



CLINICAL SPECTRUM AND RISK FACTORS INFLUENCING PEDIATRIC MALARIA PUBLIC HEALTH CONCERN IN DISTRICT LOWER DIR

**Fawad Khan^{*1}, Najiya al Arifa², Saffora Riaz², Robeela Shabbir³, Farhanda Manzoor⁴,
Hamna Tariq⁵, Ali Hassan⁶, Zainab Tariq⁷, Asad Qamar Abbas Khan⁸**

¹Health Department Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Medical Entomologist,

Email: medicalentomologist94@gmail.com

²Department of Zoology, Faculty of Science and Technology, Lahore College for Women
University, Lahore

³Punjab Curriculum and Textbook Board (PCTB), Subject Specialist,

Email: robeela@yahoo.com

⁴Minhaj University Lahore Pakistan, Email: drfarkhanda786@gmail.com

⁵Central Park Medical College Lahore, MBBS Student, Email: hamnatariq.002@yahoo.com

⁶Cardiology Trainee Army Cardiac Center Lahore, Email: alihassanchattha168@gmail.com

⁷Abu Umara Medical College Lahore Pakistan MBBS Student

Email: hamna.t002@gmail.com

⁸Saidu Medical College Swat, MBBS Student, Email: asadabbasqamar@gmail.com

Corresponding Author: Fawad Khan Health Department Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Medical
Entomologist, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa medicalentomologist94@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Malaria poses a major health crisis in District Dir Lower, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan, disproportionately affecting children as a vulnerable population in the region. The annual prevalence of malaria among children stands at 81.35%. Monthly prevalence rates fluctuate, peaking in May (85.71%), June (84.44%), and July (86.00%), likely due to favourable environmental conditions such as higher humidity and the rainy season, which increase mosquito breeding. Conversely, the lowest prevalence is observed in March (68.57%) and December (75.76%). Gender-wise analysis indicates that male children have a higher



prevalence rate of 84.09% compared to female children at 78.42%. Age-wise data reveals that children aged 9-10 years have the highest prevalence at 83.69%, followed by those aged 1-4 and 5-8 years, each exhibiting a prevalence rate of 80.00%. *Plasmodium vivax* was the most prevalent species, accounting for 75.79% of the total positive cases, followed by *Plasmodium falciparum* at 15.08% and mixed infections at 3.94%. Seasonal variations show a higher prevalence during the summer months (83.03%) compared to winter (78.76%), aligning with increased mosquito activity in warmer temperatures. Tehsil-wise data indicates that Timergara has the highest prevalence at 15.2%, while Samar Bagh has the lowest at 9.6%. These findings underscore the need for targeted malaria control strategies, particularly during peak transmission periods and in areas with higher prevalence rates.

KEYWORDS: Pediatric Malaria, Public Health, District Lower Dir, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Climate change.

1. INTRODUCTION

Malaria is a life-threatening parasitic disease transmitted by infected *Anopheles* mosquitoes, mainly in tropical regions. Despite being preventable and curable, it reportedly caused an estimated 247 million cases and 619,000 deaths globally in 2021 [1]. The Sub-Saharan African regions, notably Nigeria, Congo, Uganda, and Mozambique were the hardest hit, bearing the majority (95%) of these cases [2]. Children under the age of 5 accounted for 76% of malaria deaths [3]. Additionally, pregnant women face heightened risks, since malarial agents threaten maternal, fetal, and neonatal mortalities [4]. Epidemiological data suggests a disproportionately higher rate of morbidities and mortalities in low-income countries mainly due to environmental, socio-economic, and healthcare disparities [5]. Malaria is often clinically presented with nonspecific symptoms, including fever, chills, headache, fatigue, and hemolytic anemia, while severe cases may involve seizures, hypotension, and multi-organ failure [6,7]. The disease is transmitted by female *Anopheles* mosquitoes, particularly *An. arabiensis* and *An. gambiae*, which breed in stagnant water. The causative agent is a protozoan *Plasmodium* with *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax* being the most clinically significant, while *P. malaria* and *P. ovale* cause milder symptoms. The clinical spectrum ranges from mild febrile illness to fatal multi-organ failure [1,6]. Although rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs) have improved detection speed by identifying specific antigens and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) based assays are



