

Molecular Biomarkers in Malaria: Linking Plasmodium Gene Variants to Early Diagnostic and Prognostic Tools

Wafia Shaker Abdul Hussein

Department of Microbiology, College of Medicine, University of Kerbala, Kerbala, Iraq

Zainab Khamees Abbas

University of Anbar, College of Medicine

Osama A. Mohsein

Department of Medical Laboratory Techniques, Northern Technical University, College of Health and Medical Techniques, Kirkuk, Iraq

Received: 2025, 15, Sep

Accepted: 2025, 21, Oct

Published: 2025, 24, Nov

Copyright © 2025 by author(s) and Scientific Research Publishing Inc. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution International License (CC BY 4.0).



Open Access

<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Annotation: Malaria is a significant health issue of the world especially in tropical and subtropical areas where both *Plasmodium falciparum* and *Plasmodium vivax* infections are associated with serious morbidity and mortality. Discovery of molecular biomarkers with parasite gene variants has become an interesting strategy that can enhance early diagnosis, prognosis, and management of the disease. *Plasmodium*-based molecular biomarkers, including circumsporozoite protein (CSP), merozoite surface proteins (MSP-1, MSP-2), and apical membrane antigen-1 (AMA-1) are becoming more commonly utilized to determine the stage of infection and species. The parasite virulence, drug resistance, and host immune responses have been associated with gene polymorphisms and the expression profiles of these biomarkers, and could be monitored more accurately. The recent improvements of both genomic and proteomic technologies have made the identification of new biomarkers, such as

circulating parasite DNA, RNA transcripts, and protein signatures, possible, making the diagnostic tests more sensitive. In addition, the deletion of molecular biomarkers like *pfhrp2* and *pfhrp3* has also been identified to be very important in the failure of rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs), and therefore genetic surveillance in localities where these problems are endemic is necessary. The introduction of these molecular tools into clinical practice offers a platform on which customized response to malaria treatment and control can be made. Knowledge about genetic diversity of *Plasmodium* species and how it relates to the severity of the disease may eventually result in devising more precise diagnosis measures, specific treatment, and successful vaccine candidates. Therefore, molecular biomarkers are fundamental ingredients in combating malaria between basic research and clinical implementation to predict and treat the disease more effectively.

Keywords: Malaria, *Plasmodium*, Molecular biomarkers, early diagnosis, prognosis, genetic diversity.

1. Introduction to Malaria and Molecular Biomarkers

Malaria is a parasitic disease that has been afflicting humanity all through the centuries but still poses a significant threat to global public health with a growing number of people dying of it. In 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) predicted that 241 million cases and 627,000 deaths were caused by malaria, of which the majority of the cases were in Africa [1]. Diagnosis of malaria followed by its treatment is crucial to prevent morbidity and mortality, but the existing diagnostic methods are usually time-consuming or complicated. The identification of *Plasmodium* gene variant variants, which are directly proportional to disease progression and species pathogenicity, as molecular biomarkers targets an energetic direction towards developing a faster method to initiate this process. Such biomarkers present hope to predict severe disease, too, which is a reason to continue with the research [2].

Plasmodium parasites are characterized by a great diversity on both genomic and transcriptomic levels, so it is a logical point to start analyzing the relevant gene-variant signals. In fact, genome-wide association studies have revealed numerous single-nucleotide polymorphisms, copy number

variations, and even chromosome-scale rearrangements linked with the fitness of a parasite, virulence and development of drug resistance. Several of these variants have since been linked to significant growth- and/or virulence-related transcriptional shifts [3]. Characterization of the transcriptome as a function of the asexual replication cycle has furthermore revealed stage-specific expression signatures revealing differentiated prioritization of biological functions. Lastly, the parasites exhibit extensive antigenic diversity driven by frequent expression-switching and recombination events. Together, these genomic and transcriptomic signals provide a crucial foundation for developing molecular biomarkers targeting both early-stage *Plasmodium* detection and disease-progression prognosis [4].

1.1. Overview of malaria epidemiology and disease burden

Spread by mosquitoes, malaria arises from infection with protists of the genus *Plasmodium*. Five species cause human illness, with *Plasmodium falciparum* responsible for the bulk of mortality. In 2021, there were an estimated 247 million new cases and 619,000 deaths globally. The heaviest load is paid to Africa, where malaria is one of the major causes of poor health and death. The World Health has been making significant investments in prevention, diagnosis and treatment tools yet the results have not been good. Organization continues to classify malaria as an epidemic disease with regard to global 2030 targets [5].

The promise of molecular biomarkers arises from the biology of *Plasmodium* itself. The five species show notable differences in biology and virulence that affect transmission, larval load, and disease risk. Even within a species, variants associated with fitness and virulence circulate widely, differ in population frequency, and change over time in endemic settings. Key variants affecting the dihydrofolate reductase and K13 genes have already been linked to important phenotypes in *Plasmodium falciparum* [6]. Each of the five species presents transcriptomic signatures that indicate life-cycle stage and correlate with growth rate and other biologically relevant variables. Single-cell transcriptomic studies have revealed stage-specific signatures during the mosquito and vertebrate phases, including early/late ring, trophozoite, and gametocyte phases that are detected in the blood. In all five species, copy number variation of chromosomal and extrachromosomal sequences is pervasive. In the major vector-transmitter species, antigenic diversity is driven by genomic rearrangements and selective sweeps that shape large gene families [7].

1.2. Rationale for molecular biomarkers in diagnosis and prognosis

Despite declining morbidity and mortality rates, malaria remains one of the most pertinent public health problems globally, particularly in Africa, Southeast Asia, and South America. The loss of efficacy of long-standing interventions coupled with the emergence of drug-resistant *Plasmodium falciparum* highlights the pressing need for new control strategies [8].

Molecular Biomarkers are generic measures of biological conditions that are quantifiable in blood, serum or any other body fluids. *Plasmodium* spp. has its genome that encode above 5,000 genes, the mutation of which is a determinant of its fitness to malaria parasites. These types of DNA variations are often associated with a phenotype, such as drug resistance, virulence, and transmissibility, as well as invasion [9]. *Plasmodium* also exhibits considerable variation in the temporal regulation of gene expression, with stage-specific transcriptomic signatures for asexual, gametocyte, and sporozoite development. Biomarkers drawn from these temporally regulated genes can therefore be linked to specific stages of the parasite life cycle. Finally, extensive copy number variation occurs across the *Plasmodium* genome, an important parameter affecting phenotypic traits, and variations in immunogenic antigens lead to considerable within-host antigenic diversity [10].

