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1 **Impact of temperatures on Malaria Incidence in vulnerable regions of Pakistan:**

2 **Empirical Evidence and Future Projections**

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22 **Declaration of conflicts of interest**

23 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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24 **Key findings**

25 For every 1°C rise above optimal temperature, malaria risk increases by 9-10%.

26 About 39.8% to 54.1% cases of malaria are attributable to heat.

27 Heat-related cases of malaria are projected to increase by 3.5% by 2060s in remote regions of

28 Pakistan.

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29 **Abstract**

30 Malaria presents a significant health challenge in developing countries, especially as climate
31 change exacerbates its impact. Temperatures directly affect malaria transmission by
32 influencing the abundance of disease vectors and the development of the malaria parasite.
33 Pakistan, known for its warm, arid, and subtropical climate and frequent flooding, faces
34 increased risks, emphasising the need for research to understand how heat affects malaria
35 transmission. This study aims to provide empirical evidence of the relationship between
36 temperature and malaria cases in two remote but highly vulnerable districts: Bannu and Lakki
37 Marwat, with the goal of informing interventions to combat the negative effects of climate
38 change on malaria transmission in Pakistan.

39 The monthly confirmed malaria cases and environmental factors (temperature, precipitation,
40 and humidity) were analysed using a time-series study design with distributed lag nonlinear
41 models and quasi-Poisson regression models. Malaria datasets acquired from the Integrated
42 Vector Control/Malaria Control Program in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were combined with
43 publicly available gridded meteorological data from Copernicus ERA5-Land, covering the
44 period from 2014 to 2022. The findings suggest that as temperatures exceed 22.4°C, malaria
45 transmission increases by 9 to 10% for every 1°C rise in both districts. In Bannu, up to 39.8%
46 of reported malaria cases could be attributed to heat, while in Lakki Marwat, 54.1% of cases
47 were attributable to heat.

48 Projections based on Shared Socio-Economic Pathways forecast an increase in heat-related
49 malaria cases by 0.8 to 3.5% in both districts under high emission scenarios by 2060s. The
50 relationship between temperature and malaria transmission is complex and is influenced by
51 multiple factors, including human behaviour and environmental conditions such as
52 precipitation and humidity.

53 Conducting empirical studies in highly vulnerable regions like Pakistan is crucial due to the
54 inadequate healthcare infrastructure and limited resources, which heighten the vulnerability
55 of populations to the impact of climate change. This study highlights the pressing need for
56 implementing climate change mitigation and adaptation measures. This urgency is
57 underscored by recent events in Pakistan, such as severe floods followed by a significant
58 increase in malaria cases. Allocating resources to strengthen healthcare systems and enhance
59 community resilience is especially critical in light of the recent challenges.

60 **Keywords**

61 Climate, Malaria, Epidemiology, Heat, Low and Middle-Income Countries

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62 **Introduction**

63 Malaria stands as a prominent cause of morbidity and mortality in many developing nations.
64 As of 2015, which served as the baseline year for the Global Technical Strategy for Malaria
65 2016–2030 (GTS), an estimated 231 million cases of malaria were reported [1]. By 2022,
66 there was a notable increase with an estimated 249 million cases documented in 85 malaria-
67 endemic countries and regions (including French Guiana), marking an increase of five
68 million cases from 2021. Key contributors to this surge included Pakistan (+2.1 million),
69 Ethiopia (+1.3 million), Nigeria (+1.3 million), Uganda (+597,000), and Papua New Guinea
70 (+423,000) [1]. The ongoing threat of malaria affects over two billion individuals, including
71 both travellers and residents in endemic areas, resulting in an annual toll of about 608,000
72 deaths as of 2022 [1, 2].