highly sensitive, however, diagnosis of malaria is preferably confirmed through blood analysis with microscopic examination of stained blood films, which remains the gold standard due to its sensitivity, less possibility to yield false negatives, cost-effectiveness and the ability to detect parasite species and their quantification [8]. Malaria transmission dynamics are shaped by macro-level climatic factors and micro-ecological conditions such as vector behaviour, host accessibility, and availability of aquatic breeding sites [9]. In Pakistan, monsoon rains, irrigation networks, and intensive agriculture amplify *Anopheles* mosquito proliferation, elevating regional transmission risk [10,11]. The malaria burden in Pakistan exhibits significant heterogeneity even within the same locality, with household-level disparities driven by socioeconomic status, type of housing, literacy, and access to healthcare [12,13]. School-aged children in endemic areas represent a high-risk demographic, experiencing both acute clinical impacts and chronic educational disruptions from recurrent infections. This vulnerable group serves as a critical reservoir for sustained transmission while facing compounded socioeconomic consequences [14]. Due to the high endemicity of malaria in specific regions of Pakistan and its disproportionately high burden among children, there remains a critical need to investigate localized prevalence patterns. The district of Lower Dir is characterized by its rural setting and environmental conditions favorable to mosquito proliferation [15], and lacks sufficient epidemiological data on pediatric malaria cases. Moreover, despite global efforts, data delineating the frequency of specific *Plasmodium* species among infected children in this region remain scarce. The current study, therefore, aims to assess the prevalence of malaria among children in District Lower Dir and to determine the frequency distribution of *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax* infections. The findings are expected to determine malaria prevalence, contribute to vector control strategies, strengthen surveillance, and target public health in malaria-endemic zones.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study area

The present hospital-based descriptive cross-sectional study was conducted in District Lower Dir, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan (Figure 1), a region with a semi-arid climate prone to high temperatures and seasonal sandstorms, fostering malaria transmission [16]. District Lower Dir is situated in the Malakand Division of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan (34°37'-35°07'N and 71°31'-72°14'E). The region features a diverse topography comprising the Hindu

Kush Mountain ranges, fertile river valleys, and extensive forest cover [17]. Characterized by a humid subtropical climate, the area experiences four distinct seasons with significant temperature variations [18]. Summers (June-August) are hot with temperatures reaching 33°C and heavy monsoon rainfall averaging 264mm in August [19]. Winters (December-February) are cold, with January temperatures frequently dropping below freezing in higher elevations [20]. The annual precipitation averages 1270mm, supporting agricultural activities but also creating favorable conditions for vector-borne diseases [21,22]. The district's unique geographical features and climatic patterns significantly influence local livelihoods, agricultural productivity, and public health challenges.

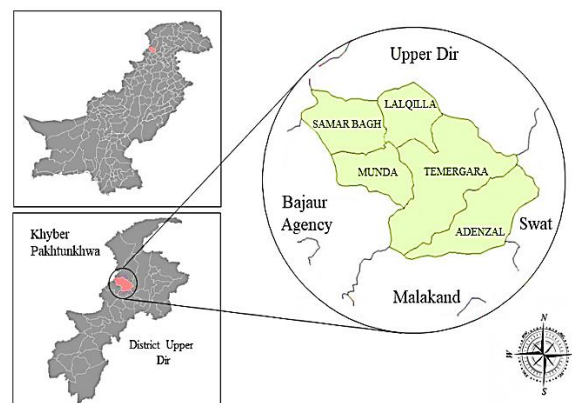


Figure 1: District Lower Dir, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

2.2. Study Design

Current study aimed to determine the prevalence of *Plasmodium falciparum* and *Plasmodium vivax* infections among children aged ten years or younger, residing within the District Lower Dir. Data was collected from patients visiting 5 public sector hospitals over one year.

2.3. Study Population

A total of 815 children aged ≤ 10 years suspected of having malaria, visiting public sector hospitals in the District Lower Dir were recruited for the present study. Inclusion criteria comprised children up to ten years of age presenting with clinical suspicion of malaria, while individuals older than ten years, or those with co-existing severe illnesses that could confound clinical assessments, were excluded.



2.4. Sample and Data Collection

Blood samples were obtained via finger prick for microscopic examination and RDTs were utilized for confirmation of *Plasmodium* infection. Demographic and clinical details were recorded using structured questionnaires designed to record malaria prevalence and associated risk factors.

2.5. Identification of Parasites

Identification of the *Plasmodium* species was carried out by microscopic examination and RDTs. Thick and thin blood smears from the samples were prepared for microscopic analysis. Thin smears were fixed with methanol, stained with Giemsa diluted in distilled water, and examined under a microscope using immersion oil at 100x magnification. Standard morphological keys were used to identify different developmental stages of *P. vivax* and *P. falciparum*, and each slide was evaluated for 10–20 minutes [23]. RDTs detected malarial antigens based on antigen-antibody interactions, allowing rapid identification of infection, particularly in field settings where microscopy may not be feasible [24].

2.6. Ethical Considerations

Before data and blood sample collection, written informed consent was obtained from the parents or legal guardians of each participant, and ethical approval was granted by the Department of Pharmacy, Kohat University of Science and Technology, in compliance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All information was anonymized and handled confidentially to ensure the privacy of participants.

2.7. Statistical Analysis

The prevalence rate of malaria was calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Prevalence rate} = \frac{\text{Number of patients with malaria}}{\text{Total number of patients diagnosed}} \times 100$$

Data was statistically analyzed using SPSS version 27. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize demographic and clinical characteristics, and prevalence rates were expressed as percentages. Any missing data was addressed using listwise deletion. Potential confounding



factors, such as patient age, gender, and seasonality of infection, were considered during analysis, although no formal multivariate regression or sensitivity analyses were performed due to the descriptive nature of the study. This structured methodology ensured the study's reproducibility and provided reliable baseline data on the burden of malaria in a vulnerable pediatric population in a resource-limited, high-risk region.

