

Appendices

A Stock and Flow Methods

A.1 Background

The goal of the stock and flow model is to estimate ITN crop and access over time at the national level from 2000 to 2020 for 40 sub-Saharan African countries. The model triangulates and ensures consistency between three data sources: reports from net manufacturers about how many ITNs were delivered to national programs, reports from national programs about how many ITNs were distributed to households, and data extracted from household surveys about how many ITNs were found in houses. The first two data sources are annual; the third is cross-sectional and was observed between one and ten times in each country across the time period of interest.

The difficulty of estimating ITN crop from surveys alone, and the utility of a mechanistic model for incorporating added information from delivery and distribution data, was first introduced by Flaxman et al. in 2010 [1]. This paper established the fundamental framework for a “stock and flow” model of tracking net crop in a given country over time, but was constrained by several limitations. First, net crop was estimated with an annual time step, diluting the 3-4 month time span captured by any nationally representative survey and yielding relatively coarse estimates of net crop over time. Second, rates of net loss were estimated separately in the first, second, and third years of net life, with all nets presumed discarded by the end of three years – a parameterization which makes description of net retention difficult and which may ignore long-term net ownership. Third, the model reported “coverage” in units of “household ownership of at least one ITN” and “ITN use in children under 5”, neither of which are currently recommended as evaluation metrics (though both are still often reported and used for policy decisions).

In 2015, Bhatt et al. [2] published an improved version of the stock and flow model featuring a quarterly time step, a smooth-compact loss function for ITN retention, and the explicit calculation of five different ITN metrics, including household ownership, household access, population access, population use, and the “ownership gap”. Limitations of this model included unrealistically high coverage estimates in countries with no available survey data (most notably South

Sudan). Additionally, while the decisions to use splines for missing NMCP data imputation and fit two time-varying parameters for the net loss function added an immense amount of flexibility to the model, it concurrently called into question the identifiability of the parameters being fit.

Neither the Flaxman nor Bhatt models reported on several quality assurance metrics that are now standard. First, although the number of surveys available for model fitting differs drastically from country to country (from zero to five in Flaxman’s models and zero to nine in Bhatt’s), the sensitivity of model fit to survey inclusion is not reported with either model. Second, while both models published extensive documentation, neither group published their code or otherwise made the details of their analysis available for external review or replication.

The present analysis substantially updates and refines the Bhatt model, including:

- Simplified imputation and loss function parameterization to improve identifiability;
- Sensitivity analysis on survey inclusion ([Appendix A.6](#));
- Updated survey data across the full time series, including previously overlooked surveys from Ethiopia, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe;
- A fully refactored, [publicly available](#) codebase with Google Cloud functionality.

The only other mechanistic model of national-level ITN crop known to the authors is NetCALC (<https://www.vector-works.org/resources/netcalc-planning-tool/>), a publicly-available spreadsheet-based model designed to assist countries with net procurement calculations. NetCALC is widely used by national programs and net durability studies [3–6], but is not designed for the type of historical analysis or spatial disaggregation required here.

A.2 Definitions: ITN, LLIN, cITN, Access, Household Size

A.2.1 Net Types

Pre-treated nets whose insecticide is designed to last for at least three years are defined as “LLINs”. Treated nets obtained, or re-soaked with insecticide, within

the past 12 months are defined as conventional ITNs, or “cITNs”. LLINs and cITNs collectively comprise “ITNs”, or simply “nets”, as untreated nets do not enter into this analysis.

65 **A.2.2 Net Movement**

ITN “delivery” refers to manufacturer shipment of nets to national programs or other distributing bodies, while ITN “distribution” refers to the provision of nets to homes. Most countries have continuous ITN distribution channels through antenatal clinics, child immunization programs, and schools, which are supplemented
70 every 3-4 years with mass distribution campaigns directly to family homes. ITN “stock” refers to the number of nets available to distribute at a given time. Because national programs may not immediately distribute all of the nets delivered to them, stock in a given year is not necessarily equal to the manufacturer delivery count.

75 ITN “crop” refers to the total number of nets in homes in a country at a given time point. Crop depends upon both ITN distribution and ITN “retention”, the length of time for which nets are owned before being discarded. The WHO recommends mass net distributions every three years under the assumption that average retention times are not much shorter than this.

80 **A.2.3 Household Size**

For surveys with data available at the household level, “household size” refers to the number of people who slept in the household the night prior to the survey. For the 33 surveys for which only aggregated measures were available, “mean household size” references the survey-specific definition of the term.

85 **A.2.4 Net Access**

A person is defined to have “access” to an ITN if they live in a household where they can sleep under an ITN, assuming two people per net per night. Population-level access is the fraction of people with access. To avoid underestimating this metric, access is calculated at the individual level— i.e. in a household of ten people and
90 three nets, six people will be defined as “having access” even though the household as a unit does not have sufficient access for all its inhabitants. Access is calculated

from surveys that either count the number of nets in homes or that ask household heads how many nets they own.

A.3 Data sources

95 A.3.1 Net Stock: LLIN Manufacturer Reports

Net stock data were obtained from the Alliance for Malaria Prevention’s (AMP) Net Mapping Project (<https://netmappingproject.allianceformalariaprevention.com/>) via WHO (private correspondence), and represent the number of LLINs delivered by manufacturers to countries annually from 2000 to 2019. This source
100 includes LLINs donated by Global Fund, the President’s Malaria Initiative (PMI), UNICEF, the Against Malaria Foundation (AMF), World Bank, UNITAID, the UK Department for International Development (DfID), the Canadian International Development Agency, private sales, and other sources. These data come directly to AMP from all WHO-approved net manufacturers, and are thus assumed to be
105 highly complete. Data were not available for LLINs in 2020 and do not include cITNs at all, so for these cases the number of nets delivered was assumed to equal the number of nets distributed (see below).

110 A.3.2 Net Distribution: National Malaria Control Programs, the African Leaders Malaria Alliance, and the President’s Malaria Initiative Malaria Operational Plans

The following data sources were available for ITN distributions at the national level:

- National Malaria Control Programs (NMCPs), via WHO: Distribution numbers, disaggregated by net type, from 2000 to 2018, with extensive missing
115 values.
- African Leaders Malaria Alliance (ALMA, <https://alma2030.org/>): Mass net distribution numbers from 2016 to 2020. These data contain missing values in country-years without mass campaigns. The 2020 distribution numbers were obtained in late September of 2020, and enumerate both nets
120 already delivered and those projected to be delivered before the end of the year. All nets listed were included in the model as ”delivered”.

- President’s Malaria Initiative Malaria Operational Plans (PMI MOPs, <https://www.pmi.gov/resource-library/mops/fy-2020>): Twenty-four countries in this analysis receive funding from PMI, and therefore publish annual Malaria Operational Plans (MOPs) which include a three-year assessment of retrospective and prospective ITN need and distribution. For example, the 2019 Tanzanian MOP contains ITN distribution counts for 2018, and proposed distributions for 2019, and 2020. Some reports are later supplemented with a revised funding table giving updated distribution estimates. While these reports are generated by PMI, they include estimates of net distributions from other large in-country donors. These are a less reliable resource than NMCP or ALMA data as they are largely prospective, but provide useful information in the absence of other data.

To create a single cohesive time series of net distributions from 2000 to 2019, data from these sources were combined as follows (Figure A.1):

1. From 2000 to 2015, NMCP data were used, with the process of missing value imputation described below.
2. From 2016 to 2020, where available, the higher of the NMCP or ALMA values were used.
3. From 2016 to 2020, where neither NMCP nor ALMA data were available but a PMI MOP was present, the latest available PMI estimate was used.
4. If no data from any source was available in a country-year, the minimum NMCP distribution value from 2014-2018 was used. This value was selected as a proxy for a typical number of routinely-distributed nets in a country-year.

NMCP data prior to 2016 were incomplete and required imputation. Missing values were primarily in country-years where the expected number of nets was zero (i.e. for cITNs after 2013 or LLINs prior to 2007), but some countries had missing values at points in the timeseries when nonzero distributions would be expected.

For years prior to each country’s mass adoption of LLINs or all years for cITNs, missing distribution counts were set to zero. For missing values in other years, the following case-specific strategies were used to estimate a typical number of routinely distributed nets, avoiding mass distributions:

- Chad 2012: Take the minimum of 2010-2013.
- 155 • Cote d'Ivoire 2007-8: Interpolate between 2006 and 2009.
- Cote d'Ivoire 2012: Take the minimum of 2010-2013.
- DRC 2005: Interpolate between 2004 and 2006.
- Mauritania 2007: Interpolate between 2006 and 2008.
- Tanzania 2013-2016: Take values from the most recent available PMI MOPs.
- 160 • Togo 2009: Take the minimum of 2008-2011.

Net distribution counts summarize complex campaigns requiring the coordinated effort of thousands of health workers. As reflected in the variety and missingness of the available data, determining and reporting these values presents numerous logistical challenges. The values presented here may not reflect nets lost
 165 in the process of distribution, or nets acquired through the private market. To reflect this uncertainty, wide priors were placed on ITN distribution counts in the model.

A.3.3 Net Crop: Nationally-Representative Surveys

To obtain data on net crop, ITN ownership and household size indicators were
 170 collated and extracted from 161 nationally-representative household surveys conducted in Sub-Saharan Africa from 2000 to 2019. These included demographic health surveys (DHS), malaria indicator surveys (MIS), multiple indicator cluster surveys (MICS rounds 3, 4, and 5), AIDS indicator surveys (AIS), and one anemia and parasitemia survey (EA&P).

175 Data on the number of nets owned at the household level were available for 128 surveys in 36 countries ([Table A.1](#), [Figure A.2](#)). Of these, most reported net type for every net owned in a household, while some reported net type only on one net per household. For those surveys that reported net type for all nets in the household, the number of ITNs owned was determined by summing ITNs by
 180 type. For those surveys where data on net type was only available for one net per household, the overall survey-level proportion of nets by type (non-ITN, cITN, or LLIN) was determined and multiplied by the number of nets in the surveyed household to estimate the number of LLINs and cITNs owned by each household. These household-level values were aggregated using the appropriate survey weights

Figure A.1:

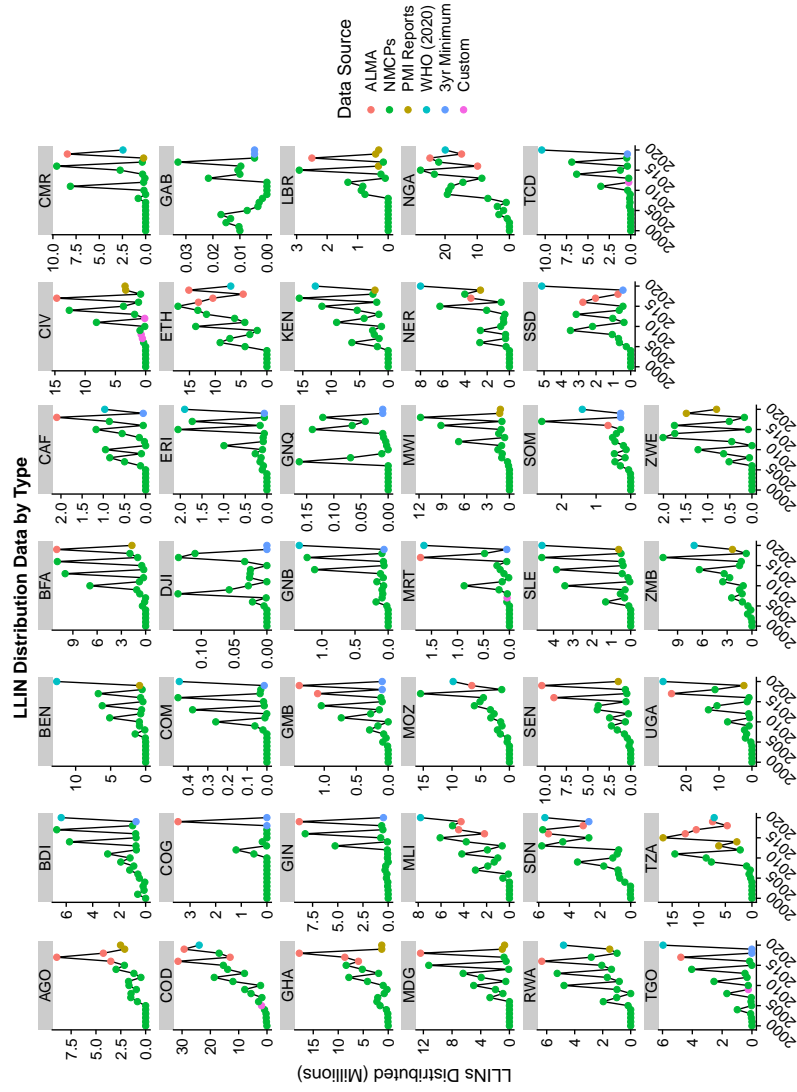
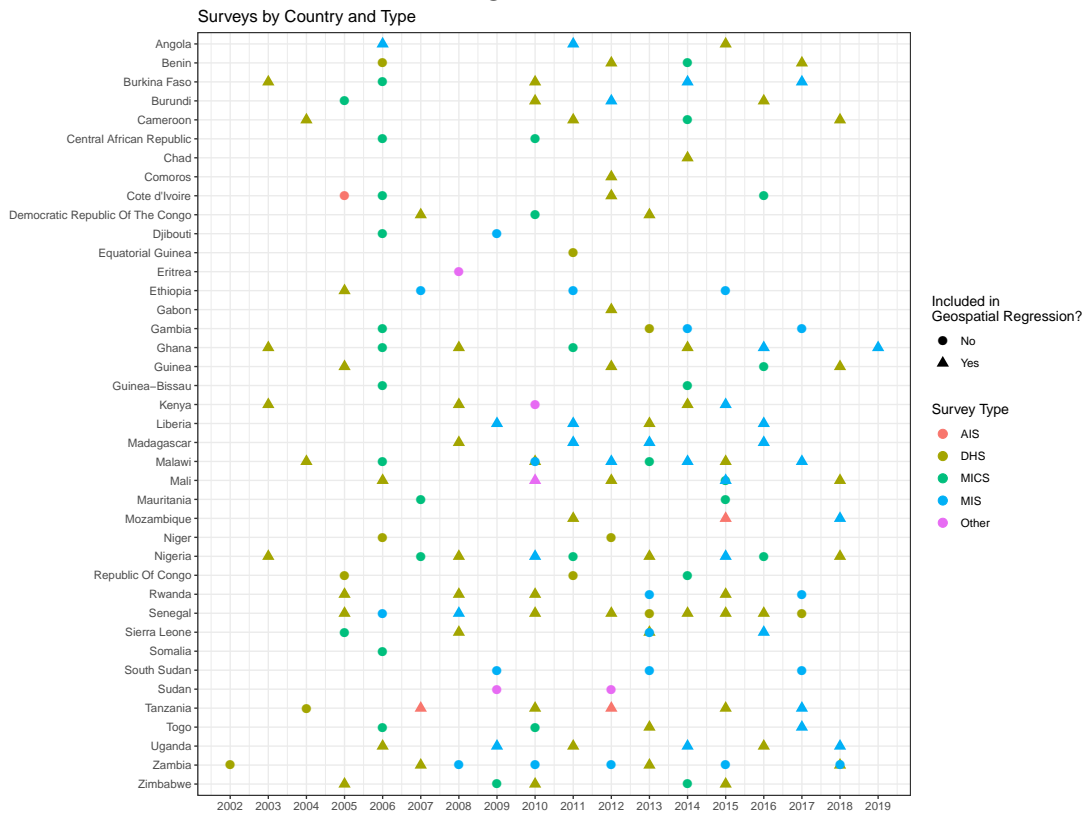


Figure A.2:



185 to generate national-level estimates of mean cITNs per household, mean LLINs per household, and mean household size. The standard errors for each of these metrics was used to inform the width of survey-specific priors. Each survey was assigned to a single point in time, defined as the survey-weighted mean of the dates of household interviews.

190 For an additional 33 surveys in 20 countries, data were only available in aggregate from survey reports. For these, we collected measures of mean household size and mean cITNs and LLINs per household from the relevant report tables. The standard errors reported for each of these metrics was used to inform the width of survey-specific priors. Each survey was assigned to a single point in time, defined as the midpoint between the beginning and end of data collection for the survey.

195

A.3.4 Population

Population and population-at-risk (PAR) are from the central MAP database, which combines WorldPop, AfriPop, and IHME population databases for final population and PAR estimates. For more details see the supplementary materials of [7].

Table A.1: Surveys used in ITN models.

| Surveys used in ITN models. | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Country | Survey Years | Source | No. of Clusters | No. of Individuals | Geospatial Data? |
| Angola | 2006-2007 | MIS | 115 | 13,952 | Yes |
| Angola | 2010-2011 | MIS | 238 | 39,951 | Yes |
| Angola | 2015-2016 | DHS | 625 | 72,870 | Yes |
| Benin | 2006 | DHS | – | 87,396 | No |
| Benin | 2011-2012 | DHS | 750 | 85,898 | Yes |
| Benin | 2014 | MICS5 | 0 | 86,676 | No |
| Benin | 2017-2018 | DHS | 555 | 73,336 | Yes |
| Burkina Faso | 2003 | DHS | 400 | 58,844 | Yes |
| Burkina Faso | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 37,070 | No |
| Burkina Faso | 2010 | DHS | 573 | 80,532 | Yes |
| Burkina Faso | 2014 | MIS | 252 | 38,393 | Yes |
| Burkina Faso | 2017-2018 | MIS | 245 | 36,307 | Yes |
| Burundi | 2005 | MICS3 | – | 40,633 | No |
| Burundi | 2010-2011 | DHS | 376 | 40,983 | Yes |
| Burundi | 2012-2013 | MIS | 200 | 22,606 | Yes |
| Burundi | 2016-2017 | DHS | 554 | 76,528 | Yes |
| Cameroon | 2004 | DHS | 466 | 49,557 | Yes |
| Cameroon | 2011 | DHS | 578 | 70,294 | Yes |
| Cameroon | 2014 | MICS5 | – | 51,031 | No |
| Cameroon | 2018-2019 | DHS | 430 | 58,474 | Yes |
| Central African Republic | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 54,385 | No |
| Central African Republic | 2010 | MICS4 | – | 52,355 | No |
| Chad | 2014-2015 | DHS | 624 | 96,005 | Yes |
| Comoros | 2012 | DHS | 252 | 23,580 | Yes |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2005 | AIS | – | 23,475 | No |

| Surveys used in ITN models, cont. | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Country | Survey Years | Source | No. of Clusters | No. of Individuals | Geospatial Data? |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 54,402 | No |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2011-2012 | DHS | 351 | 49,278 | Yes |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2016 | MICS5 | – | 65,109 | No |
| Democratic Republic Of The Congo | 2007 | DHS | 300 | 46,496 | Yes |
| Democratic Republic Of The Congo | 2010 | MICS4 | – | 58,510 | No |
| Democratic Republic Of The Congo | 2013-2014 | DHS | 536 | 93,147 | Yes |
| Djibouti | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 28,781 | No |
| Djibouti | 2009 | MIS | – | 22,373 | No |
| Equatorial Guinea | 2011 | DHS | – | 19,745 | No |
| Eritrea | 2008 | MIS | – | 8,814 | No |
| Ethiopia | 2005 | DHS | 535 | 64,914 | Yes |
| Ethiopia | 2007 | MIS | – | 32,380 | No |
| Ethiopia | 2011 | MIS | – | 47,248 | No |
| Ethiopia | 2015 | MIS | – | 53,335 | No |
| Gabon | 2012 | DHS | 336 | 40,597 | Yes |
| Gambia | 2005-2006 | MICS3 | – | 44,877 | No |
| Gambia | 2013 | DHS | – | 50,347 | No |
| Gambia | 2014 | MIS | – | 42,633 | No |
| Gambia | 2017 | MIS | – | 40,393 | No |
| Ghana | 2003 | DHS | 412 | 25,498 | Yes |
| Ghana | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 24,947 | No |
| Ghana | 2008 | DHS | 411 | 45,297 | Yes |
| Ghana | 2011 | MICS4 | – | 52,969 | No |
| Ghana | 2014 | DHS | 427 | 42,292 | Yes |
| Ghana | 2016 | MIS | 200 | 22,332 | Yes |
| Ghana | 2019 | MIS | 200 | 23,000 | Yes |
| Guinea | 2005 | DHS | 295 | 36,950 | Yes |
| Guinea | 2012 | DHS | 300 | 43,876 | Yes |

| Surveys used in ITN models, cont. | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Country | Survey Years | Source | No. of Clusters | No. of Individuals | Geospatial Data? |
| Guinea | 2016 | MICS5 | – | 58,021 | No |
| Guinea | 2018 | DHS | 401 | 48,956 | Yes |
| Guinea-Bissau | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 41,312 | No |
| Guinea-Bissau | 2014 | MICS5 | – | 62,451 | No |
| Kenya | 2003 | DHS | 400 | 36,464 | Yes |
| Kenya | 2008-2009 | DHS | 398 | 37,790 | Yes |
| Kenya | 2010 | MIS | – | 26,946 | No |
| Kenya | 2014 | DHS | 1594 | 145,440 | Yes |
| Kenya | 2015 | MIS | 245 | 24,989 | Yes |
| Liberia | 2008-2009 | MIS | 150 | 21,876 | Yes |
| Liberia | 2011-2012 | MIS | 150 | 18,632 | Yes |
| Liberia | 2013 | DHS | 322 | 45,995 | Yes |
| Liberia | 2016 | MIS | 150 | 20,859 | Yes |
| Madagascar | 2008-2009 | DHS | 594 | 82,594 | Yes |
| Madagascar | 2011 | MIS | 267 | 39,337 | Yes |
| Madagascar | 2013 | MIS | 274 | 37,571 | Yes |
| Madagascar | 2016 | MIS | 358 | 47,640 | Yes |
| Malawi | 2004-2005 | DHS | 521 | 58,812 | Yes |
| Malawi | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 131,021 | No |
| Malawi | 2010 | DHS | 849 | 115,027 | Yes |
| Malawi | 2010 | MIS | – | 14,382 | No |
| Malawi | 2012 | MIS | 140 | 14,091 | Yes |
| Malawi | 2013-2014 | MICS5 | – | 140,133 | No |
| Malawi | 2014 | MIS | 140 | 14,141 | Yes |
| Malawi | 2015-2016 | DHS | 850 | 117,833 | Yes |
| Malawi | 2017 | MIS | 150 | 16,330 | Yes |
| Mali | 2006 | DHS | 407 | 70,871 | Yes |
| Mali | 2010 | EA & P | 109 | 9,561 | Yes |
| Mali | 2012-2013 | DHS | 413 | 55,658 | Yes |
| Mali | 2015 | MICS5 | – | 123,858 | No |
| Mali | 2015 | MIS | 177 | 38,705 | Yes |
| Mali | 2018 | DHS | 345 | 53,477 | Yes |
| Mauritania | 2007 | MICS3 | – | 59,572 | No |
| Mauritania | 2015 | MICS5 | – | 69,675 | No |
| Mozambique | 2011 | DHS | 610 | 61,159 | Yes |

| Surveys used in ITN models, cont. | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Country | Survey Years | Source | No. of Clusters | No. of Individuals | Geospatial Data? |
| Mozambique | 2015 | AIS | 306 | 32,051 | Yes |
| Mozambique | 2018 | MIS | 224 | 28,126 | Yes |
| Niger | 2006 | DHS | – | 46,403 | No |
| Niger | 2012 | DHS | – | 61,680 | No |
| Nigeria | 2003 | DHS | 362 | 34,609 | Yes |
| Nigeria | 2007 | MICS3 | – | 124,840 | No |
| Nigeria | 2008 | DHS | 886 | 154,946 | Yes |
| Nigeria | 2010 | MIS | 239 | 30,134 | Yes |
| Nigeria | 2011 | MICS4 | – | 143,686 | No |
| Nigeria | 2013 | DHS | 896 | 176,949 | Yes |
| Nigeria | 2015 | MIS | 326 | 37,772 | Yes |
| Nigeria | 2016-2017 | MICS5 | – | 189,319 | No |
| Nigeria | 2018 | DHS | 1389 | 186,327 | Yes |
| Republic Of Congo | 2005 | DHS | – | 29,156 | No |
| Republic Of Congo | 2011-2012 | DHS | – | 48,826 | No |
| Republic Of Congo | 2014-2015 | MICS5 | – | 67,159 | No |
| Rwanda | 2005 | DHS | 462 | 46,715 | Yes |
| Rwanda | 2007-2008 | DHS | 249 | 31,741 | Yes |
| Rwanda | 2010-2011 | DHS | 492 | 55,280 | Yes |
| Rwanda | 2013 | MIS | – | 20,450 | No |
| Rwanda | 2014-2015 | DHS | 492 | 53,770 | Yes |
| Rwanda | 2017 | MIS | – | 19,901 | No |
| Senegal | 2005 | DHS | 376 | 66,506 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2006 | MIS | – | 28,918 | No |
| Senegal | 2008-2009 | MIS | 320 | 104,488 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2010-2011 | DHS | 391 | 74,941 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2012-2013 | DHS | 200 | 39,756 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2013 | DHS | – | 37,518 | No |
| Senegal | 2014 | DHS | 200 | 39,447 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2015 | DHS | 214 | 41,042 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2016 | DHS | 214 | 40,573 | Yes |
| Senegal | 2017 | DHS | – | 77,084 | No |

| Surveys used in ITN models, cont. | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Country | Survey Years | Source | No. of Clusters | No. of Individuals | Geospatial Data? |
| Sierra Leone | 2005 | MICS3 | – | 42,719 | No |
| Sierra Leone | 2008 | DHS | 353 | 40,426 | Yes |
| Sierra Leone | 2013 | DHS | 435 | 74,290 | Yes |
| Sierra Leone | 2013 | MIS | – | 36,395 | No |
| Sierra Leone | 2016 | MIS | 336 | 39,580 | Yes |
| Somalia | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 33,959 | No |
| South Sudan | 2009 | MIS | – | 17,001 | No |
| South Sudan | 2013 | MIS | – | 18,337 | No |
| South Sudan | 2017 | MIS | – | 32,358 | No |
| Sudan | 2009 | MIS | – | 30,423 | No |
| Sudan | 2012 | MIS | – | 26,547 | No |
| Tanzania | 2004-2005 | DHS | – | 46,516 | No |
| Tanzania | 2007-2008 | AIS | 475 | 85,034 | Yes |
| Tanzania | 2009-2010 | DHS | 475 | 47,357 | Yes |
| Tanzania | 2011-2012 | AIS | 583 | 50,996 | Yes |
| Tanzania | 2015-2016 | DHS | 608 | 61,030 | Yes |
| Tanzania | 2017 | MIS | 442 | 45,814 | Yes |
| Togo | 2006 | MICS3 | – | 30,542 | No |
| Togo | 2010 | MICS4 | – | 29,573 | No |
| Togo | 2013-2014 | DHS | 330 | 45,432 | Yes |
| Togo | 2017 | MIS | 171 | 22,478 | Yes |
| Uganda | 2006 | DHS | 368 | 43,396 | Yes |
| Uganda | 2009-2010 | MIS | 170 | 20,916 | Yes |
| Uganda | 2011 | DHS | 404 | 102,538 | Yes |
| Uganda | 2014-2015 | MIS | 210 | 26,464 | Yes |
| Uganda | 2016 | DHS | 696 | 88,174 | Yes |
| Uganda | 2018-2019 | MIS | 340 | 44,489 | Yes |
| Zambia | 2001-2002 | DHS | – | 35,941 | No |
| Zambia | 2007 | DHS | 319 | 33,794 | Yes |
| Zambia | 2008 | MIS | – | 20,430 | No |
| Zambia | 2010 | MIS | – | 20,042 | No |
| Zambia | 2012 | MIS | – | 16,928 | No |
| Zambia | 2013-2014 | DHS | 721 | 78,486 | Yes |
| Zambia | 2015 | MIS | – | 16,129 | No |
| Zambia | 2018 | MIS | – | 18,384 | No |

| Surveys used in ITN models, cont. | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Country | Survey Years | Source | No. of Clusters | No. of Individuals | Geospatial Data? |
| Zambia | 2018-2019 | DHS | 545 | 62,342 | Yes |
| Zimbabwe | 2005-2006 | DHS | 398 | 41,289 | Yes |
| Zimbabwe | 2009 | MICS3 | – | 52,194 | No |
| Zimbabwe | 2010-2011 | DHS | 406 | 40,711 | Yes |
| Zimbabwe | 2014 | MICS5 | – | 67,536 | No |
| Zimbabwe | 2015-2016 | DHS | 400 | 41,894 | Yes |

A.4 Model

A.4.1 Summary

National LLIN crop was estimated via a modified version of the mechanistic “stock and flow” model described below and in [2]. Briefly, a compartmental model was used to triangulate LLIN stock, distribution, and ownership data. Stock and distribution data were linked via a minimum function, mandating that no more than the available stock of nets could be distributed at a given time point. Distribution and ownership data were linked via a sigmoidal loss function to model discarding of LLINs over time. National cITN crop was modeled similarly, but no stock information was available for cITNs, so the upper bound on cITN distributions was omitted.

The model was run separately for each country. All parameters were fit separately by net type. After estimating LLIN and cITN crop, the two were summed into a single time series of national ITN crop. This was converted to ITN access via a household-size-based regression methodology described in [2] and below. All models were fitted in JAGS using the `rjags` package, which produces draws from the posterior distributions of the fitted parameters. The mean and 95% CIs of these draws were computed to generate all mean estimates and uncertainties.