Despite substantive reductions in malaria morbidity and mortality globally, the disease remains one of the largest public health burdens in sub-Saharan Africa and continues to pose a substantial threat to a number of nations and regions in South and Southeast Asia and South America. Efforts to control malaria have been hindered by the emergence and spread of resistance to many classes

of antimalarial drugs capable of clearing Plasmodium from the host. Control of the disease in these populations is further complicated by the lack of alternative chemotherapies. Rapid and accurate identification of infected individuals is therefore vital for timely treatment. Malaria parasites undergo cyclical development within the human host, and accurate detection of the species-specific *P. falciparum* genome is possible at all stages of infection. Candidate biomarkers for early diagnosis and prognosis are therefore defined by certain desirable characteristics [11].

1.3. Overview of Plasmodium biology and gene variation

Malarial infection is caused by protozoan parasites belonging to the genus Plasmodium and transmitted by female Anopheles mosquitoes. The main human pathogens are Plasmodium falciparum, *P. vivax*, *P. ovale*, and *P. malariae*, while *P. knowlesi* infects monkeys and can cause human disease. Plasmodium species have complex life cycles that include both asexual and sexual phases, and additional variations in reproduction and development can occur depending on the species, host, and environmental conditions [12].

In different environments Plasmodium can develop a great genetic diversity. For some species, a 24-hour light cycle can trigger developmental events that induce genetic changes. Unlike organisms that have evolved in eye-compromised environments, Plasmodium has retained extensive biosynthetic pathways linked to light-sensing receptors [13].

Due to limited genetic data on Plasmodium, genome informatics has been extensively developed to compensate Plasmodium cellular complexity and pathogenicity, including the intracellular host paradigm. Flexible polygenic mathematical models analyse experimental parasite/fly population-wide whole genome sequences across laboratory and field colonies. Furthermore, microscopic imaging has elucidated that bacteria-injected flies rapidly develop parasitic infections to produce diverse Plasmodium offspring [14].

2. Genomic and Transcriptomic Signals in Plasmodium

The remarkable ability of malaria parasites to adapt rapidly to external and internal pressures is a major driver of their persistence and transmission. Importantly, genetic variants associated with increased fitness and virulence have been identified across the Plasmodium genus [15]. Many of these variants are under selection pressure, or exhibit reduced allele frequency in natural populations, a signal of genetic hitchhiking. Moreover, each Plasmodium species exhibits distinct, stage-specific transcriptomic signatures that reflect metabolic processes and host interactions tied to biological fitness, virulence, reproduction, and transmission. Finally, genome-wide copy number variations are evident within and between Plasmodium species, enabling increased gene dosage of pathogenicity factors under selection pressure [16]. A neutral model of Plasmodium antigenic diversity suggests a common evolutionary trajectory and environmental adaptability, positioning gene variant and stage-specific transcriptomic signals as attractive bases for the development of early diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers for malaria. These genomic and transcriptomic signals provide a rational framework for selecting candidate markers to monitor Plasmodium infection and its virulence components [17].

2.1. Genetic variants associated with parasite fitness and virulence

During the intraerythrocytic and sexually competent stages, transcriptomic profiling highlights stage-specific signatures. A limited number of genes have been studied regarding copy number variations (CNVs) in relation to virulence, and CNVs are linked to the transcriptional regulation of the apical membrane antigen-1 and the export of PfEMP1 to the surface of erythrocytes. Antigenic diversity is also a factor in host evasion and immune suppression; the *P. falciparum* genome encodes >60 var genes that mediate antigenic variation through parasitemia waves, and the transcript levels of the *P. falciparum* SERA gene family, linked to virulence and immune escape, are positively correlated with parasite density [18].

These genomic and transcriptomic variants provide critical information on drug resistance,

virulence, and fitness—factors directly affecting the progression of malaria. Thus, considering their biological implications, the potential of the corresponding genetic and transcriptomic markers as biomarkers for a rapid screening diagnostic test to detect the presence of parasites in human blood samples is evaluated [19]. In parallel, the increased production of analytical chemicals and the modification of biophysical properties of the host are also examined, as these metabolites could serve as potential targets for *P. falciparum* detection through a rapid diagnostic test operable at the point of care (POC). Finally, selected metabolites involved in *P. falciparum* pathophysiology are integrated into the list of putative candidates because their presence is apparently linked to the onset of the disease, making them suitable for prognosis-based screening detection in a second diagnostic test [20].

2.2. Transcriptomic signatures of infection stages and sequestration

The capacity to identify overall transcriptional signatures of the malaria parasite *Plasmodium* within host in peripheral blood using host transcriptomic data holds considerable promise for the early diagnosis and prognosis of malaria. Likewise, the capacities to detect parasite gene copy number variations (CNV), modifications of antigenic repertoires, such as those of *pfemp1* and other immunogenic proteins, and the extent of tangential host–pathogen interactions can further enhance the diagnostic and prognostic features of transcriptomic-based tools [21].

2.3. Copy number variations and antigenic diversity

Copy number variations (CNVs) are a significant class of structural variations that contribute to antigenic diversity in *Plasmodium falciparum*. Numerous studies have documented extensive gene copy number variation across the genome that facilitates adaptation to drug pressure, enabling the parasite to persist in the presence of complex artemisinin-based combination therapies and other treatments [22]. CNV variation is associated with population organization and it impacts on phenotypic diversity; parasite lineage differentiation in Eastern Africa has shown clear dissimilarities in CNV content, and formation of populations outside the area of hyperdiversity. CNVs on a global scale Global methods of detecting CNV using Poisson hierarchical models or structural variant analysis are sensitive to large-scale deletions, duplications, and amplifications of genes involved in drug resistance, red blood cell invasion, and other vital processes, including nutrient transport, and responses to stress. The capacity of the invasion of peptide-treated red blood cells by the EBA-175 protein, which interacts with glycophorin A, AA or B, is also contributed by gene copy number variation at key determinants. Finally, the effect of variability of gene copy numbers can have a strong impact on the growth rate, nutrient uptake, and immune evasion, and, consequently, promote antigenic variation and make the development of vaccines more complicated [23].

3. Early Diagnostic Biomarkers

The ability to detect active *Plasmodium* infections rapidly is essential for progress toward malaria elimination. Early diagnosis confirms the need for treatment and prevents the dangerous shift to severe disease. Early, severe malaria has a high mortality risk in young children; the pathogenic mechanisms are diverse and poorly understood. Genomic variants in *Plasmodium*, circulating transcripts, and host factors are being explored as prognostic biomarkers. Several of the genomic and transcriptional signals work as early diagnostic biomarkers that are detectable within hours of infection and prior to 18S rRNA amplification. These markers allow the distinction between early and late infection stages, while antigenic and metabolomic candidates, which can be tested at the point of care, are in a position to provide further insights needed to design optimized tests [24].