3. Results

The prevalence of malaria among children in District Lower Dir exhibits significant variation across different months, genders, age groups, species, seasons, and tehsils, underscoring the complex nature of malaria transmission in the region. **Month-wise prevalence** (Table 1) indicates a peak during the warmer months, with May (85.71%), June (84.44%), and July (86.00%) exhibiting the highest malaria rates, likely due to increased mosquito activity during the rainy season. Conversely, the lowest prevalence is observed in March (68.57%) and December (75.76%). Overall, the annual prevalence stands at 81.35%, reflecting the substantial burden malaria places on public health. **Gender-wise prevalence** (Table 2) reveals that male children are more affected than females, with a prevalence of 84.09% compared to 78.42% in females. This disparity may be linked to differences in outdoor activity or healthcare access. **Age-wise prevalence** (Table 3) shows that younger children (1-4 years and 5-8 years) have an 80% prevalence rate, with those aged 9-10 years exhibiting the highest prevalence (83.69%), suggesting higher exposure levels as children grow. The **species-wise prevalence** (Table 5) identifies *P. vivax* as the dominant malaria species, responsible for 75.79% of cases, followed by *P. falciparum* at 15.08%, and mixed infections at 3.94%. **Season-wise prevalence** (Table 4) shows a higher prevalence in summer (83.03%) compared to winter (78.76%), aligning with increased mosquito activity in warmer temperatures. Detailed data from **malaria cases across tehsils** (Table 6) shows prevalence rates ranging from 75.00% to 80.00% in various union councils, with some areas exhibiting higher rates during peak mosquito breeding seasons. The geographical distribution of malaria across the tehsils highlights regional differences in prevalence, further emphasizing the need for targeted interventions based on local environmental conditions and mosquito activity.

3.1. Month-wise Prevalence

The month-wise prevalence of malaria shows variability throughout the year, with a relatively higher burden during the warmer months (Table 1). The peak months are May (85.71%), June (84.44%), and July (86.00%), likely due to favorable environmental conditions such as higher humidity and the rainy season, which increases mosquito breeding. Conversely, the lowest prevalence is observed in March (68.57%) and December (75.76%). The overall prevalence for the year stands at 81.35%, indicating a substantial public health challenge in the district.

Table 1. Month-wise Prevalence of Malaria among Children in District Lower Dir

Month	Total Samples (<i>n</i>)	Positive Cases (<i>n</i>)	Prevalence (%)
January	300	225	75.00
February	280	210	75.00
March	350	240	68.57
April	380	310	81.58
May	420	360	85.71
June	450	380	84.44
July	500	430	86.00
August	480	390	81.25
September	420	350	83.33
October	390	330	84.62
November	380	310	81.58
December	330	250	75.76
Total	4312	3505	81.35

3.2. Gender-wise Prevalence

Gender-wise prevalence of malaria highlighted higher prevalence in male children as compared to the female children (84.09% vs 78.42%) who participated in the present study (Table 2).



This gender disparity may be influenced by factors such as exposure levels, access to healthcare, or behavioral differences between male and female children in terms of outdoor activity or sleeping habits.

Table 2. Gender-wise Prevalence of Malaria among Children in District Lower Dir

Gender	Total Samples (n)	Positive Cases (n)	Prevalence (%)
Male	2200	1850	84.09
Female	2112	1655	78.42
Total	4312	3505	81.35

3.3. Age-wise Prevalence

Age-wise prevalence of malaria is provided in Table 3. The data shows that children aged 1-4 years and 5-8 years exhibited high prevalence rates (80.00%), however, children aged 9-10 years exhibited the highest prevalence rates (83.69%). This age distribution indicates that younger children are at higher risk, potentially due to limited acquired immunity, while slightly older children may experience increased exposure.

Table 3. Age-wise Prevalence and Species-wise Distribution of Malaria among Children in District Lower Dir

Age Group (Years)	Total Cases (n)	<i>P. vivax</i> (n)	<i>P. falciparum</i> (n)	Mixed (n)	Total Positive (n)	Prevalence (%)
<1	250	180	50	20	200	80.00
1-4	1200	950	200	50	1200	80.00
5-8	1500	1200	250	50	1500	80.00
9-10	1362	940	150	50	1140	83.69
Total	4312	3270	650	170	3505	81.35

3.4. Species-wise Prevalence



The obtained data (Table 3) further suggests that *P. vivax* was the most prevalent species causing infection in children and accounted for 75.79% of positive cases, followed by *P. falciparum* at 15.08% and mixed infections at 3.94%.

3.5. Season-wise Prevalence

The seasonal distribution of malaria prevalence (Table 4) shows a marked difference between summer (83.03%) and winter (78.76%) prevalence. This aligns with the typical pattern of malaria transmission, which peaks during warmer months when mosquitoes are more active. Malaria transmission decreases in winter due to lower mosquito activity in cooler temperatures.

