

MALARIA: CURRENT INSIGHTS INTO EPIDEMIOLOGY, PATHOGENESIS, PREVENTION, AND RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

*¹Komal Raju Waghmare, ²Gajbhare Dipti Shankar, ³Arati Anil Waghmare, ⁴Satpute Prajwal Ravindra

*^{1,3,4}Student Samarth Institute of Pharmacy, Belhe, Pune, Maharashtra.

²Assistant Professor, Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Samarth Institute of Pharmacy, Belhe, Pune, Maharashtra.

Article Received on 05 May 2026,
Article Revised on 25 May 2026,
Article Published on 01 June 2026,

<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20439252>

*Corresponding Author

Komal Raju Waghmare

Student Samarth Institute of Pharmacy,
Belhe, Pune, Maharashtra.



How to cite this Article: *¹Komal Raju Waghmare, ²Gajbhare Dipti Shankar, ³Arati Anil Waghmare, ⁴Satpute Prajwal Ravindra. (2026). Malaria: Current Insights Into Epidemiology, Pathogenesis, Prevention, And Recent Developments. World Journal of Pharmaceutical Research, 15(11), 491-501.

This work is licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.

ABSTRACT

Through the bites of female Anopheles mosquitoes carrying Plasmodium parasites, malaria is a potentially fatal vector-borne illness. Malaria is still a serious worldwide health concern despite tremendous advancements in preventative measures, especially in tropical and subtropical areas (World Health Organization, 2023). The epidemiology, etiology, life cycle, pathophysiology, clinical aspects, diagnosis, therapy, preventative techniques, recent developments, and future prospects of malaria are all covered in detail in this review. The eradication of malaria worldwide depends on ongoing research, better access to healthcare, and cutting-edge technologies.

KEYWORDS: Malaria, Plasmodium, Vector-borne disease, Epidemiology, Treatment, Prevention.

INTRODUCTION

Millions of people are impacted by malaria each year, making it one of the most serious infectious diseases in the world (White et al., 2014). It is spread via the bite of an infected female Anopheles mosquito and is caused by protozoan parasites of the genus Plasmodium. Particularly in developing nations like India, the illness presents a significant public health burden (World Health Organization, 2023). The objective of this study is to examine several facets of malaria and offer perspectives on contemporary obstacles and developments in its

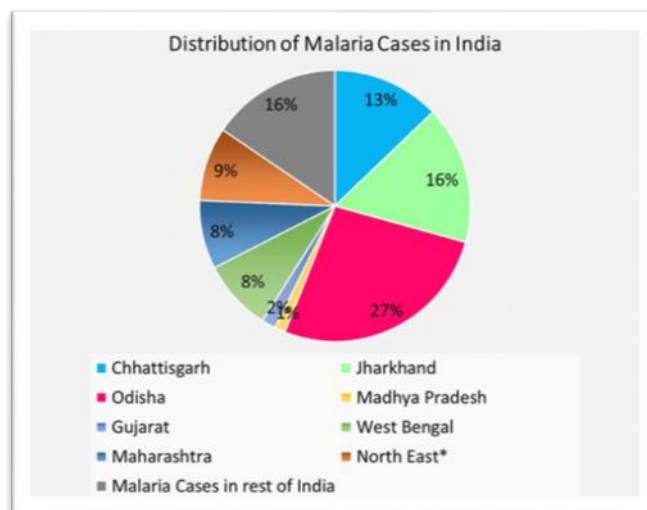
management. Malaria is caused by Plasmodium protozoan parasites, which are often referred to as the "King of Diseases." Malaria is the most serious infectious disease in tropical and subtropical regions and continues to be a major worldwide health concern, with over 40% of the world's population exposed to varying degrees of malaria risk in nearly 100 countries. Malaria is estimated to affect over 500 million people annually, resulting in 1-2 million deaths; in sub-Saharan Africa, children account for 90% of these deaths.