While early diagnostic markers have been identified, it is critical to first incorporate systematic assay-design elements into tool development. Assay design requires attention to the LOD and amplification gain so that initial genetic and transcriptomic signals are tracked prior to 18S rRNA amplification—at the earliest stage of early infection—and so that the late-stage rRNA signal is avoided. These assay-design elements should feature prominently in the examination of early

diagnostic signals. High-throughput sequencing (HTS) provides a comprehensive overview of Plasmodium gene variants in map_tbl_2 that are detectable in numerous clinical specimens [25]. All genomic variant signals are assayed in parallel throughout the entire planktonic phase, thus characterizing early infection within the first 24h of a rodent experimental infection. Besides genomic alterations, detection of stage-specific circulating transcripts within hours of the initial multiplication phase indicates an equally promising time-varying prognostic diagnostic signal [26].

A wide range of experimental settings, model systems, and species combinations are deployed in diverse pathways to assess whether identified Plasmodium constellations of host factors act in concert with the protective effects conferred by antimalarial drugs or vaccines and to unravel transmission mechanisms [27]. Controlling the surging global burden of malaria is dependent on the creation of effective early diagnostics so that appropriate and viable interventions towards the control of disease progression can be initiated at the earliest stage. Markers of infection, disease severity, and the response of particular therapeutics, prepared using a combination of an entire repertoire of generalized technologies, high-throughput assays, and multilayered omics, put in place a strategically derived foundation to this goal [28].

3.1. Genetic and transcriptomic markers for rapid detection

The use of direct genetic and transcriptomic markers for detection avoids pre-analytical sample processing, thereby improving sensitivity and specificity. Plasmodium genes of both reservoirs, the mosquito and the human host, are subject to selective pressure that drives variant fixation, and such markers have been implicated in parasite transmission, virulence, antigenic diversity, drug and insecticide resistance, and responses to vector control [29]. The most promising candidate for point-of-care applications is antigenic detection since Plasmodium species produce distinct proteins during the hepatic and erythrocytic phases. Data-driven approaches have established an emphasis on specific mRNAs, proteins, and specialized metabolic processes that differ across an array of species. The widespread consumption of glucose and production of exportable metabolic by-products such as lactate and 2-amino-2-deoxy-D-glucose-derived compounds constitute additional information for the detection of Plasmodium stage, with concomitant rise in blood glucose consumption [30].

Biosensing, aptamer-based, and electrochemical approaches have been combined to manufacture plasmodium sensors at low cost and with appreciable stability. Detection methods have further been developed for species differentiation, based on Plasmodium-specific small subunit rRNA genes or mitochondrial genomes, and genetic variants confer resistance to first-line antimalarial drugs. For both diagnostics and therapeutics, CRISPR technology has been successfully applied to the detection of human pathogens through the programming of target nucleic acids, the selection of a signal-output unit, and the production of transcripts leading to visual outputs [31]. Mass spectrometry offers a viable alternative to the complex processes involved in extraction and amplification for prompt detection of malaria. Early transcriptomic studies documented differential expression of host and Plasmodium kinases, enabling the identification of parasite secreted proteins, vectors, and uncertain interactions. Transcriptional responses to pyronaridine, both upstream and downstream, pinpointed host receptors and parasite responses clarifying phenomena such as deoxycytidine stress and enabling the delineation of two-stage responses to GTP. Transcriptomic data have also facilitated the monitoring of the transmission of isopropylbenzyl/thienyl and similar compounds and investigations into other source-effector interactions [32].

3.2. Antigenic and metabolomic candidates for point-of-care tests

Highly sensitive and rapid detection of Plasmodium parasites is critical for early diagnosis, effective treatment, and prevention of severe malaria. Point-of-care tests targeting Plasmodium genomic/transcriptomic markers in dry blood spots and urine are viable for dexterous field deployment. Antigenic and metabolomic candidates for lineages with distinct transmission vectors

offer convenient, low-cost alternatives that circumvent costly primer design. Essential assay design criteria to bolster early detection by greater than an order of magnitude include preservation of biological material, intermediate targets compatible with current rapid tests, single-copy amplification across pathogens, and non-redundant targets for detection in co-infected or relapsing cases [33].

Diverse candidates from the *Plasmodium* genome and transcriptome indicate a rapid, accessible means to enhance detection sensitivity at field-relevant doses. Early pre-patent *Plasmodium falciparum* (Pf) markers harmonize with transmission-blocking candidate and additional stage-specific markers, bolstering assay design options and expanding eventual platform range. *Leptospira* species offer diverse, absorbing leads for next-stage target selection, beyond the scope of commonly accessed pathogens. Dissemination of bioinformatic tools hastens broad-spectrum prioritization by other groups [34].

Promising early genetic and transcriptional markers for point-of-care screening permit universal multiplexing pathways for other pathogens, while relevant transcriptional and exosomal signals identify separate candidates linked to progression risk [3]. The broad constellation of cross-disease genomic and transcriptomic expression features, unethical model-induction requirements, and alternative operationally separable genomes; grant rationale for prioritizing initial target selection on the basis of earlier cross-species option completion. Both early-monitoring appraisal channels accommodate genome-wide, transcriptome-level, macro-distribution advancement tracing [35].

3.3. Assay design and analytical performance considerations

Sensitive and specific assays for *Plasmodium* detection are fundamental to implementing early causal malaria interventions. Early diagnostic markers are traceable to genomic and stage-specific transcriptomic signals that confer parasite fitness and virulence. These signals also motivate metabolomic, proteomic, and antigenic candidates for diagnosis at the point of care, which remain unaddressed in early diagnosis. Each proposed early diagnostic marker is linked to risks of infection, progression, and severe outcomes identified in the 2nd and 3rd translational pathway sections. Accompanying the choice of rapid detection targets are critical assay-design considerations to maximize the probability of accurate *Plasmodium* identification, including specimen preparation, handling, and inactivation, reagents, and protocols to mitigate contamination and enable sensitive quantification [36].

Despite the low prevalence of transmission-dependent species (*falciparum*, *knowlesi*, *vivax*, and *malariae*) in many regions, the early-diagnostic marker assayed remains useful. Maintenance of lineages creating emergent combinations with non-transmission-dependent species (*ovale* and *pinpas*) poses additional public health risks potentially addressed by the same roadmap for progressing parasite sequence variation research capacity and infrastructure [37].

4. Prognostic Biomarkers and Disease Severity

Plasmodium infections are among the most deadly parasitic diseases, responsible for 627,000–1,350,000 deaths in 2020. The non-digestive feeding strategy, multiple life stages, and host-switching of these parasites allow complex interactions that modulate virulence, transmission and evolution. Biomarkers are emerging to provide rapid, accurate diagnosis of the most dangerous infections. Elucidating *Plasmodium*, and especially *P. falciparum*, biology has generated genome-wide genetic variants and transcriptomic responses, which can serve as foundations for the discovery of such markers [38].

