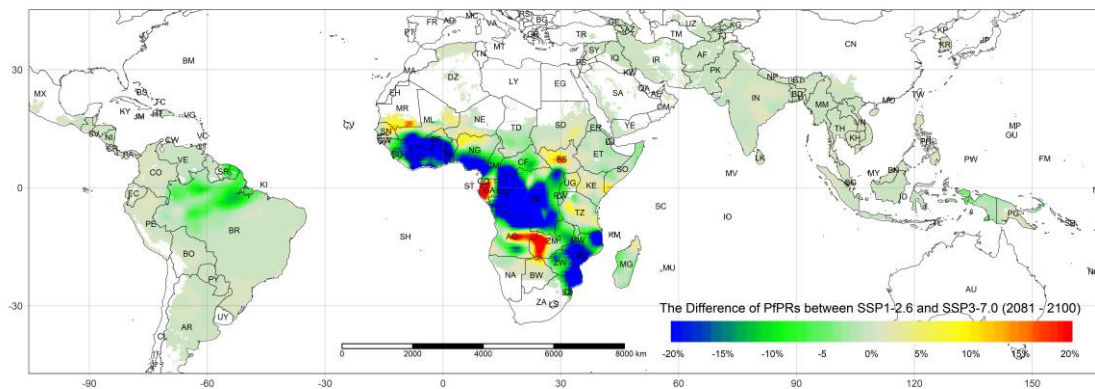


Figure S14: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (2061 - 2080)



391

392 **Figure S15: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (2081 - 2100)**



393

394 **Figure S16: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0 (2081 - 2100)**

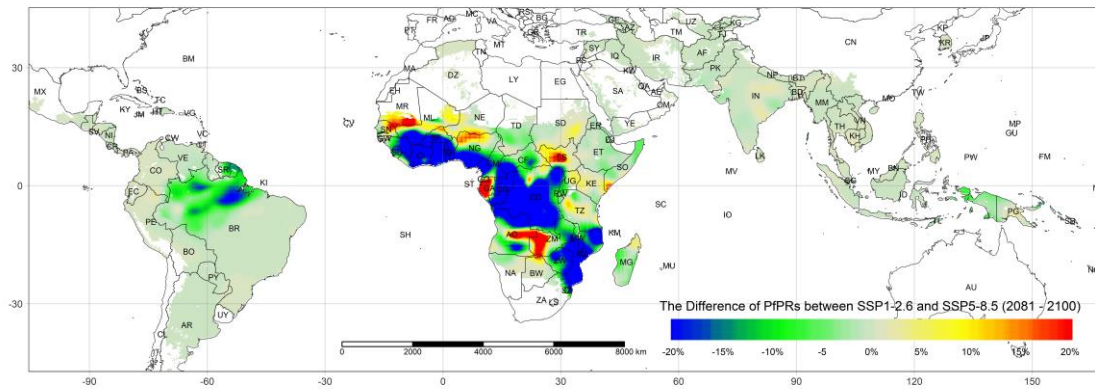


Figure S17: The Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (2081 - 2100)