For this analysis, the model described in [2] was refactored and rewritten in its entirety, but the model specification has remained largely constant. Key changes are:

- updated input data from net manufacturers, NMCPs, and surveys, including

all information from ALMA and PMI;

- change from a time-varying to a static loss function parameterization to improve model identifiability;
- Placing a cap on excess stock distribution to ensure a reliable fit to survey data.

A formal model specification is presented below. To clarify notation, the process is described for a single country and for LLINs only. The specification for cITNs is identical except where noted.

A.4.2 Stock and Flow

All symbols and their definitions are shown in the tables below. Values drawn directly from data are represented by Roman characters, while parameters derived through model fitting are represented by Greek characters. Sigmas σ refer to parameter-specific standard errors, and hats $\hat{\cdot}$ over characters describe the modeled representations of data values.

| Symbol | Meaning | Notes |
|---------------|--|---|
| $Y, y \in Y$ | Year count, year index | |
| $Q, q \in Q$ | Quarter count, quarter index | $Q = Y * 4 + 1$; see text for details |
| t | Continuous time | |
| $S, s \in S$ | Survey count, survey index | |
| h | Household size | |
| P | National population | Source: MAP |
| m | Manufacturer deliveries of LLINs | Source: AMP |
| d | Reported cITN and LLIN distributions | Source: ALMA, NM-CPS, and PMI |
| C, c^h, c^p | ITN crop (C), count per household c^h , and count per capita c^p | Source: Nationally representative surveys |

Table A.2: Parameter definitions: indices and data.

| Symbol | Meaning |
|------------------------------|---|
| $\Gamma, \gamma^h, \gamma^p$ | ITN crop (Γ), count per household γ^h , and count per capita γ^p |
| δ | Net distribution |
| α, ω | Initial and final LLIN stock for a given year |
| ϕ | Net distribution adjustment: proportion of surplus stock distributed |
| β | Shape parameter for Beta distribution of ϕ |
| κ, τ | Rate and duration parameters for net loss function |

Table A.3: Parameter definitions: modeled values.

Data on deliveries of LLINs to countries from manufacturers did not report uncertainty, but were assumed to be highly accurate. Therefore, we modelled LLIN deliveries m in year y as:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_y^m &\sim \text{Unif}(0, 0.075) \\ \hat{m}_y &\sim N(m_y, m_y \sigma_y^m)\end{aligned}$$

This relationship allows for a small amount of noise in the number of LLIN deliveries. Similar data were not available for cITNs.

240 Data on ITN distributions also did not report uncertainty, but were assumed to be somewhat less accurate than manufacturer data given the presence of missing values and the difficulties inherent in collecting such information (see [Appendix A.3](#)). Therefore, we placed modest priors on per-capita rates of ITN distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_y^d &\sim \text{Unif}(0, 0.03) \\ \hat{d}_y &\sim N\left(\frac{d_y}{P_y}, \sigma_y^d\right) P_y\end{aligned}$$

245 Since no net delivery data was available for cITNs, \hat{d}_y^{cITN} was used without adjustment, while \hat{d}_y^{LLIN} was further adjusted using \hat{m}_y .

An LLIN time series was constructed using information about both stock and distributions. Every year, LLINs were delivered to a country (acquisition of stock) and distributed (dispersal of stock). Not all acquired stock was necessarily dispersed each year, allowing for the possibility of stock accumulation over time. Stock at the beginning and end of every year was tracked using parameters α_y and ω_y .

In a given year, no more LLINs could be distributed than the available stock α_y , and no fewer could be distributed than \hat{d}_y . If more than \hat{d}_y LLINs were available, a small portion of additional stock could be distributed to allow a closer fit to survey data. However, the model should not distribute a large amount of additional stock, both in the interest of hewing to data on net distributions and because countries may receive shipments of nets in anticipation of distributions in the following year. Therefore, the proportion of surplus stock to distribute, ϕ_y , was modeled as a Beta distribution with shape parameters 2 and β_y , truncated at 0.25. A narrow prior was placed on β such that the mean value of ϕ ranged between 0.07 and 0.09. The parameter ϕ can be thought of as a mechanistically-informed relaxation on the upper bound of the prior for LLIN distributions.

The LLIN distribution time series was constructed as follows. Beginning in year $y_0 = 2000$ and proceeding sequentially through each year:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_y &= \hat{m}_{y_0} \text{ if } y = y_0, \quad \text{otherwise} \quad \alpha_y = \omega_{y-1} + \hat{m}_y \\ \delta_y &= \min(\hat{m}_y, \hat{d}_y) \\ \beta_y &\sim \text{Unif}(20, 24) \\ \phi_y &\sim \text{Beta}(2, \beta_y) \quad T(0, 0.25) \\ \delta_y &= \hat{d}_y + \phi_y(\alpha_y - \hat{d}_y) \\ \omega_y &= \alpha_y - \delta_y\end{aligned}$$

Where $T(\cdot)$ represents a truncated distribution. This yields an adjusted estimate for annual LLIN distributions, δ_y .

Next, annual ITN distributions δ_y were disaggregated the into quarterly net distributions δ_q . For each year y in Y :

1. Split the year into four quarters, $i \in 1 : 4$.
2. Define the proportion of ITNs distributed in each year-quarter, $p_{y,i} \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$, raked such that $\sum_i p_{y,i} = 1$.

3. Define $\delta_{y,i} = \delta_y p_{y,i}$ for each quarter i .
4. Reindex such that quarters are indexed as δ_q rather than $\delta_{y,i}$.

The calculation was performed separately by net type, yielding quarterly estimates of net distribution δ_q^{LLIN} and δ_q^{cITN} . Since survey calibration requires interpolation between the beginning and end of each quarter, net distribution estimates were also calculated for the first quarter of year $Y + 1$. These were assumed to be the same as distributions in the final quarter of the last year for which distribution data is available, $\delta_Q = \delta_{Q-1}$. From these quarterly distribution counts, net loss can be tracked.

Following [2], a smooth-compact loss function for nets was used, with:

$$\text{Loss}(t, \kappa, \tau) = e^{\kappa - \kappa / (1 - (t/\tau)^2)}$$

if $t < \tau$, and $\text{Loss}(t, \kappa, \tau) = 0$ otherwise.

κ is therefore a rate parameter, while τ dictates the time by which all nets will be lost. Previous versions of the model constrained κ and allowed τ to vary widely. To further aid identifiability, here κ was fixed at a value of 18 and τ was given a wide prior $\tau \sim \text{Unif}(5.5, 20.7)$. After model fitting, net retention half-life was calculated analytically as the time t at which $\text{Loss}(t, \kappa, \tau) = 0.5$. To estimate net loss, for each net type a $Q \times Q$ matrix A was constructed, where each column j represents a quarter of net distribution and row i tracks net retention in subsequent quarters. Entries of the matrix were populated according to the following rules:

- $A_{ij} = 0$ if $i < j$ (nets have yet to be distributed)
- $A_{ij} = \delta_j$ if $i = j$ (nets were distributed in that quarter)
- $A_{ij} = \delta_j \text{Loss}(t, \kappa, \tau)$ if $i > j$, with $t = (i - j)\frac{1}{4}$.

Once A was populated, summing across columns generated estimated net crop by quarter, $\Gamma_q = \sum_{j \in 1:Q} A_{qj}$. Next, these quarterly distribution estimates were fit to the available survey data.

Each survey yielded an estimate of mean nets per household, c_s^h , and mean household size, h_s , each with standard errors. A national net crop C was estimated

for each survey via $C_s = c_s^h \frac{P_y}{h_s}$, with P_y the national population in the year y in which survey s took place. Within the model, both nets per household and household size were assumed to be normally distributed, with means c_s^h and h_s and standard deviations from the standard errors of the survey data.

In the modeled time series, for each survey s conducted at time t estimated net crop was calculated as an interpolation between values at the beginning and end of the quarter q in which t falls:

$$\Gamma_t = (1 - p)\Gamma_q + p\Gamma_{q+1}$$

where p represents the proportion of q that has elapsed by time t .

Net crop was then calibrated to surveys as:

$$C_s \sim N(\Gamma_t, \sigma_s^C) \quad T(C_s - 3\sigma_s^C, C_s + 3\sigma_s^C)$$

Where the truncation constrains model estimates to hew closely to survey reports, which are highly reliable and widely used.

After calibration, estimates of net crop Γ_q^{LLIN} and Γ_q^{cITN} were summed to generate a time series of total ITN crop, Γ_q^{tot} . This is converted ITN crop to per-capita ITNs using $\gamma_q^p = \frac{\Gamma_q^{tot}}{P_q}$. This is the main output of the stock and flow model, which is passed on to calculate household-size-specific indicators ρ_h^0 and μ_h to find a time series of ITN access by country.

A.4.3 Conversion to access

| Symbol | Meaning |
|-----------------|--|
| ρ_h | Proportion of households of size h with no nets |
| μ_h | Mean net count given ownership of at least one net, among households of size h |
| Λ^{acc} | National-level ITN access |

Table A.4: Parameter definitions: conversion to access.

The simplest way to convert from ITN crop Γ to ITN access Λ^{acc} would be $\Lambda^{acc} = \min(\frac{2\Gamma}{P}, 1)$, using the definition of access as ownership of two nets per

person. However, this simple equation does not account for the overdispersion of nets to certain households, a well-documented phenomenon explored in depth in [8] and [2]. One of the most widely available predictors of sufficient access is household size, with nationally-representative surveys consistently showing that access to nets decreases with household size. Therefore, while converting from crop to access, country-specific household size distributions must be taken into account. As discussed in [2], the distribution of access among household sizes is well-represented by a zero-truncated Poisson distribution, requiring the estimation of both the proportion ρ_h of households with no nets and the mean net count μ_h among households with at least one net.

Following [2], this analysis defined a bivariate joint probability function $H = \mathbb{P}(h, n) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ as the probability mass of a household of size h owning n ITNs. For a given h , the conditional probability distribution $\mathbb{P}(n|h)$ was estimated as a zero-truncated Poisson distribution [9] characterized by ρ_h and μ_h . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(n = 0|h) &= p_h \rho_h \\ \mathbb{P}(n > 0|h) &= p_h (1 - \rho_h) \frac{(\mu_h)^n}{n!(e^{\mu_h} - 1)}\end{aligned}$$

with p_h the proportion of all households having size h . The distribution of household sizes p_h is calculated on a per-survey basis. H is a 10x40 matrix with rows representing household size h and columns representing net count n . These dimensions were chosen because some surveys only collect household size information up to ten people, and 40 is a sufficiently large net count to characterize all meaningful features of these distributions. The entries of H are renormalized as $H_{hn} = \frac{h H_{hn}}{\sum_{h,n} h H_{hn}}$ to convert them from probabilities among households to probabilities among the population. Using the definition of access as “the proportion of people able to sleep under an ITN, assuming one ITN per two people”, national access among households of size h with n nets is then:

$$\Lambda_{h,n}^{acc} = \min\left(\frac{2n}{h}, 1\right) H_{hn}$$

And overall national access is the sum

$$\Lambda^{acc} = \sum_{h,n} \Lambda_{h,n}^{acc}.$$

Parameters ρ_h and μ_h were defined as polynomial functions of h and the national

net crop per capita, γ^c :

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_0 &\sim \text{Unif}(-50, 50) \\
\beta_1 &\sim \text{Unif}(-3, 3) \\
\beta_2 &\sim \text{Unif}(-1, 1) \\
\beta_3 &\sim \text{Unif}(-100, 100) \\
\beta_4 &\sim \text{Unif}(-300, 300) \\
\beta_5 &\sim \text{Unif}(-300, 300) \\
\tau &\sim \Gamma(0.1, 0.1) \\
\nu_h &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 h + \beta_2 h + \beta_3 \gamma^c + \beta_4 \gamma_c^2 + \beta_5 \gamma_c^3 \\
\text{Empirical Logit}(\rho_h) &\sim N(\nu_h, \tau)
\end{aligned}$$

And:

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_h &\sim \text{Unif}(-20, 20) \\
\tau &\sim \Gamma(0.1, 0.1) \\
\mu_h &\sim N(\beta_h, \tau)
\end{aligned}$$

See [2] for validation of these parameterizations. Equation coefficients were fit in Stan using `rstan` version 2.19.3 with all available household-level surveys. It should be noted that the mean of a zero-truncated Poisson with rate parameter λ is $\frac{\lambda}{(1-e^{-\lambda})}$ rather than simply λ . To coerce the mean of \mathbb{P} to equal μ_h for all $n > 0$, the solution of $\mu_h = \frac{x}{(1-e^{-x})}$ was used rather than μ_h .

Quarterly values of ρ_h^0 and μ_h were predicted using these coefficients and the estimated net crop values γ^c from the stock and flow model, with uncertainty propagated at the draw level. These quarterly estimates were interpolated to the monthly time scale, and the monthly estimates used to calculate access as defined above. Thus, the final result of this modeling process was a monthly time series from 2000 through 2020 of ITN access at the national level for the 40 countries of interest.

A.5 Stock and Flow LLIN Median Retention Times

| LLIN Median Retention Times. | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|
| ISO3 | Median Retention Time (Years) | Survey Count |
| AGO | 1.10 (1.01, 1.26) | 3 |
| BDI | 1.31 (1.14, 1.47) | 4 |
| BEN | 1.07 (1.01, 1.17) | 4 |
| BFA | 1.58 (1.41, 1.76) | 5 |
| CAF | 1.90 (1.56, 2.26) | 2 |
| CIV | 1.69 (1.51, 1.86) | 4 |
| CMR | 3.49 (3.24, 3.78) | 4 |
| COD | 1.41 (1.15, 1.64) | 3 |
| COG | 2.91 (2.31, 3.65) | 3 |
| COM | 2.13 (1.81, 2.39) | 1 |
| DJI | 1.05 (1.01, 1.13) | 2 |
| ERI | 3.01 (1.94, 3.79) | 1 |
| ETH | 1.33 (1.19, 1.48) | 4 |
| GAB | 3.34 (2.63, 3.79) | 1 |
| GHA | 1.78 (1.67, 1.90) | 7 |
| GIN | 1.51 (1.28, 1.75) | 4 |
| GMB | 1.62 (1.39, 1.85) | 4 |
| GNB | 1.38 (1.01, 2.16) | 2 |
| GNQ | 3.59 (3.27, 3.79) | 1 |
| KEN | 2.26 (1.98, 2.58) | 5 |
| LBR | 1.03 (1.01, 1.07) | 4 |
| MDG | 1.65 (1.48, 1.81) | 4 |
| MLI | 2.81 (2.46, 3.14) | 6 |
| MOZ | 1.34 (1.21, 1.50) | 3 |
| MRT | 1.07 (1.01, 1.16) | 2 |
| MWI | 1.33 (1.21, 1.45) | 9 |
| NER | 3.50 (3.25, 3.78) | 2 |
| NGA | 2.22 (2.00, 2.47) | 9 |
| RWA | 1.59 (1.48, 1.70) | 6 |
| SDN | 2.91 (2.11, 3.77) | 2 |
| SEN | 1.35 (1.22, 1.48) | 10 |
| SLE | 1.47 (1.31, 1.63) | 5 |
| SOM | 2.35 (1.02, 3.66) | 1 |
| SSD | 1.02 (1.01, 1.04) | 3 |
| TCD | 1.03 (1.01, 1.08) | 1 |
| TGO | 2.42 (2.21, 2.61) | 4 |

| LLIN Median Retention Times, cont. | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|
| ISO3 | Median Retention Time (Years) | Survey Count |
| TZA | 2.15 (1.88, 2.43) | 6 |
| UGA | 1.66 (1.55, 1.78) | 6 |
| ZMB | 1.32 (1.21, 1.44) | 9 |
| ZWE | 2.79 (2.26, 3.38) | 5 |

Table A.5: Median retention times and 95% CI's for LLINs from the stock and flow model. Number of surveys used to fit each country model also listed.

A.6 Sensitivity analysis

A.6.1 Methods

Each of the 40 countries included in the stock and flow model have between one and
 355 ten nationally-representative surveys available for use in model fitting (Table A.1).
 To assess sensitivity of this model framework to both survey count and individual
 survey values, we ran a series of tests on the eight countries with more than five
 survey points.

| Country | Survey Count |
|--------------|--------------|
| Ghana | 6 |
| Rwanda | 6 |
| Sierra Leone | 6 |
| Tanzania | 6 |
| Zambia | 8 |
| Malawi | 9 |
| Nigeria | 9 |
| Senegal | 10 |

Table A.6: Countries included in sensitivity analysis.

Sensitivity analyses included all available manufacturer and NMCP data, since
 360 the completeness of these data types does not change meaningfully across countries.
 Only sensitivity to survey data was tested.

Consider country c , with N_c available surveys. We reran the model $N_c - 1$

times, starting from a single survey point and adding an additional survey each round, to test the sensitivity of model estimates to the number of surveys included. To test the importance of the order of survey inclusion, we ran each sequence of $1 : N_c - 1$ models three different ways: in chronological order, in reverse chronological order, and in random order. The “random order” option shows only one possible permutation of non-chronological sequence, but it still gives some intuition into the impact of survey inclusion order on model performance.

The main performance metric was out-of-sample LLIN crop root mean squared error (RMSE): that is, the RMSE of predicted LLIN crop vs observed LLIN crop for the surveys not included in each model run. We also compare estimates of LLIN median retention time between each held-out model and the full model.

A.6.2 Results

Figure A.3 shows the out-of-sample RMSE (in units of millions of LLINs) for each country-iteration of the analysis. When surveys are added in chronological order, the RMSE trend is nonlinear, often peaking at some intermediate number of surveys before declining. Adding surveys in reverse chronological order shows a more stable trend, with RMSE generally declining with each additional survey. One major exception is Sierra Leone, which has a large peak in RMSE at three surveys. The random permutation approach splits the difference between these two, but generally behaves slightly more like the “reverse chronological” than the “chronological”. For a given country-survey count, chronological RMSE is usually higher than reverse-chronological RMSE. Including only the low-net-count surveys early in the time series yields the highest RMSEs. Otherwise, there is not a consistent marker of which survey will have the highest impact on model fit. In Sierra Leone, for example, all models take a step change in RMSE upon the inclusion of the middle-of-the-series 2011 survey, while in Tanzania it is the two surveys at the end of the time series that most impact RMSE. For countries like Senegal, no one survey has an outsized impact.

Figure A.4 shows the evolution of estimated LLIN median retention time (also called half-life). The solid line through each plot is the half-life estimated by the full model. Again here, with the exception of Sierra Leone, the “reverse chronological” sequence converges quickly to the value estimated by the full model, whereas the chronological sequence varies considerably before arriving at the full model’s result. When just one survey is included, half-lives are more likely to be overestimates than underestimates of the full model value.

These results suggest that stock and flow time series fit to a small number of surveys, especially if those surveys occur early in the time series, may not be reliable estimators for LLIN half-life or net time series in the country they represent. As shown in [Figure 5](#) of the main paper, countries with three or fewer surveys are likely to fall at the extreme ends of the LLIN half-life spectrum. In these countries, local knowledge and additional data collection will be crucial to understanding the true circumstances of net distribution, retention, and use.

B Spatiotemporal Regression Methods

A spatiotemporal regression framework was developed to derive 5km-by-5km pixel-level ITN access and use from the national-level access metrics estimated in the stock and flow model. First, national ITN access is disaggregated spatially, with survey data informing the difference between local and national access. Next, use is estimated from access, with survey data informing the gap between access and use over space and time. Additionally, a process similar to that for access is employed to estimate pixel-level nets-per-capita (NPC). NPC does not precisely capture ITN coverage, but does capture spatial heterogeneity in ITN distribution and retention that may be useful for crafting policy.

The present framing of this work is an adaptation of [\[10\]](#), with the following improvements:

- Cluster-level recalculation of national access to reflect local household size distributions;
- Addition of nets-per-capita as an outcome variable;
- Calculation of relative gain;
- Full propagation of uncertainty from stock and flow model;
- Addition of over two dozen new or previously-overlooked surveys;
- A fully refactored, [publicly available](#) codebase with Google Cloud functionality.

Figure A.3: Out-of-Sample RMSE (Units: Millions of LLINs)
 Out-of-Sample RMSE for Sensitivity Analysis

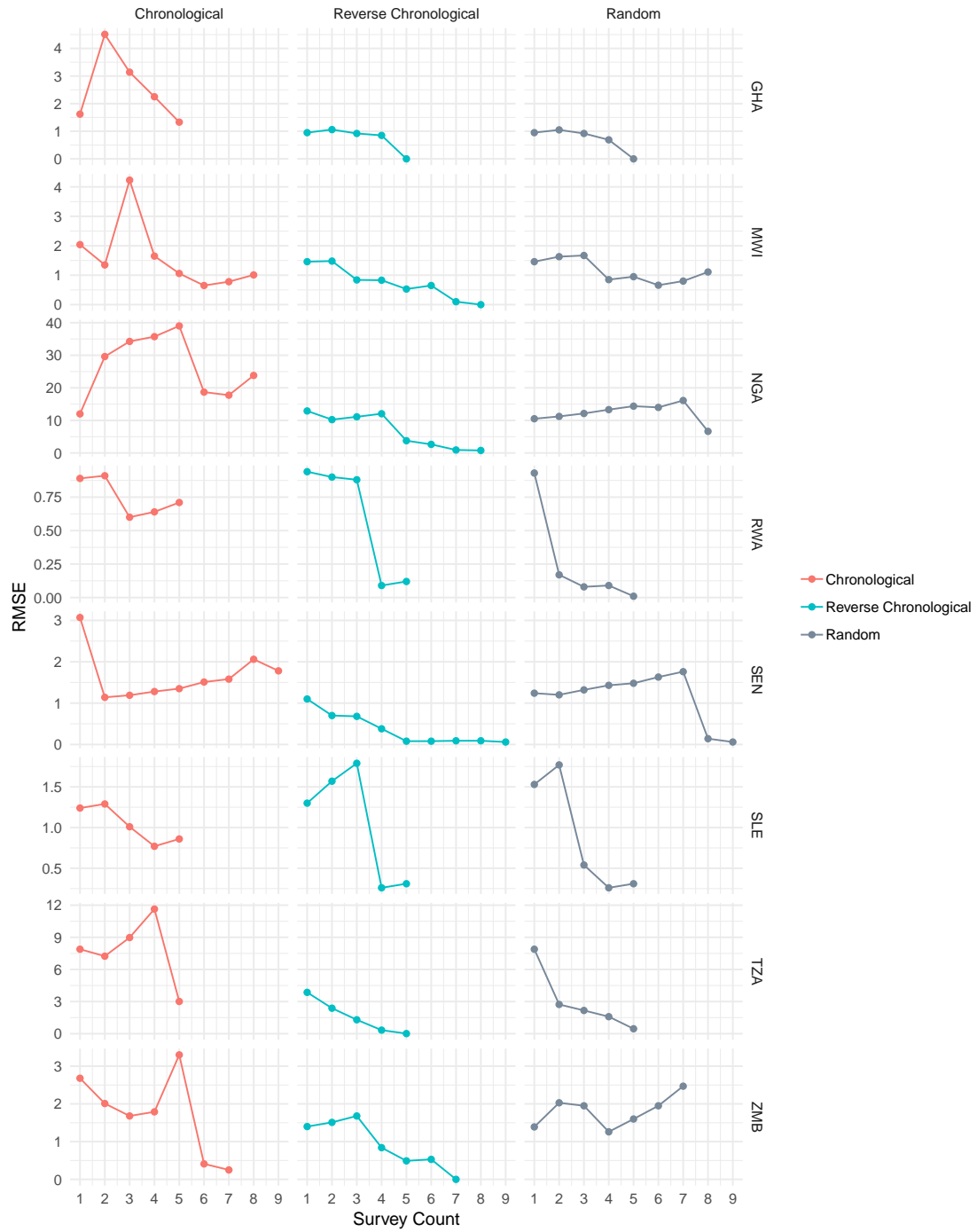
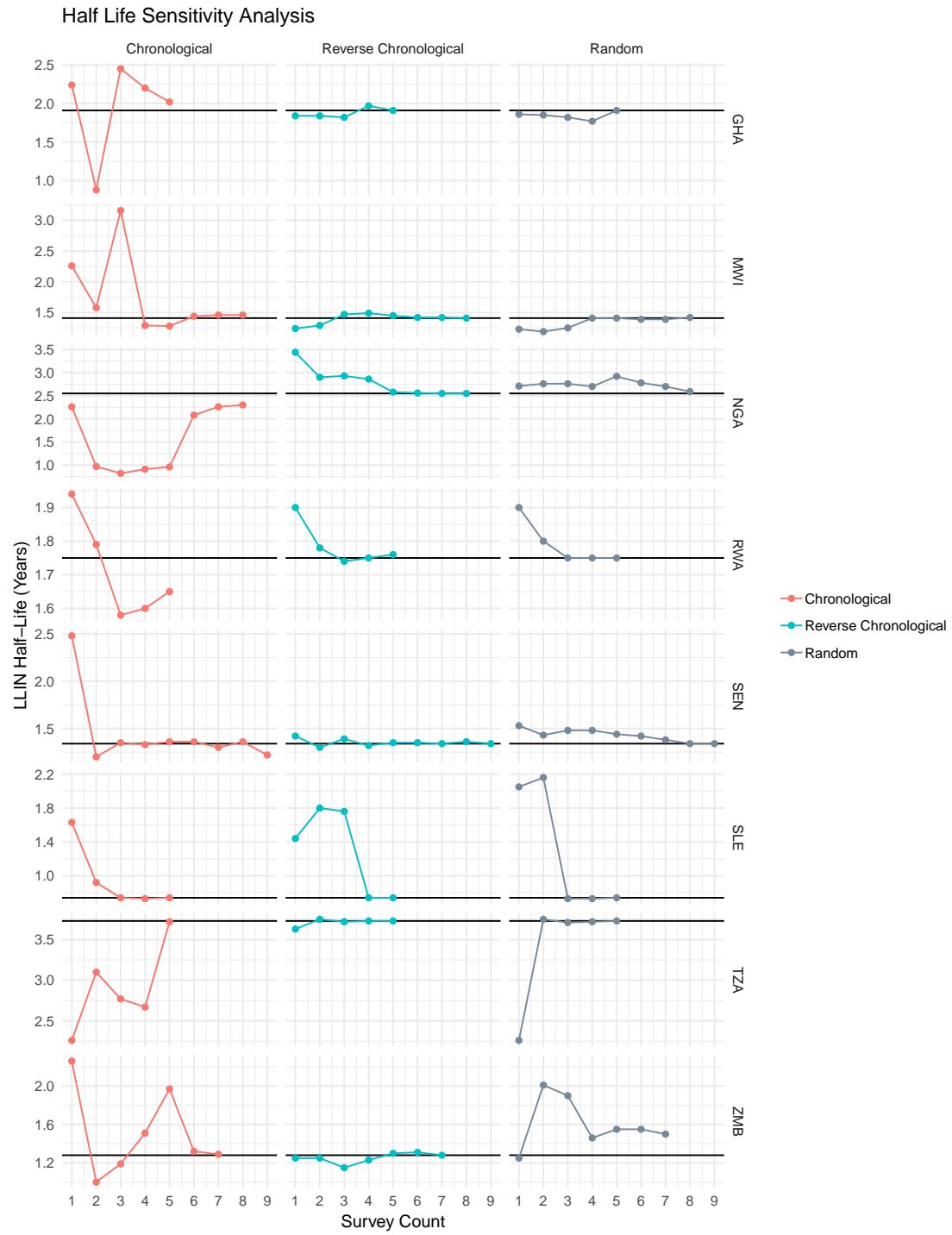


Figure A.4:



425 **B.1 Definitions: Access Deviation, Use Gap, Nets-per-Capita Deviation**

ITN “use” is the proportion of people who were reported to have slept under a net the night prior to the survey. ITN “nets-per-capita” is simply net crop divided by population. For all metrics, the population denominator is calculated from “de
430 facto household size”, defined as the number of people who slept in the household the night prior to the survey.

“Access deviation” is the difference between access in a specific location and the national mean access. Access deviation is positive when local access is greater than the national mean, and negative when local access is below the national mean.
435 The “use gap” is the difference between access and use in any one location. The use gap is positive when not everyone with access to a net sleeps under it, negative when more than two people sleep under a single net, and zero when everyone who has access to a net sleeps under it respecting the “two people per net” guideline. Like access deviation, “NPC deviation” is the difference between nets-per-capita
440 in a specific location within a country and the national mean nets-per-capita.

B.2 Data: National ITN Access, Household Survey Data, Covariates

B.2.1 National Net Access and Nets Per Capita

From the stock and flow model—see [Appendix A.4](#).

445 **B.2.2 Household Survey Data**

Ninety-five surveys from 28 countries with household-level data were used to fit the geospatial model. Indicators for (i) household size (defined as number of individuals that slept in the surveyed households the night prior to the survey), (ii) number of ITNs, and (iii) number of individuals that slept under an ITN
450 the night prior to the survey were collected. The relevant cluster identifications were also collected to allow for aggregation to the cluster level. The final dataset contained 34,352 data points covering 28 countries and 17 years.

B.2.3 Covariates

To model the underlying mean function of the latent Gaussian model, we used a set of environmental and socioeconomic covariates consisting of rasterised satellite imagery across all of Africa at a 2.5 arc-minute (approximately 5km-by-5km) spatial resolution and monthly, annual, or static temporal resolution (Table B.1). All raster covariates were derived from high-resolution satellite images that were gap-filled [11] to eliminate missing data resulting primarily from persistent cloud cover over equatorial forests. Some covariates are themselves modeled products that capture derived phenomena such as temperature suitability to mosquitoes or human accessibility to cities.