Sequencing of multi-clonal *Plasmodium* population samples has identified numerous genomic variants associated with virulence and fitness, particularly in *P. falciparum*. Exome-wide scans of experimentally evolved *P. falciparum* populations have revealed major polymorphisms in a transcription factor, PfAP2-G, that modulate parasite fitness and transmission potential [39]. Population genomic studies in natural isolates have associated copy number variations in the acyl carrier protein (ACP) gene with artemisinin resistance and pinpointed mutations in the mRNA 5'

cap methyltransferase as selective targets of chlorproguanil in concert with reduced dhfr expression. Such gene variants represent candidate markers for the early determination of infection severity and disease progression. Plasmodium sequences from human, mosquito and rodent reservoirs of malaria have also been obtained from field samples [40].

4.1. Genetic predictors of disease progression and complications

Malaria remains one of the most lethal parasitic diseases worldwide. Derived from a genus of single-celled protozoan parasites (Plasmodium), malaria infects over 250 million people a year, killing over half a million, mainly children under five and pregnant women living in malaria-endemic regions. Although antimalarial therapeutics are available, mortality and morbidity associated with this disease arise mainly due to difficulties in the early and rapid diagnosis that would assist the patient and health workers take the correct treatment on time. Of equal importance, resistance of Plasmodium to the World Health Organization (WHO)-recommended first-line treatment artemisinin-combination therapy across Africa has called for more effective therapeutic drugs [41]. Leveraging sensitivity and specificity of molecular techniques, Plasmodium has evolved some major features, such as high gene turnover rate, antigenic diversity, and haploidy, which are the basis for downstream bioinformatic analyses that can lead to the identification of potential biomarker candidates. As for omics technology, the concept of ‘multi-omics’ has arisen in recent years, covering genomics of host and pathogen, transcriptomics of host and pathogen, proteomics of host, and metabolomics of host, and analysis of the coupled multi-omics is expected to shed light on biomarker discovery [42].

Genomic signals of Plasmodium at different stages can predict the time to clinical malaria and the risk of developing severe disease; knowing these factors can help timely initiation of deeper molecular monitoring, tracking of parasite and host gene activities, and design of hypotheses-driven targeted studies to elucidate the relationship between host–parasite interactions in malaria. Due to the existence of genetic correlations among the developments of various complications, genes associated with cerebral malaria (CM) are also highly relevant to other clinical outcomes [43]. In addition, expression profiles of inflammatory and antibacterial immune pathways participate as well in the evolution of multiple consequences accompanying malaria infection, such as liver role in parasite clearance affecting damage to respiratory system and rigorous post-infection inflammatory response amplifying the risk of developing respiratory involvement. Alteration of the transcriptome in response to Plasmodium infestation evidently demonstrates the intensity of host–parasite interaction [44].

4.2. Biomarkers for cerebral and severe malaria risk

Severe malaria is a major cause of morbidity and mortality in children and non-pregnant adults. Patients presenting with specific clinical features often progress to severe disease requiring parenteral treatment and critical care. For an effective clinical response and to prevent significant morbidity and mortality a prompt determination of the risk of progression to severe malaria is required. High levels of parasitaemia enable clinicians in most malaria-endemic countries to categorise adult patients as uncomplicated or severe in areas where the disease is prevalent, with the former group remaining at < 1% risk of progression [45]. Nevertheless, progression to severe disease is frequently observed in children with lower levels of parasitaemia or in other special circumstances). Thus, a structurally and functionally well-characterised panel of transcriptional, genomic, and metabolic biomarkers enabling the expedited identification of children at risk of procuring severe malaria would accelerate the time to treatment and enable access to lifesaving interventions [46].

Approaches aimed at identifying patients progressing to severe malaria have focused on two avenues: the identification of risk factors associated with disease progression and the discovery of predictors with substantial evidence supporting association to progression. Prioritising the pursuit of risk factors or progression predictors requires an in-depth knowledge of patient sub-groups and key molecular correlates which, for many clinicians, remains ill-defined. The *P. falciparum* gene

expression signatures drawn from parallelised transcriptional profiling within well-defined clinical studies [47] directs attention towards the search for a minimal gene expression signature representative of these PFGE profiles. Likewise, investigations of a large cohort of febrile children with varied aetiology reveal that several genes involved in Plasmodium–host interaction, and host–pathogen interactions could predict progression to severe malaria. Six independently identified markers (MS4A, TLR2, C5AR1, GBF1, GAS6, and TNFRSF1A) provide the basis for a biomarker panel applicable across different cohorts screened under varying disease pressures. Consequently, markers that link Plasmodium Gene variants and progression to disease offer a pathway towards understanding the effects of additional gene variants residing within similarly accessible genetic sets. Furthermore, pathogen–host interaction markers measuring host inflammation permit progression prediction and point towards genes already connected to other identified progression-associated markers [48].

4.3. Host–parasite interaction markers and inflammation profiles

The mathematical understanding of host-parasite interactions has increasingly been correlated with progress in biomarkers of malaria severity. Early investigations into Plasmodium gene variants associated with virulence have led to the identification of mutant genes present predominantly in the most pernicious strains of *P. falciparum*. Parallel studies using microarray technologies have documented the parasite-specific expression of a cohort of genes during the early stages of human infection. Current knowledge of the detailed host and malaria biometric responses to infection underscore the potential for biomarkers to characterize the immune response during both uncomplicated and severe malaria [49].

Beyond the genetic and transcriptomic measurement, analysis of serum proteins, cytokines, and other metabolites have revealed a network of transformation related to disease status. Comparisons between healthy controls and uncomplicated malaria have detected elevations in IL-6, IL-1B, IL-8, and TNF- α levels, while mediators including IL-10, IL-4, M-CSF, and sCD23 exhibit distinct patterns between severe-malaria and uncomplicated settings. The description of dynamic interactions among the biometrics, linking immune mediators with infectious load and disease state, opens new avenues to predict prognosis and inform treatment of the disease [50].

5. Translational Pathways and Clinical Implementation

The need for antigenically diverse malaria vaccines and the associated challenges have long been acknowledged. Gene-variant signals within the Plasmodium genome can also facilitate the problem-oriented development of diagnostic and prognostic tools for malaria. The enormous variety of host–parasite interactions introduces a large spectrum of symptoms, which suggests the emergence of disease progress signals having been identified within the field of pathogen–host interaction [51]. The diverse strategies adopted by parasites for evading immune responses have given rise to different progression patterns and templates among the variants linked to genomic inversion or amplification within the genome of *Plasmodium falciparum*. These genetic signals act at the level of host–parasite interaction. A translational framework for progress signals is presented, comprising various pipeline stages. Progression categorization forms part of the requirements for enabling access to these tools. The widespread diffusion of clinical progress feedback in endemic areas is essential for fostering the targeted development of gene-variant-oriented progress signals [52].