EPIDEMIOLOGY

Malaria is prevalent in tropical and subtropical regions, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and parts of South America (Snow *et al.*, 2005). Children under five years of age and pregnant women are the most vulnerable groups (World Health Organization, 2023). Although global efforts have reduced incidence rates, malaria continues to cause substantial morbidity and mortality (Murray *et al.*, 2012).

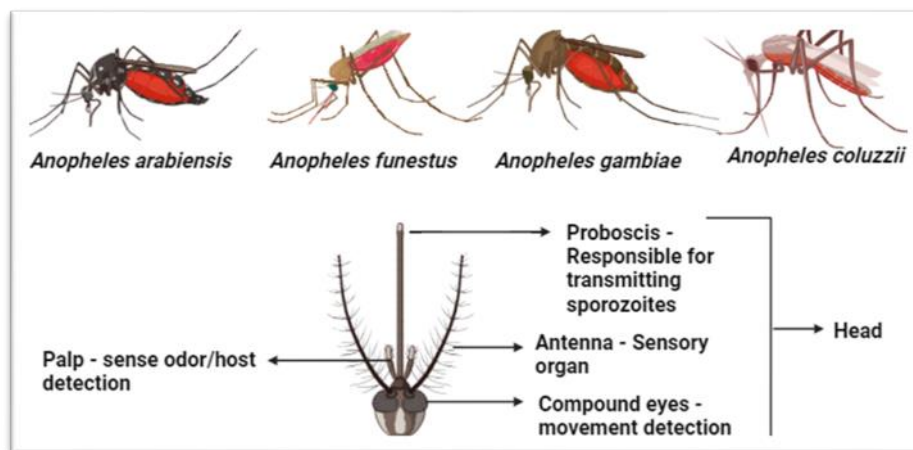
Children under five years of age, pregnant women, and immunocompromised individuals are at the highest risk of severe malaria (World Health Organization, 2023). Seasonal variations are also observed, with higher transmission during rainy seasons. Although global malaria incidence declined between 2000 and 2015, recent reports indicate stagnation due to factors such as drug resistance, insecticide resistance, and disruptions in healthcare services (Murray *et al.*, 2012).



ETIOLOGY

Malaria is caused by five major species of *Plasmodium*: *P. falciparum*, *P. vivax*, *P. malariae*, *P. ovale*, and *P. knowlesi* (Garcia, 2010). Among these, *P. falciparum* is responsible for the most severe and fatal cases. Transmission occurs through the bite of an infected *Anopheles* mosquito (White et al., 2014).

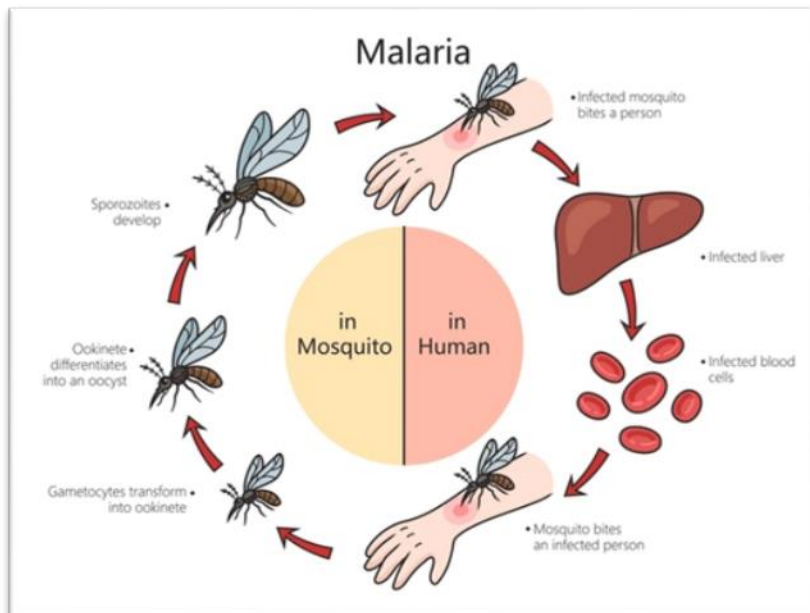
P. falciparum is the most virulent species and is responsible for the majority of malaria-related deaths. *P. vivax* is known for its ability to remain dormant in the liver and cause relapses. Transmission occurs primarily through mosquito bites, but can also occur through blood transfusion, organ transplantation, or congenital transmission.