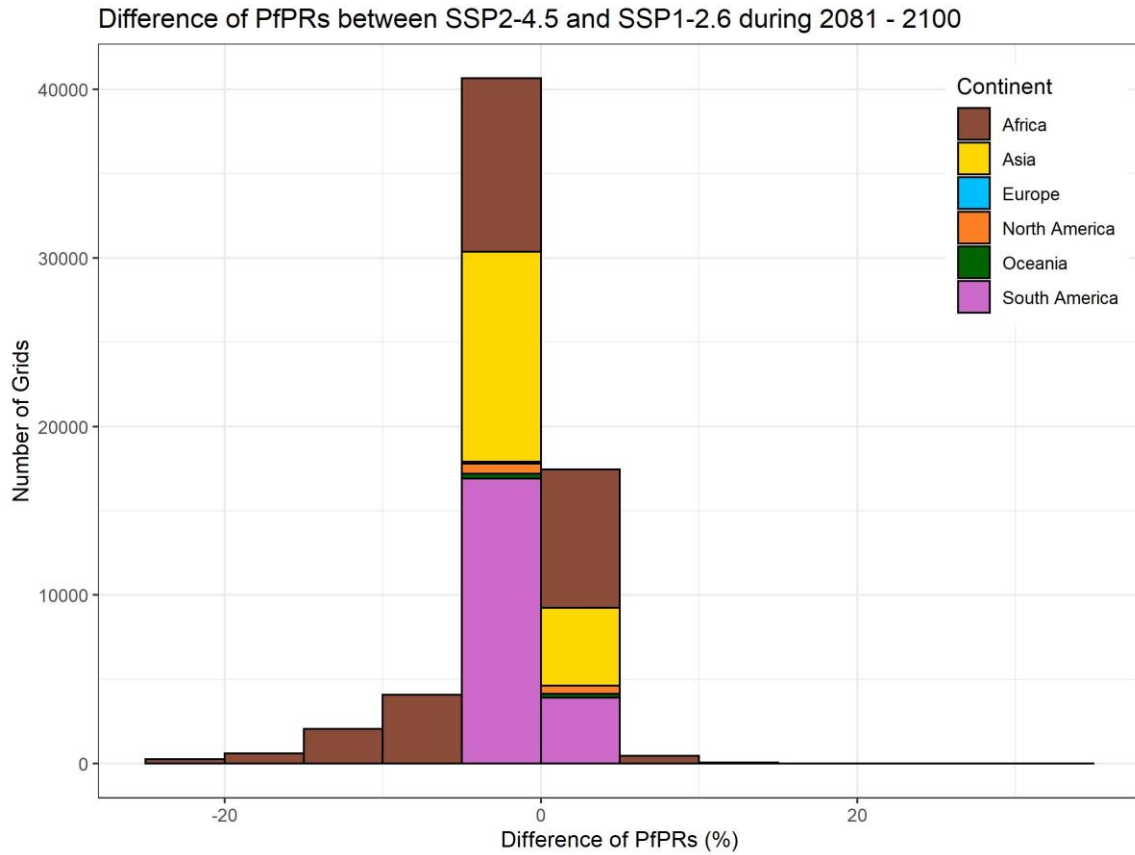


Figure S18: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (2081 - 2100)

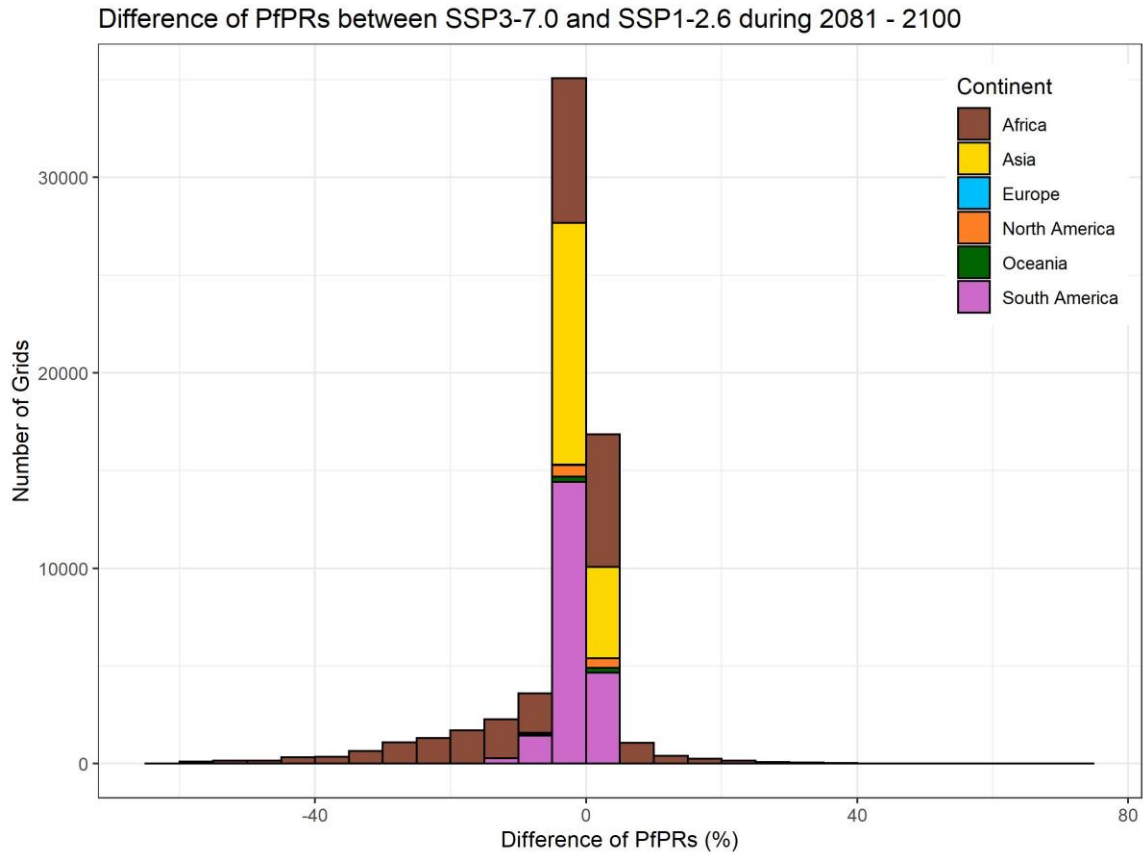


Figure S19: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0 (2081 - 2100)