B.3 Latent Gaussian model

B.3.1 Cluster-level estimates of access, use, and nets per capita

Within a given household, the number of people with access to an ITN is calculated as $acc_h = \min(2n_h, pop_h)$, with n_h the number of nets in that household. ITN access within a cluster is calculated as $\lambda^{acc} = \sum_h acc_h / \sum_h pop_h$. The underlying national access from the stock and flow model, Λ^{acc} , was adjusted at the cluster level to reflect variation in household size distribution, $\tilde{\Lambda}^{acc} = \sum_h pop_h \Lambda^{acc} / \sum_h pop_h$.

Cluster-level ITN use is calculated as $\lambda^{use} = \sum_c use_c / \sum_c pop_c$, with use_c the number of people who slept under an ITN the night prior to the survey in a given cluster. Cluster-level nets per capita is calculated as $\lambda^{npc} = \sum_c itn_c / \sum_c pop_c$, with itn_c the number of nets in a given cluster. Clusters are assigned to a time t based on a weighted average of sampling times. Values of λ^{acc} , λ^{use} , and λ^{npc} that fall within the same geographic pixel are aggregated to a single value.

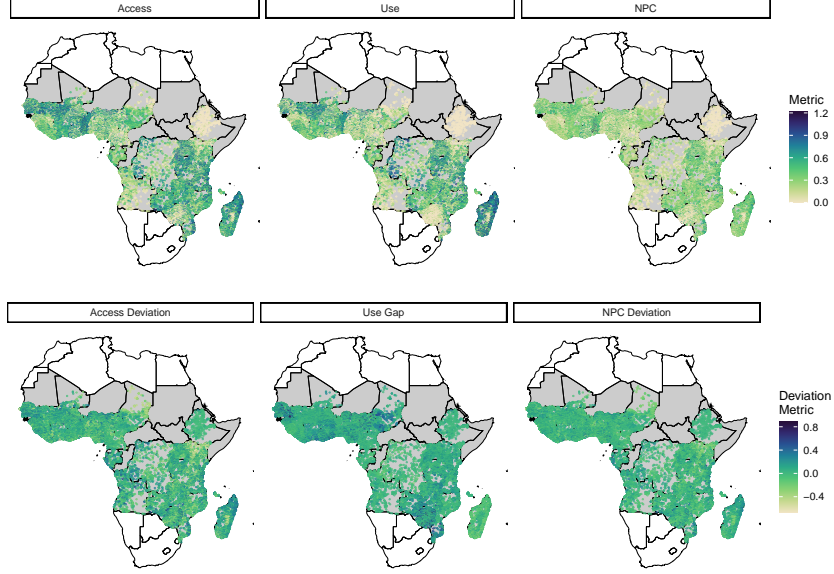
B.3.2 Access Deviation, Use Gap, and Nets-Per-Capita Deviation

Due to the heterogeneity in net distribution volumes and times within countries and the sparsity of survey data, access is a highly nonstationary process which is challenging to predict at high resolution directly from λ^{acc} (Figure B.1, top row). To create a stationary process that can readily be mapped, λ^{acc} is detrended by the underlying national mean. The resulting metric, access deviation, is therefore a measure of the subnational variation around an overall country mean

| Covariate | Source | Years Available | Resolution |
|---|--------------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| Aridity | WorldClim | - | Static |
| Elevation | SRTM | - | Static |
| Slope | SRTM | - | Static |
| NightTime Lights | VIIRS | 2014 | Static |
| Accessibility to Cities | MAP modeled output | 2015 | Static |
| <i>Plasmodium falciparum</i> Seasonality | MAP modeled output | - | Static |
| Potential Evotranspiration (PET) | WorldClim | - | Static |
| Topographic Moisture Index (TMI) | SRTM | - | Static |
| Population | MAP modeled output | 2000-2020 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 2: Evergreen Broadleaf Forest | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 4: Deciduous Broadleaf Forest | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 5: Mixed Forest | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 6: Closed Shrublands | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 7: Open Shrublands | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 8: Woody Savannas | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 9: Savannas | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 10: Grasslands | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 11: Permanent Wetlands | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 12: Croplands | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 14: Cropland/Natural Vegetation Mosaic | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 16: Barren or Sparsely Populated | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Land Cover Class 17: Water | MODIS product | 2001-2017 | Annual |
| Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) | MODIS product | 2000-2017 | Dynamic |
| Tassled Cap Wetness (TCW) | MODIS product | 2000-2017 | Dynamic |
| Daytime Land Surface Temperature (LST) | MODIS product | 2000-2017 | Dynamic |
| Nighttime Land Surface Temperature (LST) | MODIS product | 2000-2017 | Dynamic |
| Temperature Suitability Index (TSI) | MAP modeled output | 2000-2017 | Dynamic |

Table B.1: Covariates used in all spatiotemporal models

Figure B.1: Spatial stationarity of deviation metrics.



(Figure B.1, bottom row). Access deviation for a given pixel is calculated as $\lambda^{acc.dev} = \lambda^{acc} - \hat{\lambda}^{acc}$. After model fitting and pixel-level prediction of λ^{dev} , pixel-level λ^{acc} is estimated by adding national mean access back onto access deviation. This process is identical for nets-per-capita deviation, $\lambda^{npc.dev}$.

Net use is similarly spatio-temporally non-stationary, motivating the estimation of the use gap instead. Use gap is simply the pixel-level difference between access and use, $\lambda^{gap} = \lambda^{acc} - \lambda^{use}$.

Both λ^{dev} and λ^{gap} are transformed via the empirical Logit to expand bounds to $[-\infty, \infty]$. This transformation is unnecessary for $\lambda^{npc.dev}$, which is not bounded between -1 and 1.

B.3.3 Latent Gaussian model for access deviation, use gap, and nets-per-capita deviation

All outcome metrics were fit using a Bayesian hierarchical model with a Gaussian likelihood and a Gaussian process prior:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \pi(\theta) \\ y|u, \theta &\sim N(Au, \sigma_e^2) \\ u|\theta &\sim N(\mu, Q^{-1})\end{aligned}$$

with: $\theta \in \{\sigma_e, \beta, \tau, \kappa, \phi\}$ a vector of hyperparameter priors; $y = \lambda^{acc.dev}, \lambda^{gap}$, or $\lambda^{npc.dev}$; $\mu = \beta X$ a linear basis function for the fixed effects; σ_e^2 the variance for random Gaussian noise; u a Gaussian Markov Random Field representing the spatiotemporal random effect; and A a sparse observation matrix that maps the GMRF to function evaluations at local observations.

The precision matrix Q on the GMRF is defined as a Kronecker product of a temporal process and a spatial process, $Q = Q_t \otimes Q_s$. Temporal correlation is modeled by first order autoregressive dynamics as $w_t = \phi w_{t-1}$ with $w_t \sim N(0, Q_t^{-1})$. The spatial process $w_s \sim N(0, Q_s^{-1})$ is the sparse finite element solution to the stochastic partial differential equation

$$(\kappa^2 - \Delta)^{\alpha/2} \tau u(s) = W(s)$$

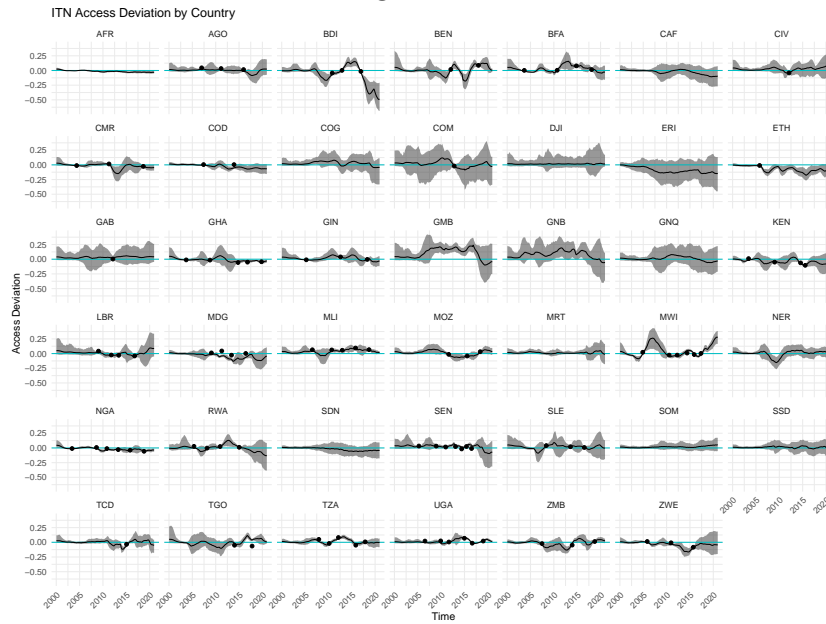
where Δ is the Laplacian operator, κ is the spatial scale parameter, α is the spatial smoothness parameter (fixed at $\alpha = 2$), τ controls the variance, and $W(s)$ is the spatial white noise process. Because the spatial process covers a substantial portion of the Earth's surface, s is defined on a spherical manifold in Cartesian \mathbb{R}^3 . For more details see [12].

The models were fit in R using the Integrated Nested Laplace Approximation (INLA, <https://www.r-inla.org/>). To allow for correct posterior coverage and credible intervals under the Laplace approximation we transform both access and use via the inverse hyperbolic sine function, $arsinh(x) = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1})$, thereby allowing the response in the model to be as close to Gaussian as possible. For a given scaling parameter ρ and response $x \in \{\lambda^{acc.dev}, \lambda^{gap}, \lambda^{npc.dev}\}$, with n observations, we define $ihs(x, \rho) = (arsinh(x)\rho)/\rho$. The optimal ρ is found by minimizing the following log-likelihood:

$$l(\rho, x) \propto -n \log\left(\sum (x - \bar{x})^2\right) - \sum \log(1 + \rho^2 x^2).$$

For more details see [13].

Figure B.2:



B.4 Results

B.4.1 National Time Series of Regression Predictions

Plotted here are national-level time series of the three regression outputs. On the national level, by definition, both access deviation (Figure B.2) and NPC deviation (Figure B.3) should be close to zero. However, because national mean estimates (blue horizontal lines) are derived from the stock and flow model for these two measures, the survey data can show nonzero values in country-years where the stock and flow model did not perfectly fit the surveys, and the regression estimates will be similarly nonzero.

Use gap values are not constrained to be near zero. Figure B.4 also demonstrates the stronger seasonal patterns detected in the use gap regression. While use rate is a derived output that was not directly fitted to data, we include time series of it here for reference (Figure B.5).

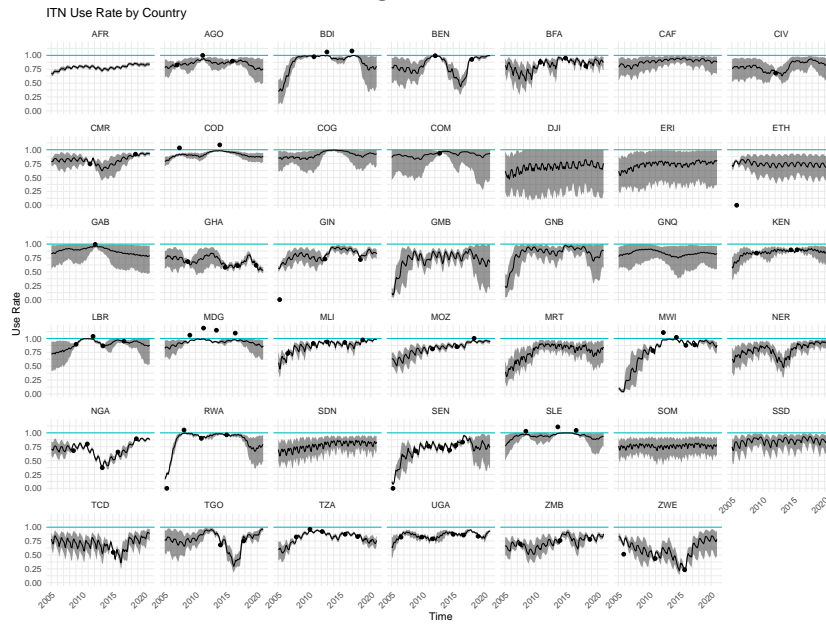
Figure B.3:



Figure B.4:



Figure B.5:



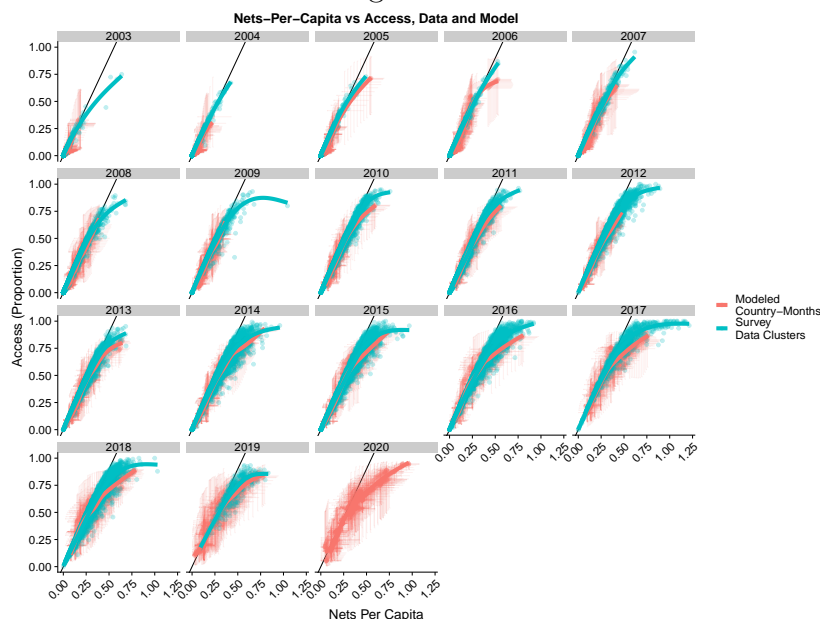
B.4.2 Access vs NPC: Model and Data

Figure 4 demonstrates the curvature of the relationship between ITN access and NPC for modeled country-months in the year 2020. Figure B.6 shows the consistency of this relationship by plotting survey data on the cluster level along with modeled estimates on the country-month level for all years in which survey data was available.

B.4.3 Assessing the Impact of Imperfect Allocation: Optimal vs True Access

Another way to assess the impact of less-than-perfect net allocation is to calculate a counterfactual “optimal access” metric based on the number of nets-per-capita, $\min(2 \times \text{NPC}, 1)$. Plotting this value against estimates for access (Figure B.7) gives an upper bound of what ITN access could look like with improved allocation.

Figure B.6:



B.4.4 Example of Exceedance Surfaces for Uncertainty Visualization

The main manuscript communicates geospatial uncertainty using an uncertainty quantile approach. Another way of visualizing this uncertainty is through an exceedance approach. For Bayesian models such as these, exceedance surfaces demonstrate the proportion of posterior draws that are above or below a given threshold. As an example, Figure B.8 shows posterior mean maps (central column) along with several positive and negative exceedance surfaces. The top row demonstrates that all 200 posterior draws showed an access estimate below 0.3 in Angola in 2020, whereas in Botswana only a fraction of draws were below this threshold. In contrast, almost all of Botswana had posterior draws below 0.5 in this same year. An interactive visualization to explore a range of cutoffs is available at the Malaria Atlas Project website.

B.4.5 Regression Coefficients and Model Validation

Figure B.9 shows coefficient values for all model covariates. Note that these values are in transformed variable space, not level space.

Figure B.10 plots true vs predicted values for all survey data points. Posterior

Figure B.7:

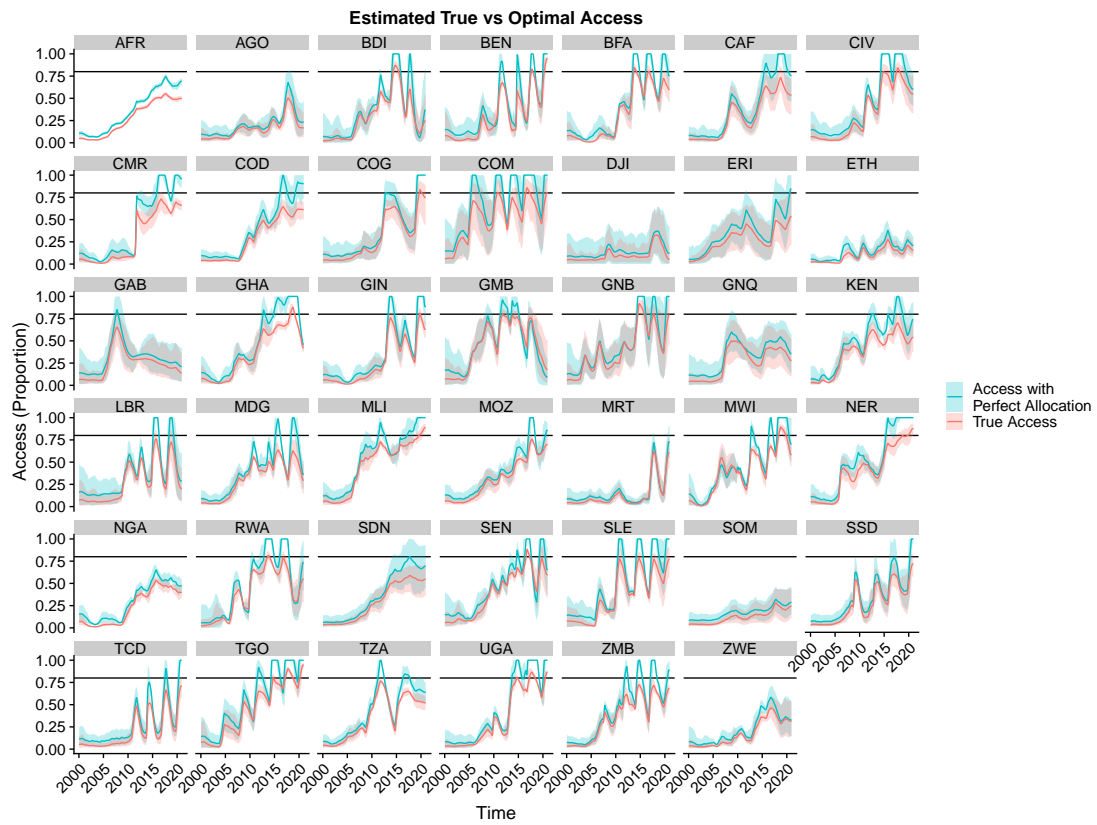
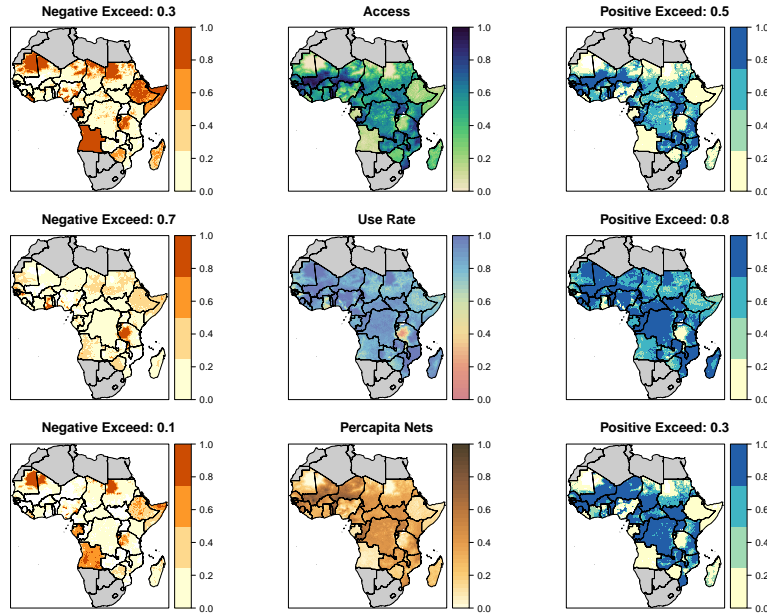


Figure B.8: 2020 Exceedance Surfaces



coverage was evaluated by leave-one-out probability integral transforms (PIT). For well-calibrated posteriors, the distribution of PITs should be close to Uniform. PIT distributions showed acceptable posterior coverage for all models, though the NPC regression will require more adjustment in future iterations to ensure proper calibration (Figure B.11).

B.5 Covariate Selection

B.5.1 Methods

The full set of covariates (Table B.1) was selected during a previous iteration of this analysis [10]. The temperature- and aridity- based covariates were selected on the basis of a documented relationship between these variables and net use [14, 15]. The remaining variables were selected either as proxies for socioeconomic status (nighttime lights, population, access to cities) or as proxies for other spatially-varying cultural behaviors that may impact net use (land cover types). Because the outputs of this analysis are in turn used as inputs into a regression model to estimate malaria prevalence [7, 16], covariate selection is also constrained to not overlap with the covariates used in the downstream model to avoid circularity.

Figure B.9:

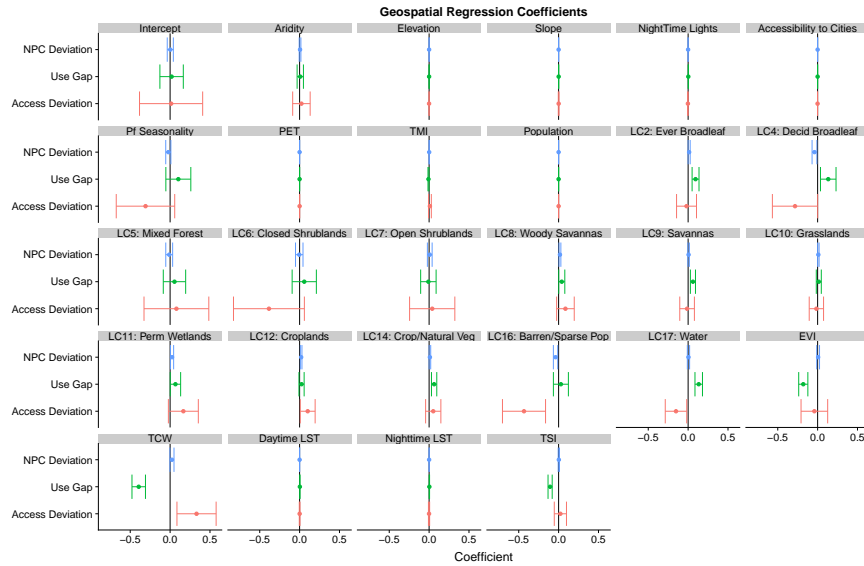


Figure B.10:

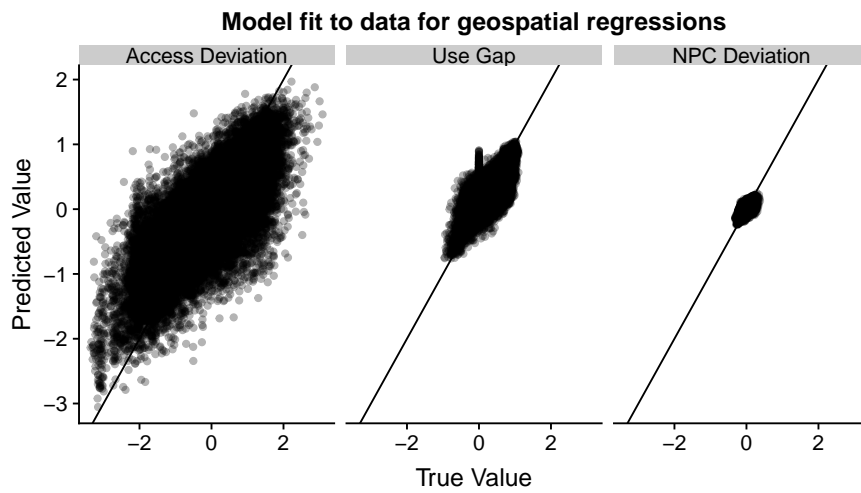
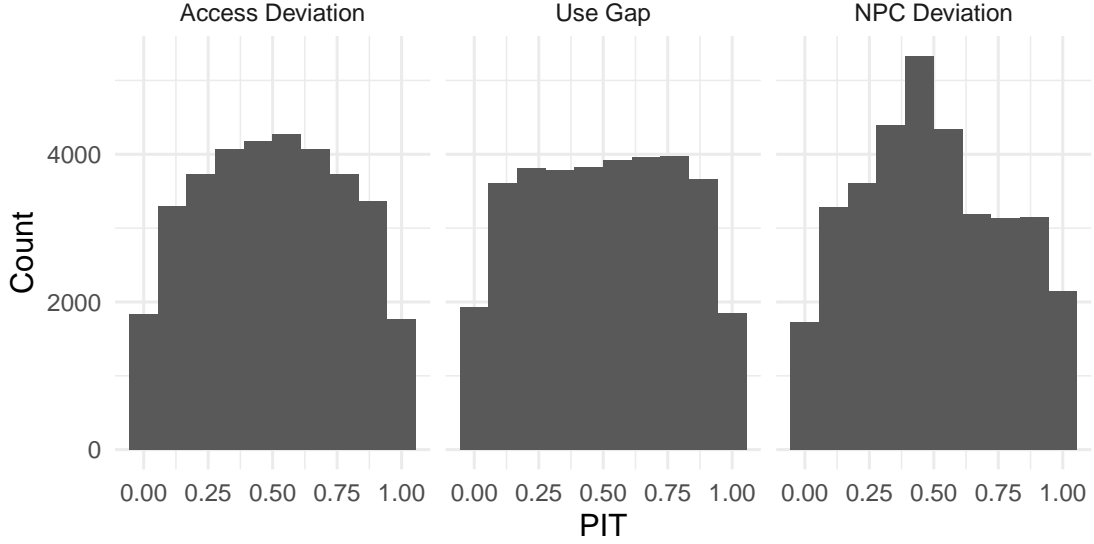


Figure B.11:
PIT distribution for different models



Three covariate combinations were assessed for predictive performance in the access deviation and use gap models: The full set of available covariates, the full set excluding landcover covariates, and a custom set based on the magnitude and significance of effects in the full model (Table B.2). Models were compared on the basis of pointwise leave-one-out predictive density $loo_i = \log p(y_i|y_{-i})$ and pointwise Watanabe-Akaike Information Criterion (WAIC).

B.5.2 Results

The model utilizing the full set of covariates performed best by all metrics except for WAIC in the access deviation regression, for which it performed almost identically to the “No Landcover” model (Table B.3). Based on these results, the full covariate set was utilized in the final model.

| Covariate | Resolution | Included in “No Land-cover” | Included in Custom Set |
|---|------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| Aridity | Static | Yes | Yes |
| Elevation | Static | Yes | No |
| Slope | Static | Yes | No |
| NightTime Lights | Static | Yes | No |
| Accessibility to Cities | Static | Yes | No |
| <i>Plasmodium falciparum</i> Seasonality | Static | Yes | Yes |
| Potential Evotranspiration (PET) | Static | Yes | No |
| Topographic Moisture Index (TMI) | Static | Yes | No |
| Population | Annual | Yes | No |
| Land Cover Class 2: Evergreen Broadleaf Forest | Annual | No | Yes |
| Land Cover Class 4: Deciduous Broadleaf Forest | Annual | No | Yes |
| Land Cover Class 5: Mixed Forest | Annual | No | No |
| Land Cover Class 6: Closed Shrublands | Annual | No | No |
| Land Cover Class 7: Open Shrublands | Annual | No | No |
| Land Cover Class 8: Woody Savannas | Annual | No | No |
| Land Cover Class 9: Savannas | Annual | No | Yes |
| Land Cover Class 10: Grasslands | Annual | No | Access Deviation Only |
| Land Cover Class 11: Permanent Wetlands | Annual | No | Yes |
| Land Cover Class 12: Croplands | Annual | No | Use Gap Only |
| Land Cover Class 14: Cropland/Natural Vegetation Mosaic | Annual | No | No |
| Land Cover Class 16: Barren or Sparsely Populated | Annual | No | Access Deviation Only |
| Land Cover Class 17: Water | Annual | No | Yes |
| Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) | Dynamic | Yes | Yes |
| Tassled Cap Wetness (TCW) | Dynamic | Yes | Yes |
| Daytime Land Surface Temperature (LST) | Dynamic | Yes | No |
| Nighttime Land Surface Temperature (LST) | Dynamic | Yes | No |
| Temperature Suitability Index (TSI) | Dynamic | Yes | Yes |

Table B.2: Covariates used in covariate selection tests.

| Model | Covariate Type | LOO | WAIC |
|------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Access Deviation | Full Model | -49,951 | 91,705 |
| | No Landcover | -45,951 | 91,670 |
| | Custom | -46,130 | 92,048 |
| Use Gap | Full Model | 903.6 | -1902.7 |
| | No Landcover | 888.8 | -1872.6 |
| | Custom | 859.6 | -1814.3 |

Table B.3: Validation metrics for covariate sets.