LIFE CYCLE OF PLASMODIUM

The life cycle of the malaria parasite involves two hosts: humans and mosquitoes. Sporozoites enter the bloodstream and migrate to the liver, where they multiply before

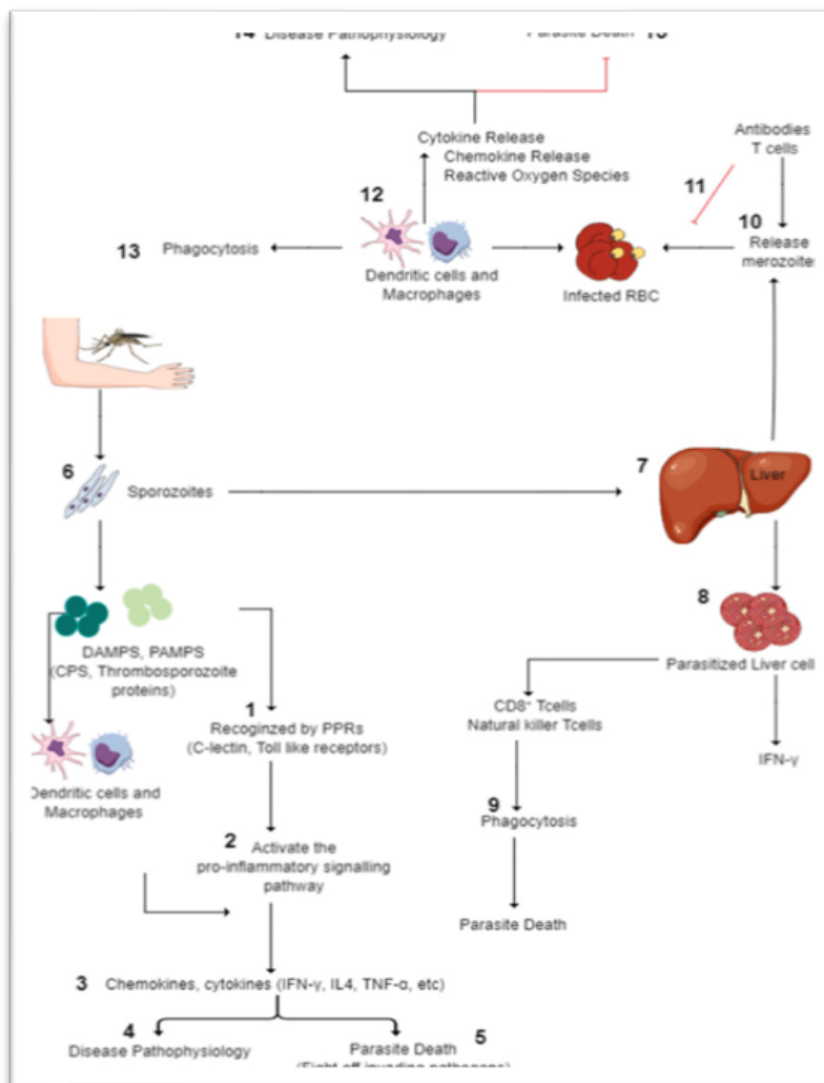
infecting red blood cells (Phillips et al., 2017). The cyclical rupture of infected erythrocytes leads to clinical symptoms. The parasite is then transmitted back to mosquitoes during a blood meal.



PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

Malaria primarily affects red blood cells, leading to their destruction and resulting in anemia (Wassmer et al., 2017). The release of parasitic toxins triggers immune responses, causing fever and inflammation. Severe *P. falciparum* infections may result in complications such as cerebral malaria and organ failure (Phillips et al., 1986).