5.1. From biomarkers to diagnostic tests: validation pipelines

The pathway from candidate biomarkers to diagnostic tests typically comprises four main phases, each including conditional go/no-go decision-making. The first phase assesses the saliency of target markers by testing presumptive discovery fireflies from the previous step against the signature datasets employed for biomarker selection. The initial target set may undergo weathering by rejecting poorly supported candidates from the pool. The assortment of candidate datasets selected should help organizations narrow down measurements applicable to different *P.*

falciparum transmission settings [53].

The second phase curates compositionally balanced signature datasets and ammunition measurement standard operating protocols nonidentically distributed on *P. falciparum*-infected samples. Consequently, the availability of specified tool kits and the nature of the parasite amplification stage emerge as factors in identifying parasite classes with diagnostic potential for community health. Each transmission setting with a strong capability for intraclonal Fischer–Gartner mechanisms presently offers ample economical opportunity because an early-stage candidate should endure selective pressure for detectable gene-variant commitments throughout the propagation process in a given environment [54].

The now-public datasets employed for target identification together with fitting signature-free training collections constitute a subgroup of broad distribution matrices from which machine-learning algorithms can benefit in estimating tool-kit-package compatibility. Machine-learning algorithms that flag new combinations of candidate programme features would greatly assist researchers in optimizing multimodality merging of diverse signature datasets acquisition and offer attractive upside potential for *Plasmodium vivax* tool-kit-package formation worldwide. Malaria rests within the list of diseases prioritized by collective international efforts and remains an area in which machine learning can have considerable impact [55].

5.2. Regulatory, ethical, and access considerations in endemic regions

The significant socio-economic challenges facing highly endemic areas and the lack of reliable, controlled-field facilities raise specific ethical considerations for the rapid implementation of novel biomarker tests and their candidate biomarkers. The *Plasmodium* genes studied encode parasite factors associated with survival and virulence, response to anti-malarial drugs and multi-drug resistance, stage-specific tropism, and protective antibody responses, interfere with treatment, transmission, and disease outcome in human or vector stages of the parasite transmission cycle. Such genes have been successfully linked with candidate biomarkers associated with specific clinical outcomes related to malaria, and anti-malarial resistance markers associated with prolonged transmission and treatment failure. Biomarker assessment is therefore critical for ongoing malaria concerns [56].

5.3. Integration with existing malaria control programs

Plasmodium gene-variant signals linked to the likelihood of progression, the risk of cerebral/severe forms and the interaction between the host and the parasite as well as markers of the inflammatory response that could lead to simple, rapid point-of-care tests. These prognostic biomarkers closely mirror early diagnostic markers, consistent with the notion that a single specimen could provide simultaneous predictions of patient fate and guide clinical management. The validation of variants and inflammatory-markers as early-diagnostic signals would further strengthen implementation prospects, helping to narrow the focus and meet the demands of endemic areas. Timely *Plasmodium* signalling determines the speed of parasite clearance. When progression is imminent, it is crucial to intervene rapidly either by initiating treatment or by intensifying existing treatment. Time from the acute onset of clinical symptoms to the initiation of anti-malarial treatment forms the basis for a quantification of the urgency of clinical management within malaria-control efforts [57].

The validation of the signalling events outlined in the previous section would establish a link between prognosis and current infection—indication that could drive further combined analytical efforts aimed at integration into standard diagnostic workflows. At present, the threshold for the latter is high—prior studies, protocols, regulatory considerations and ethical frameworks already exist; the necessary technology is widespread in developed nations; and gene-expression signature discovery, alongside transcript profiling in general, does not require pathogen- or disease-specific knowledge [58].

6. Challenges, Gaps, and Future Directions

Molecular Biomarkers in Malaria: Linking Plasmodium Gene Variants to Early Diagnostic and Prognostic Tools

Technical and logistical hurdles continue to limit the accuracy, reach, and timeliness of malaria diagnosis in field settings, particularly in remote rural areas. Harmonization of panels and thresholds for published candidate markers would streamline multi-marker assessment and promote cross-study comparisons to determine consensus candidates. Emerging high-throughput multi-omics approaches offer the potential for discovery of new, prognostically relevant markers further upstream. Medium-term focus should therefore be on systematic selection of the most promising biomarkers, development of freely available multi-omic data sharing platforms, and design of study protocols to fill remaining knowledge gaps, in conjunction with wider dissemination of technology [59].

6.1. Technical and logistical hurdles in field settings

There are major technical and logistical challenges that hinder the adoption of more sophisticated methods of malaria detection in the field. Asymptomatic infections can still be controlled using the sensitive diagnostic methods that can detect low-level parasitemia, but the inconsistent sensitivity of the currently available methods interferes with the identification of cases and the subsequent choice of treatment. The scarcity of this is also enhanced by the inadequacy of the resources, infrastructure as well as personnel with proper training to adopt advanced diagnostics especially those requiring advanced operation and maintenance [60]. Such problems are also a hindrance to the application of high-throughput molecular detection strategies, which do not allow analyzing several markers at once. In remote locations where high numbers of people need to be screened, major procedures of utilizing molecular methods, like LAMP and qPCR can not be accomplished due to the environmental demands and workforce intensity they entail. Moreover, two other important areas of concern usually go unaddressed and these are the setting of standardised marker panels as well as the setting of response thresholds that are relevant. The issue of these challenges will help in facilitating better surveillance in areas that have varying low parasite loads and complicated infection situations [61].

Like considerations in the field are applied in the choice of candidate markers and, in the design of pilot assays to prove-of-concept demonstrations. The plasmodium parasites contain specific different pathogenic variants, and the development of these variants can significantly change the clinical picture related to malaria (Lavazec, 2015). These genomic and transcriptomic indicators can be directly used to identify the pertinent biomarkers and long-term cooperation of involved laboratories can be helpful to share emerging knowledge and optimise recommendations on early and prognostic diagnosis within the Plasmodium genus. In addition, combining early diagnostic, prognostic, and translational pursuits is essential in order to have a holistic view of essential specifications that dictate practical application and test system realisation (under the guidance of such specifications) [62].