B.6 Uncertainty Propagation

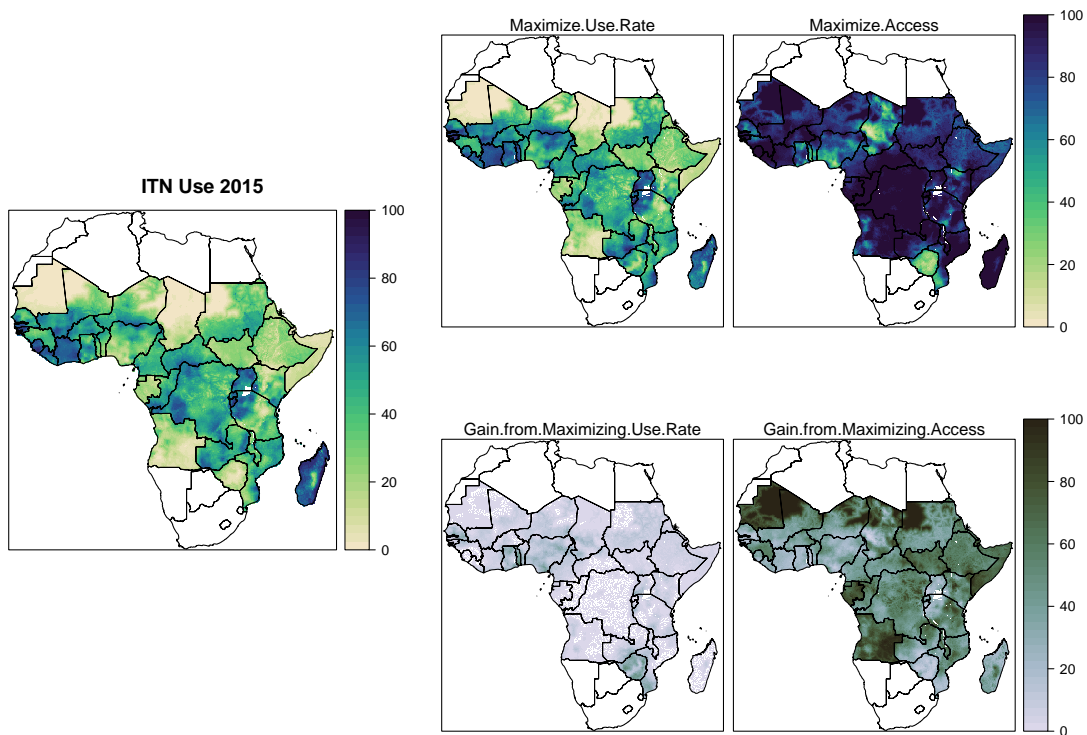
Both JAGS and INLA return samples from the posterior distributions of the parameters of interest, allowing summary statistics to be explicitly computed as the mean and 95% percentile ranges across these samples. The ideal way to propagate uncertainty would be to run a separate INLA regression for each of the N_{sf} stock-and-flow posterior samples, but this was beyond our computational capacity. Instead, the mean value across the $N_{sf} = 500$ posterior INLA samples was used as the “national mean” from which access deviation and NPC deviation were computed. Then, $N_{geo} = 200$ posterior samples were drawn from each geospatial regression (access deviation, use gap, and NPC deviation). To compute access, use, and NPC at the draw level, 200 samples were selected at random from the stock-and-flow draws and these were added to the INLA samples in place of the stock-and-flow mean values to recapture some stock-and-flow uncertainty in the final result.

B.7 Relative gain

By separately modeling access and use, this analysis was able to distinguish whether lack of net access or lack of net use was the primary driver of low net coverage for those areas that do not achieve universal coverage.

This analysis required the answers to two questions. First, how high could ITN use be if access were kept constant but the use rate were maximized? Second, how high could ITN use be if the use rate were kept constant but access were maximized? These two questions correspond to maps of ITN access and the ITN use rate (use/access) in a given year, respectively. By subtracting true use from each surface, the percentage point gain in coverage from each of these scenarios

Figure B.12:



was calculated. The relative gain of one scenario over another was then assessed by comparing the two gain surfaces.

References

1. Flaxman, A. D. *et al.* Rapid scaling up of insecticide-treated bed net coverage in Africa and its relationship with development assistance for health: A systematic synthesis of supply, distribution, and household survey data. *PLoS Medicine* **7**. ISSN: 15491277 (2010).
2. Bhatt, S. *et al.* Coverage and system efficiencies of insecticide-treated nets in Africa from 2000 to 2017. *eLife* **4**. ISSN: 2050084X (2015).
3. Yukich, J. *et al.* Planning long lasting insecticide treated net campaigns: Should households' existing nets be taken into account? *Parasites and Vectors*

- 6, 174. ISSN: 17563305. <https://parasitesandvectors.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1756-3305-6-174> (2013).
4. Hakizimana, E. *et al.* Monitoring long-lasting insecticidal net (LLIN) durability to validate net serviceable life assumptions, in Rwanda. *Malaria Journal* **13**, 344. ISSN: 14752875. <http://malariajournal.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1475-2875-13-344> (2014).
5. Gnanguenon, V., Azondekon, R., Oke-Agbo, F., Beach, R. & Akogbeto, M. Durability assessment results suggest a serviceable life of two, rather than three, years for the current long-lasting insecticidal (mosquito) net (LLIN) intervention in Benin. *BMC Infectious Diseases* **14**, 69. ISSN: 14712334. <https://bmcinfectdis.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2334-14-69> (2014).
6. Solomon, T. *et al.* Bed nets used to protect against malaria do not last long in a semi-arid area of Ethiopia: A cohort study. *Malaria Journal* **17**, 239. ISSN: 14752875. <https://malariajournal.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12936-018-2391-5> (2018).
7. Weiss, D. J. *et al.* Mapping the global prevalence, incidence, and mortality of *Plasmodium falciparum*, 2000–17: a spatial and temporal modelling study. *The Lancet* **394**, 322–331. ISSN: 1474547X (2019).
8. Kilian, A., Boulay, M., Koenker, H. & Lynch, M. How many mosquito nets are needed to achieve universal coverage? Recommendations for the quantification and allocation of long-lasting insecticidal nets for mass campaigns. *Malaria Journal* **9**, 330. ISSN: 14752875. <https://malariajournal.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1475-2875-9-330> (2010).
9. Singh, J. A Characterization of Positive Poisson Distribution and its Statistical Application. *SIAM Journal on Applied Mathematics* **34**, 545–548 (1978).
10. Bhatt, S. *et al.* The effect of malaria control on *Plasmodium falciparum* in Africa between 2000 and 2015. *Nature* **526**, 207–211. ISSN: 14764687 (2015).
11. Weiss, D. J. *et al.* An effective approach for gap-filling continental scale remotely sensed time-series. *ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing* **98**, 106–118. ISSN: 09242716. <https://pmc/articles/PMC4308023/?report=abstract%20https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4308023/> (2014).
12. Lindgren, F., Rue, H. & Lindström, J. An explicit link between gaussian fields and gaussian markov random fields: The stochastic partial differential equation approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B: Statistical Methodology* **73**, 423–498. ISSN: 13697412. <https://rss.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/j.1467-9868.2011.00777.x%20https://>

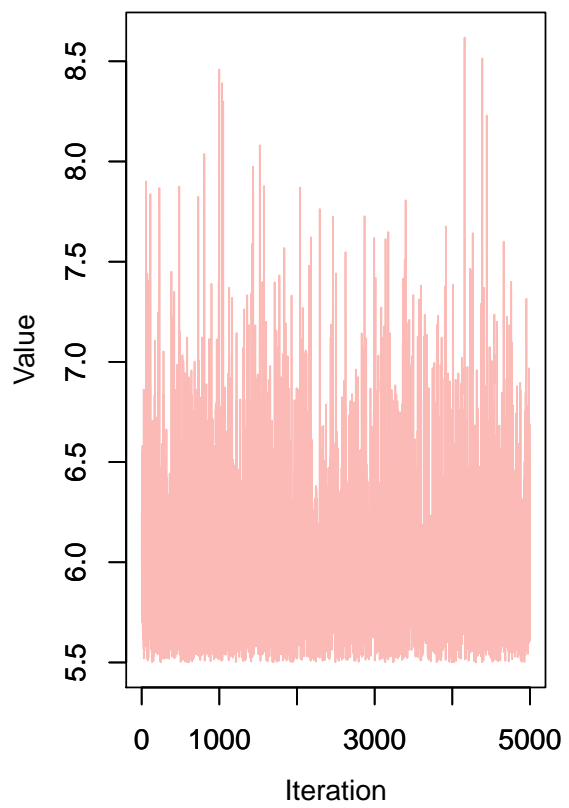
- <https://rss.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1467-9868.2011.00777.x> (2011).
13. Burbidge, J. B., Magee, L. & Robb, A. L. Alternative Transformations to Handle Extreme Values of the Dependent Variable. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **83**, 123. ISSN: 01621459 (1988).
 14. Koenker, H. *et al.* Quantifying seasonal variation in insecticide-treated net use among those with access. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* **101**, 371–382. ISSN: 00029637 (2019).
 15. Winch, P. J. *et al.* Seasonal variation in the perceived risk of malaria: Implications for the promotion of insecticide-impregnated bed nets. *Social Science and Medicine* **39**, 63–75. ISSN: 02779536 (1994).
 16. Battle, K. E. *et al.* Mapping the global endemicity and clinical burden of *Plasmodium vivax*, 2000–17: a spatial and temporal modelling study. *The Lancet* **394**, 332–343. ISSN: 1474547X. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/> (2019).

C Additional Stock and Flow Plots

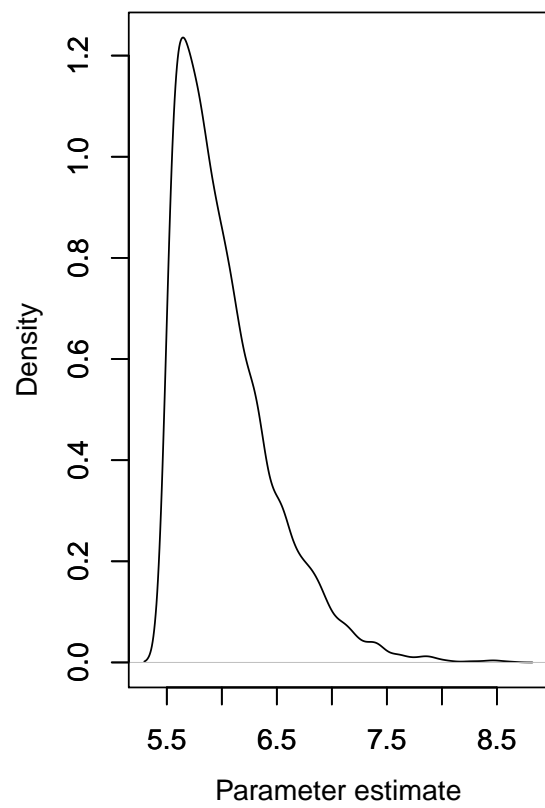
C.1 LLIN Retention Caterpillar Plots

These plots show posterior densities and parameter traces from JAGS for the LLIN duration parameter in the stock and flow model (defined as τ in [Table A.3](#)). Countries with wide densities or trace plots that cluster toward the top or bottom of the plot suggest unstable model fits, usually due to sparse survey data.