73 In recent years, the profound impact of climate change on malaria has attracted significant
74 attention due to its potential to exacerbate the disease burden and alter transmission dynamics
75 [3]. While climate change affects various aspects of malaria transmission, including vector
76 abundance and pathogen development, rising temperatures are of paramount concern. Rising
77 temperatures can expand the geographic range and local abundance of malaria vectors,
78 *Anopheles* mosquitoes, which thrive in warm climates [4]. Furthermore, warmer temperatures
79 accelerate the development of malaria parasites within mosquitoes and shorten the incubation
80 period of the disease in humans, leading to an increased risk of transmission [5].

81 Many studies have incorporated climate change scenarios and geostatistical models to explain
82 and project future malaria incidence locally and globally. Various process-based or
83 mechanistic models have been proposed for the intricate and nonlinear weather-driven
84 *Anopheles* lifecycle and malaria transmission dynamics. However, these models have yielded
85 somewhat divergent findings regarding the optimal temperatures for transmission and the

86 potential impact of rising temperatures and other extreme weather events on the distribution
87 of malaria. The projections differ: some suggest a significant increase in malaria-susceptible
88 areas, while others predict a shift in the geographical range of the disease [4].

89 Pakistan remains the most susceptible country to the repercussions of malaria, with the
90 disease ranking as the fourth-largest cause of death among infectious diseases. Pakistan and
91 other countries in the WHO Eastern Mediterranean Region, such as Afghanistan, Somalia,
92 Sudan and Yemen, jointly account for 95% of all malaria cases reported in the region [6].
93 Pakistan is considered to be hyperendemic for malaria, and the pooled malaria prevalence is
94 estimated at 23.3% [7]. Malaria is most prevalent in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) and
95 Balochistan provinces [7]. *An. culicifacies*, *An. stephensi*, *An. subpictus*, and *An. superpictus*
96 are the primary vectors for malaria and have been reported to be endemic in the region since
97 the early 1900s [8-9]. *Plasmodium vivax* (prevalence rate: 79.13%) and *P. falciparum*
98 (prevalence rate: 16.29%) are the predominant malaria parasite species [6-7]. Pakistan's
99 ecological conditions, characterised by a monsoon-fed agricultural landscape with flat terrain
100 towards the south, provide ideal settings for malaria transmission. Temperatures from
101 September to December and April to May frequently range between 20°C and 30°C,
102 facilitating mosquito breeding, while rainfall creates stagnant water pools essential for larvae
103 development. Higher humidity levels further enhance malaria transmission.

104 Over the years, entomological studies in Pakistan have elucidated the vector ecology of
105 *Anopheles* mosquitoes, and the prevalence and epidemiology of malaria [8-12]. The
106 government has launched malaria control efforts to curb the disease; however, Pakistan faces
107 challenges in reducing malaria incidence. These challenges could be partly attributed to
108 climate change, particularly the irregular temperature and rainfall patterns in recent years [7].
109 Recurrent massive flooding events have exacerbated these challenges by creating additional

110 breeding habitats for mosquitoes, thereby facilitating the spread of mosquito-borne diseases
111 such as malaria and dengue [12].

112 Despite the pressing nature of this issue, there is a notable scarcity of empirical evidence on
113 how climate change specifically affects malaria in low and middle-income countries like
114 Pakistan. This scarcity creates a significant obstacle to fully understanding the extent of the
115 problem and implementing effective mitigation and adaptation strategies.

116 Recently, after catastrophic flooding in Pakistan in 2022 and subsequent increase in malaria
117 incidence, it has become imperative to estimate the climate change-attributed increase in the
118 risk of malaria. Understanding the role of climate change in the resurgence of malaria will
119 guide policy decisions aimed at achieving the ambitious goal of a 'Malaria-Free Pakistan by
120 2035' [13].

121 This study aims to provide empirical evidence of the influence of climate change, using high
122 temperature as an indicator, on malaria incidence in two highly vulnerable districts of
123 Pakistan and project future risk estimates. This will lay a solid foundation for informing
124 response strategies and addressing the uneven implementation of malaria interventions.