Table 4. Season-wise Prevalence of Malaria among Children in District Lower Dir

Season	Total Samples (n)	Positive Cases (n)	Prevalence (%)
Summer	2590	2150	83.03
Winter	1722	1355	78.76
Total	4312	3505	81.35

3.6. Species-wise Prevalence

Prevalence of malaria by species revealed that *P. vivax* was the dominant malaria species in District Dir Lower, contributing to 75.79% of total cases. Whereas *P. falciparum* which is known for causing more severe forms of malaria, represented 15.08%, and mixed infections account for 3.94% of recorded cases (Table 5). The predominance of *P. vivax* in this region suggests that control measures should focus on addressing this species, particularly in areas with high transmission rates.

Table 5. Species-wise Prevalence of Malaria among Children in District Lower Dir

Species	Total Cases (n)	Prevalence (%)
<i>P. vivax</i>	3270	75.79
<i>P. falciparum</i>	650	15.08
Mixed	170	3.94
Total	4312	81.35

3.7. Malaria Cases in District Lower Dir

Table 6 depicts a detailed breakdown of malarial cases across the seven tehsils of District Lower Dir, covering several union councils. The total cases are distributed among the tehsils as follows: Adenzai, Balambat, Khall, Lal Qilla, Munda, Samar Bagh, and Timergara, with varying prevalence rates depending on the specific area. The prevalence of malaria ranges from 75.00% to 80.00% in different union councils, with some areas showing higher prevalence in warmer months due to the mosquito breeding season. Figure 2 illustrates the comparative cases of malaria across the seven tehsils of District Lower Dir.

Table 6. Malaria Cases across Seven Tehsils of District Lower Dir, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

Tehsil	Union	January (n)	February (n)	March (n)	April (n)	May (n)	June (n)	July (n)	August (n)	September (n)	October (n)	November (n)	December (n)	Prevalence (%)
Adenzai	Asbanr	15	12	18	20	22	18	22	21	17	18	16	15	75.00
	Badwan	14	11	16	18	21	16	19	17	15	18	15	16	75.45
	Chakdara	16	14	17	21	23	19	24	19	20	22	20	20	74.62
	Khadakzai	13	10	12	18	16	14	15	15	12	14	13	14	74.00
	Tazagram	14	13	15	18	20	16	19	18	17	18	15	15	75.00



	Khall	Rabat	Koto	Munjai	Lajbook	Hayaserai	Balambat	Ouch	Kotigram	Khanpur
	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall	Khall
14	15	12	11	11	12	12	13	12	10	14
12	13	11	10	9	9	10	12	10	9	12
14	15	13	12	10	12	13	15	13	12	16
17	18	15	14	13	15	16	17	15	13	17
19	20	16	15	14	16	18	20	16	14	18
16	18	15	13	12	14	15	16	14	12	19
18	21	17	16	15	17	18	20	16	13	22
16	19	16	15	14	16	16	19	14	12	20
14	18	14	13	12	13	14	18	13	10	17
16	19	16	14	13	15	16	19	14	13	18
15	17	15	13	12	14	15	18	13	12	18
16	18	16	14	13	15	15	18	13	12	18
75.00	75.45	77.78	75.00	75.00	76.67	77.78	80.00	76.67	75.00	77.27



	Munda	Mia Kalai	Munda	Khazana	Zaimdara	Kotkai	Gall	Lal Qilla	Lal Qilla	Maidan	Sultan Khel	Tormang-II	Tormang-I
12	11	11	11	11	13	12	16	15	12	13	13	13	13
10	9	9	9	10	12	11	14	13	10	11	11	11	11
13	12	12	12	12	14	13	18	16	13	16	14	14	14
15	14	14	14	14	16	16	21	18	16	17	17	16	16
17	16	15	15	15	18	18	23	20	17	20	18	18	18
14	13	13	13	13	15	17	20	18	15	18	15	15	15
17	16	15	15	16	18	19	23	21	16	21	17	17	17
15	14	14	14	14	17	17	21	19	15	19	16	16	16
14	13	13	13	13	16	16	19	17	13	17	14	15	15
15	14	14	14	15	17	17	21	18	15	18	16	16	16
14	13	13	13	14	16	15	20	17	13	17	15	15	15
15	14	14	14	14	16	16	20	18	14	18	15	16	16
75.00	75.56	76.67	75.00	78.00	77.78	79.17	77.27	75.00	75.56	76.67			



	Sadbar Kali	Maskini	Mayar	Kambat	Samar Darangai
	11	10	11	12	13
	9	9	10	11	11
	12	11	12	13	14
	14	13	14	15	16
	16	15	16	17	17
	13	12	13	14	16
	16	13	15	16	18
		12	14	15	16
		10	13	14	14
		12	14	16	16
		11	13	14	15
		12	14	15	16
		75.71	75.00	76.67	76.00