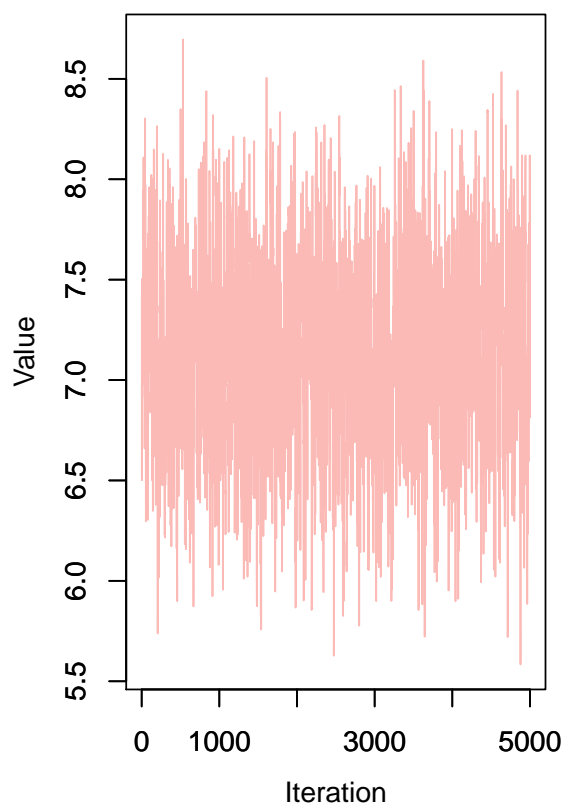
L_Ilin Trace, AGO



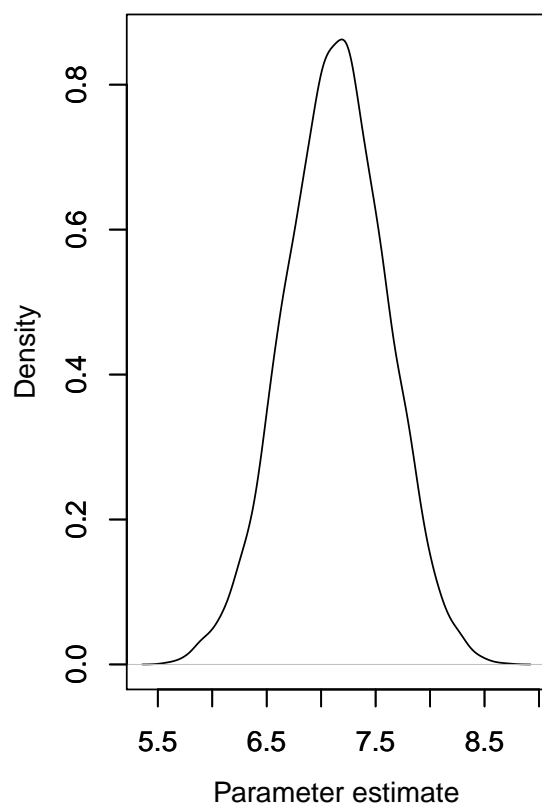
L_Ilin Density, AGO



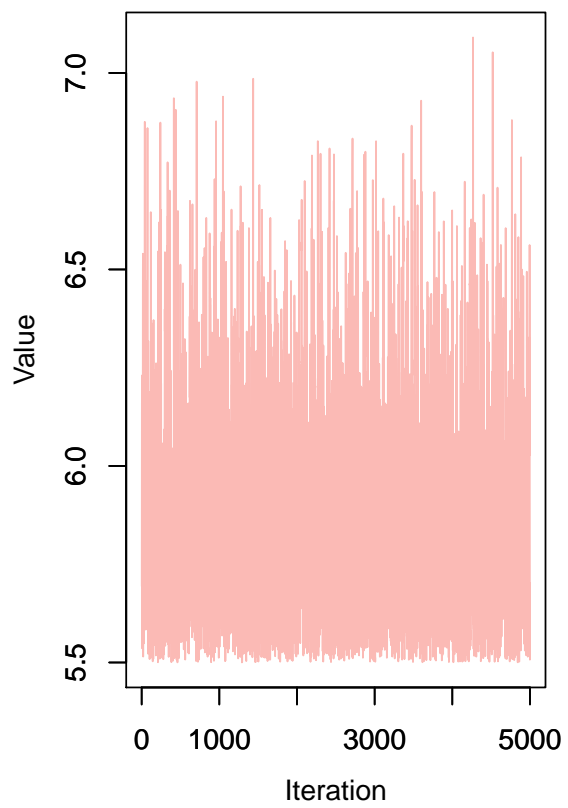
L_Ilin Trace, BDI



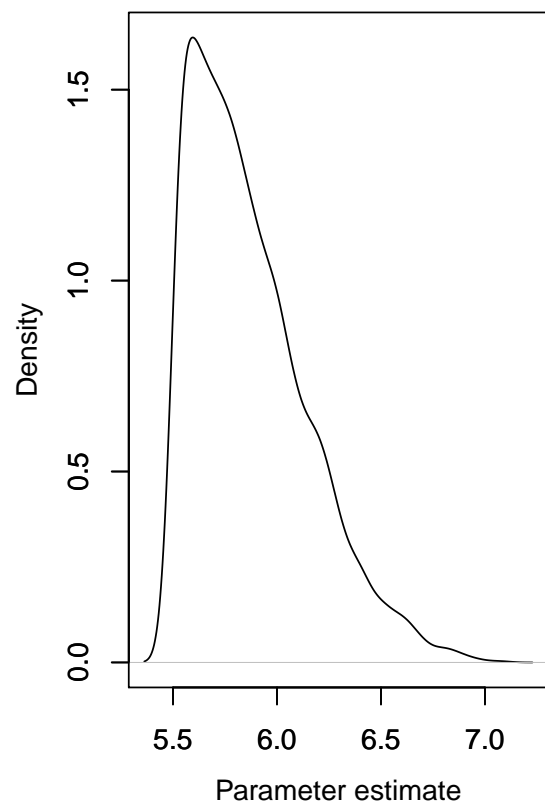
L_Ilin Density, BDI



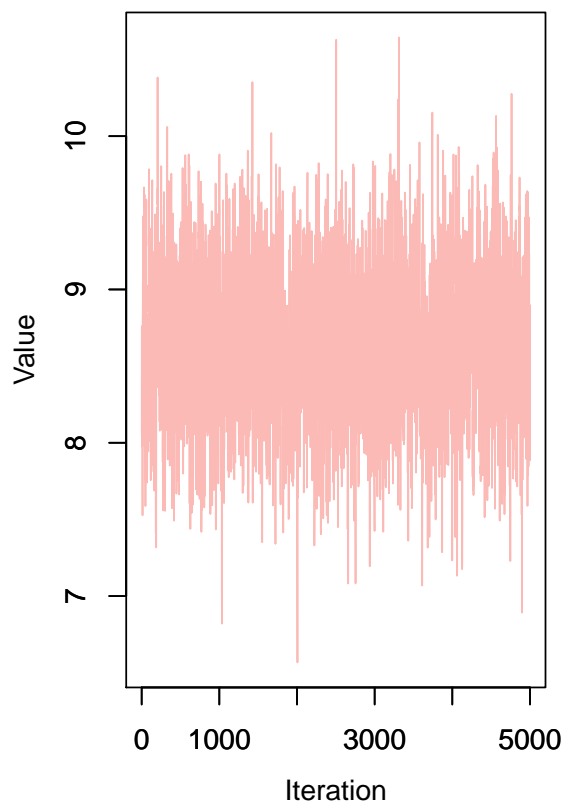
L_IIin Trace, BEN



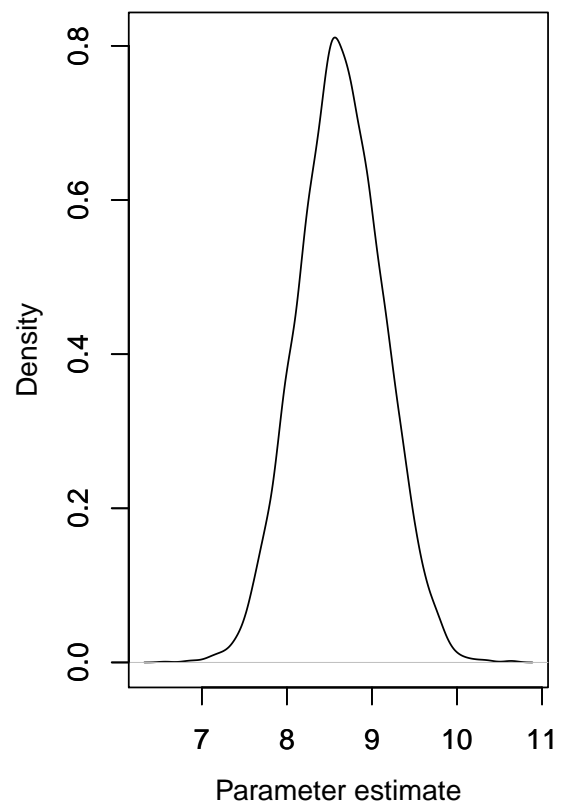
L_IIin Density, BEN



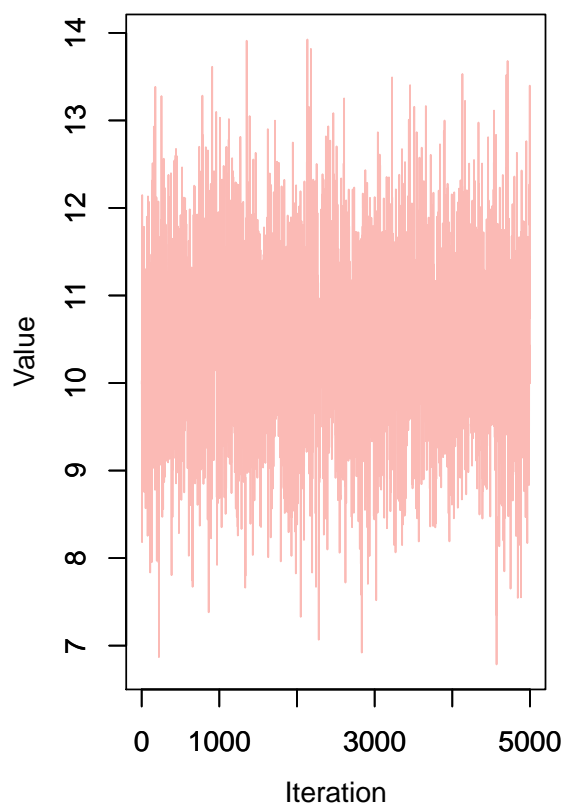
L_Ilin Trace, BFA



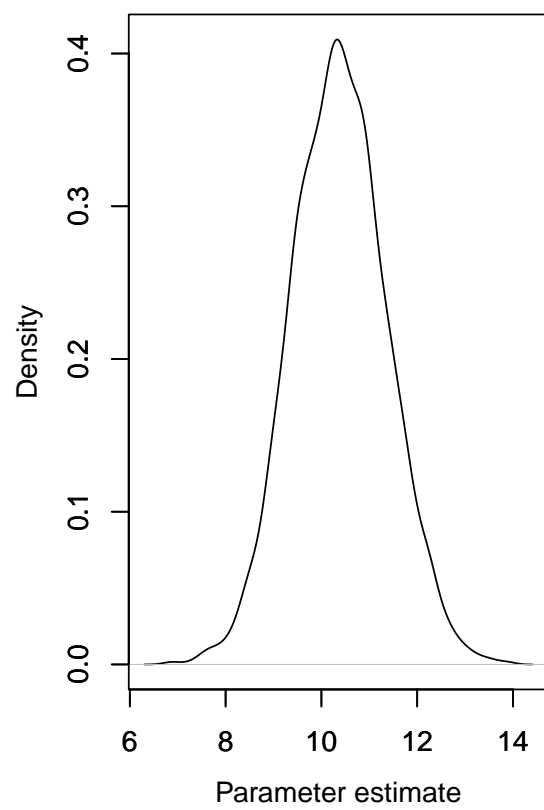
L_Ilin Density, BFA



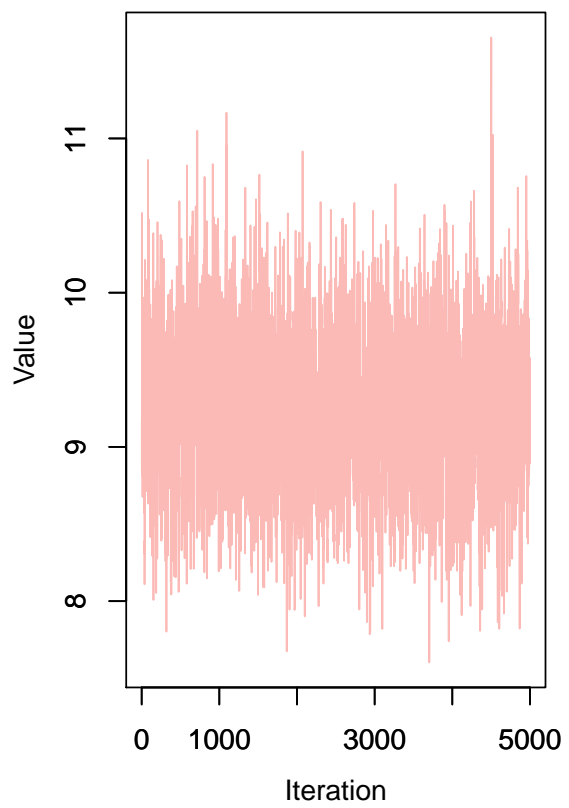
L_Ilin Trace, CAF



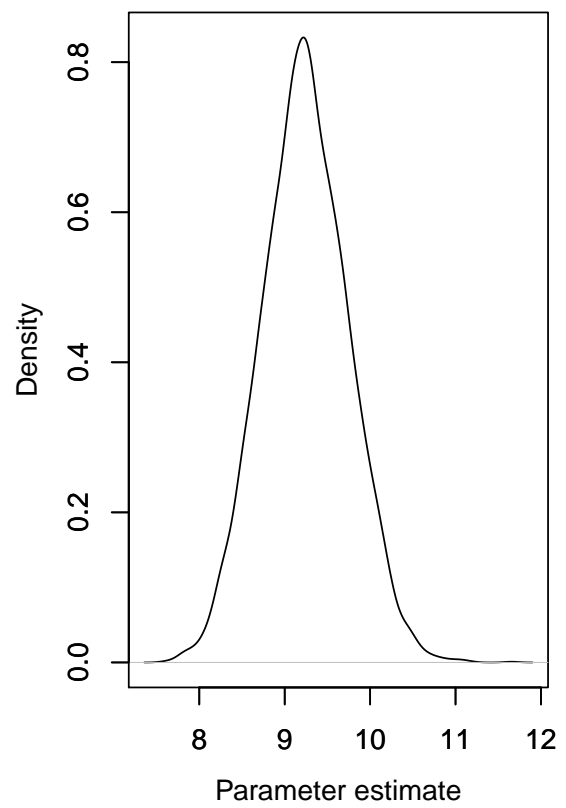
L_Ilin Density, CAF



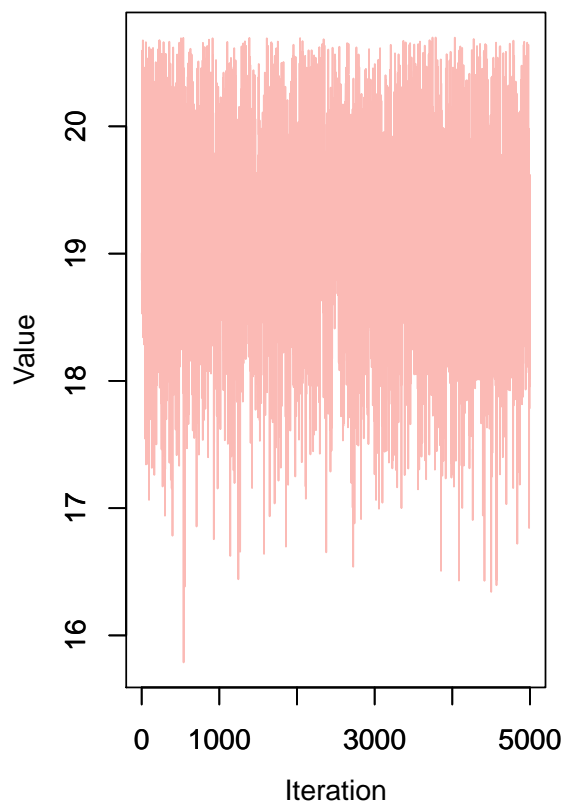
L_Ilin Trace, CIV



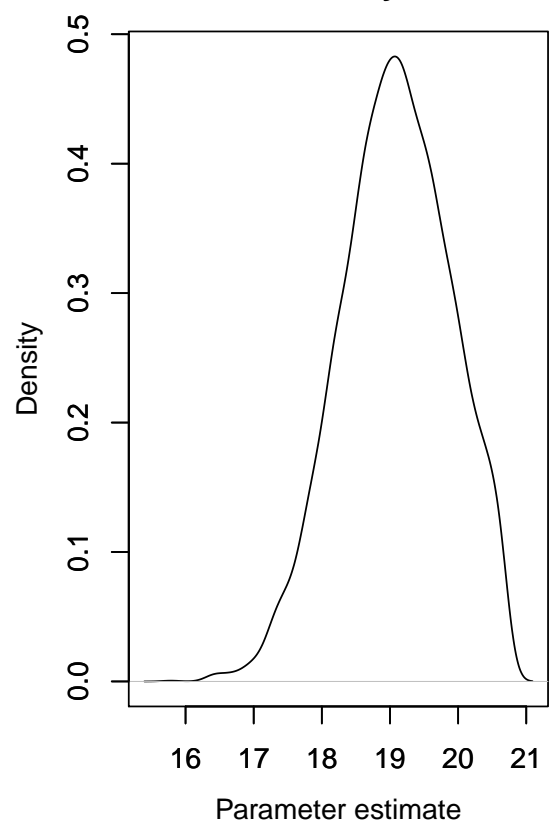
L_Ilin Density, CIV



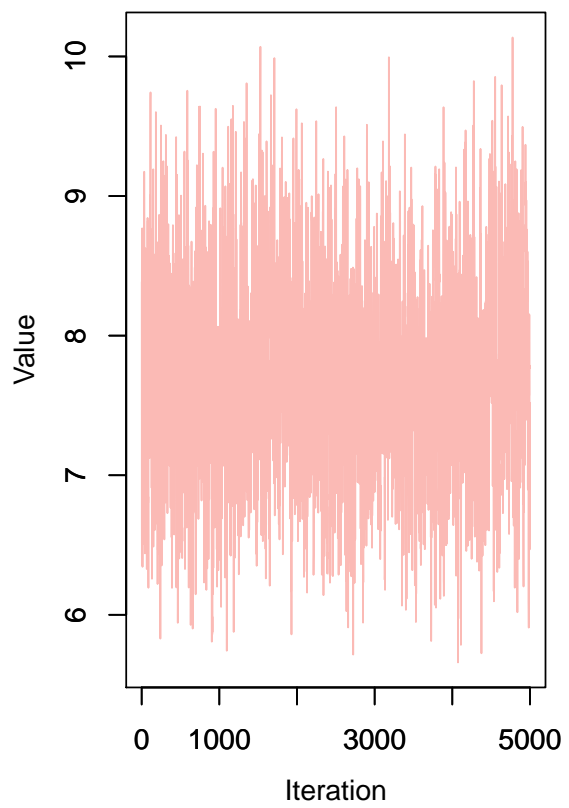
L_Ilin Trace, CMR



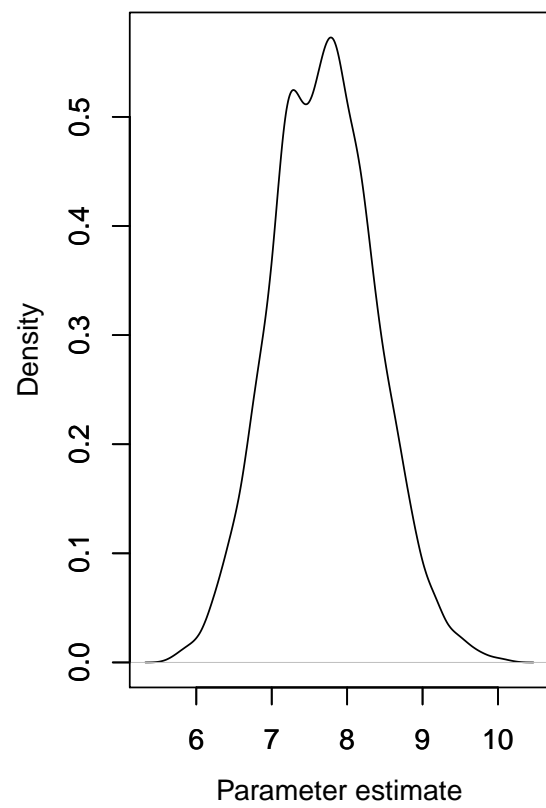
L_Ilin Density, CMR



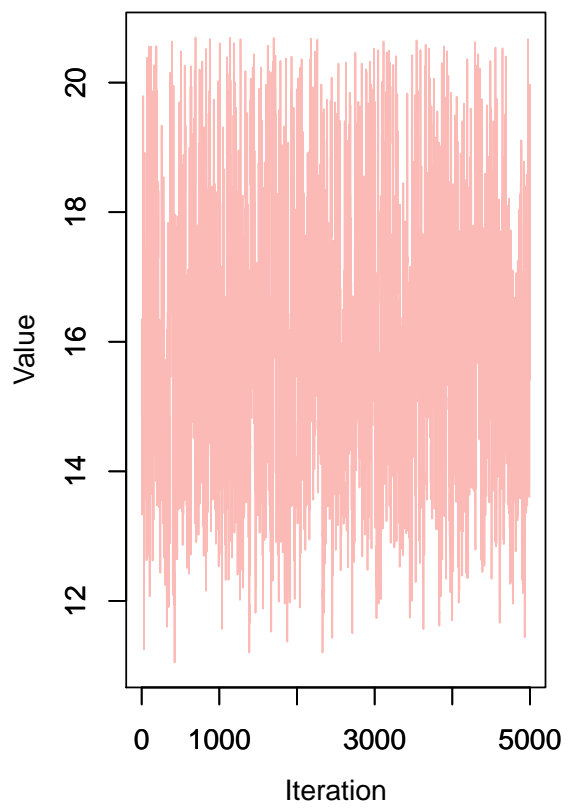
L_Ilin Trace, COD



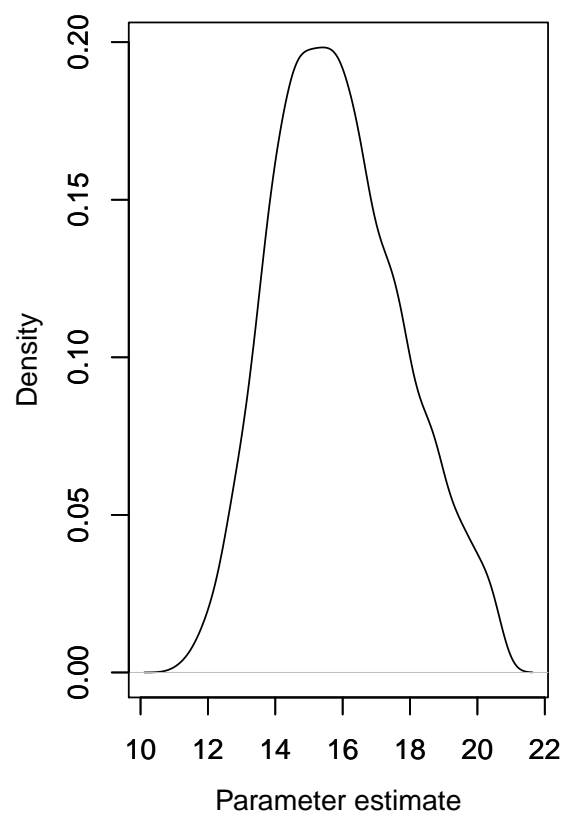
L_Ilin Density, COD

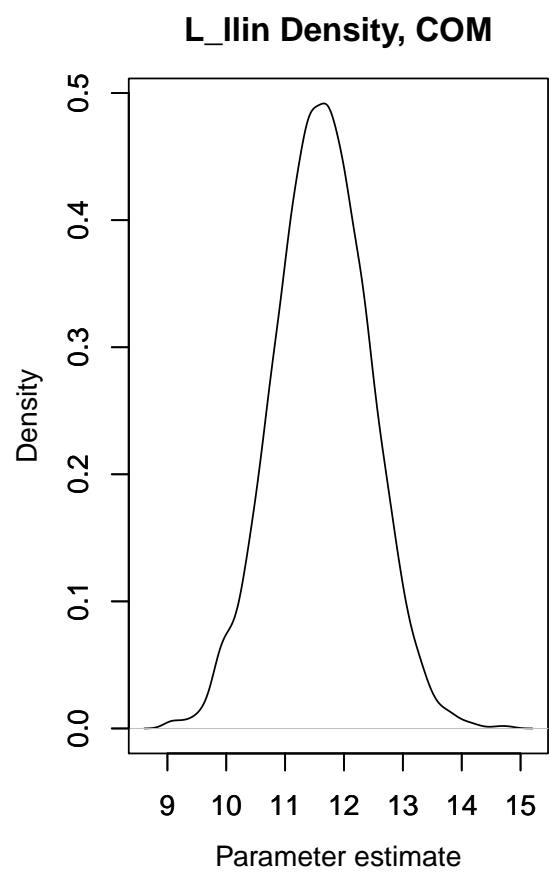
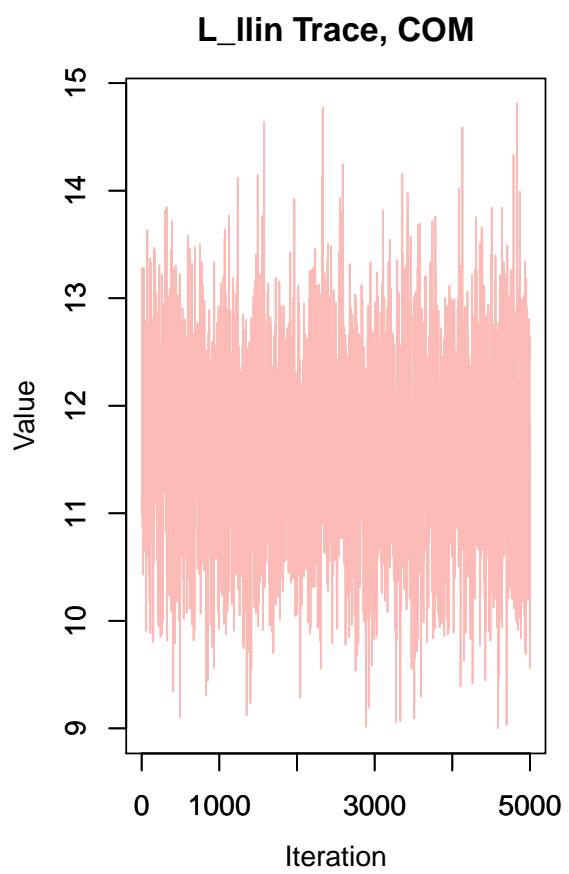


L_Ilin Trace, COG

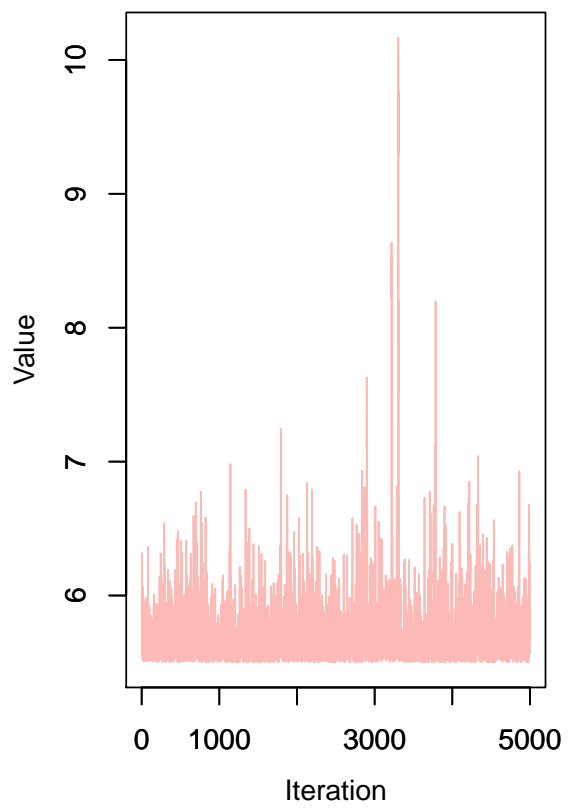


L_Ilin Density, COG

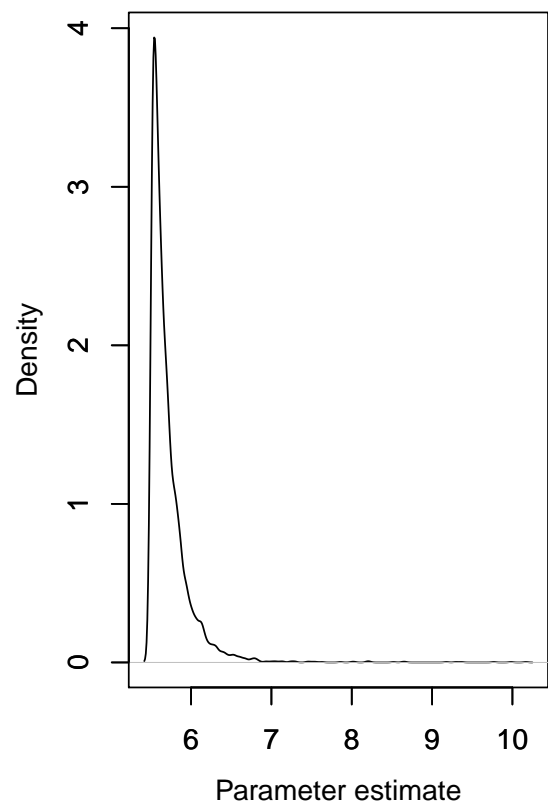


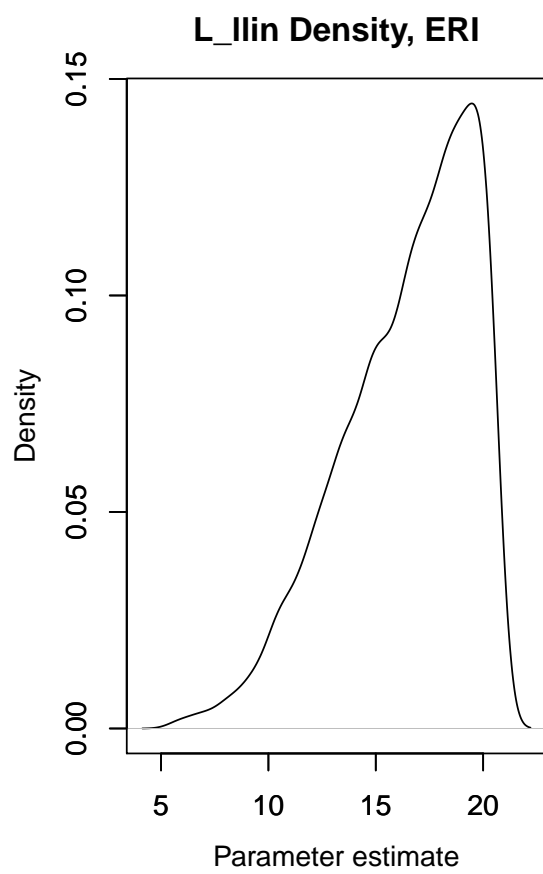
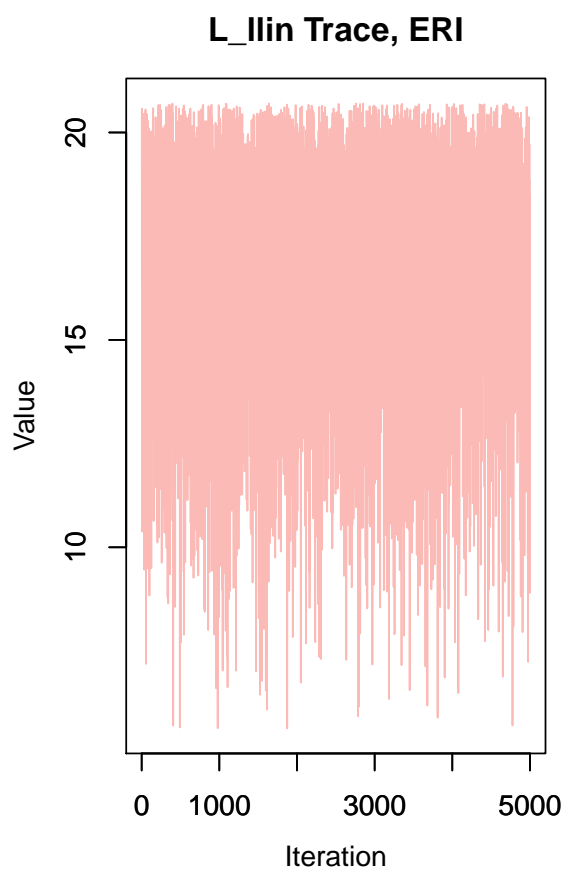