125 **Methods**

126 **Study settings**

127 Bannu and Lakki Marwat districts are situated in the southern region of the KPK province in
128 Pakistan (Figure 1). Bannu covers an area of 1,227 sq. km with a population of 1,167,892,
129 while Lakki Marwat spans 3,296 sq. km and has a population of 876,182 (Pakistan Bureau of
130 Statistics, 2017). These districts are recognised as hyperendemic regions for malaria
131 incidence in KPK, Pakistan [6]. Bannu district has been known for its high malaria
132 prevalence since the British Raj [10]. In Bannu, *P. vivax* has a prevalence of 16.9% while *P.*
133 *falciparum* has a prevalence of 2.3%. In Lakki Marwat, one study estimated the prevalence of
134 *P. vivax* at 20.2% and *P. falciparum* at 0.2% [10]. Studies conducted in Pakistan provide
135 evidence that malaria is predominantly a disease of rural areas (prevalence: 38.65%) where
136 people live below the poverty line, as compared to urban areas (22.39%) [14]. Integrated
137 Vector Control/Malaria Control Program KPK (IVC/MCP-KP) and Frontier Primary Health
138 Care (FPHC) manage control interventions such as Indoor Residual Spraying (IRS),
139 widespread bed net distribution, provision of bed nets to pregnant women during antenatal
140 care, and community education campaigns. Antimalaria measures have been in practice since
141 the colonial era, including fumigating and spraying against adult mosquitos resting in
142 buildings, filling and draining breeding sites, treating them with oil or Paris Green, and, in the
143 case of the smaller irrigation channels, completely drying them out once a week [10]. In
144 terms of healthcare, in Pakistan, Chloroquine serves as the primary treatment for unconfirmed
145 malaria, Chloroquine-Primaquine is recommended for *P. vivax*, and Artesunate/Sulfadoxine-
146 Pyrimethamine (AS+SP) is employed for uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria, with severe
147 cases or treatment failures addressed using Artesunate, Artemether, or Quinine [6].

148 The districts experience a semi-arid climate with hot and dry summers lasting seven months
149 from April to October. June experiences maximum temperatures ranging from 42°C to 45°C,

150 and the average annual temperature is 24.2 °C. The annual rainfall in Bannu and Lakki
151 Marwat ranges from 120.0 to 270.0 mm, and rainfall is sporadic, occurring mainly during the
152 monsoon season. Both districts are predominantly rural, characterised by cropland and
153 shrubland cover. Sandstorms are periodic occurrences, particularly during May and June,
154 affecting the entire area.

155 -----Insert Figure 1 here-----

156 **Environmental Data**

157 Monthly gridded meteorological datasets were acquired for the period of 2014-2022 from
158 Copernicus ERA5-Land, featuring variables such as mean temperature (°C), precipitation
159 (mm), and dew point (°C), all at a resolution of 9x9 kilometres [15]. Relative humidity (%)
160 was estimated using dew point and mean temperature [16]. These datasets were extracted for
161 the two districts using centroid points.

162 **Malaria Data**

163 In KPK, Pakistan, lab-confirmed cases of malaria are administered by IVC/MCP-KP and
164 FPHC. Malaria diagnosis is conducted using microscopy and Rapid Diagnostic Tests (RDTs),
165 with microscopy being the gold standard. In areas where electricity and trained microscopists
166 are limited, RDTs are primarily used for diagnosis. The RDTs are procured through
167 international procurement from the World Health Organisation (WHO) approved list of
168 RDTs. The data at the health facility level is checked and verified by the district malaria
169 team, and further cross-checked at the provincial level to ensure credibility and reliability.
170 One Quality Assurance Officer and a microscopist at the provincial level audit the health
171 facilities to ensure accurate diagnosis and provide on-the-job training to malaria supervisors.
172 Monthly aggregated records of malaria cases from 2014 to 2022 were obtained from
173 IVC/MCP-KP, Directorate of General Health Services KPK. The data were already fully de-

174 identified at the source, provided in aggregated form, and contained no individual-level
175 patient information, ensuring there was no need for further anonymisation. Specifically, the
176 dataset included only the total number of positive malaria cases per month, disaggregated
177 into *P. vivax* (PV) and *P. falciparum* (PF) cases, as well as the number of RDTs conducted.
178 The use and publication of this aggregated, de-identified data were authorised through the
179 issuance of a No Objection Certificate from the IVC/MCP-KP, Directorate of General Health
180 Services KPK (NOC provided in Supplementary File).