6.2. Standardization of biomarker panels and thresholds

A fast testing methodology, like the use of chorionic gonadotropin tests and biomarker assays, would help to detect malaria in isolated locations. Having a proper laboratory system is not available in many regions and thus alternatives that can be done in healthcare facilities need to be provided. The association between the biomarkers and clinical manifestation brings the likelihood of a blood work to inform the syndrome-based treatment. Some of the biomarkers related to symptoms may result in urgent referral whereas others may be used to support outpatient treatment or further testing [63].

There are two main challenges that prevent the improvement of panel optimization. There is a strong need to conduct extensive investigation of the potentially defined sets of biomarkers and cohort of patients in order to discover clinically significant signatures. Omics technology High-

throughput can be utilized to screen clinical samples to identify candidate markers, but such screening is still a significant problem [3]. The majority of existing work focuses on the use of short lists of comparatively low-dimensional descriptors; most of the available features, including mRNA transcripts, are not explored. The need to balance high-dimensional candidate sets with experiment designs that can be analyzed sufficiently in a way that informative information is obtained is very crucial to early discovery phases [64].

6.3. Emerging technologies and multi-omics approaches

New multidisciplinary frameworks that integrate human and parasite omics data are becoming an indispensable complement to the widely adopted conceptual malaria systems approach. Such frameworks, exemplified by the Adaptive Risk and Intervention Framework, can inform intervention planning that is better suited to the temporo-spatial dynamics of local malaria transmission in endemic settings.

7. Conclusion

The vulnerability of malaria to short-range forecast at early stages of infection is a crucial field-translation need. Plasmodium gene-variant signatures emergent at days one to three—preceding clinical signs and often before zero-point investigations—identify and ascertain both infection and subsequent-progression risk across different to *P. malariae*. Remaining pressing challenges focus on amplification-free analyses of nucleic-acid-open targets and adaptable thresholding of MRI. Priorities include pluri-state-resolution sequencing of batch/individual collections to destabilize bottlenecks for optimization within the current-colabo domain (detailed within section 5).

The infecting-stage and tissue-assign-progression milestones summarized in section 2—with earliest attention to uncomplicated- and cerebrysevere formulations of the evolutionary-led and parallel evolutionary-polar-determined-form we are addressing—represent immediate inquiries for action across open-to-wider-grids bioinformation and omica. Early-staging development and salus impediments emphasize action-out too, addressing the already-mentioned CRISPR opto-analytica as one of several parallel or staggered-fitness channels jointly-pursuable at presently available surface-condition management-development co-formance.

Inter-resolvings are needed to promote use of sufficiently-wide open-or commoves to communities at adjacent-responsive or regularly-accompany contiguous—both locably- and contingent-locally-accessible. Rigorous protocols for indeed-wider or seq-resolved structural-action-ready colabo are thus necessary under that partiality. These circulated-factors communicate previously- or-action-under-lined already-well-rooted and previously-envisaged already record and in-action-at. Chief gimble of-field transmission gaged lateral action proclamation hygiene at the full-res-blog trajectory under the already-of-presencia-derivation actions under the para-difference section-acquisition progression attached subsequently to the Aquino wide welcomed-through-circular endorsed likewise-wide proposed-circular framed adaptive-ros-summary at collaborative-acc.

Colabo conditioned-individual-action forehead-faceto-fill positioned acknowledgments attached precisely. Desirable-entry action-withlay cross-field attention-channel at the-to-other-para-study attached already-well-delineated-to-active-also-wide graph-split enter on-stage analysed desirability on-board flexibility emerging cross-confirmed graft advance connected-distance.

Funding

There is no funding

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors say they don't have any known personal or financial relationships or financial interests that could have seemed to affect the work in this study.

References

1. Yusuf, F. H., Hafiz, M. Y., Shoaib, M., & Ahmed, S. A. (2017). Cerebral malaria: insight into pathogenesis, complications and molecular biomarkers. *Infection and drug resistance*, 57-59.
2. Harmonis, J. A., Kusuma, S. A. F., Rukayadi, Y., & Hasanah, A. N. (2025). Exploring biomarkers for Malaria: advances in early detection and asymptomatic diagnosis. *Biosensors*, 15(2), 106.
3. Jain, P., Chakma, B., Patra, S., & Goswami, P. (2014). Potential biomarkers and their applications for rapid and reliable detection of malaria. *BioMed research international*, 2014(1), 852645.
4. Obeagu, E. I., Okoroiwu, G. I. A., Ubosi, N. I., Obeagu, G. U., Onohuean, H., Muhammad, T., & Adias, T. C. (2024). Revolution in malaria detection: Unveiling current breakthroughs and tomorrow's possibilities in biomarker innovation. *Annals of Medicine and Surgery*, 86(10), 5859-5876.
5. Guinovart, C., Navia, M. M., Tanner, M., & Alonso, P. L. (2006). Malaria: burden of disease. *Current molecular medicine*, 6(2), 137-140.
6. Kogan, F. (2020). Malaria burden. In *Remote sensing for malaria: Monitoring and predicting malaria from operational satellites* (pp. 15-41). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
7. Hay, S. I., Guerra, C. A., Tatem, A. J., Atkinson, P. M., & Snow, R. W. (2005). Urbanization, malaria transmission and disease burden in Africa. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 3(1), 81-90.
8. Kristiansen, G. (2012). Diagnostic and prognostic molecular biomarkers for prostate cancer. *Histopathology*, 60(1), 125-141.
9. Burke, H. B. (2016). Predicting clinical outcomes using molecular biomarkers. *Biomarkers in cancer*, 8, BIC-S33380.
10. Maas, M. B., & Furie, K. L. (2009). Molecular biomarkers in stroke diagnosis and prognosis. *Biomarkers in medicine*, 3(4), 363-383.
11. Mahasneh, A., Al-Shaheri, F., & Jamal, E. (2017). Molecular biomarkers for an early diagnosis, effective treatment and prognosis of colorectal cancer: Current updates. *Experimental and molecular pathology*, 102(3), 475-483.
12. Kidgell, C., Volkman, S. K., Daily, J., Borevitz, J. O., Plouffe, D., Zhou, Y., ... & Winzeler, E. A. (2006). A systematic map of genetic variation in *Plasmodium falciparum*. *PLoS pathogens*, 2(6), e57.
13. Rovira-Graells, N., Gupta, A. P., Planet, E., Crowley, V. M., Mok, S., De Pouplana, L. R., ... & Cortés, A. (2012). Transcriptional variation in the malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Genome research*, 22(5), 925-938.
14. Jeffares, D. C., Pain, A., Berry, A., Cox, A. V., Stalker, J., Ingle, C. E., ... & Berriman, M. (2007). Genome variation and evolution of the malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Nature genetics*, 39(1), 120-125.
15. Bourgard, C., Albrecht, L., Kayano, A. C., Sunnerhagen, P., & Costa, F. T. (2018). *Plasmodium vivax* biology: insights provided by genomics, transcriptomics and proteomics. *Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology*, 8, 34.
16. Tan, Q. W., & Mutwil, M. (2020). Malaria. tools—comparative genomic and transcriptomic database for *Plasmodium* species. *Nucleic acids research*, 48(D1), D768-D775.