L_Ilin Trace, DJI

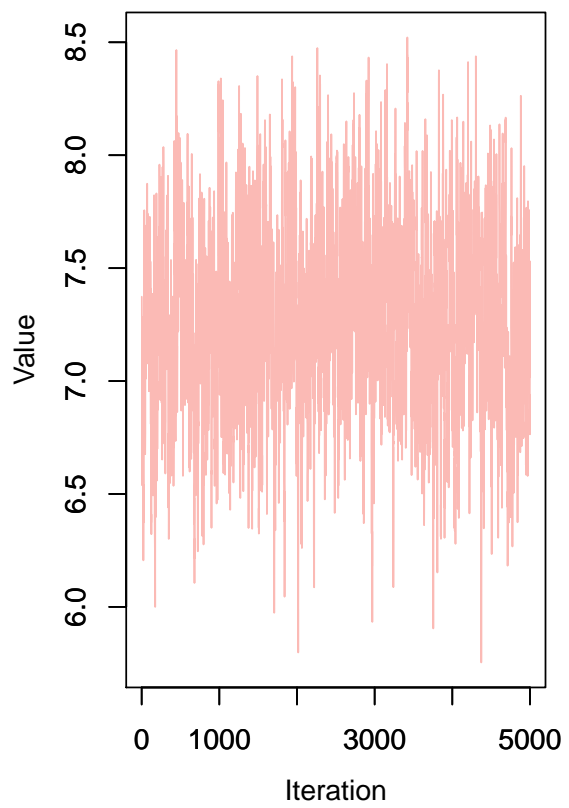


L_Ilin Density, DJI

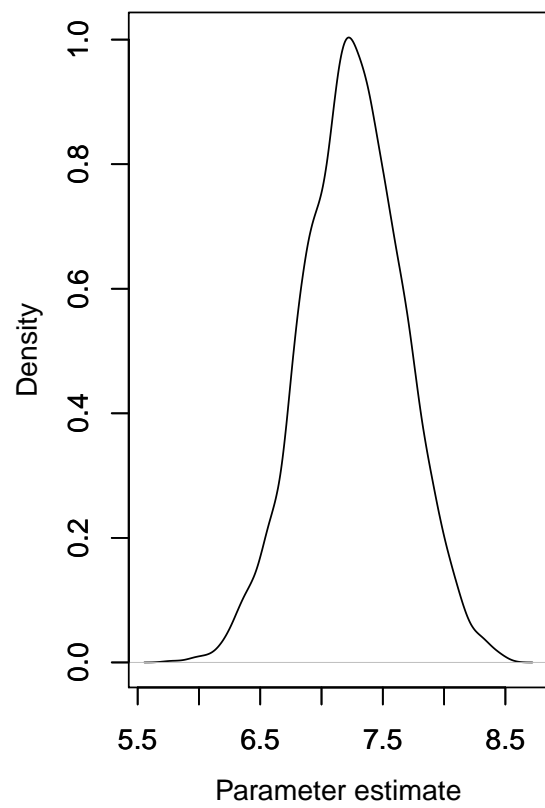




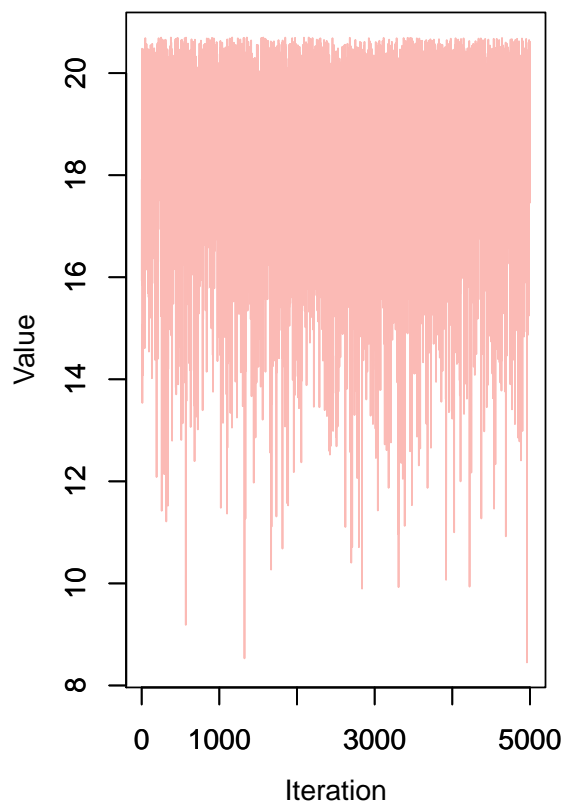
L_Ilin Trace, ETH



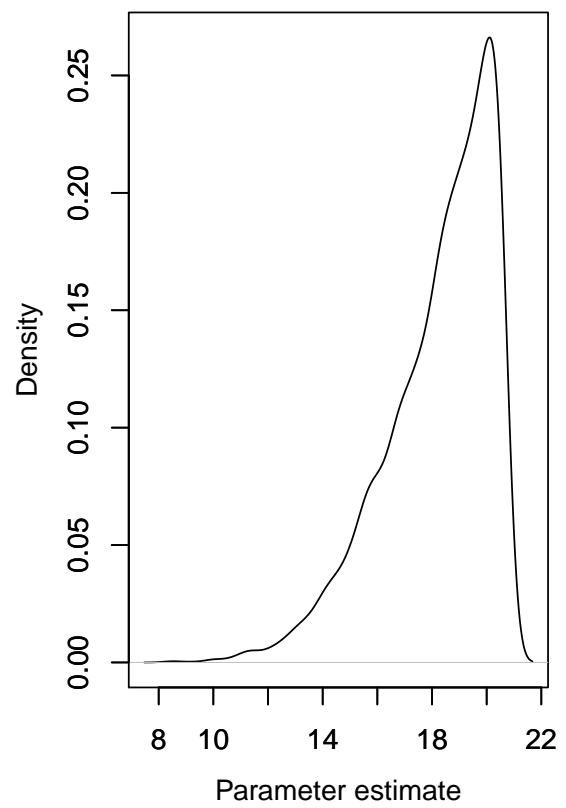
L_Ilin Density, ETH



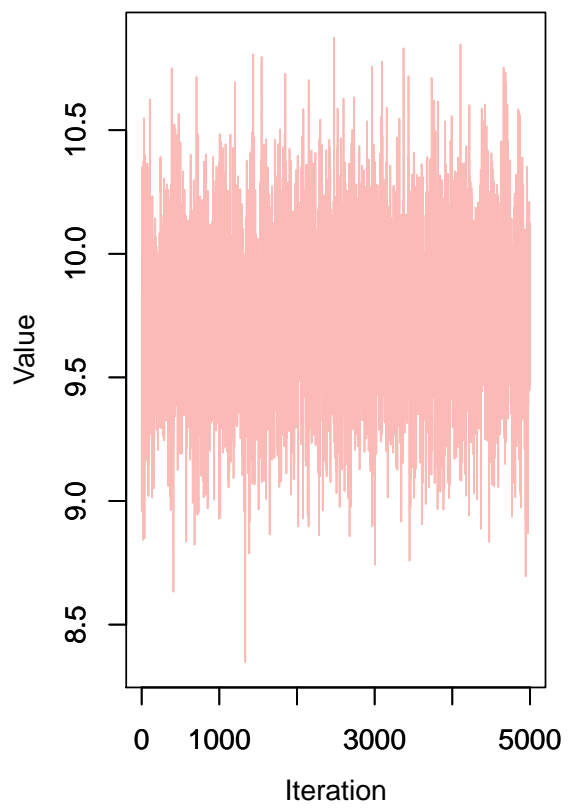
L_Ilin Trace, GAB



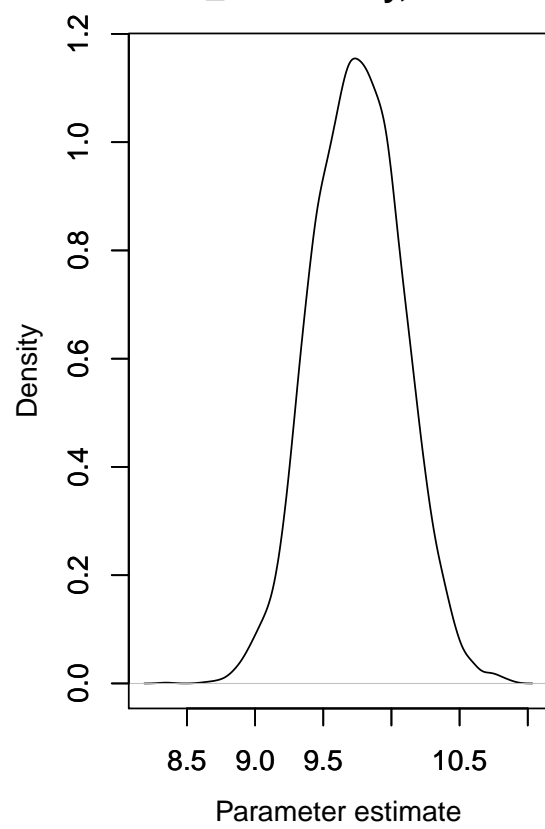
L_Ilin Density, GAB



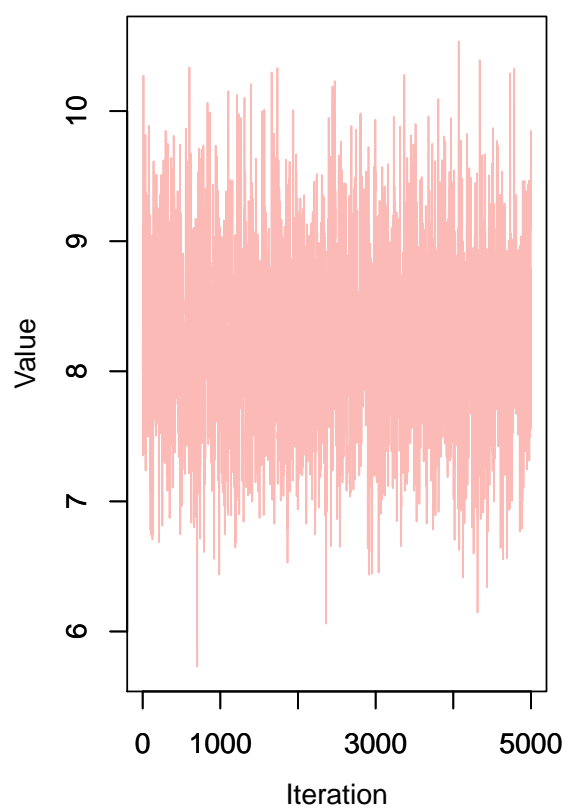
L_Ilin Trace, GHA



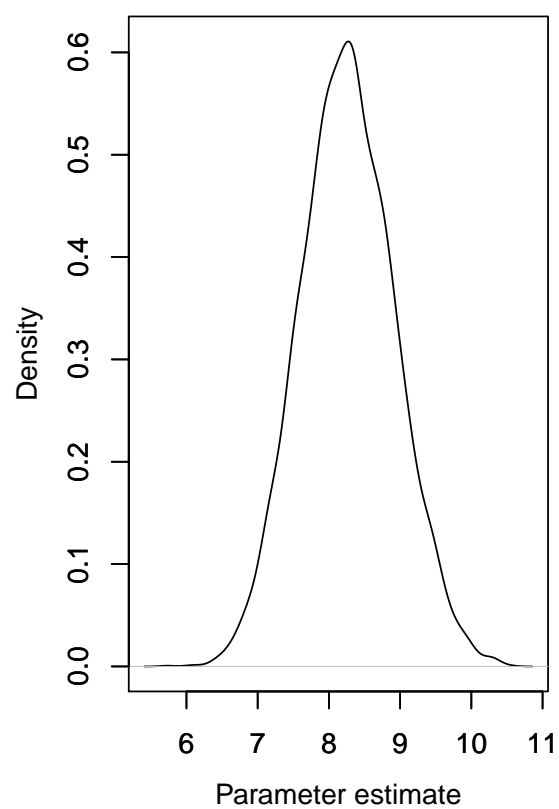
L_Ilin Density, GHA



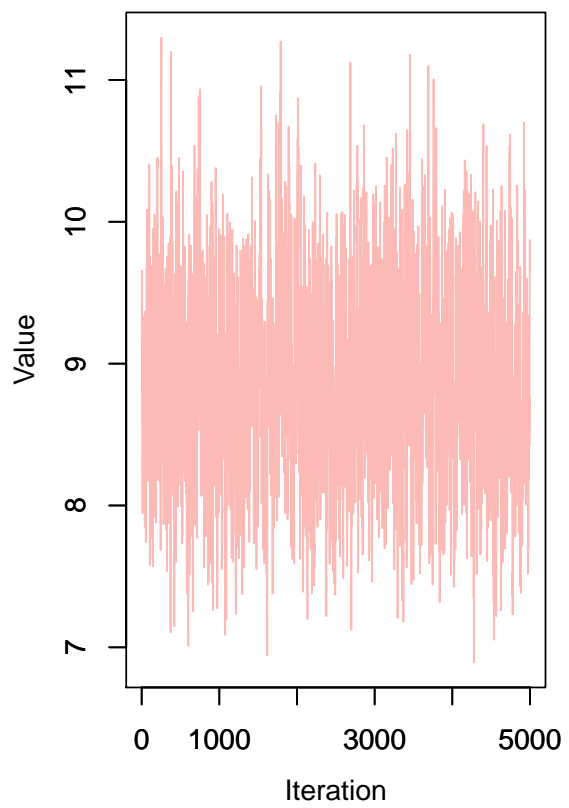
L_Ilin Trace, GIN



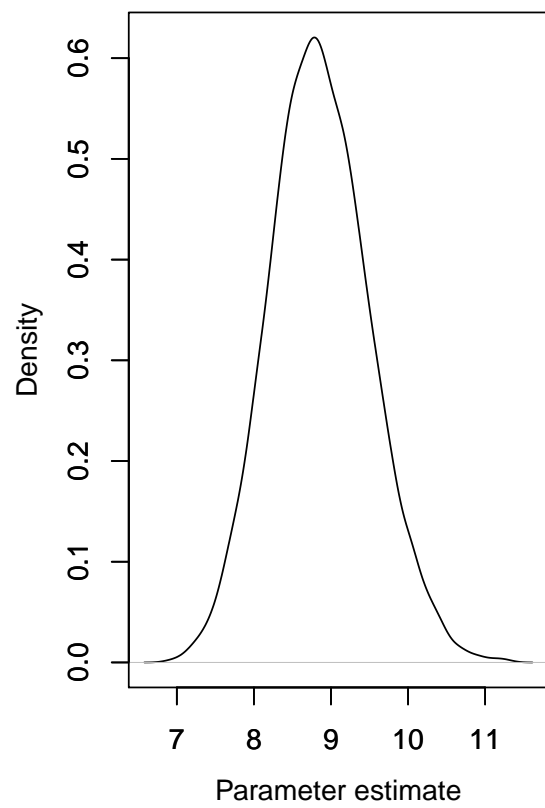
L_Ilin Density, GIN



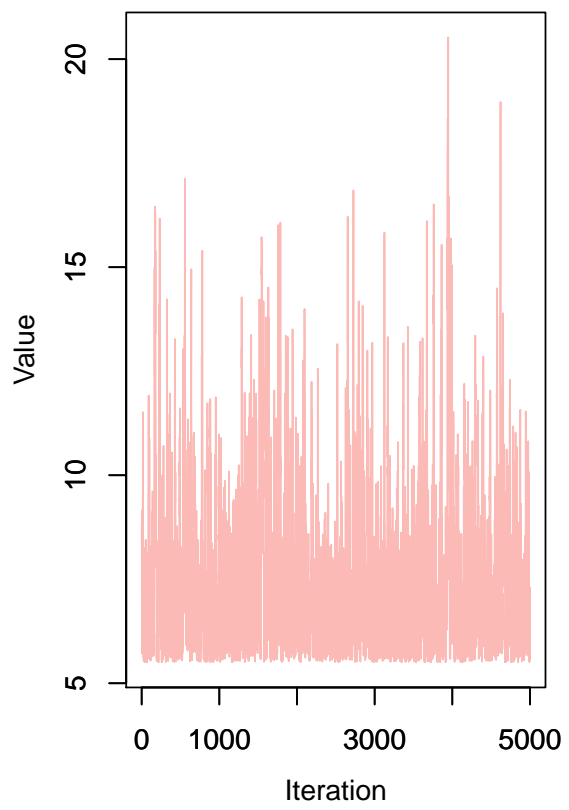
L_IIin Trace, GMB



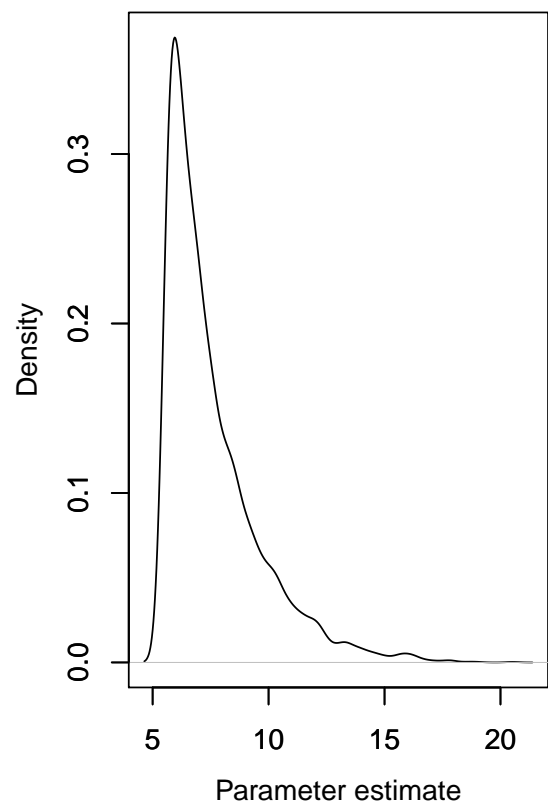
L_IIin Density, GMB



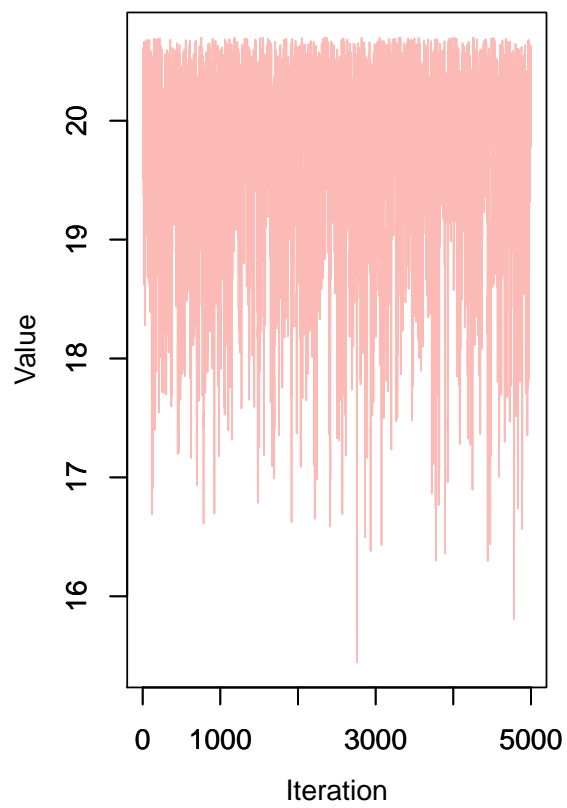
L_IIin Trace, GNB



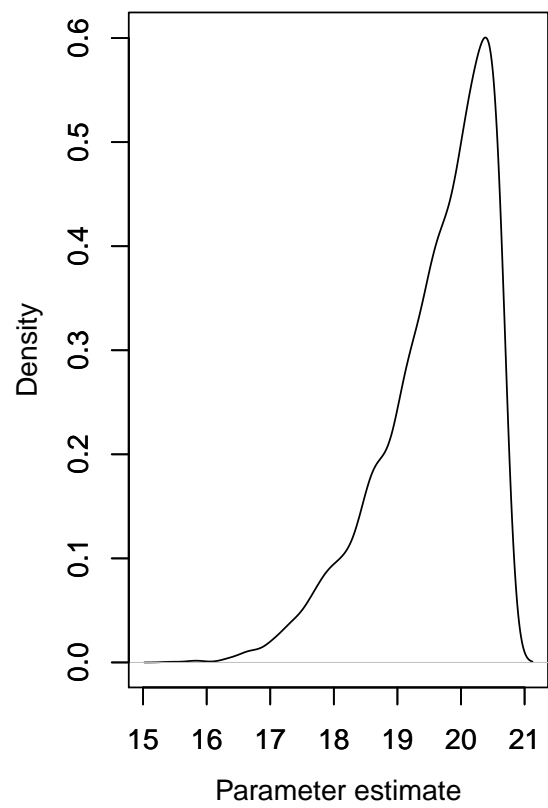
L_IIin Density, GNB

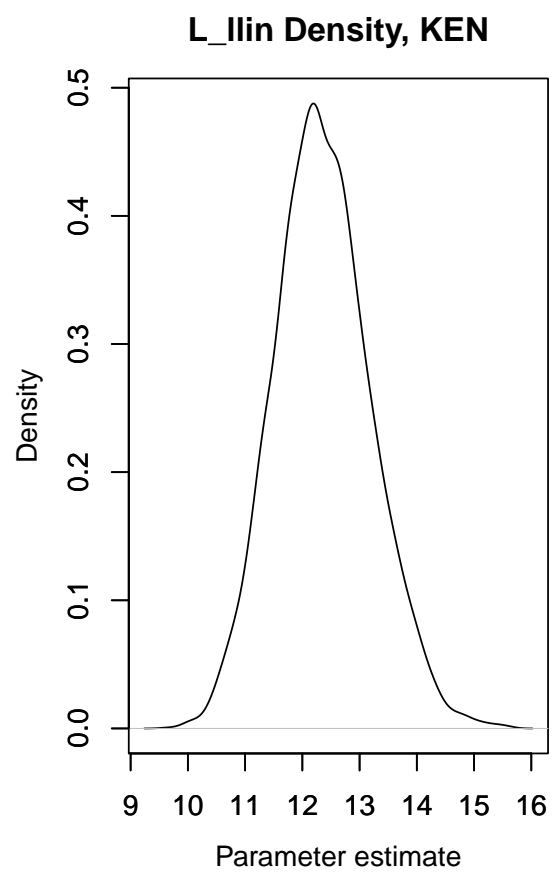
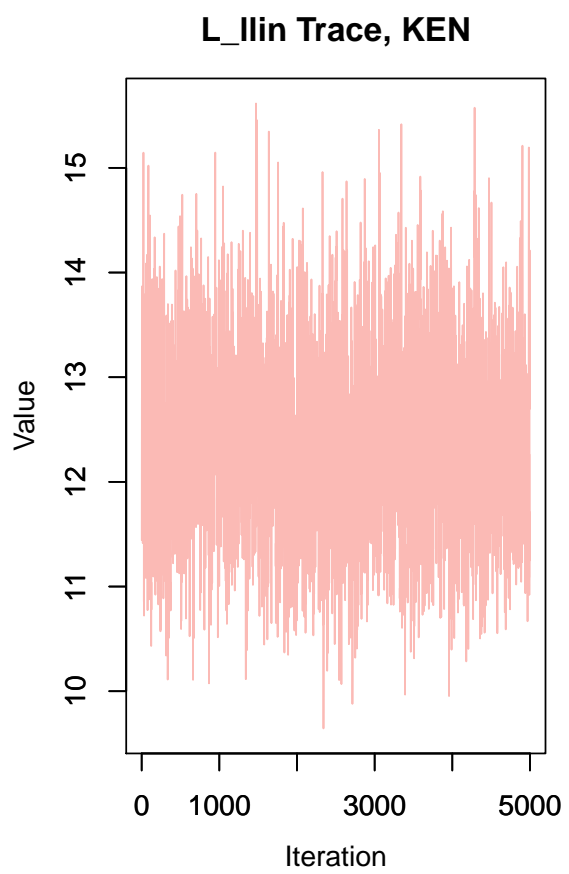


L_Ilin Trace, GNQ

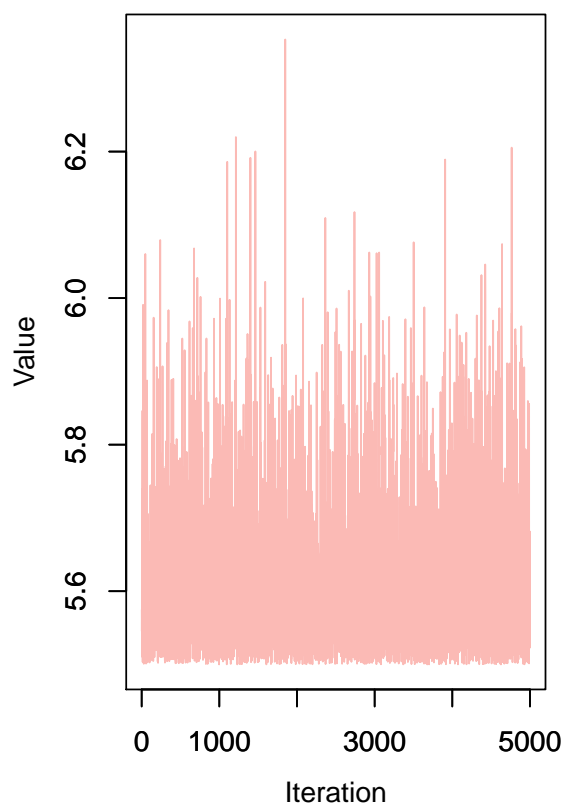


L_Ilin Density, GNQ

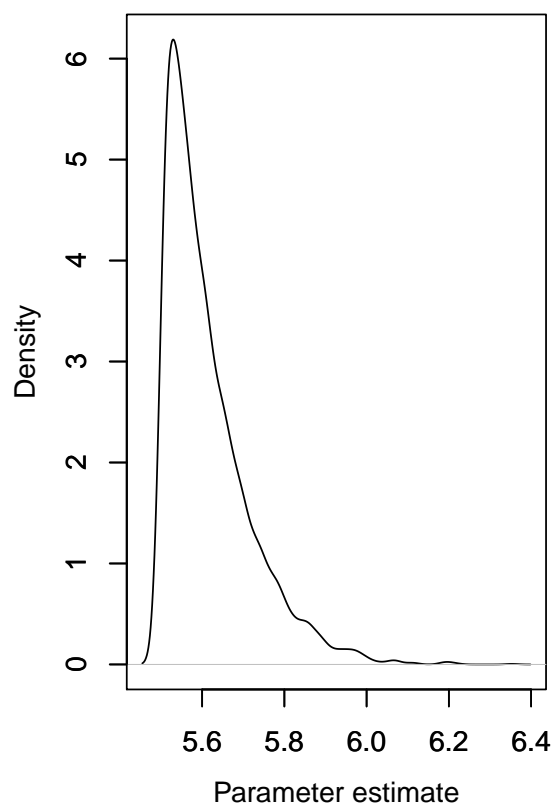


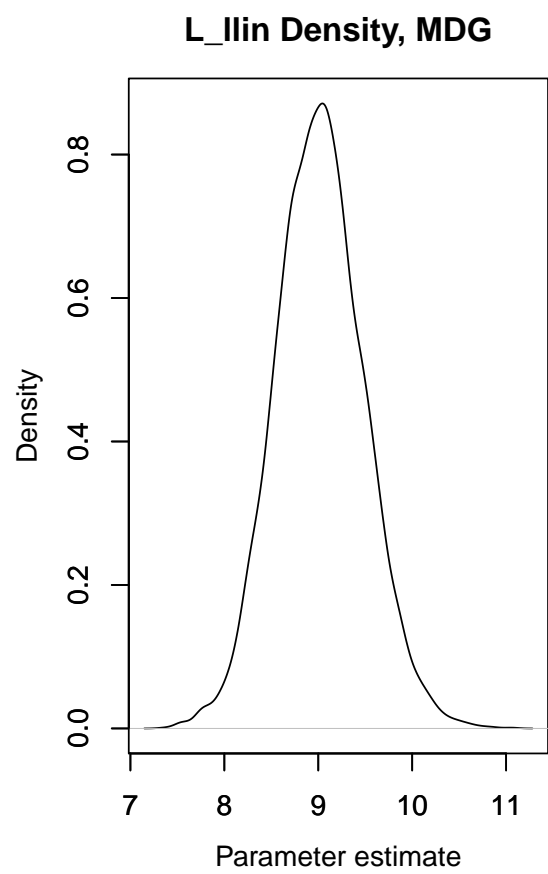
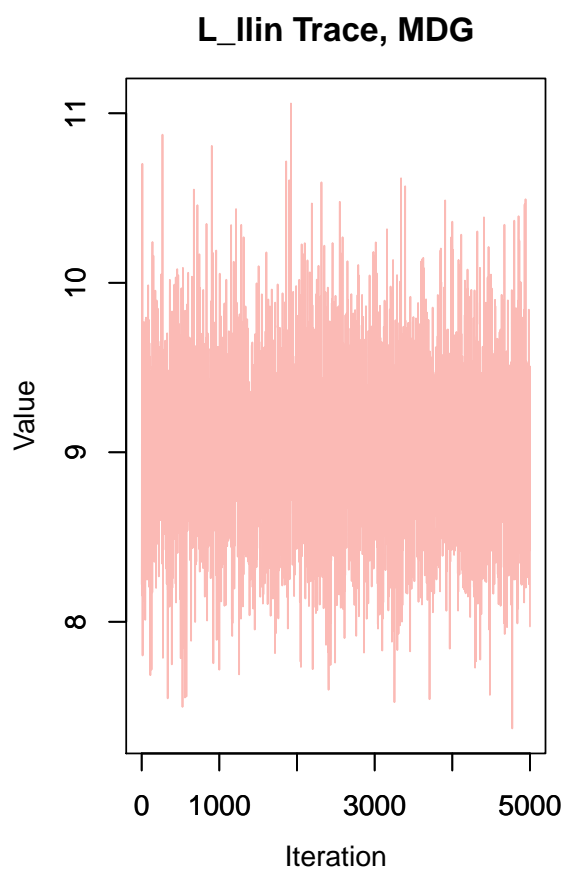


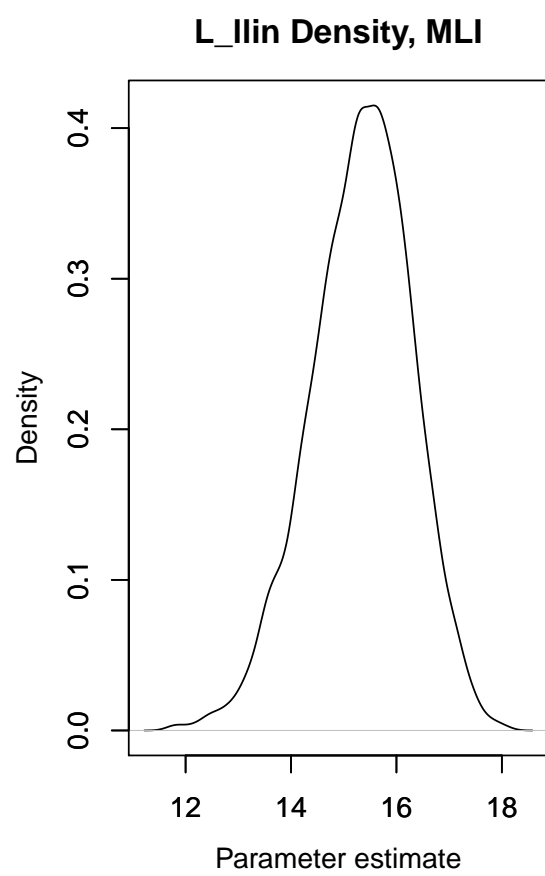
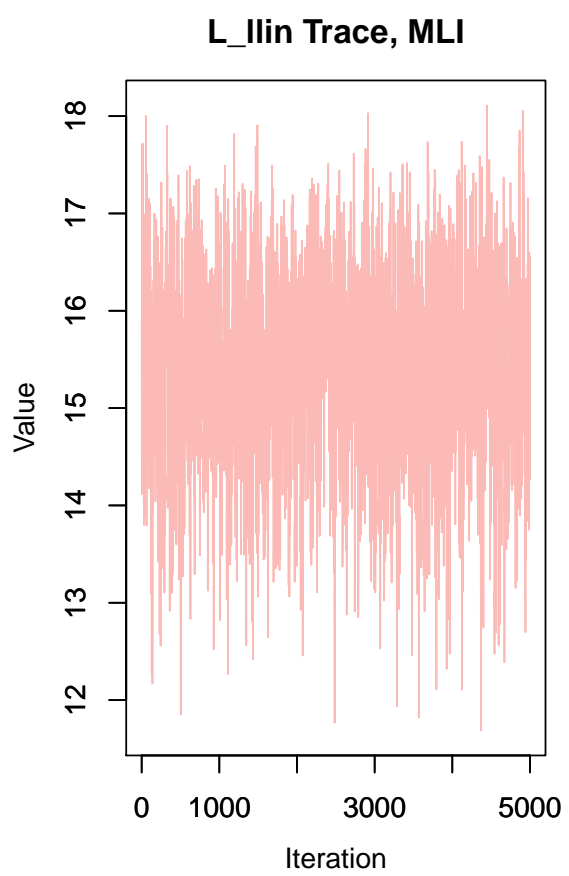
L_IIin Trace, LBR

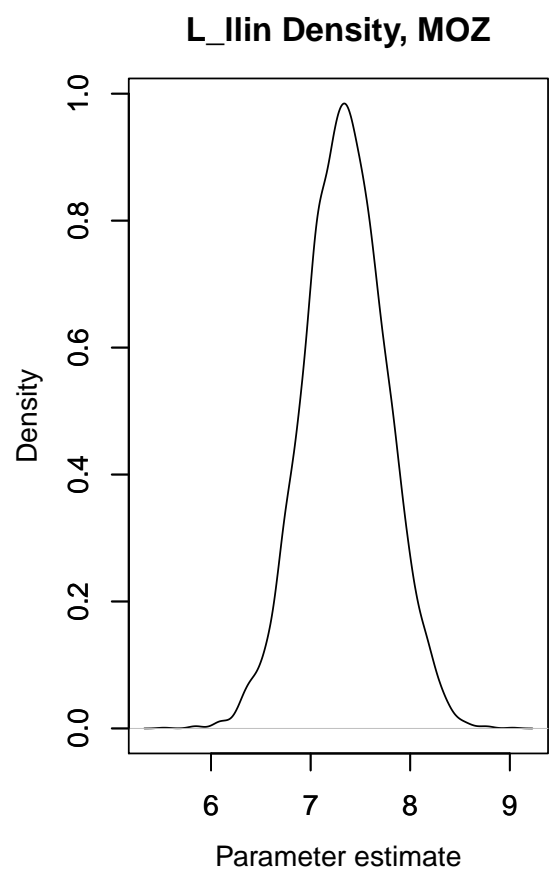
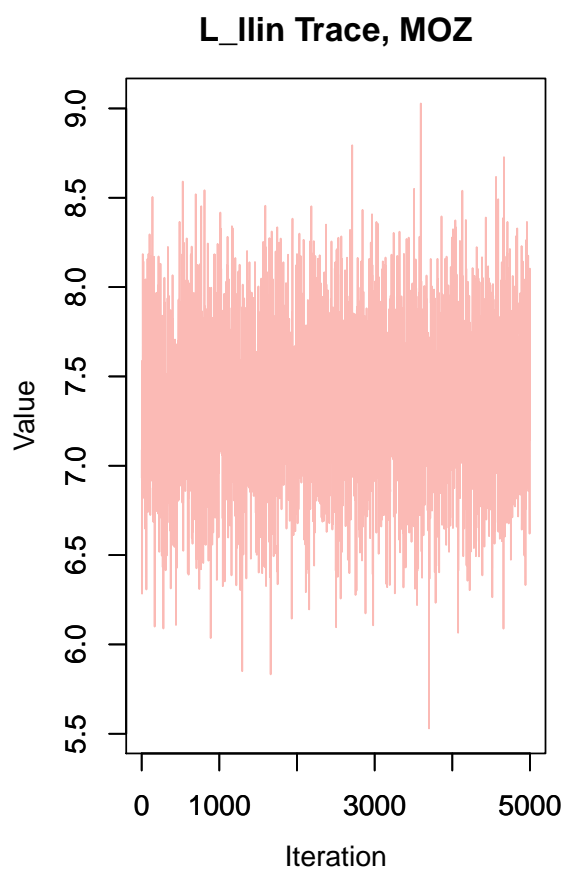