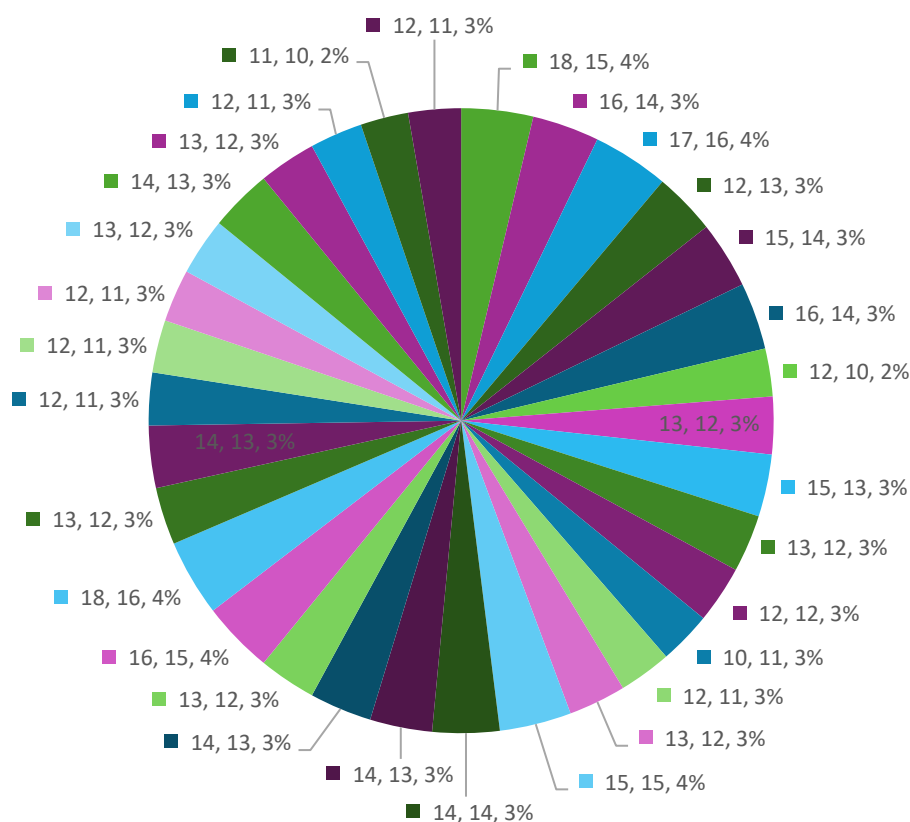


Figure 2. A comparative of malarial cases across the seven tehsils of District Lower Dir

Discussion

Current study revealed that there was a significant monthly variation in malaria prevalence. Peak transmissions were recorded during the warmer months (May 85.71%; June 84.44%; July 86.00%). These months characteristically fall into the monsoon season which provides an optimal environment and ideal conditions for mosquito breeding [16]. These observations correlate with earlier studies in KPK documenting increased transmission linked to monsoon rains (June–September), elevated temperatures (25–30°C), and humidity (>60%), which accelerated mosquito breeding, parasite development, and increased vector activity [22, 25]. The lower prevalence in winter could be a result of decreased mosquito activity during colder temperatures, which further highlights the importance of seasonal variation in transmission. These findings emphasize the need for seasonally targeted interventions, particularly in high-



burden months, as recommended in meta-analyses of Pakistani malaria data (2006–2021) by tailored interventions during the warmer months. [22].

Findings suggested that malaria was widespread in District Dir Lower, particularly during the summer months. The high prevalence of *P. vivax* in this region is consistent with the trend seen in many other parts of Pakistan, where *P. vivax* is the dominant species [26,27,28]. *P. vivax* hypnozoites cause recurrent infections, which may lead to sustaining transmission even in low-season months [29]. Although *P. falciparum* was found to be less prevalent in the current study, it still poses a threat due to its association with severe cases (cerebral malaria, anemia) [30,31] and chloroquine resistance [32,33] necessitating vigilance [34]. Efforts to control *P. vivax* should be paired with strategies to mitigate the impact of *P. falciparum*. However

The age distribution suggests that young children are most vulnerable to malaria, likely due to their weaker immune systems [35,36]. The prevalence of malaria among children under five years supports the need for targeted interventions such as insecticide-treated nets (ITNs) and indoor spraying in these age groups. It has been reported that environmental and socioeconomic factors, particularly rural residency, lack of bed nets, and low maternal education can exacerbate the risk [37,38]. The gender difference in prevalence may be due to boys spending more time outdoors, where they are more exposed to mosquito bites, while girls might have more restricted movements. In KPK gender roles limit girls' outdoor mobility, reducing their *Anopheles* bite frequency [39]. Furthermore, wider gender disparities in KPK lead to underreported female cases [40]. The gender disparities align with global patterns. Similarly, in sub-Saharan Africa, boys aged 5–15 had a higher malaria risk than girls, linked to outdoor activities such as farming, fishing, and playing which increased mosquito exposure [41,42]. A 2022 study in India reported similar trends, with boys (6–14 years) showing 18% higher prevalence than girls, correlating with school and play-related outdoor time [43].