181 **Statistical Analysis**

182 A time-series study design coupled with distributed lag nonlinear models was utilised to
183 assess the effects of ambient temperature on the risk of malaria transmission between 2014
184 and 2022 in the monsoon-fed semi-arid districts of Pakistan [17]. Monthly malaria datasets
185 were integrated with hydrometeorological variables to explore the association between mean
186 temperature and malaria. To model the effect of mean temperature on malaria cases,
187 generalised linear models fitted with distributed lags were applied, utilising a quasi-Poisson
188 distribution, for each district. A linear threshold function was defined for mean temperature at
189 22.4°C based on evidence suggesting that the biting activity of malaria-transmitting
190 mosquitoes is higher above 22.4°C [18].

191 To capture the optimal conditions for malaria transmission, predictions and attributable
192 fractions were estimated within the temperature range of 22.4°C to 35.3°C. This range was
193 selected to reflect the temperatures most conducive to mosquito activity and *Plasmodium*
194 parasite development [3, 18]. The lag dimension was modelled using an unconstrained
195 distributed lag function up to a period of three months. Natural cubic splines with two degree
196 of freedom per year were used to adjust the confounders that change slowly over time. The
197 logarithm of the population was used as an offset variable to account for differences in

221 Where β^{\wedge} represents the coefficients derived from the DLNM, ΔT represents temperature
222 levels during the observed or projected period, Y represents the observed counts of malaria
223 cases.

224 The AF was then calculated as the ratio of the AN to the total number of observed cases,
225 expressed as a percentage:

$$226 \quad AF = AN / \sum Y \times 100$$

227 The AF represents the proportion of malaria cases attributable to heat exposure within the
228 defined temperature range. To account for uncertainty in the coefficient estimates, 1,000
229 iterations of Monte Carlo simulations were performed, generating confidence intervals for the
230 AF estimates.

231 **Projections of Future Malaria Burden**

232 Projected future increases in mean temperature were obtained for two time slices (2044-2052
233 and 2064-2072) under different climate change scenarios. The data were sourced from the
234 World Bank's Climate Change Knowledge Portal (CCKP) (Table 1) [20]. The heat-related
235 AF was calculated under two Shared Socio-Economic Pathways (SSP2-4.5 and SSP2-8.5),
236 using baseline data from 2014 to 2022. The derived temperature effect estimate (β^{\wedge}) was used
237 to compute the RR and projected AN for future periods using the formula:

$$238 \quad RR = \exp(\beta^{\wedge} \times \Delta T)$$

239 Where ΔT is substituted with the projected mean annual increase in temperature for each
240 climate scenario. The projected AN and AF were calculated using the same approach as for
241 the baseline period. In the absence of projected population data, we assumed no significant
242 changes in the population when projecting the future burden of malaria.

243 All data preprocessing and analyses were conducted using R software (R 4.1.0), with
244 the **dlnm** and **mvmeta** packages for model fitting [21]. Reproducible code is provided in the
245 Supplementary File.

246

-----Insert Table 1 here-----

247 **Results**

248 **The Relationship between Environmental Variables and Malaria Incidence**

249 Descriptive statistics reveal that both Bannu and Lakki Marwat share similar climatic
250 conditions. Bannu experiences average temperatures ranging from 9.45°C to 35.05°C, while
251 Lakki Marwat's average temperatures span from 10.79°C to 35.35°C. Humidity levels
252 fluctuate between 19% and 74% in Bannu and 21% and 79% in Lakki Marwat (Table 2).