L_IIin Density, LBR

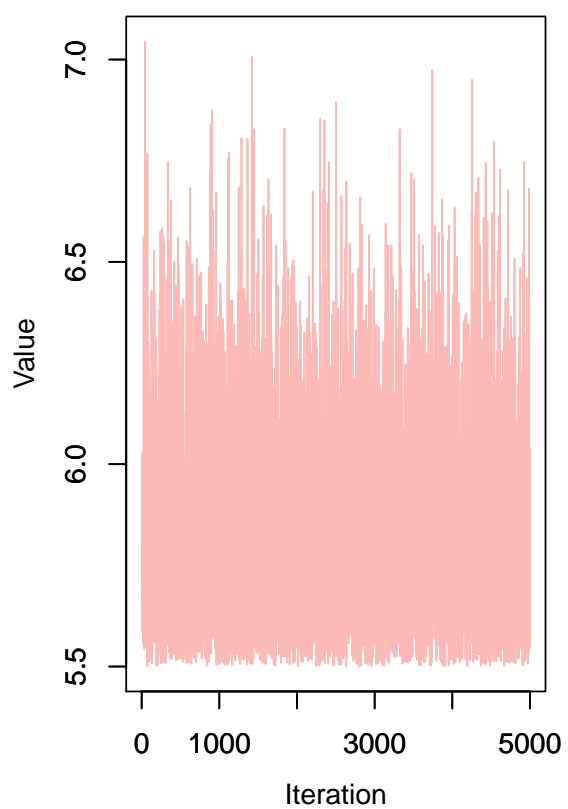




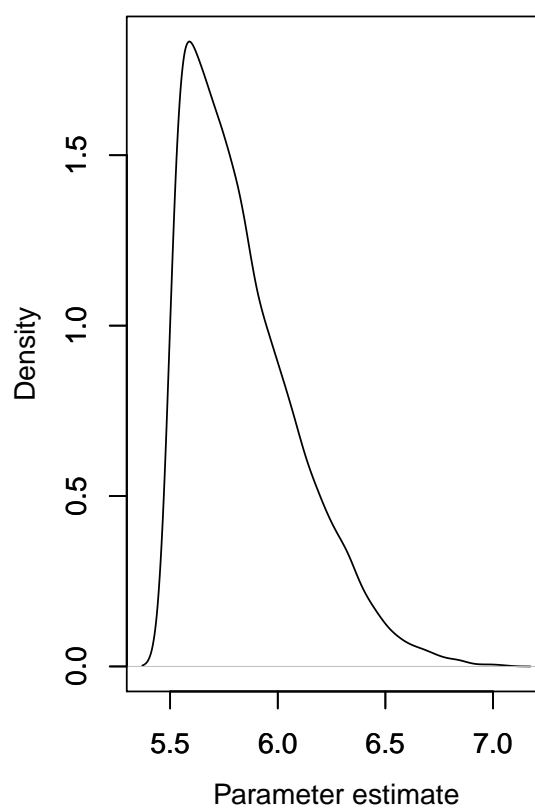




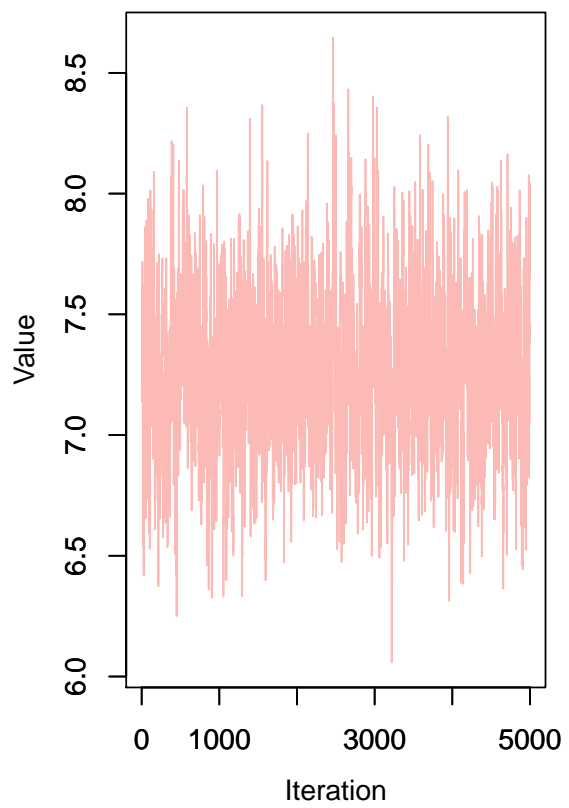
L_IIin Trace, MRT



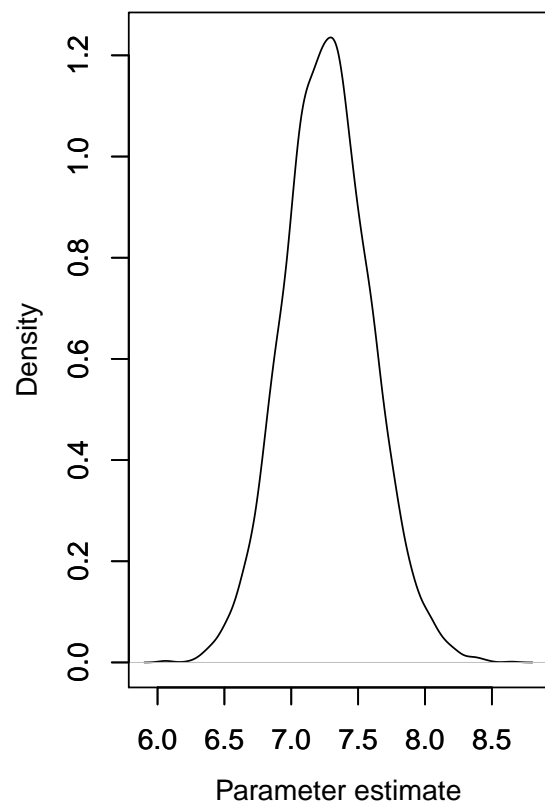
L_IIin Density, MRT



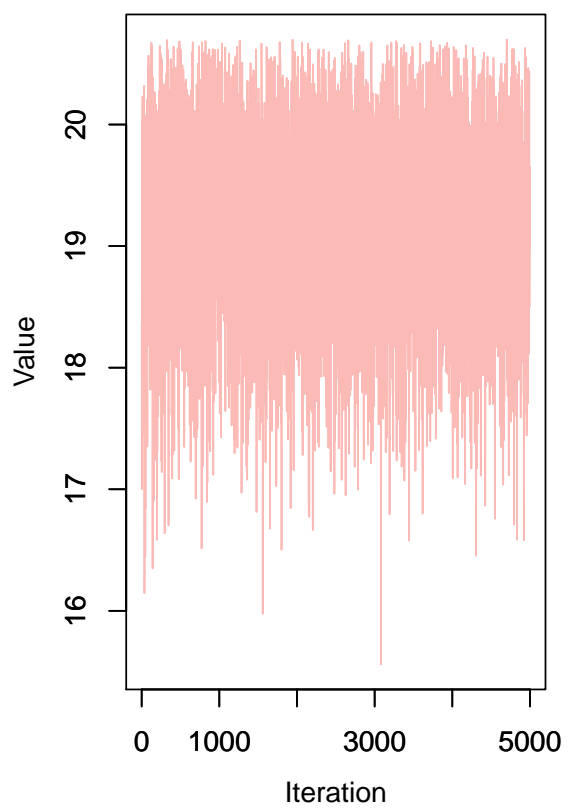
L_Ilin Trace, MWI



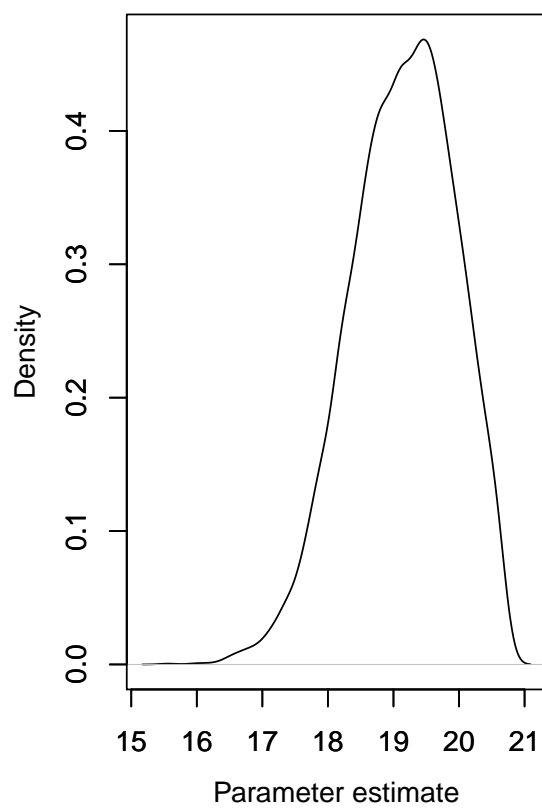
L_Ilin Density, MWI



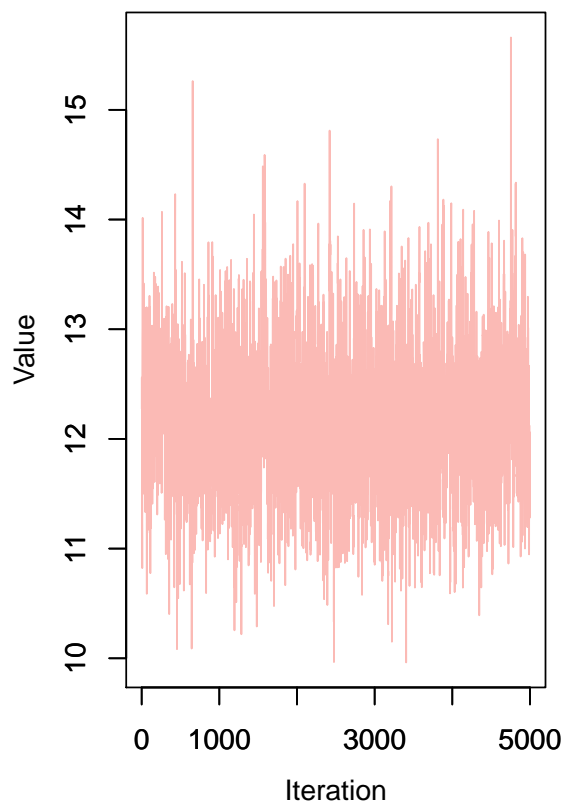
L_IIin Trace, NER



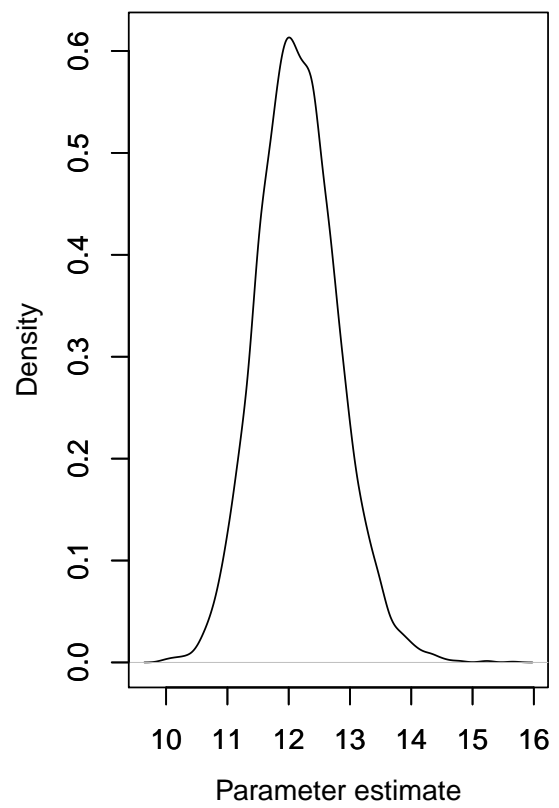
L_IIin Density, NER



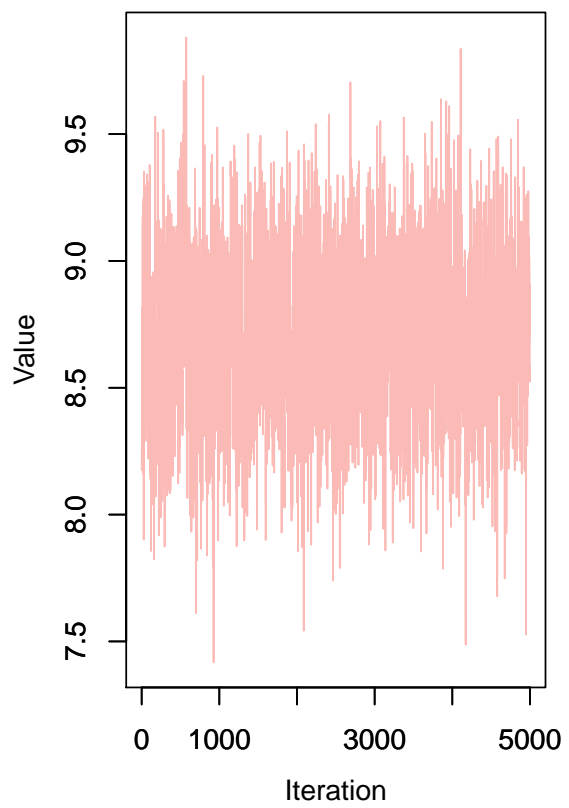
L_Ilin Trace, NGA



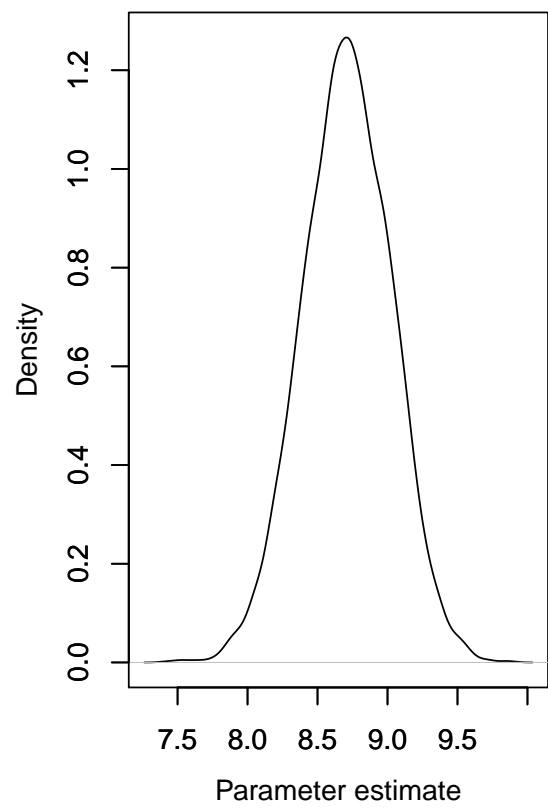
L_Ilin Density, NGA



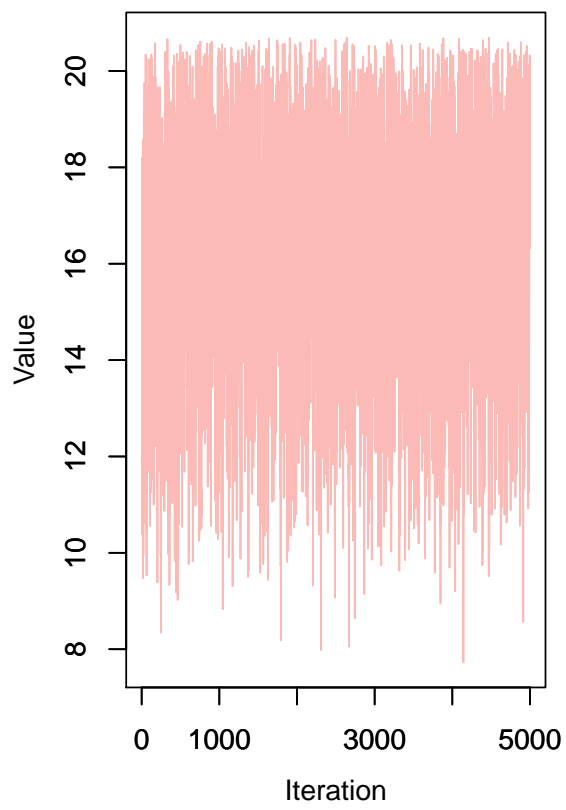
L_Ilin Trace, RWA



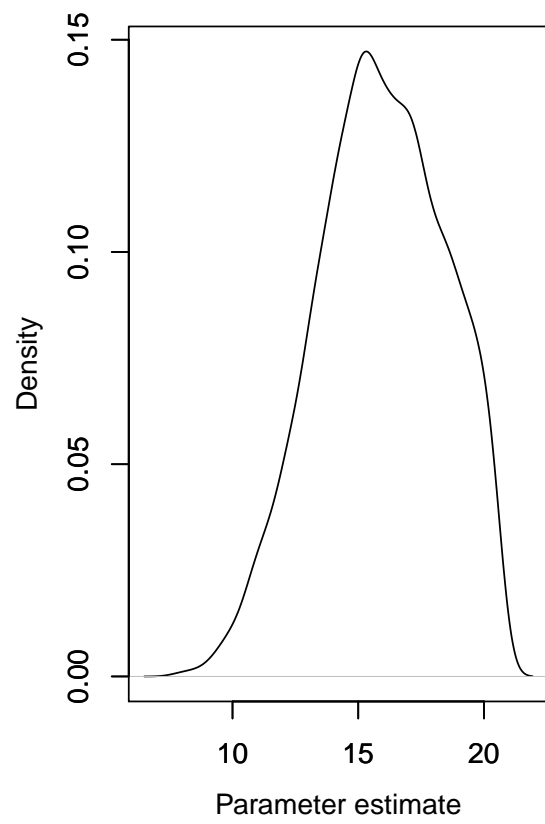
L_Ilin Density, RWA



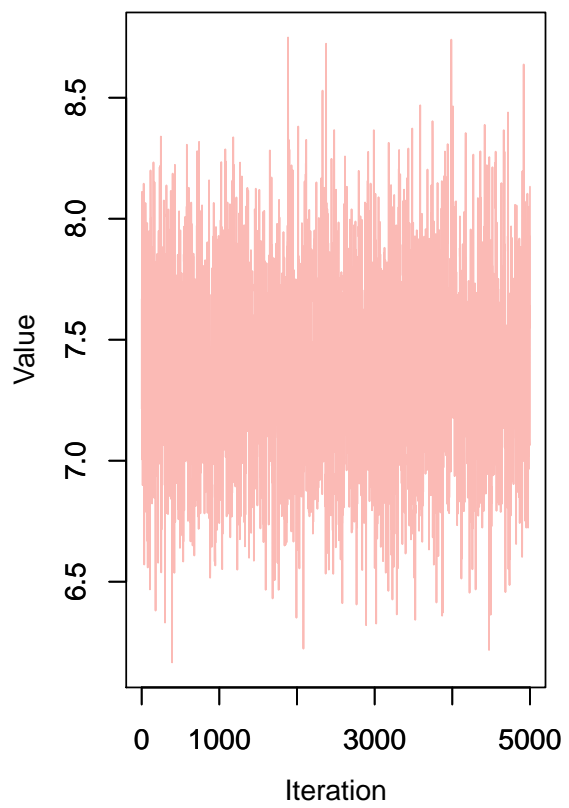
L_Ilin Trace, SDN



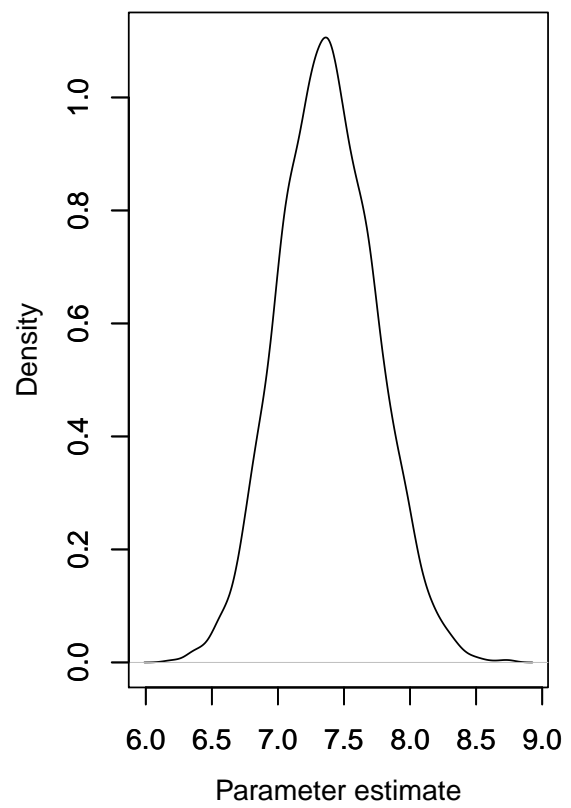
L_Ilin Density, SDN

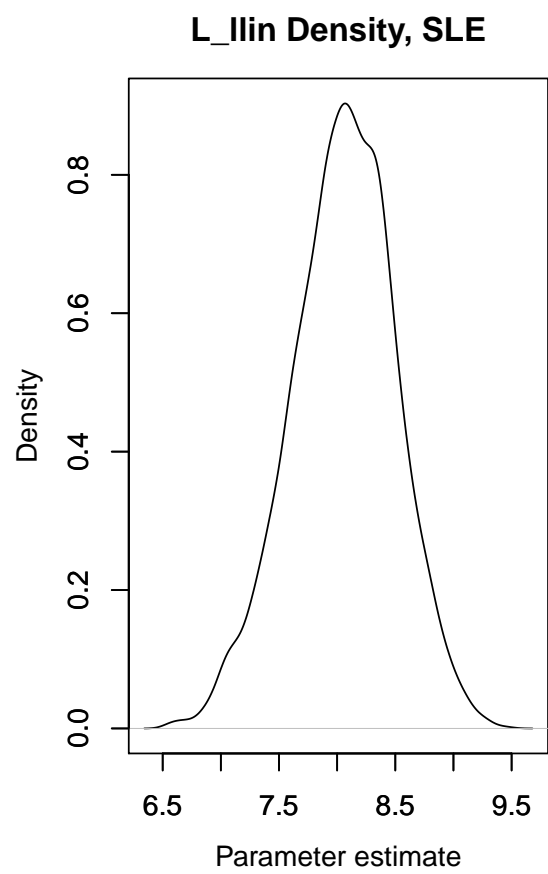
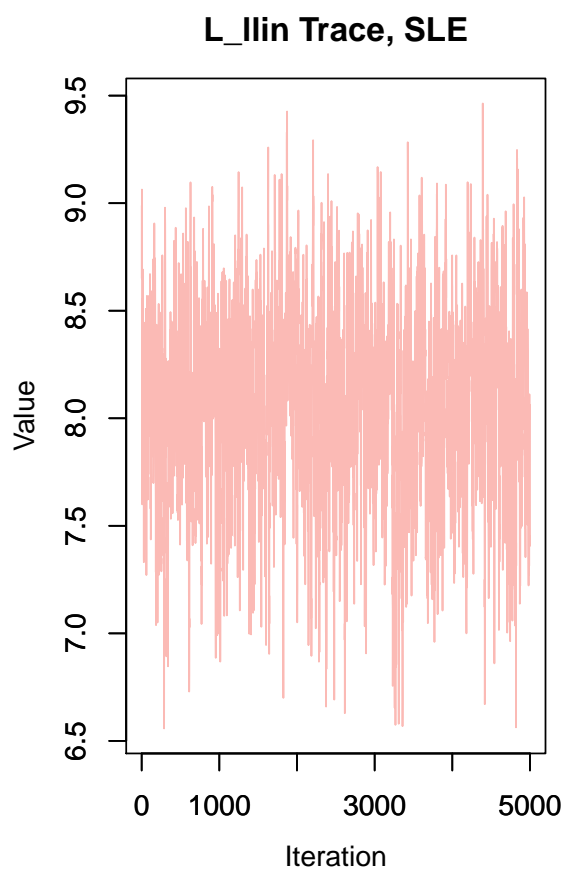


L_Ilin Trace, SEN

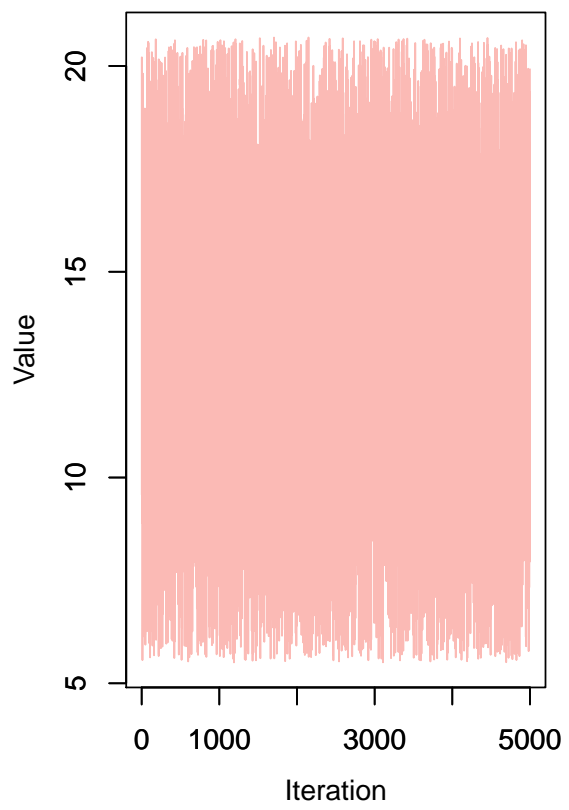


L_Ilin Density, SEN

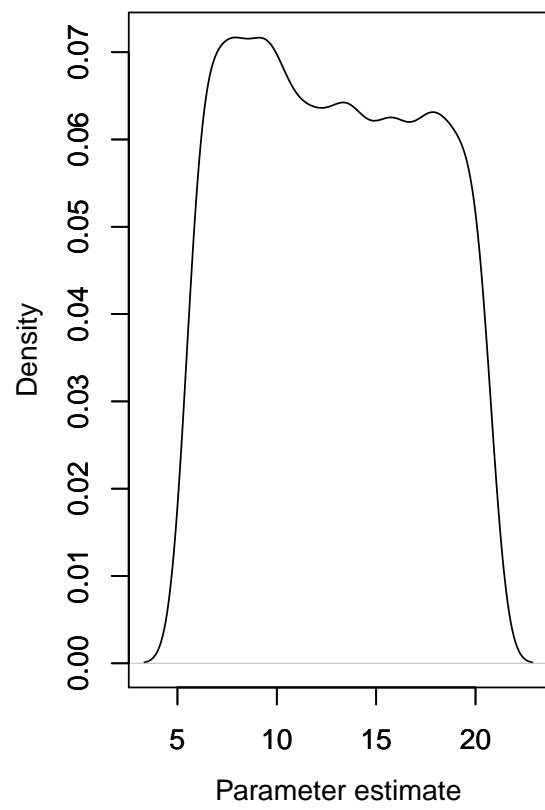




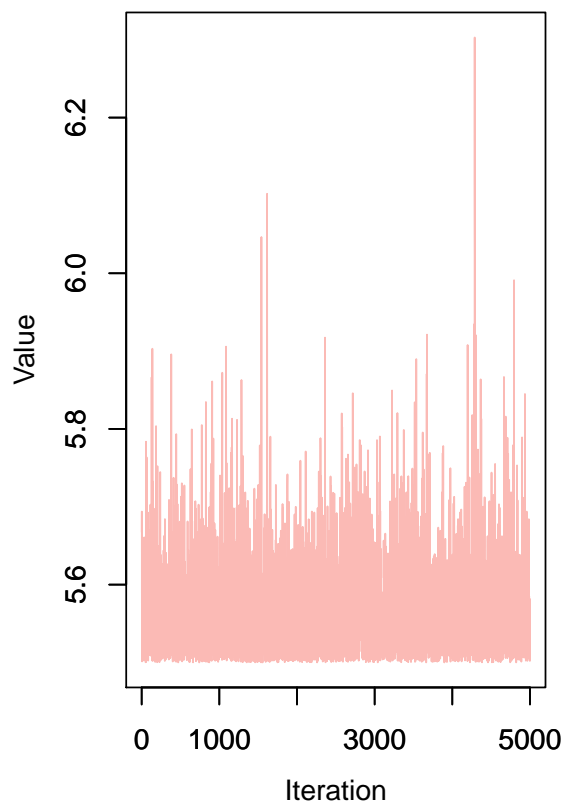
L_Ilin Trace, SOM



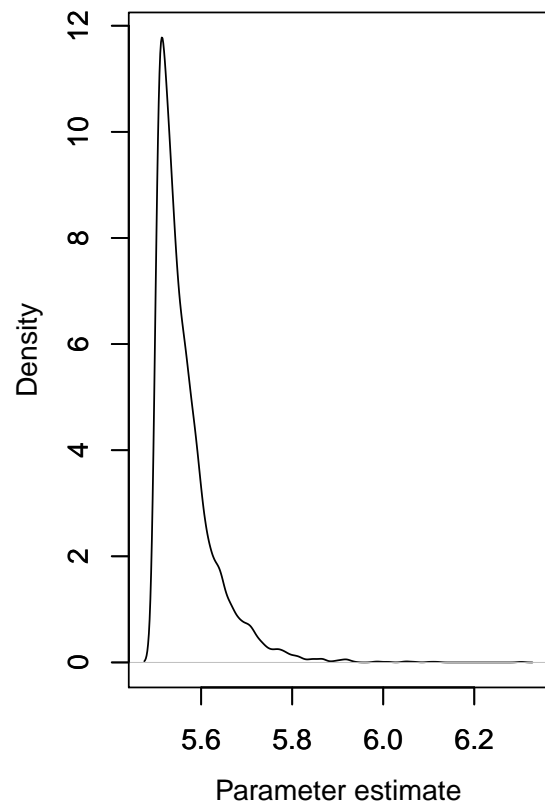
L_Ilin Density, SOM

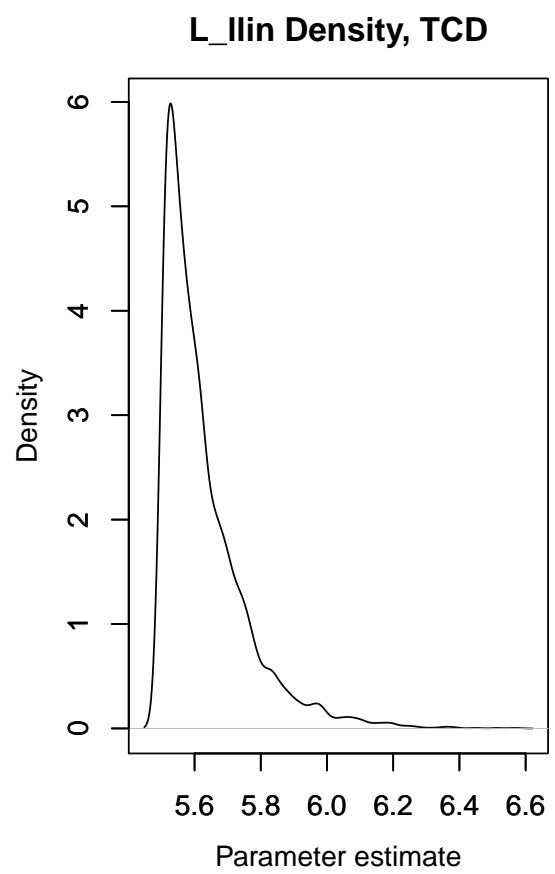
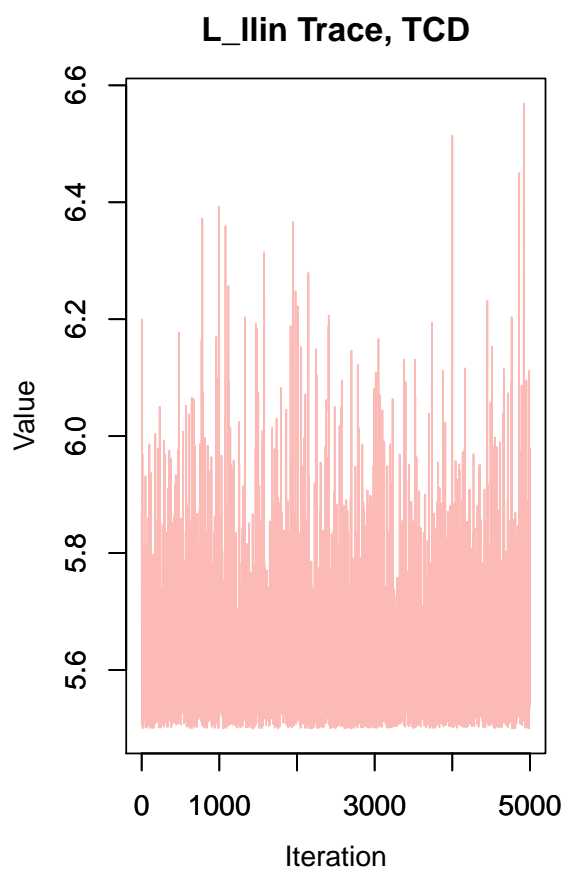