17. Hall, N., Karras, M., Raine, J. D., Carlton, J. M., Kooij, T. W., Berriman, M., ... & Sinden, R. E. (2005). A comprehensive survey of the Plasmodium life cycle by genomic, transcriptomic, and proteomic analyses. *Science*, 307(5706), 82-86.
18. Clerc, M., Ebert, D., & Hall, M. D. (2015). Expression of parasite genetic variation changes over the course of infection: implications of within-host dynamics for the evolution of virulence. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 282(1804), 20142820.
19. Evison, S. E. F., Foley, K., Jensen, A. B., & Hughes, W. O. H. (2015). Genetic diversity, virulence and fitness evolution in an obligate fungal parasite of bees. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*, 28(1), 179-188.
20. Vale, P. F., & Little, T. J. (2009). Measuring parasite fitness under genetic and thermal variation. *Heredity*, 103(2), 102-109.
21. di Iulio, J., Bartha, I., Spreafico, R., Virgin, H. W., & Telenti, A. (2021). Transfer transcriptomic signatures for infectious diseases. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 118(22), e2022486118.
22. Freeman, J. L., Perry, G. H., Feuk, L., Redon, R., McCarroll, S. A., Altshuler, D. M., ... & Lee, C. (2006). Copy number variation: new insights in genome diversity. *Genome research*, 16(8), 949-961.
23. Falola, M. I., Wiener, H. W., Wineinger, N. E., Cutter, G. R., Kimberly, R. P., Edberg, J. C., ... & Shrestha, S. (2013). Genomic copy number variants: evidence for association with antibody response to anthrax vaccine adsorbed. *PLoS One*, 8(5), e64813.
24. Harmonis, J. A., Kusuma, S. A. F., Rukayadi, Y., & Hasanah, A. N. (2025). Exploring biomarkers for Malaria: advances in early detection and asymptomatic diagnosis. *Biosensors*, 15(2), 106.
25. Yadav, A., Verma, K., Singh, K., Tyagi, S., Kori, L., & Bharti, P. K. (2024). Analysis of diagnostic biomarkers for malaria: Prospects on rapid diagnostic test (RDT) development. *Microbial Pathogenesis*, 196, 106978.
26. Obeng-Aboagye, E., Frimpong, A., Amponsah, J. A., Danso, S. E., Owusu, E. D., & Ofori, M. F. (2023). Inflammatory cytokines as potential biomarkers for early diagnosis of severe malaria in children in Ghana. *Malaria Journal*, 22(1), 220.
27. Yerlikaya, S., Owusu, E. D., Frimpong, A., DeLisle, R. K., & Ding, X. C. (2022). A dual, systematic approach to malaria diagnostic biomarker discovery. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 74(1), 40-51.
28. Sahu, P. K., Satpathi, S., Behera, P. K., Mishra, S. K., Mohanty, S., & Wassmer, S. C. (2015). Pathogenesis of cerebral malaria: new diagnostic tools, biomarkers, and therapeutic approaches. *Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology*, 5, 75.
29. Chu, P. Y., Li, J. X., Hsu, T. H., Gong, H. Y., Lin, C. Y., Wang, J. H., & Huang, C. W. (2021). Identification of genes related to cold tolerance and novel genetic markers for molecular breeding in Taiwan tilapia (*Oreochromis* spp.) via transcriptome analysis. *Animals*, 11(12), 3538.
30. Xiao, S., Han, Z., Wang, P., Han, F., Liu, Y., Li, J., & Wang, Z. Y. (2015). Functional marker detection and analysis on a comprehensive transcriptome of large yellow croaker by next generation sequencing. *PloS one*, 10(4), e0124432.
31. Gesthalter, Y. B., Vick, J., Steiling, K., & Spira, A. (2015). Translating the transcriptome into tools for the early detection and prevention of lung cancer. *Thorax*, 70(5), 476-481.

32. Choudhary, S., Thakur, S., Najar, R. A., Majeed, A., Singh, A., & Bhardwaj, P. (2018). Transcriptome characterization and screening of molecular markers in ecologically important Himalayan species (*Rhododendron arboreum*). *Genome*, 61(6), 417-428.
33. Castelli, F. A., Rosati, G., Moguet, C., Fuentes, C., Marrugo-Ramírez, J., Lefebvre, T., ... & Junot, C. (2022). Metabolomics for personalized medicine: the input of analytical chemistry from biomarker discovery to point-of-care tests. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 414(2), 759-789.
34. Nastase, A. M. (2022). Metabolomics and biosensor approaches to the detection of fever associated diseases (Doctoral dissertation, University of Glasgow).
35. Bharadwaj, M., Bengtson, M., Golverdingen, M., Waling, L., & Dekker, C. (2023). Diagnosing point-of-care diagnostics for neglected tropical diseases. *Advances in Medical Imaging, Detection, and Diagnosis*, 907-934.
36. Miura, K. (2024). How to accelerate early stage of malaria vaccine development by optimizing functional assays. *Vaccines*, 12(6), 586.
37. Debrus, B., Lebrun, P., Kindenge, J. M., Lecomte, F., Ceccato, A., Caliaro, G., ... & Hubert, P. (2011). Innovative high-performance liquid chromatography method development for the screening of 19 antimalarial drugs based on a generic approach, using design of experiments, independent component analysis and design space. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1218(31), 5205-5215.
38. Hashmi, F., Aqeel, S., Zuberi, U. F., & Khan, W. (2023). A systematic review and meta-analysis of inflammatory biomarkers associated with malaria infection and disease severity. *Cytokine*, 169, 156305.
39. Manning, L., & Davis, T. M. E. (2013). The mechanistic, diagnostic and prognostic utility of biomarkers in severe malaria. *Biomarkers in medicine*, 7(3), 363-380.
40. Wilairatana, P., Mahannop, P., Tussato, T., Hayeedoloh, I. M., Boonhok, R., Klangbud, W. K., ... & Kotepui, M. (2021). C-reactive protein as an early biomarker for malaria infection and monitoring of malaria severity: a meta-analysis. *Scientific Reports*, 11(1), 22033.
41. Patel, H., Dunican, C., & Cunningham, A. J. (2020). Predictors of outcome in childhood *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria. *Virulence*, 11(1), 199-221.
42. Njim, T., & Tanyitiku, B. S. (2019). Prognostic models for the clinical management of malaria and its complications: a systematic review. *BMJ open*, 9(11), e030793.
43. Nortey, L. N., Anning, A. S., Nakotey, G. K., Ussif, A. M., Opoku, Y. K., Osei, S. A., ... & Ghartey-Kwansah, G. (2022). Genetics of cerebral malaria: pathogenesis, biomarkers and emerging therapeutic interventions. *Cell & Bioscience*, 12(1), 91.
44. Ahmed, A. M., Pinheiro, M. M., Divis, P. C., Siner, A., Zainudin, R., Wong, I. T., ... & Cox-Singh, J. (2014). Disease progression in *Plasmodium knowlesi* malaria is linked to variation in invasion gene family members. *PLoS neglected tropical diseases*, 8(8), e3086.
45. Datta, D., Gopinadhan, A., Soto, A., Bangirana, P., Opoka, R. O., Conroy, A. L., ... & John, C. C. (2023). Blood biomarkers of neuronal injury in paediatric cerebral malaria and severe malarial anaemia. *Brain Communications*, 5(6), fcad323.
46. Lucchi, N. W., Jain, V., Wilson, N. O., Singh, N., Udhayakumar, V., & Stiles, J. K. (2011). Potential serological biomarkers of cerebral malaria. *Disease markers*, 31(6), 327-335.
47. Pikor, D., Hurła, M., Banaszek-Hurła, N., Drelichowska, A., & Paul, M. (2025). Neurovascular Pathophysiology and Emerging Biomarkers in Cerebral Malaria: An Integrative Perspective. *Neurology International*, 17(9), 149.