253 The calculated prevalence rates signify the occurrences of PV and PF per 1000 RDTs
254 conducted within the studied population or timeframe. Predominantly, PV constitutes the
255 majority of cases in both districts, with rates of 144.93 and 92.81 cases per 1000 RDTs in
256 Bannu and Lakki Marwat, respectively. PF cases show prevalence rates of 2.87 and 2.08 per
257 1000 RDTs conducted in these respective regions (Table 2).

258

-----Insert Table 2 here-----

259 The monthly time-series distribution depicted in Figure 2 and Figure 3 unveils the intricate
260 relationship between weather patterns and malaria cases in Bannu and Lakki Marwat. Figures
261 2 and 3 indicate the presence of distinct seasonal patterns, characterised by alternating highs
262 and lows in malaria cases. Notably, these fluctuations show a positive association between
263 monthly variations in temperature (Spearman's $\rho = 0.34$) and relative humidity (Spearman's ρ
264 = 0.28) with malaria cases throughout the region.

265 Average monthly trends of malaria, corresponding to variations in temperature and humidity
266 (Figures 2 and 3), underscore a noteworthy trend observed from 2014 onwards—an evident
267 decline in reported malaria cases. However, a significant surge becomes apparent in the year
268 2022.

269 -----Insert Figure 2 here-----

270 -----Insert Figure 3 here-----

271 In both Bannu and Lakki Marwat, the risk of malaria cases increased with rising temperatures
272 above 22.4°C (Figures 4 and 5). In Bannu, for every 1°C increase above this threshold, there
273 was a 9.87% (95%CI: 4.86, 15.12) rise in the risk of malaria cases. Similarly, in Lakki
274 Marwat, the risk increased by 9.49% (95%CI: 5.25, 13.91) per 1°C rise in temperature.

275 The risk of PV infections followed a comparable pattern in both locations. In Bannu, the risk
276 of PV infections rose by an estimated 9.60% (95%CI: 4.50, 14.96) with temperature
277 increments, mirroring the trend in Lakki Marwat, where it increased by 9.48% (95%CI: 5.21,
278 13.93).

279 However, when considering PF infections, the contribution to higher risk varied between the
280 districts. In Bannu, a 1°C increase above 22.4°C was associated with a substantial 14.95%
281 (95%CI: 6.07, 24.57) rise in PF infections. In contrast, Lakki Marwat displayed a lower
282 association, with PF infection contributing to a 4.74% (95%CI: -2.96, 13.06) increase in risk.

283 Figures 4 and 5 further indicate that as the monthly lag increases from 0 to 3 months, there is
284 a noticeable escalation in the risk of malaria cases, with two distinct peaks observed at lag 1
285 and lag 3. In Bannu, the risk is estimated to be 3.66% (95%CI: 0.00, 7.44) at lag 1 and 6.00%
286 (95%CI: 2.77, 9.27) at lag 3. Similarly, in Lakki Marwat, the risk is estimated to be 6.28%
287 (95%CI: 1.85, 10.91) at lag 1 and 7.14% (95%CI: 3.61, 10.80) at lag 3. This suggests that
288 factors influencing malaria occurrence might have a delayed effect, becoming more
289 influential several months after their initial occurrence.

290 -----Insert Figure 4 here-----

291 -----Insert Figure 5 here-----

292

293 **Projected Association between Temperature and Malaria**

294 The attributable fractions outlined in Table 3 provide compelling insights into the impact of
295 rising temperatures on malaria cases. In Bannu, up to 39.76% (95%CI: 23.19, 51.93) of
296 reported malaria instances are linked to temperatures ranging between 22.4°C and 35.3°C.
297 Similarly, in Lakki Marwat, 54.05% (95%CI: 34.64, 68.82) of cases are attributable to this
298 temperature range.

299 Projections based on the Shared Socio-Economic Pathways indicate a rise in the attributable
300 fraction of heat-related malaria cases in both districts.