Conclusion

The findings from the present study underscore the importance of addressing malaria in District Lower Dir, where both environmental factors (such as climate) and socio-economic factors (such as gender roles) contribute to the high prevalence of the disease in children. The high prevalence rates during summer months highlight the urgent need for more effective vector



control measures, including the widespread use of ITNs and IRS. The higher rates of malaria among children, especially in the 1-8 years age group, indicate a critical area for intervention. Additionally, *P. vivax* continues to be the primary strain affecting the population, which calls for targeted treatment protocols to combat this species effectively. The seasonal variation in prevalence should also be taken into account when planning intervention strategies, with a focus on the summer months.

Recommendations

1. **Strengthening Vector Control Programs:** Expand the use of insecticide-treated nets (ITNs) and indoor residual spraying (IRS), especially during the high-risk summer months. Increasing community access to these tools is crucial for reducing mosquito exposure.
2. **Improved Surveillance and Data Collection:** Establish a more comprehensive surveillance system to track malaria cases in real-time, particularly during the peak transmission season from April to October. This will help in timely interventions.
3. **Public Awareness Campaigns:** Launch community-based awareness programs focusing on preventive measures, such as the importance of using ITNs and eliminating mosquito breeding sites. These programs should also emphasize seeking early diagnosis and treatment.
4. **Targeted Health Interventions for Vulnerable Groups:** Focus health interventions on the most vulnerable populations, such as children under five years and pregnant women, who are at higher risk of severe malaria outcomes. Ensure access to **prophylactic treatments** for pregnant women and early diagnosis for children.
5. **Increased Research on Malaria Resistance:** Monitor the emergence of drug resistance, particularly to *P. vivax*, and ensure that treatment protocols evolve in response to any changes in resistance patterns. Research into alternative treatments and vaccines is essential.
6. **Climate and Environmental Management:** Implement climate adaptation strategies to reduce malaria transmission. This could include improving drainage systems to minimize standing water and increase the effectiveness of insecticide spraying in high-risk areas.

Author Contributions:

Fawad Khan¹ (Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Original Draft, Review & Editing)
Najiya al Arifa² (Data Collection, Formal Analysis, Writing - Original Draft) Saffora Riaz²
(Data Collection, Writing - Original Draft) Robeela Shabbir³ (Writing - Review & Editing,



Supervision) Asad Qamar Abbas Khan ⁴(Data Collection, Formal Analysis) Hamna Tariq⁵ (Data Collection, Writing - Original Draft) Ali Hassan⁶ (Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision) Zainab Tariq⁷ (Data Collection, Writing - Review & Editing)

Conflicts of Interest:

The authors declare no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this article.

Funding:

No funding was received for conducting this study.

Acknowledgments:

The authors would like to acknowledge the Health Department of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa for providing the necessary resources and support for this research. We also thank the Department of Zoology, Lahore College for Women University, for their collaboration and assistance in data collection.

Future Research Gaps:

While this study provides insight into the clinical spectrum and risk factors influencing pediatric malaria in District Lower Dir, future research should focus on:

1. Longitudinal studies to track the impact of malaria prevention strategies over time.
2. Investigating the role of environmental factors and climate change in malaria transmission.
3. Evaluating the effectiveness of local malaria control programs in reducing incidence.
4. Studying the genetic diversity of Plasmodium strains in this region and their association with drug resistance.

References

1. World Health Organization. World Malaria Report 2022. World Health Organization; 2022 Dec 8.
2. Hyun-Il Shin, Bora Ku, Haneul Jung, So-dam Lee, Seon-Young Lee, Jung-Won Ju, Jonghee Kim, Hee-Il Lee. 2023 World Malaria Report (Status of World Malaria in 2022). Public Health Weekly Report 2024; 17(32): 1351-1377. <https://doi.org/10.56786/PHWR.2024.17.32.1>.
3. Thellier M, Gemegah AA, Tantaoui I. Global Fight against Malaria: Goals and Achievements 1900–2022. Journal of Clinical Medicine. 2024 Sep 24;13(19):5680. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm13195680>.
4. Gilder ME, Saito M, Haohankhunnatham W, Ling CL, Gornsawun G, Bancone G, Chu CS, Christensen PR, Imwong M, Charunwatthana P, Tun NW. Submicroscopic malaria in