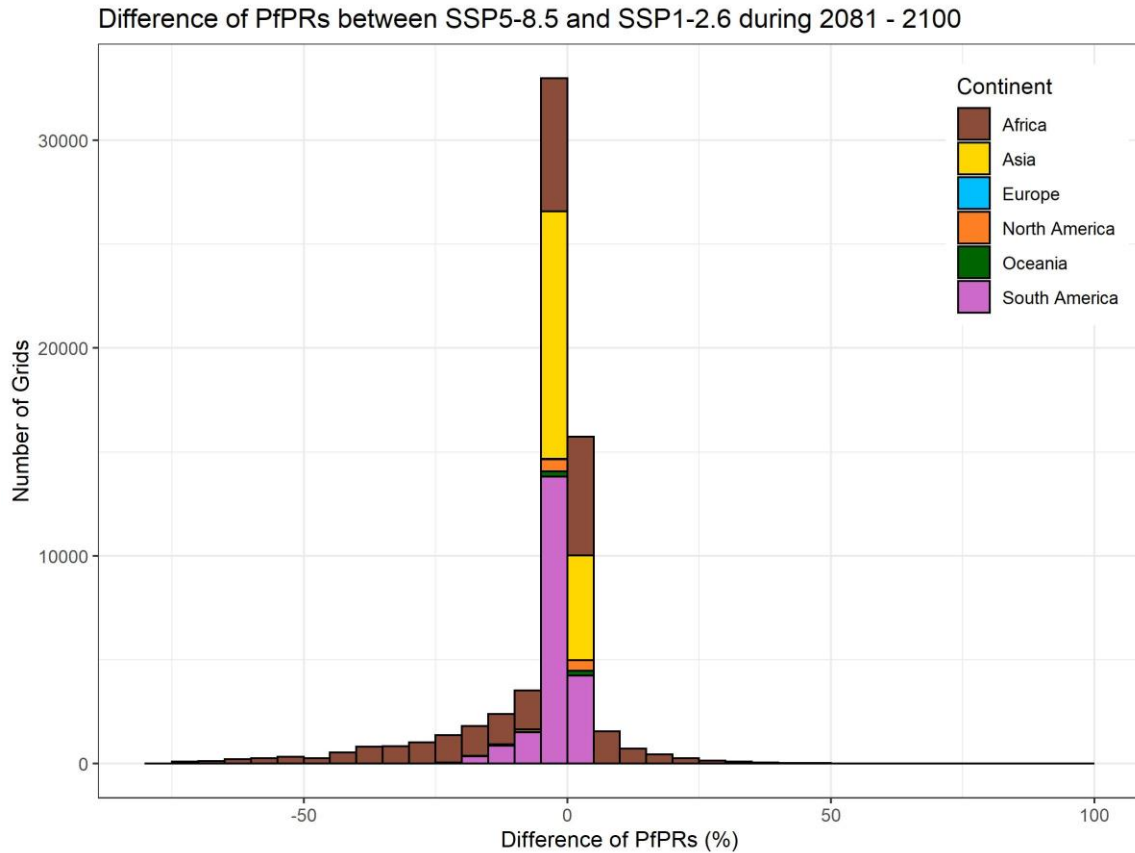


Figure S20: The Distribution of the Difference of PfPR₂₋₁₀ between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (2081 - 2100)