301 -----Insert Table 3 here-----

302 **Discussion**

303 This study provides the first evidence from Pakistan taking into account temporal and lagged
304 dependencies in predicting the association between monthly temperature conditions and
305 malaria incidence and projecting future trends. The results indicate a direct association
306 between temperature and malaria incidence in the southern districts of KPK. Findings from
307 this study suggest that temperatures exceeding 22.4°C corresponded to a 9 to 10% increase in
308 malaria transmission for every 1°C rise. These findings are consistent with a recent study [22]
309 from Bannu, Pakistan, suggesting that with every 1°C increase in temperature, the percent
310 variation in the odds ratio of malaria incidence increases by 4%. Similarly, research
311 conducted in multiple Chinese provinces reported a 6.7 to 15.8% rise in malaria cases for
312 every 1°C increase in maximum temperature [23]. Several recent studies from developing
313 countries, such as Iran and Uganda, discerned similar patterns [24-25]. Numerous studies
314 indicate a rise in malaria transmission beyond specific temperature thresholds [26-27].
315 However, a few studies conducted in China and sub-Saharan Africa provide contrasting

316 evidence in the context of climate change [28-29]. The conflicting results could be attributed
317 to disparities in different modelling approaches [30]. Localised regional conditions play an
318 important role in the transmission dynamics of malaria and should be considered when
319 assessing the complex associations between environmental factors and malaria [31].

320 The relationship between temperature and malaria transmission tends to be intricate,
321 influenced by multiple interacting variables such as humidity, rainfall patterns, other local
322 environmental conditions and human behavior. In tropical countries, such as sub-Saharan
323 Africa, where temperature remains consistently warm throughout the year, conducive
324 conditions for the breeding and survival of malaria-carrying mosquitoes persist [32].

325 However, with reduced rainfall and hotter, drier conditions, the decrease in standing water
326 and consequent breeding sites might temporarily reduce mosquito populations, thus lowering
327 disease transmission. In subtropical monsoon-fed climates typical of Pakistan, temperature
328 and rainfall patterns vary annually. Monsoon summer seasons can create periods of increased
329 standing water, providing breeding grounds for mosquitoes. During these times, malaria
330 transmission may surge due to the shortened development time of the malaria parasite and the
331 availability of more habitats for mosquito breeding [1]. Other ecological factors, like
332 topography, also play a crucial role in malaria transmission. For example, the flat terrain of
333 Bannu and Lakki Marwat can lead to poor drainage of rainwater, resulting in standing
334 stagnant water [12]. The presence of rivers, canals, and irrigation systems in and around
335 southern districts of KPK, such as Bannu and Lakki Marwat, provide ample breeding places
336 for mosquitoes and play a key role in mosquito ecology and malaria transmission [12].

337 Furthermore, since the 1930s, numerous irrigation channels in the Bannu cantonment have
338 served as primary mosquito breeding sites for *Anopheles* species, such as *An. stephensi*, *An.*
339 *culicifacies*, and *An. subpictus* [10]. Due to the endophilic behavior of *Anopheles* in Pakistan,
340 the species are generally found indoors [12]. In arid regions like Bannu and Lakki Marwat,

341 water is often stored in open containers inside houses, which can serve as breeding sites for
342 mosquitoes. Human factors such as poorly constructed housing, particularly in rural settings
343 (e.g., thatched roofs and unsealed walls), can increase exposure to mosquito bites. Nearly a
344 century ago, malaria surveys revealed that cases began to rise towards the end of August,
345 reaching their peak in October and November, before declining rapidly [10]. Today, peaks in
346 malaria transmission are observed during September to December and April to May, which
347 may be influenced by changing climatic patterns, including temperature, precipitation,
348 variations in rainy seasons, and agricultural activities [7, 9, 12]. Extensive agricultural
349 practices, particularly rice paddies and other water-intensive crops, as well as trade
350 (particularly the used tire trade, which is quite common in KPK) and close contact with
351 livestock in rural settings, can also facilitate malaria transmission. Many studies have
352 highlighted the role used tires in vector-borne disease transmission [33-34]. Used tires, when
353 stored, recycled, or discarded improperly, collect rainwater and create stagnant pools,
354 providing ideal breeding sites for mosquitoes. In addition, limited access to healthcare
355 facilities and resources, particularly for socioeconomically disadvantaged communities, can
356 hinder prompt diagnosis and treatment, exacerbating the spread of malaria.