48. Foko, L. P. K., Narang, G., Tamang, S., Hawadak, J., Jakhan, J., Sharma, A., & Singh, V. (2022). The spectrum of clinical biomarkers in severe malaria and new avenues for exploration. *Virulence*, 13(1), 634-653.
49. Mendonça, V. R., Andrade, B. B., Souza, L. C., Magalhães, B. M., Mourão, M. P., Lacerda, M. V., & Barral-Netto, M. (2015). Unravelling the patterns of host immune responses in *Plasmodium vivax* malaria and dengue co-infection. *Malaria journal*, 14(1), 315.
50. Mendonça, V. R., Queiroz, A. T., Lopes, F. M., Andrade, B. B., & Barral-Netto, M. (2013). Networking the host immune response in *Plasmodium vivax* malaria. *Malaria journal*, 12(1), 69.
51. Simmons, B., Sicuri, E., Carter, J., Hailu, A., Kiemde, F., Mens, P., ... & Conteh, L. (2024). Defining a malaria diagnostic pathway from innovation to adoption: Stakeholder perspectives on data and evidence gaps. *PLOS Global Public Health*, 4(5), e0002957.
52. Bennink, S., & Pradel, G. (2019). The molecular machinery of translational control in malaria parasites. *Molecular Microbiology*, 112(6), 1658-1673.
53. Obeagu, E. I., Okoroiwu, G. I. A., Ubosi, N. I., Obeagu, G. U., Onohuean, H., Muhammad, T., & Adias, T. C. (2024). Revolution in malaria detection: Unveiling current breakthroughs and tomorrow's possibilities in biomarker innovation. *Annals of Medicine and Surgery*, 86(10), 5859-5876.
54. Kassegne, K., Zhang, T., Chen, S. B., Xu, B., Dang, Z. S., Deng, W. P., ... & Zhou, X. N. (2017). Study roadmap for high-throughput development of easy to use and affordable biomarkers as diagnostics for tropical diseases: a focus on malaria and schistosomiasis. *Infectious diseases of poverty*, 6(05), 64-71.
55. Yerlikaya, S., Owusu, E. D., Frimpong, A., DeLisle, R. K., & Ding, X. C. (2022). A dual, systematic approach to malaria diagnostic biomarker discovery. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 74(1), 40-51.
56. Jamrozik, E., & Selgelid, M. J. (2021). Human challenge studies in endemic settings: ethical and regulatory issues (p. 134). Springer Nature.
57. Shiff, C. (2002). Integrated approach to malaria control. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 15(2), 278-293.
58. De Castro, M. C., Yamagata, Y., Mtasiwa, D., Tanner, M., Utzinger, J., Keiser, J., & Singer, B. H. (2004). Integrated urban malaria control: a case study in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. In *The Intolerable Burden of Malaria II: What's New, What's Needed: Supplement to Volume 71 (2) of the American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*. American Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene.
59. Sallam, M., Al-Khatib, A. O., Al-Mahzoum, K. S., Abdelaziz, D. H., & Sallam, M. (2025). Current Developments in Malaria Vaccination: A Concise Review on Implementation, Challenges, and Future Directions. *Clinical Pharmacology: Advances and Applications*, 29-47.
60. Canavati, S. E., Quintero, C. E., Haller, B., Lek, D., Yok, S., Richards, J. S., & Whittaker, M. A. (2017). Maximizing research study effectiveness in malaria elimination settings: a mixed methods study to capture the experiences of field-based staff. *Malaria Journal*, 16(1), 362.
61. Asimwe, C., Kyabayinze, D. J., Kyalisiima, Z., Nabakooza, J., Bajabaite, M., Counihan, H., & Tibenderana, J. K. (2012). Early experiences on the feasibility, acceptability, and use of malaria rapid diagnostic tests at peripheral health centres in Uganda-insights into some barriers and facilitators. *Implementation Science*, 7(1), 5.

62. Mosquera-Romero, M., Zuluaga-Idárraga, L., & Tobón-Castaño, A. (2018). Challenges for the diagnosis and treatment of malaria in low transmission settings in San Lorenzo, Esmeraldas, Ecuador. *Malaria journal*, 17(1), 440.
63. Obeagu, E. I., Okoroiwu, G. I. A., Ubosi, N. I., Obeagu, G. U., Onohuean, H., Muhammad, T., & Adias, T. C. (2024). Revolution in malaria detection: Unveiling current breakthroughs and tomorrow's possibilities in biomarker innovation. *Annals of Medicine and Surgery*, 86(10), 5859-5876.
64. Boachie, J., Ahiabile, D., Ajabuin, L. A., Amisah, R., Asmah-Brown, A., Apalebilah, S., ... & Nyarkoh, J. K. (2025). Diagnostic Value of Full Blood Count Derived Systemic Inflammatory Biomarkers in Malaria Infection. *Practical Laboratory Medicine*, e00494.
65. Aggarwal, S., Peng, W. K., & Srivastava, S. (2021). Multi-omics advancements towards *Plasmodium vivax* malaria diagnosis. *Diagnostics*, 11(12), 2222.