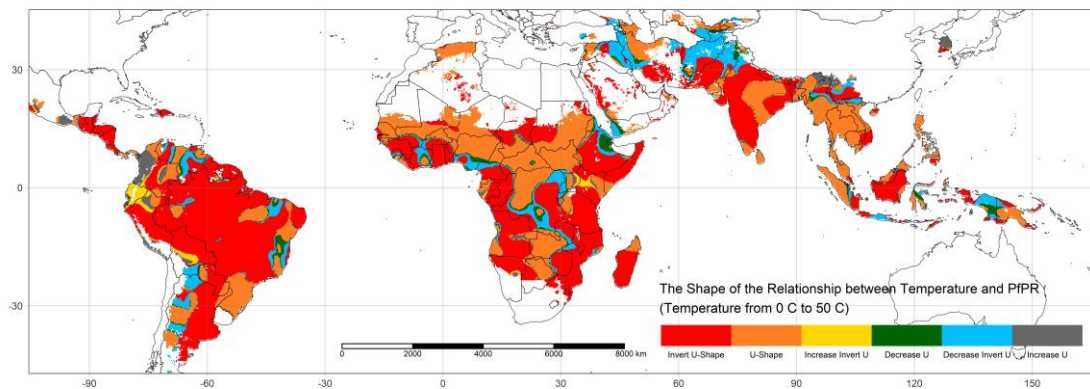


Figure S21: The Shape of Relationship between Temperature and PfPR₂₋₁₀

Table S1: Statistical Indicators Summary of 10-Fold Cross Validation

Statistical Indicator of Testing								Statistical Indicator of Training						
	N	R ²	RMSE(%)	MAE(%)	α	β	r	N	R ²	RMSE(%)	MAE(%)	α	β	r
1	1158867	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973	128763	94.67%	4.49%	1.95%	0.006	0.944	0.973
2	1158867	94.74%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973	128763	94.78%	4.44%	1.93%	0.006	0.943	0.974
3	1158867	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.943	0.973	128763	94.72%	4.44%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973
4	1158867	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973	128763	94.76%	4.46%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973
5	1158867	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.943	0.973	128763	94.69%	4.46%	1.94%	0.006	0.945	0.973
6	1158867	94.74%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.943	0.973	128763	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.945	0.973
7	1158867	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973	128763	94.65%	4.48%	1.94%	0.006	0.942	0.973
8	1158867	94.74%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973	128763	94.82%	4.45%	1.95%	0.006	0.943	0.974
9	1158867	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.943	0.973	128763	94.73%	4.46%	1.93%	0.006	0.945	0.973
10	1158867	94.74%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.944	0.973	128763	94.75%	4.45%	1.94%	0.006	0.942	0.973

Note: The Ideal value of β is 1, and the ideal value of α is 0. When the values of statistical indicators are close between training results and testing result, the predictions of model are reliable.

413 Reference:

- 414 1. Bhatt S, Weiss DJ, Cameron E, et al. The effect of malaria control on *Plasmodium*
415 *falciparum* in Africa between 2000 and 2015. *Nature* 2015; **526**(7572): 207-11.
- 416 2. Rodell M, Houser PR, Jambor U, et al. The Global Land Data Assimilation System.
417 *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society* 2004; **85**(3): 381-94.
- 418 3. Mordecai EA, Ryan SJ, Caldwell JM, Shah MM, Labeaud AD. Climate change
419 could shift disease burden from malaria to arboviruses in Africa. *The Lancet Planetary*
420 *Health* 2020; **4**(9): e416-e23.
- 421 4. Mordecai EA, Paaijmans KP, Johnson LR, et al. Optimal temperature for malaria
422 transmission is dramatically lower than previously predicted. *Ecology Letters* 2013; **16**(1):
423 22-30.
- 424 5. Mordecai EA, Caldwell JM, Grossman MK, et al. Thermal biology of mosquito-
425 borne disease. *Ecology Letters* 2019; **22**(10): 1690-708.
- 426 6. Johnson LR, Ben-Horin T, Lafferty KD, et al. Understanding uncertainty in
427 temperature effects on vector-borne disease: a Bayesian approach. *Ecology* 2015; **96**(1):
428 203-13.
- 429 7. Lourenço PM, Sousa CA, Seixas J, Lopes P, Novo MT, Almeida APG. *Anopheles*
430 *atroparvus* density modeling using MODIS NDVI in a former malarious area in Portugal.
431 *Journal of Vector Ecology* 2011; **36**(2): 279-91.
- 432 8. Reiner RC, Geary M, Atkinson PM, Smith DL, Gething PW. Seasonality of
433 *Plasmodium falciparum* transmission: a systematic review. *Malaria Journal* 2015; **14**(1).
- 434 9. Bruguera S, Fernández-Martínez B, Martínez-De La Puente J, et al. Environmental
435 drivers, climate change and emergent diseases transmitted by mosquitoes and their vectors
436 in southern Europe: A systematic review. *Environ Res* 2020; **191**: 110038.
- 437 10. Amadi JA, Olago DO, Ong'Amo GO, et al. Sensitivity of vegetation to climate
438 variability and its implications for malaria risk in Baringo, Kenya. *PLoS One* 2018; **13**(7):
439 e0199357.
- 440 11. Midekisa A, Senay G, Henebry GM, Semuniguse P, Wimberly MC. Remote
441 sensing-based time series models for malaria early warning in the highlands of Ethiopia.
442 *Malaria Journal* 2012; **11**(1): 165.
- 443 12. Didan K, Munoz AB, Solano R, Huete A, University of Arizona: Vegetation Index
444 Phenology Lab. MODIS vegetation index user's guide (MOD13 series). 2015.
- 445 13. Sorichetta A, Hornby GM, Stevens FR, Gaughan AE, Linard C, Tatem AJ. High-
446 resolution gridded population datasets for Latin America and the Caribbean in 2010, 2015,
447 and 2020. *Scientific Data* 2015; **2**(1): 150045.
- 448 14. Linard C, Gilbert M, Snow RW, Noor AM, Tatem AJ. Population Distribution,
449 Settlement Patterns and Accessibility across Africa in 2010. *PLoS One* 2012; **7**(2): e31743.
- 450 15. World Health Organization. World malaria report 2021, 2021.
- 451 16. IPCC. Climate change 2022: impacts, adaptation and vulnerability, 2022.
- 452 17. IPCC. Climate change 2014 synthesis report. Geneva, Switzerland: IPCC, 2014.
- 453 18. Rogers DJ, Randolph SE. Climate Change and Vector-Borne Diseases. In: Hay SI,
454 Graham A, Rogers DJ, eds. *Advances in Parasitology*: Academic Press; 2006: 345-81.