357 Furthermore, this study reveals a delayed impact of mean temperature on the burden of
358 malaria, persisting for up to three months. The peak at a 1-month lag could be associated with
359 the Extrinsic Incubation Period (EIP) of malaria parasites within mosquitoes and accelerated
360 larval development. As temperatures rise, mosquitoes may become infectious more quickly,
361 leading to increased malaria transmission within one month. For example, within the
362 temperature range of 25-30°C, the EIP for *P. vivax* in mosquitoes is likely around 8-10 days,
363 whereas below 20°C, the EIP extend up to 35 days [35]. The peak at 3-month lag suggests a
364 more extended impact of temperature changes on the malaria transmission cycle. This could
365 be due to several factors, including i. sustained high temperatures over a period, which lead to

366 an increased and continuous population of infectious mosquitoes [36] ii. the compounding
367 effect of multiple mosquito generations, where an initial temperature increase results in a
368 progressively higher mosquito population over time [37] and iii. possible delays in human
369 behaviour or environmental factors that influence mosquito breeding sites [38].

370 The increased overall risk can be linked to the faster reproduction rate triggered by warming
371 temperatures, thereby extending the time frame for mosquito breeding. The observed effect of
372 environmental covariates at each lag may represent a cumulative influence from preceding
373 lags [25]. Additionally, recent extreme environmental conditions, such as prolonged rainy
374 seasons, could also contribute to the impact on malaria burden. This finding aligns with prior
375 studies highlighting how disease risk temporally shifts in response to temperature variations.
376 Importantly, an increase in temperature substantially amplifies the incidence rate of malaria,
377 both in the current month and in subsequent months [24, 25, 37, 38]. The month-lagged
378 effects of temperature offer a sufficient time-frame for designing interventions to interrupt
379 malaria transmission. These findings are crucial for administering institutes like IVC/MCP-
380 KP and FPHC, which are responsible for malaria control in KPK, Pakistan. Building on their
381 existing efforts in distributing bed nets, conducting IRS, and managing cases with RDTs and
382 antimalarial treatments, a targeted approach could be employed considering the seasonal
383 nature and lagged effect of temperature on malaria transmission. For instance, mass
384 distribution of bed-nets before the transmission season, IRS before the monsoon, and
385 preventive treatment administration to vulnerable groups during peak periods could
386 significantly reduce malaria burden. Additionally, timely awareness campaigns and
387 healthcare worker training can better prepare communities for early detection and prevention.

388 Some of the challenges that hinder effective malaria control in Pakistan include the misuse
389 and overuse of antimalarial drugs, the use of substandard and counterfeit medications, limited

390 access to healthcare and infrastructure - particularly in rural and remote areas - inadequate
391 vector control programmes, lack of awareness about environmental factors that favour
392 mosquito breeding, socioeconomic barriers, inadequate preparedness for climatic challenges
393 and extreme weather conditions such as rainfall and floods, and overall political and financial
394 instability in the country [39].

395 This study further suggests that the temperature-related attributable fraction of malaria cases
396 is projected to increase from 39.8 to 43.3% and from 54.1 to 57.6% for the two districts in
397 projected scenarios (SSP2 4.5) as warmer temperatures become more frequent. These
398 findings indicate the critical role of temperature in malaria transmission, also suggesting that
399 climate change is likely to exacerbate malaria transmission. Pakistan already faces a high
400 burden of malaria and other infectious diseases. An increase in malaria cases due to warming
401 temperatures could lead to higher mortality and morbidity, further straining already
402 overstretched healthcare systems and causing significant economic impacts on
403 socioeconomically vulnerable communities [39]. Additionally, under high-emission scenarios
404 (SSP2 8.5), the attributable fractions show a slight reduction, likely due to the frequent
405 occurrence of extreme temperature conditions, which may not be conducive to malaria
406 transmission.