In severe malaria, particularly caused by *P. falciparum*, infected RBCs adhere to the walls of blood vessels, leading to microvascular obstruction. This can result in complications such as cerebral malaria, acute respiratory distress syndrome, kidney failure, and metabolic acidosis (Phillips et al., 1986).



CLINICAL FEATURES

Common symptoms of malaria include fever, chills, sweating, headache, nausea, and vomiting (White et al., 2014). Severe malaria may present with neurological complications, respiratory distress, and multi-organ failure (Dondorp et al., 2005).

Severe malaria presents with complications such as altered consciousness, seizures, severe anemia, jaundice, respiratory distress, and multi-organ failure (Dondorp et al., 2005). Early diagnosis and treatment are crucial to prevent fatal outcomes.



DIAGNOSIS

Malaria diagnosis involves microscopic examination of blood smears, rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs), and molecular techniques such as PCR (Garcia, 2010). Early and accurate diagnosis is crucial for effective treatment and prevention of complications.

Rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs) detect parasite antigens and provide quick results, making them useful in remote areas. Molecular methods such as PCR offer high sensitivity and specificity but are limited by cost and infrastructure requirements. Emerging diagnostic approaches include biosensors, mobile-based detection, and AI-assisted microscopy.

TREATMENT

Artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs) are the most effective treatment for *P. falciparum* malaria (Dondorp et al., 2005). Other drugs such as chloroquine are used depending on regional resistance patterns. However, the emergence of drug resistance remains a significant challenge (Ashley et al., 2014; White, 2004).

For *P. vivax*, chloroquine combined with primaquine is commonly used to eliminate both blood-stage and liver-stage parasites. Severe malaria requires intravenous antimalarial drugs and supportive care. However, increasing resistance to artemisinin and other drugs poses a significant threat to malaria control (Ashley et al., 2014; White, 2004).

PREVENTION AND CONTROL

Preventive strategies include insecticide-treated bed nets, indoor residual spraying, and environmental management (Lengeler, 2004; Bhatt et al., 2015). Vaccination efforts, such as

the RTS,S vaccine, have shown promising results (RTS,S Clinical Trials Partnership, 2015). Public awareness and community participation are essential for effective malaria control.

Environmental management, such as eliminating stagnant water and improving sanitation, helps reduce mosquito breeding. Vaccines like RTS,S and R21 offer partial protection and represent significant progress in malaria prevention. Public health education and community participation are essential components of successful control programs.

RECENT ADVANCES

Recent advancements include the development of new vaccines such as R21 (Dattoo et al., 2021), improved diagnostic tools, and novel antimalarial drugs. Additionally, artificial intelligence and machine learning are being used to enhance malaria prediction and surveillance (Brown et al., 2019; Anwar et al., 2023).

Genomic studies have enhanced understanding of parasite biology and drug resistance mechanisms. Artificial intelligence and machine learning are being used for predictive modeling, outbreak detection, and healthcare planning (Brown et al., 2019; Anwar et al., 2023). These innovations have the potential to transform malaria control strategies.

CHALLENGES

Key challenges in malaria control include drug resistance, insecticide resistance, climate change, and inadequate healthcare infrastructure (World Health Organization, 2019). Socioeconomic factors and limited access to healthcare further complicate eradication efforts. Other challenges include limited healthcare infrastructure, lack of awareness, poverty, and political instability in endemic regions. Asymptomatic carriers also contribute to continued transmission, making detection and control more difficult.

FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

Future strategies should focus on strengthening healthcare systems, developing more effective vaccines, and integrating advanced technologies such as machine learning for disease prediction. Global collaboration and sustained funding are critical for achieving malaria eradication (World Health Organization, 2023).