- pregnancy and associated adverse pregnancy events: A case-cohort study of 4,352 women on the Thailand–Myanmar border. *PLoS medicine*. 2025 Mar 4;22(3):e1004529. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1004529>.
5. Patel P, Bagada A, Vadia N. Epidemiology and current trends in malaria. *Rising Contagious Diseases: Basics, Management, and Treatments*. 2024 Mar 11:261-82. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781394188741.ch20>.
 6. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). *Malaria Symptoms and Diagnosis*. Atlanta: CDC; 2023. Available from: https://www.cdc.gov/malaria/diagnosis_treatment/symptoms.html.
 7. Fatima SH, Zaidi F, Rafiq J, Bhandari D, Ali A, Bi P. Impact of temperatures on malaria incidence in vulnerable regions of Pakistan: empirical evidence and future projections. *Epidemiology & Infection*. 2025 Jan;153:e33. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268825000111>.
 8. Khan ML, Akhtar N, Amin R, Ihrar M, Din SM, Hussain M, Saqib M. Malaria: A Rising Health Concern in District Lakki Marwat, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. *Journal of Health, Wellness and Community Research*. 2025 Mar 28:1-6. <https://doi.org/10.61919/kqvea744>.
 9. Caminade C, Kovats S, Rocklov J, Tompkins AM, Morse AP, Colón-González FJ, Stenlund H, Martens P, Lloyd SJ. Impact of climate change on global malaria distribution. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2014 Mar 4;111(9):3286-91. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1302089111>.
 10. Klinkenberg E, Konradsen F, Herrel N, Mukhtar M, van der Hoek W, Amerasinghe FP. Malaria vectors in the changing environment of the southern Punjab, Pakistan. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*. 2004 Jul 1;98(7):442-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trstmh.2003.11.007>.
 11. Jabeen A, Ansari JA, Ikram A, Khan MA, Safdar M. Impact of climate change on the epidemiology of vector-borne diseases in Pakistan. *Global Biosecurity*. 2022 Aug 17;4.
 12. Saeed A, Ali S, Khan F, Muhammad S, Reboita MS, Khan AW, Goheer MA, Khan MA, Kumar R, Ikram A, Jabeen A. Modelling the impact of climate change on dengue outbreaks and future spatiotemporal shift in Pakistan. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*. 2023 Jun;45(6):3489-505. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-022-01429-z>.
 13. Hussain A, Latif M, Shoaib M, Khan V. Projected malaria transmission risk under climate intervention in South Asia. *Environmental Research Communications*. 2025 Mar 1. <https://doi.org/10.1088/2515-7620/adbeb9>.



14. Fatima T, Habib A, Khan A, Riaz R, ul Haq MZ, Raufi N. Mosquito-borne diseases in Pakistan: challenges, strategies, and future prospects. *IJS Global Health*. 2023 Nov 1;6(6):e0385. <https://doi.org/10.1097/GH9.0000000000000385>.
15. Khan IA, Din MM, Hussain S, Akbar R, Saeed M, Farid A, Fayaz W, Shah RA. A Study of Mosquito Fauna of District Upper Dir, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa-Pakistan. *Journal of Entomology and Zoology Studies*. 2015;3(5):455-8.
16. Khan MI, Qureshi H, Bae SJ, Khattak AA, Anwar MS, Ahmad S, Hassan F, Ahmad S. Malaria prevalence in Pakistan: A systematic review and meta-analysis (2006–2021). *Heliyon*. 2023 Apr 1;9(4). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e15373>.
17. Government of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. (2021). District development profile: Dir Lower. Planning & Development Department.
18. Hussain A, Shoaib M, Saeed F. Transmission of malaria intensity in changing climate of Pakistan. (2024). *International Journal of Biometeorology*. <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-3844876/v1>.
19. Pakistan Meteorological Department. (2022). Annual climate report for Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Ministry of Climate Change.
20. Mian MQ, Ayman SA, Ali B, Ullah U. Unraveling the Impact of Climate Change on Health Dynamics in District Swat, Pakistan: A Pathway to Sustainable Resilience. *International Journal of Social Science Archives (IJSSA)*. 2024 Jul 1;7(3).
21. Mazhar K, Arsalan MH, Kazmi SJ, Khan IA. Identification of potential risk areas of malaria parasites in Pakistan using climate data and GIS. *Int J Biol Biotech*. 2019;16(1):151-6.
22. Khan MI, Qureshi H, Bae SJ, Khattak AA, Anwar MS, Ahmad S, Hassan F, Ahmad S. Malaria prevalence in Pakistan: A systematic review and meta-analysis (2006-2021). *Heliyon*. 2023 Apr 11;9(4):e15373. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e15373>.
23. Khan SN, Sultan Ayaz SA, Sanaullah Khan SK, Sobia Attaullah SA, Khan MA, Naqib Ullah NU, Khan MA, Ijaz Ali IA. Malaria: is still a health problem in the general population of Bannu District, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. *Annu Res Rev Biol*. 2013;3(4):835–45.
24. Bandyayera E, Kokoskin E, Gyorkos TW, MacLean JD, et al. Comparison of Blood Smear, Antigen Detection, and Nested PCR Methods for Screening Refugees From Regions Where Malaria Is Endemic. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2004;42(6):2694–700.
25. Khan MI, Qureshi H, Bae SJ, Shah A, Ahmad N, Ahmad S, Asim M. Dynamics of malaria incidence in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan: unveiling rapid growth patterns and forecasting