L_Ilin Trace, SSD

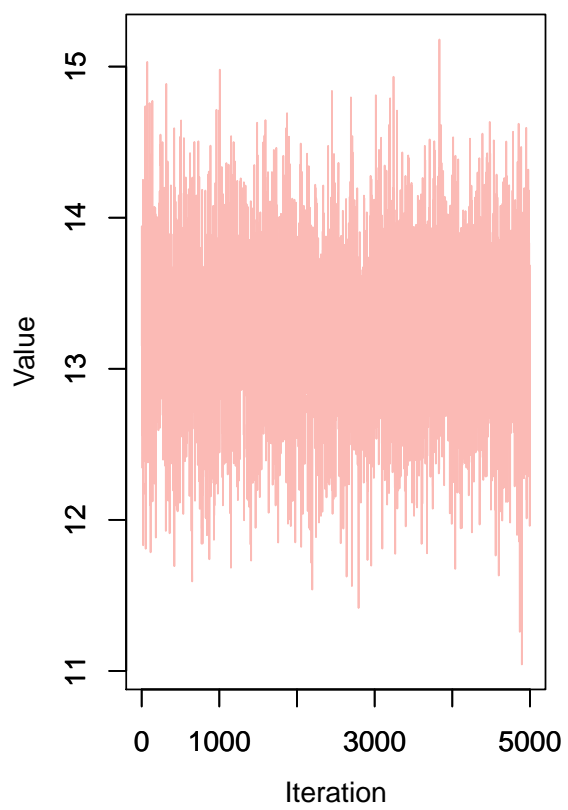


L_Ilin Density, SSD

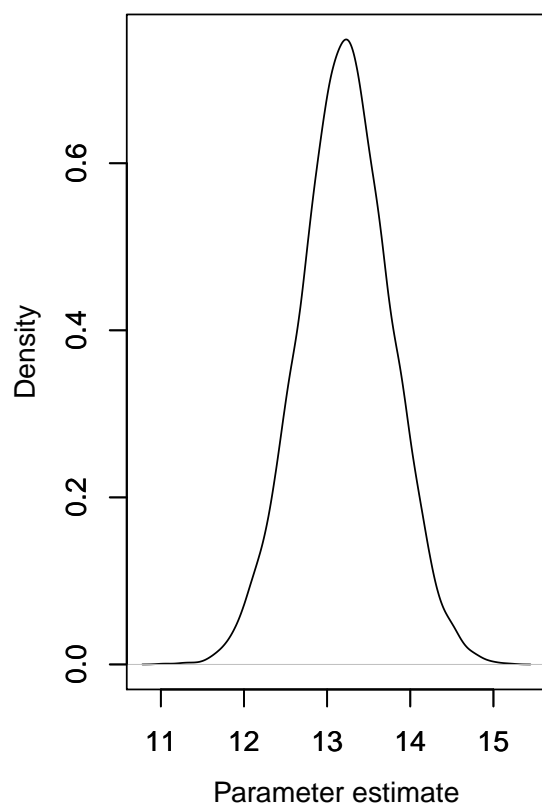




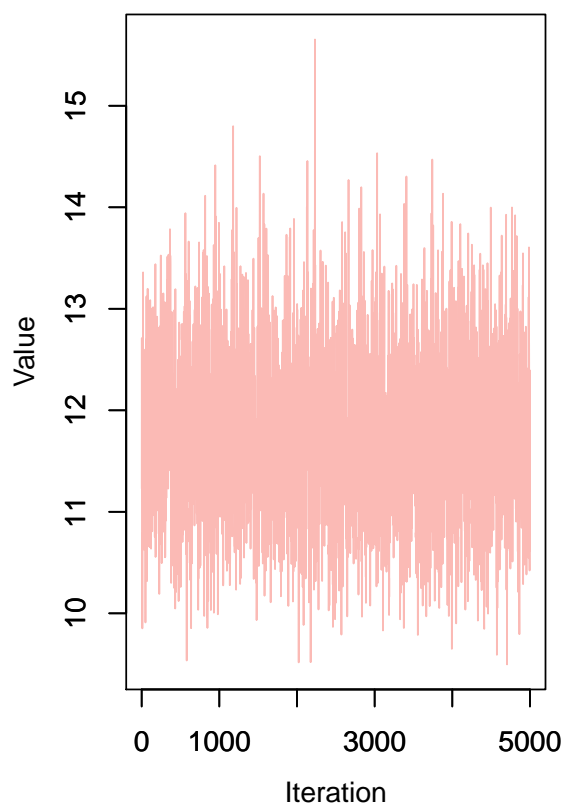
L_IIin Trace, TGO



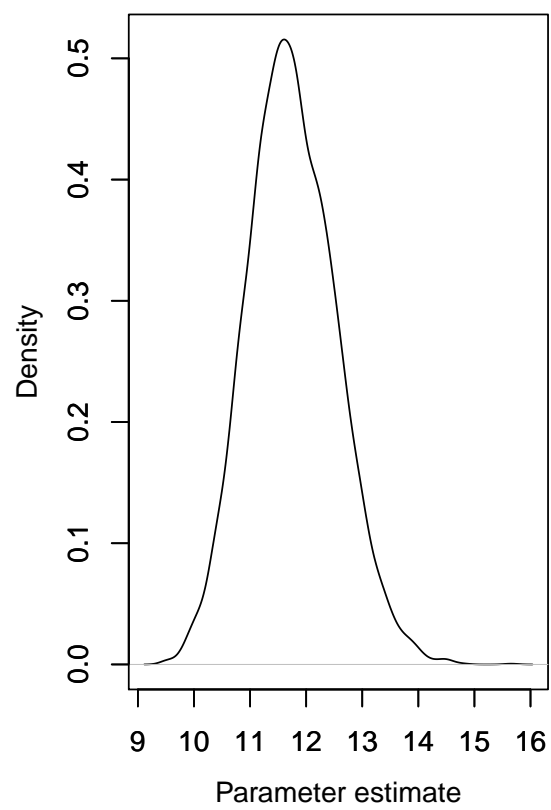
L_IIin Density, TGO



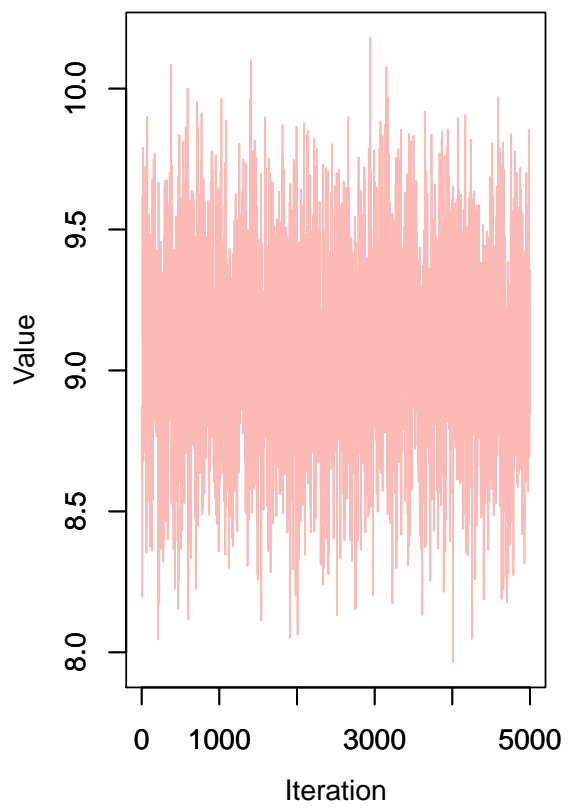
L_Ilin Trace, TZA



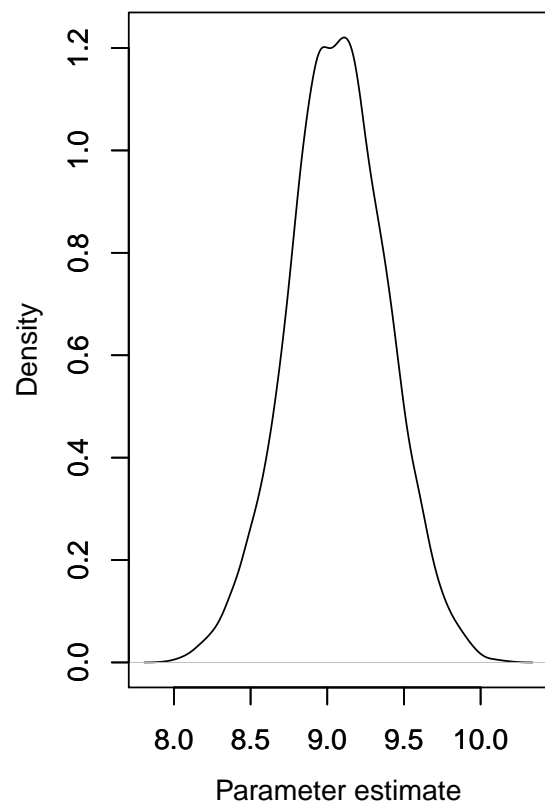
L_Ilin Density, TZA



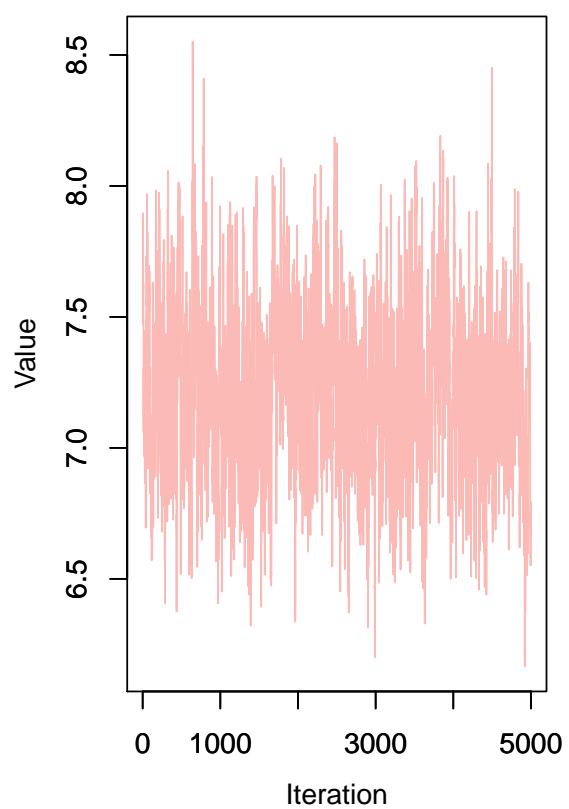
L_Ilin Trace, UGA



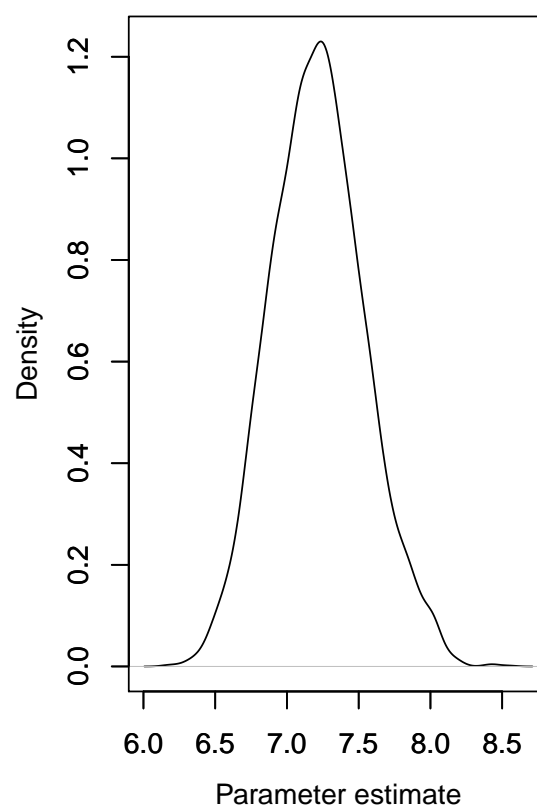
L_Ilin Density, UGA



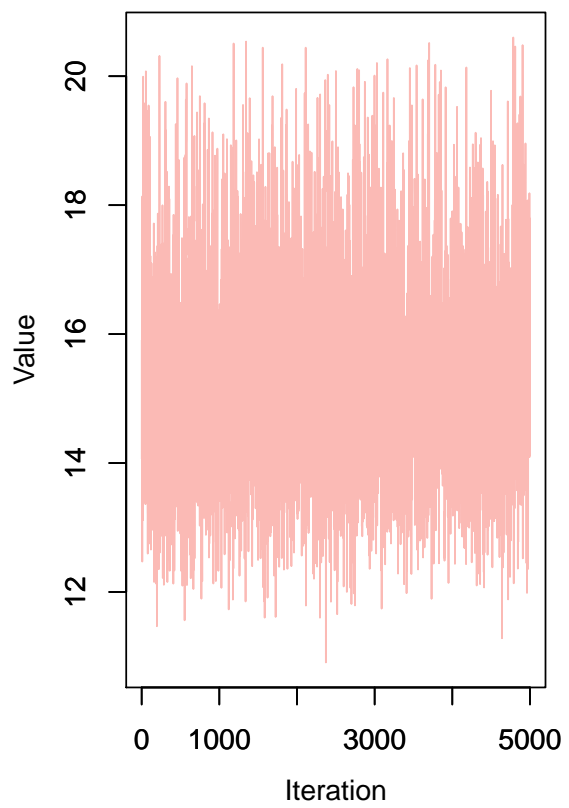
L_IIin Trace, ZMB



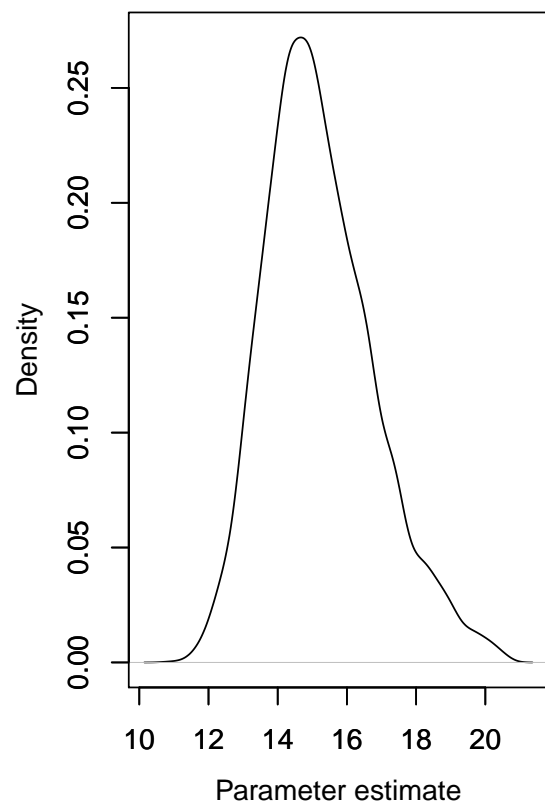
L_IIin Density, ZMB



L_IIin Trace, ZWE



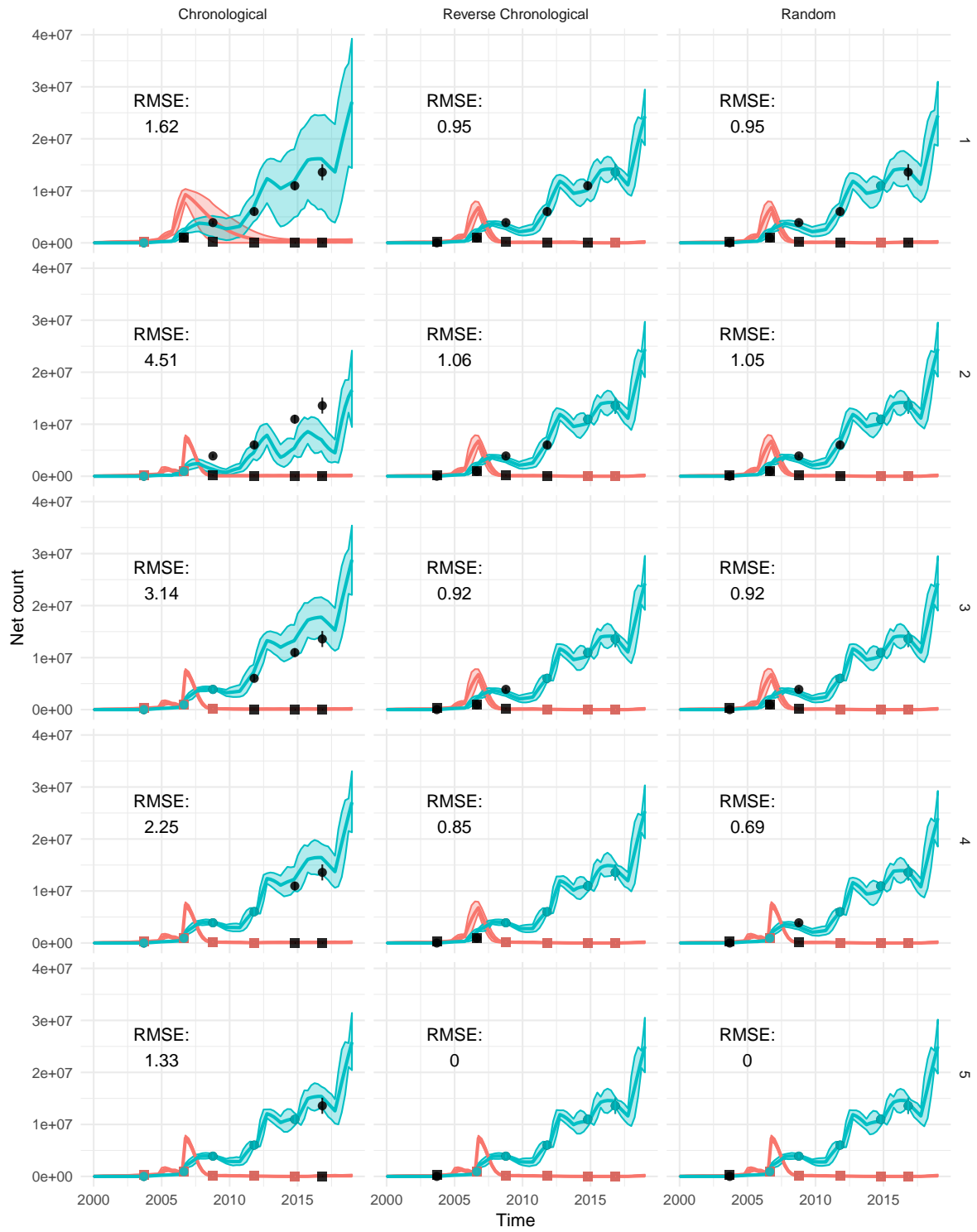
L_IIin Density, ZWE



C.2 Sensitivity Analysis Full Results

These plots show model fits for the stock and flow sensitivity analysis described in [Appendix A.6](#). Blue curves represent LLIN model estimates, while red curves represent cITN model estimates. shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals. Survey data is shown in circles for LLINs and squares for cITNs. Surveys used for model fitting are shown in color, while out-of-sample surveys are shown in black. The RMSEs printed on each plot are for LLINs only.

Sensitivity Analysis: GHA



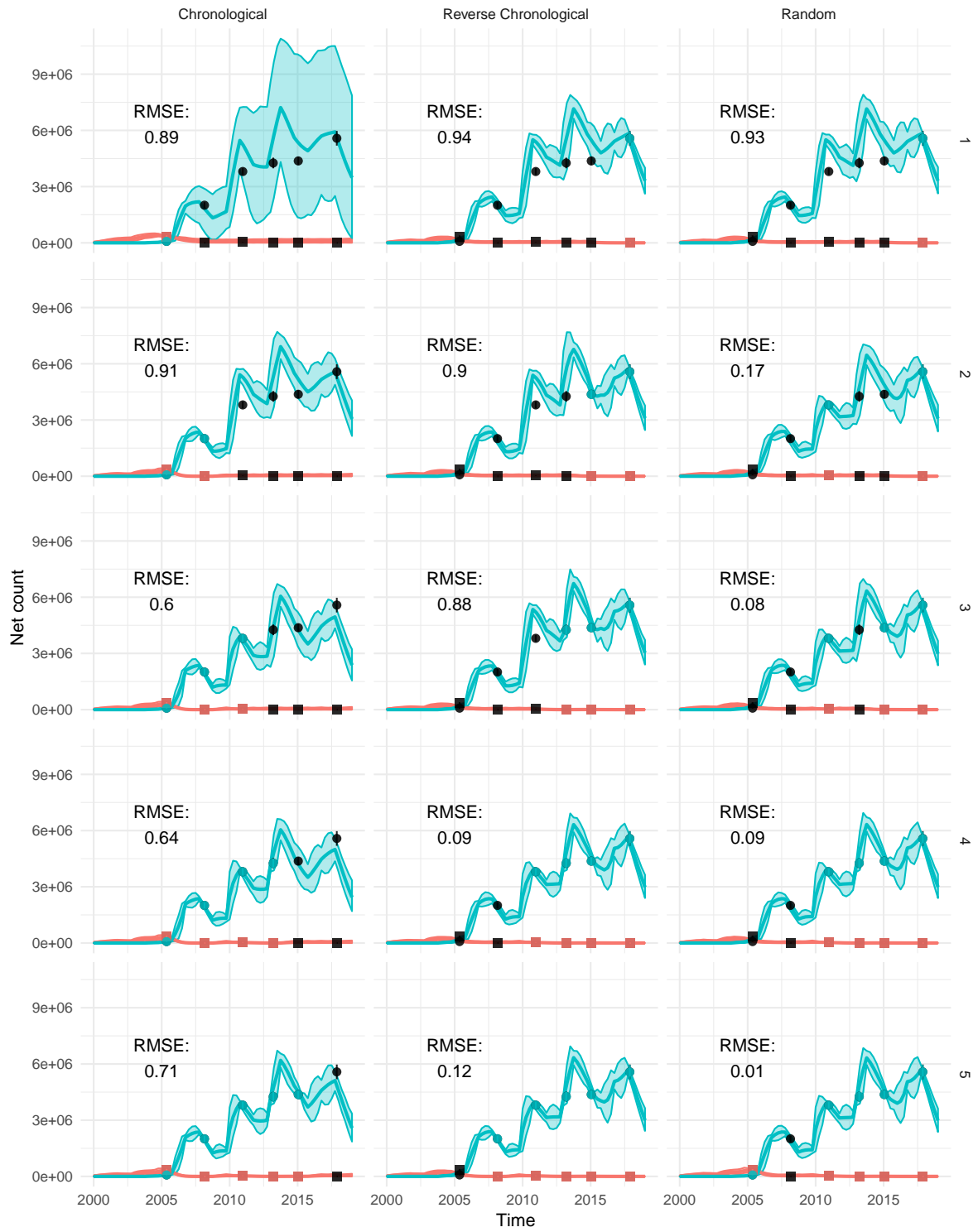
Sensitivity Analysis: MWI



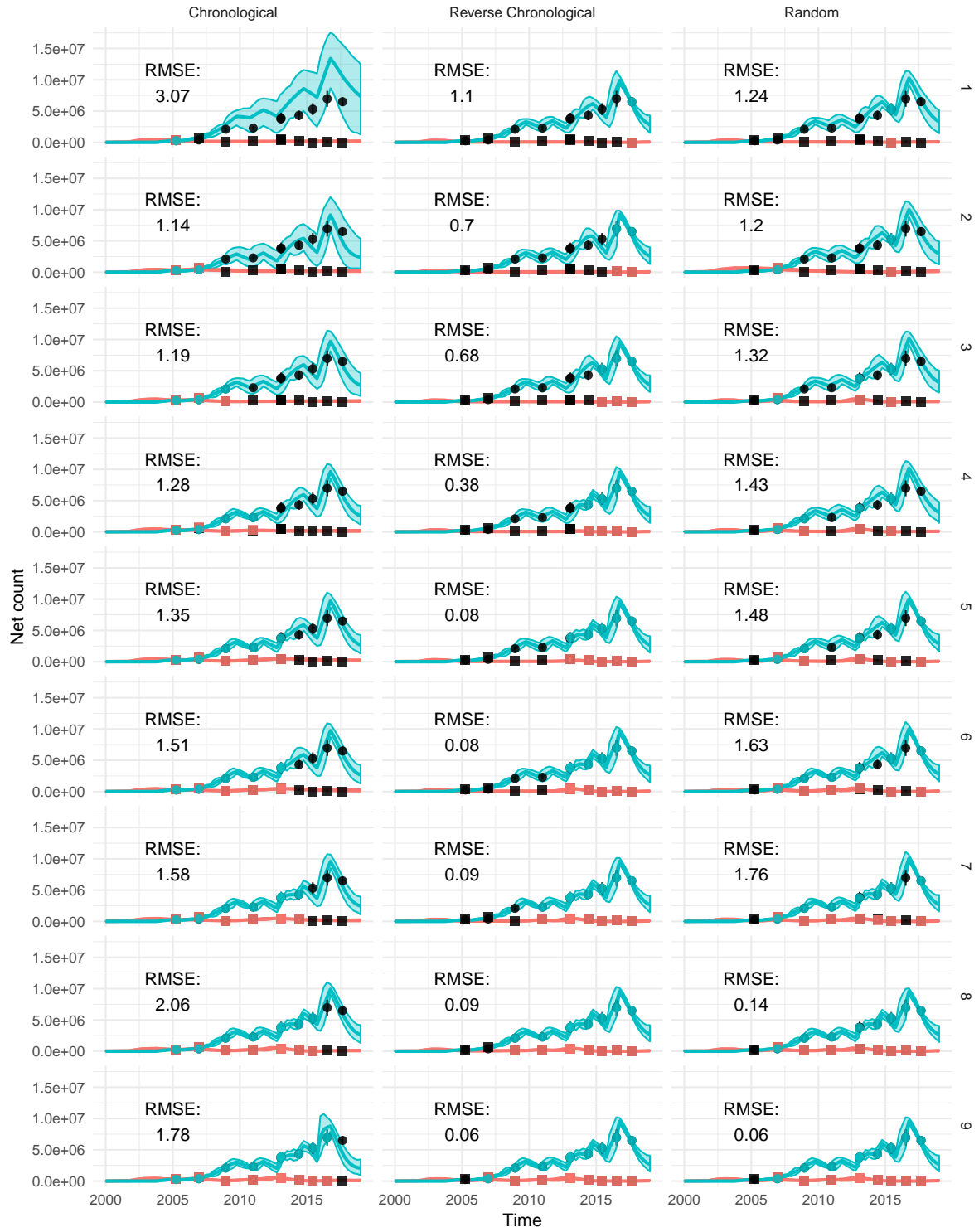
Sensitivity Analysis: NGA



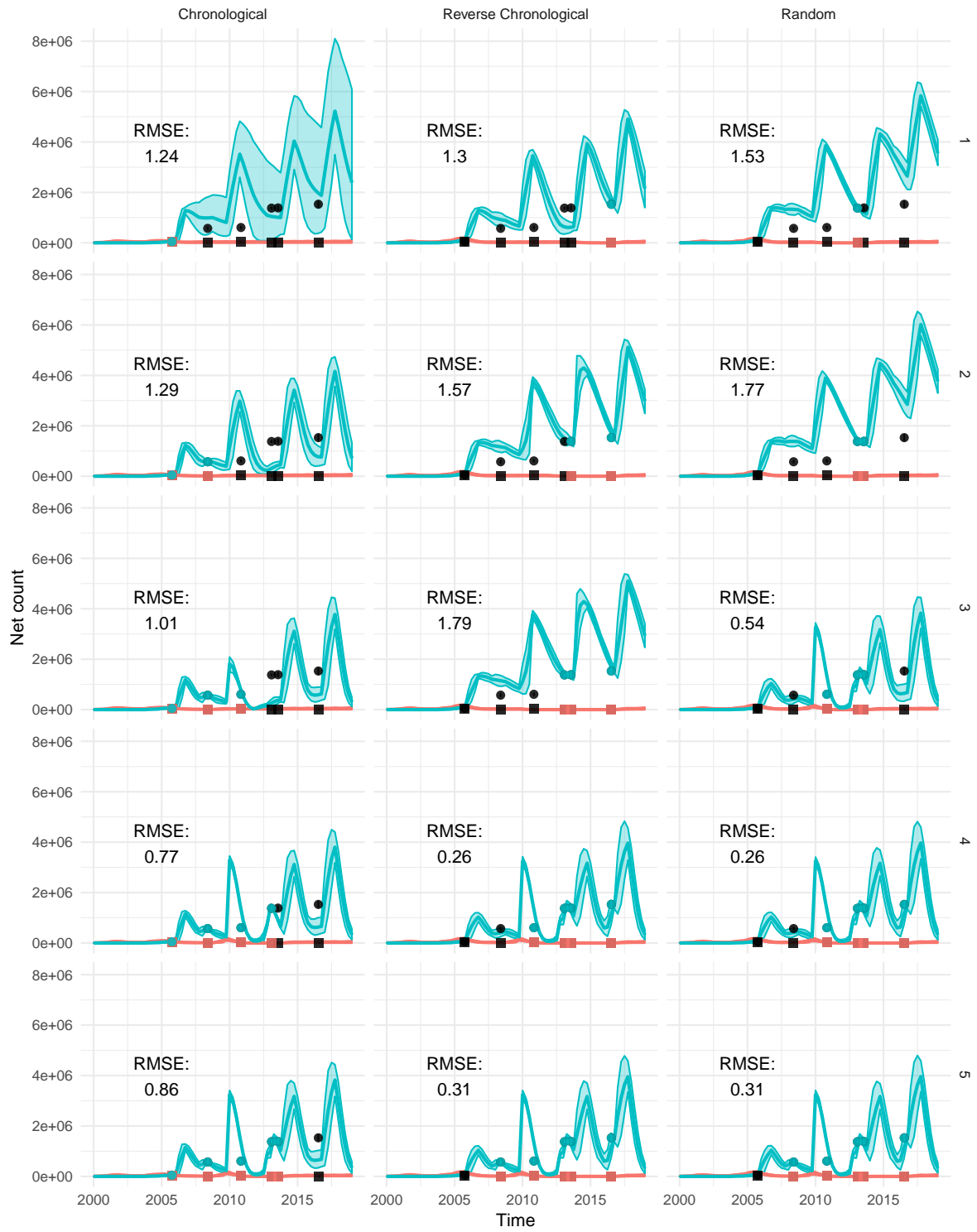
Sensitivity Analysis: RWA



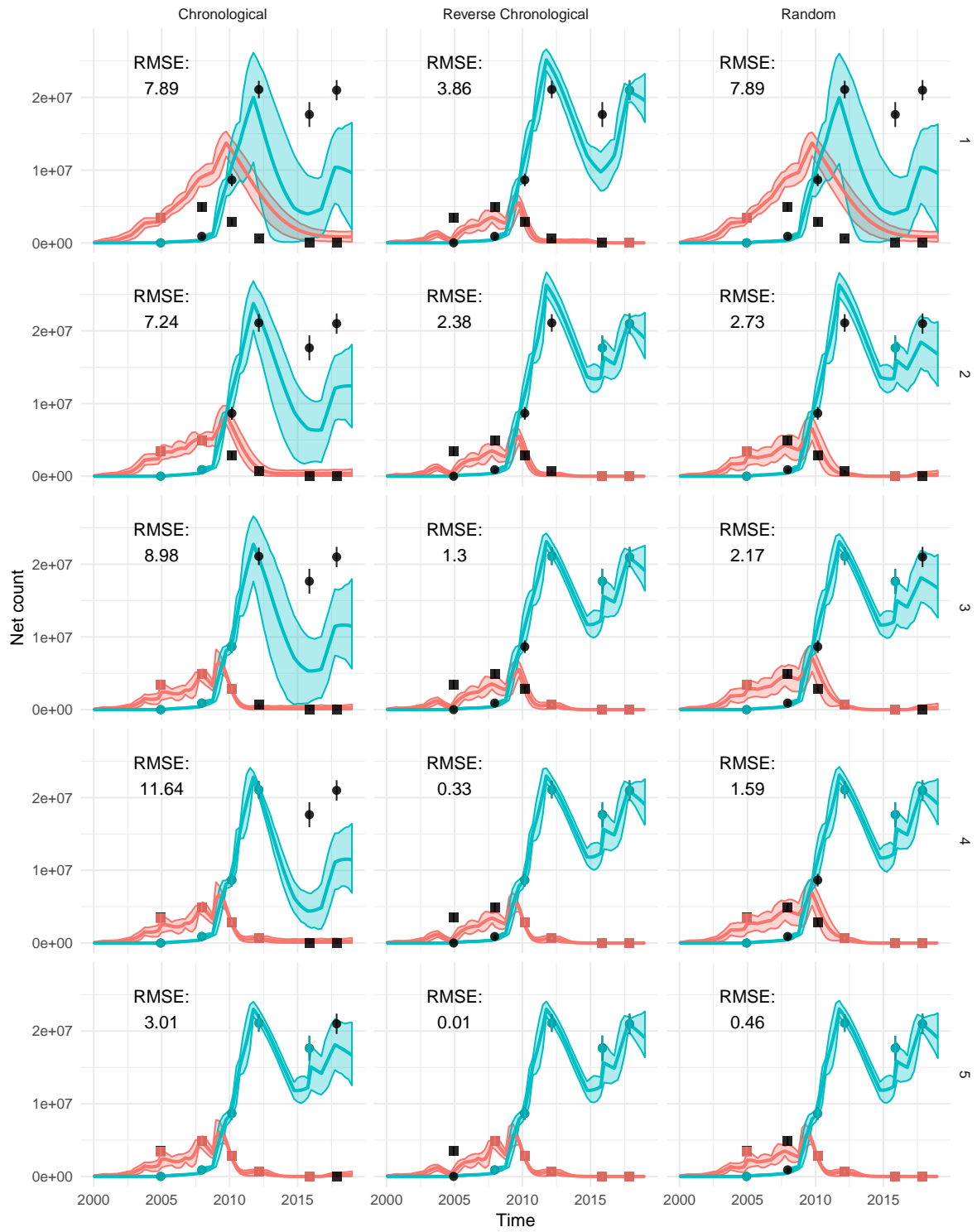
Sensitivity Analysis: SEN



Sensitivity Analysis: SLE



Sensitivity Analysis: TZA



Sensitivity Analysis: ZMB