ANTIMALARIAL CLASSIFICATION

4- Aminoquinolines	Chloroquine Amodiaquine Piperaquine
Quinoline-methanol	Mefloquine
Cinchona alkaloid	Quinine Quinidine
Biguanide	Proguanil (Chloroguanide)
Diaminopyrimidine	Pyrimethamine
8-Aminoquinolines	Primaquine Tafenoquine
Sulfonamide/ Sulfone	Sulfadoxine Sulfamethopyrazine Dapsone
Antibiotics	Doxycycline Clindamycin
Sesquiterpine-lactones	Artesunate Artemether Arteether Arterolane
Amino-alcohols	Halofantrine Lumefantrine
Naphthoquinone	Atovaquone
Naphthyridine	Pyronaridine

CONCLUSION

Malaria remains a major global health concern requiring coordinated efforts for its control and eventual eradication. While significant progress has been made, continued research, innovation, and public health interventions are necessary to overcome existing challenges and reduce the burden of the disease (White et al., 2014). In addition to preventive strategies such as vector control and vaccination, effective pharmacological treatment plays a critical role in malaria management. Antimalarial drugs are broadly classified based on their action and chemical structure, including artemisinin derivatives (e.g., artemether, artesunate), quinoline compounds (e.g., chloroquine, quinine), antifolate drugs (e.g., pyrimethamine, sulfadoxine), and antimicrobial agents (e.g., doxycycline, clindamycin). Combination therapies, particularly Artemisinin-based Combination Therapies (ACTs), are currently the standard treatment due to their high efficacy and reduced risk of resistance. However, the emergence of drug-resistant strains of *Plasmodium* poses a serious challenge, highlighting the need for continuous drug development and rational use of existing therapies. Therefore, integrating effective drug regimens with robust public health strategies remains essential for achieving long-term malaria control and eventual eradication.

RESULT

Malaria remains a major global health problem caused by *Plasmodium* parasites and transmitted by infected female *Anopheles* mosquitoes. This review highlights the epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, treatment, prevention, and recent advances in malaria management. Early diagnosis, effective antimalarial therapies, vector control measures, and new technologies such as vaccines and advanced drug delivery systems have improved malaria control. However, challenges like drug resistance and limited healthcare access still exist. Continuous research, public health initiatives, and global collaboration are essential for the effective control and eventual eradication of malaria.

REFERENCES

1. Ashley, E. A., et al. (2014). Spread of artemisinin resistance in *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 371(5): 411–423.
2. Bhatt, S., et al. (2015). The effect of malaria control on *Plasmodium falciparum* in Africa. *Nature*, 526(7572): 207–211.
3. Brown, B. J., et al. (2019). Machine learning approaches for malaria prediction. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1906.07502*.
4. Dattoo, M. S., et al. (2021). Efficacy of a low-dose R21 malaria vaccine. *The Lancet*, 397(10287): 1809–1818.
5. Dondorp, A. M., et al. (2005). Artesunate versus quinine for severe malaria. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 352(4): 341–350.
6. Garcia, L. S. (2010). Malaria. *Clinical Laboratory Medicine*, 30(1): 93–129.
7. Kojom Foko, L. P., et al. (2019). Antimalarial drug discovery: A review. *Malaria Journal*, 18(1): 1–15.
8. Lengeler, C. (2004). Insecticide-treated bed nets and curtains for preventing malaria. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, (2).
9. Murray, C. J. L., et al. (2012). Global malaria mortality between 1980 and 2010. *The Lancet*, 379(9814): 413–431.
10. Okello, G., & Aucamp, M. (2026). Malaria epidemiology and management strategies. *Malaria Journal*.
11. Phillips, M. A., et al. (2017). Malaria. *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*, 3: 17050.
12. Phillips, R. E., et al. (1986). Pathophysiology of severe malaria. *Parasitology Today*, 2(3): 74–78.