- future trends. *Journal of Epidemiology and Global Health*. 2024 Mar;14(1):234-42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44197-024-00189-6>.
26. Khatoon L, Baliraine FN, Bonizzoni M, Malik SA, Yan G. Genetic structure of *Plasmodium vivax* and *Plasmodium falciparum* in the Bannu district of Pakistan. *Malaria journal*. 2010 Dec;9:1-0. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-9-112>.
27. Shaikh S, Memon H, Iohano B, Shaikh A, Ahmed I, Baird JK. Severe disease in children hospitalized with a diagnosis of *Plasmodium vivax* in south-eastern Pakistan. *Malaria Journal*. 2012 Dec;11:1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-11-144>.
28. Qureshi NA, Fatima H, Afzal M, Khattak AA, Nawaz MA. Occurrence and seasonal variation of human *Plasmodium* infection in Punjab Province, Pakistan. *BMC infectious diseases*. 2019 Dec;19:1-3. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-019-4590-2>.
29. Zanghi G, Vaughan AM. *Plasmodium vivax* pre-erythrocytic stages and the latent hypnozoite. *Parasitology International*. 2021 Dec 1;85:102447. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.parint.2021.102447>.
30. Rowe A, Obeiro J, Newbold CI, Marsh K. *Plasmodium falciparum* rosetting is associated with malaria severity in Kenya. *Infection and immunity*. 1995 Jun;63(6):2323-6. <https://doi.org/10.1128/iai.63.6.2323-2326.1995>.
31. Sukati S, Wannatung T, Duangchan T, Kotepui KU, Masangkay FR, Tseng CP, Kotepui M. Alteration of prothrombin time in *Plasmodium falciparum* and *Plasmodium vivax* infections with different levels of severity: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Scientific Reports*. 2024 May 2;14(1):9816. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-60170-y>.
32. Ursos LM, Roepe PD. Chloroquine resistance in the malarial parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Medicinal research reviews*. 2002 Sep;22(5):465-91. <https://doi.org/10.1002/med.10016>.
33. Bray PG, Martin RE, Tilley L, Ward SA, Kirk K, Fidock DA. Defining the role of PfCRT in *Plasmodium falciparum* chloroquine resistance. *Molecular microbiology*. 2005 Apr;56(2):323-33. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2005.04556.x>.
34. Saravu K, Rishikesh K, Kamath A, Shastry AB. Severity in *Plasmodium vivax* malaria claiming global vigilance and exploration—a tertiary care center-based cohort study. *Malaria Journal*. 2014 Dec;13:1-0. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-13-304>.
35. Zuberi UF, Aqeel S, Hashmi F, Khan W. Altered hematological parameters in children with malaria infection, a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diagnostic Microbiology and*



Infectious Disease. 2024 Apr 1;108(4):116190.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2024.116190>.

36. Hussain N, Rayaz S, Akhtar AN, Hanif M, Habib G. Clinical Presentation and Outcome in Children Admitted with Severe Malaria. Indus Journal of Bioscience Research. 2025 Mar 17;3(3):244-8. <https://doi.org/10.70749/ijbr.v3i3.845>.
37. Rouamba T, Nakanabo-Diallo S, Derra K, Rouamba E, Kazienga A, Inoue Y, Ouédraogo EK, Waongo M, Dieng S, Guindo A, Ouédraogo B. Socioeconomic and environmental factors associated with malaria hotspots in the Nanoro demographic surveillance area, Burkina Faso. BMC Public Health. 2019 Dec;19:1-4. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-6565-z>.
38. Villena OC, Arab A, Lippi CA, Ryan SJ, Johnson LR. Influence of environmental, geographic, socio-demographic, and epidemiological factors on the presence of malaria at the community level in two continents. Scientific Reports. 2024 Jul 20;14(1):16734. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-67452-5>.
39. Habib T, Hussain S. Exploring Gender Depiction in Outdoor Advertising Across Punjab and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan: A Comparative Analysis. Human Nature Journal of Social Sciences. 2024 Mar 30;5(1):247-57. <https://doi.org/10.71016/hnjss/brwt2720>.
40. Ullah H, Ullah R. Factors Affecting Young Girls' Participation in Sports: Narratives from Young Women in Islamabad, Pakistan. Women (1997-2032). 2020 Jan 1;12:91-103.
41. Cohee LM, Opondo C, Clarke SE, Halliday KE, Cano J, Shipper AG, Barger-Kamate B, Djimde A, Diarra S, Dokras A, Kanya MR. Preventive malaria treatment among school-aged children in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analyses. The Lancet Global Health. 2020 Dec 1;8(12):e1499-511. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(20\)30325-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(20)30325-9).
42. Sarfo JO, Amoado M, Kordorwu PY, Adams AK, Gyan TB, Osman AG, Asiedu I, Ansah EW. Malaria amongst children under five in sub-Saharan Africa: a scoping review of prevalence, risk factors, and preventive interventions. European journal of medical research. 2023 Feb 17;28(1):80. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40001-023-01046-1>.
43. Shankar H, Singh MP, Hussain SS, Phookan S, Singh K, Mishra N. Epidemiology of malaria and anemia in high and low malaria-endemic north-eastern districts of India. Frontiers in public health. 2022 Jul 28;10:940898. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2022.940898>.