19. Altizer S, Ostfeld Richard S, Johnson Pieter TJ, Kutz S, Harvell CD. Climate Change and Infectious Diseases: From Evidence to a Predictive Framework. *Science* 2013; **341**(6145): 514-9.
20. Buchwald AG, Hayden MH, Dadzie SK, Paull SH, Carlton EJ. Aedes-borne disease outbreaks in West Africa: A call for enhanced surveillance. *Acta Tropica* 2020; **209**: 105468.
21. Nyaruaba R, Mwaliko C, Mwau M, Mousa S, Wei H. Arboviruses in the East African Community partner states: a review of medically important mosquito-borne Arboviruses. *Pathogens and Global Health* 2019; **113**(5): 209-28.
22. Brunson C, Fotheringham S, Charlton M. Geographically Weighted Regression. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series D (The Statistician)* 1998; **47**(3): 431-43.
23. Fotheringham A, Brunson C, Charlton M. Geographically Weighted Regression: The Analysis of Spatially Varying Relationships: John Wiley & Sons; 2002.
24. Croissant Y, Milla G. Panel Data Econometrics in R: The plm Package. *J Stat Softw* 2008; **27**(2).
25. Breusch TS, Pagan AR. The Lagrange Multiplier Test and its Applications to Model Specification in Econometrics. *The Review of Economic Studies* 1980; **47**(1): 239.
26. Kang S. A note on the equivalence of specification tests in the two-factor multivariate variance components model. *Journal of Econometrics* 1985; **28**(2): 193-203.
27. Giesen C, Roche J, Redondo-Bravo L, et al. The impact of climate change on mosquito-borne diseases in Africa. *Pathogens and Global Health* 2020; **114**(6): 287-301.
28. Kulkarni MA, Duguay C, Ost K. Charting the evidence for climate change impacts on the global spread of malaria and dengue and adaptive responses: a scoping review of reviews. *Globalization and Health* 2022; **18**(1).
29. Brunson C, Fotheringham AS, Charlton ME. Geographically Weighted Regression: A Method for Exploring Spatial Nonstationarity. *Geographical Analysis* 2010; **28**(4): 281-98.
30. Fotheringham AS, Oshan TM. Geographically weighted regression and multicollinearity: dispelling the myth. *Journal of Geographical Systems* 2016; **18**(4): 303-29.
31. Beenstock M, Felsenstein D. The econometric analysis of non-stationary spatial panel data: Springer; 2019.
32. Gollini I, Lu B, Charlton M, Brunson C, Harris P. GWmodel: An R package for exploring spatial heterogeneity using geographically weighted models. *J Stat Softw* 2015; **63**(17).