13. RTS, S Clinical Trials Partnership. (2015). Efficacy of RTS,S malaria vaccine. *The Lancet*, 386(9988): 31–45.
14. Savi, M. K. (2023). Malaria transmission and control strategies. *Medical Sciences*, 11(1): 3.
15. Snow, R. W., et al. (2005). Global distribution of malaria episodes. *Nature*, 434(7030): 214–217.
16. Wassmer, S. C., et al. (2017). Severe malaria pathophysiology. *International Journal for Parasitology*, 47(2–3): 145–152.
17. White, N. J. (2004). Antimalarial drug resistance. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 113(8): 1084–1092.
18. White, N. J., et al. (2014). Malaria. *The Lancet*, 383(9918): 723–735.
19. World Health Organization. (2019). *Guidelines for malaria vector control*. WHO.
20. World Health Organization. (2023). *World malaria report 2023*. WHO.
21. Anwar, M. N., et al. (2023). Mathematical models of malaria transmission.
22. CDC Global Health-Ethiopia, *Centers for Disease Control and Prevention*, 2016, Center for Global Health, Atlanta, USA.
23. Ayele D., Zewotir T., and Mwambi H., The risk factor indicators of malaria in Ethiopia, *International Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences*, 2013; 5(7): 335–347.
24. Poilane I., Jeantils V., and Carbillon L., Découverte fortuite de paludisme à Plasmodium falciparum au cours de la grossesse: à propos de deux cas, *Gynécologie Obstétrique & Fertilité.*, 2009; 37(10): 824–826.
25. Baldwin M. R., Li X., Hanada T., Liu S.-C., and Chishti A. H., Merozoite surface protein 1 recognition of host glycophorin A mediates malaria parasite invasion of red blood cells, *Blood.*, 2015.
26. Riglar D. T., Richard D., Wilson D. W. et al., Super-resolution dissection of coordinated events during malaria parasite invasion of the human erythrocyte, *Cell Host & Microbe.*, 2011; 9(1): 9–20.
27. Bardají A., Bassat Q., Alonso P. L., and Menéndez C., Intermittent preventive treatment of malaria in pregnant women and infants: making best use of the available evidence, *Expert Opinion on Pharmacotherapy*, 2012; 13(12): 1719–1736.
28. Awandare G. A., Ouma Y., Ouma C. et al., Role of monocyte-acquired hemozoin in suppression of macrophage migration inhibitory factor in children with severe malarial anemia, *Infection and Immunity*, 2007; 75(1): 201–210.

29. WHO, *Management of Severe Malaria. A Practical Handbook*, 2012, 3rd edition, WHO, Geneva, Switzerland.
30. Eopold SJ, Ghose A, Allman EL, Kingston HWF, Hossain A et al. **2019**. Identifying the components of acidosis in patients with severe *P. falciparum* malaria using metabolomics. *J. Infect. Dis.*, 219: 1766–76.
31. Cunnington AJ, de Souza JB, Walther M, Riley EM **2011**. Malaria impairs resistance to *Salmonella* through heme- and heme oxygenase–dependent dysfunctional granulocyte mobilization. *Nat. Med.*, 18: 120–27.
32. Nadjm B, Amos B, Mtove G, Ostermann J, Chonya S et al. **2010**. WHO guidelines for antimicrobial treatment in children admitted to hospital in an area of intense *Plasmodium falciparum* transmission: prospective study. *BMJ* 340: c1350.
33. Viebig NK, Wulbrand U, Forster R, Andrews KT, Lanzer M, Knolle PA **2005**. Direct activation of human endothelial cells by *Plasmodium falciparum*–infected erythrocytes. *Infect. Immun.* 73: 3271–77.
34. Jambou R, Combes V, Jambou MJ, Weksler BB, Couraud PO, Grau GE **2010**. *Plasmodium falciparum* adhesion on human brain microvascular endothelial cells involves transmigration-like cup formation and induces opening of intercellular junctions.
35. Kariuki SM, Gitau E, Gwer S, Karanja HK, Chengo E et.al. **2014**. Value of *Plasmodium falciparum* histidine-rich protein 2 level and malaria retinopathy in distinguishing cerebral malaria from other acute encephalopathies in Kenyan children. *J. Infect.*