407 Climate change is anticipated to exert both direct and indirect influences on the transmission
408 of malaria, particularly affecting the most vulnerable communities. While there is limited
409 data on the long-term ramifications of climate change on malaria transmission, recent events
410 in Pakistan illustrate how extreme weather events, specifically floods, have led to a
411 substantially increased burden of malaria. As is evident in this study, despite the gradual
412 decline in malaria from 2014 onwards, a striking surge in malaria cases was observed in
413 2022. In that year, unprecedented flooding submerged one-third of the country, causing

414 widespread devastation and health challenges, including a significant rise in malaria [1]. The
415 WHO reported a more than four-fold increase in malaria cases in Pakistan in 2022 compared
416 to 2021, totalling over 1.6 million cases [1].

417 Climate change is expected to impact malaria transmission across various scenarios,
418 potentially affecting both traditionally endemic tropical regions and historically non-endemic
419 areas, such as higher-altitude temperate zones [40]. Warmer temperatures can accelerate
420 parasite growth cycles in mosquitoes, amplifying transmission rates and altering the overall
421 burden of the disease. Shifts in temperature, rainfall, and humidity might expand the habitat
422 range of malaria-carrying mosquitoes, leading to transmission in previously unaffected areas,
423 such as the recent resurgence of malaria cases in Europe [40]. Conversely, increase in
424 heatwaves and extremely hot days may reduce malaria transmission in highly endemic areas.
425 Temperature and humidity intricately influence mosquito life cycles, potentially increasing
426 *Anopheles* mosquito frequency, biting rates, and shortening the extrinsic incubation period of
427 *Plasmodium* parasites [40]. This study provides compelling evidence of how temperature
428 changes likely contributed to malaria transmission in vulnerable regions.

429 Further, the broader impacts of climate change - such as adverse health effects and
430 socioeconomic setbacks - can impede disease control efforts, potentially fostering increased
431 malaria transmission. Vulnerable populations in low and middle-income countries facing
432 economic hardship and limited access to healthcare, are particularly susceptible. The
433 compounding impacts of rising temperatures and more frequent extreme weather events, such
434 as floods, significantly influence malaria prevalence and transmission. For example, during
435 the 2022 floods in Pakistan, extreme flooding displaced individuals from their residences,
436 exposing them to mosquito-infested environments. The stagnant water left behind created
437 optimal breeding grounds for mosquitoes, persisting for extended periods. Additionally, the

438 inundation adversely affected healthcare facilities and disrupted transportation, leaving those
439 afflicted with illness without access to treatment.

440 Climate change poses a threat to the intricate interplay between natural and human systems,
441 undermining various social determinants of good health, including livelihoods, nutrition,
442 security, and access to quality health services. In countries like Pakistan, facing the
443 compounded challenges of infectious diseases and climate change, urgent evidence-based
444 studies are crucial for crafting targeted policies. These studies need to focus on the intricate
445 relationship between changing climate patterns and malaria transmission within specific
446 localities. By establishing robust surveillance systems, fostering community engagement, and
447 integrating climate-resilient strategies into healthcare infrastructure, policymakers can
448 adaptively address the evolving risks. Cross-sector collaborations and investment in capacity
449 building will be pivotal, ensuring a comprehensive approach that not only targets malaria
450 control but also strengthens resilience against the health impacts of a changing climate.

451 *Limitations*

452 This study provides empirical evidence regarding the impacts of rising temperatures on
453 malaria transmission in two endemic districts of Pakistan and highlights the influence of
454 climate change on malaria dynamics. However, several limitations in the study design should
455 be noted.

456 Firstly, this study relied on temperature data from global gridded meteorological datasets to
457 measure temperature exposure. While this method may overlook micro-scale spatial and
458 temporal variations in temperature that are critical for mosquito distribution, it has been
459 successfully used in previous studies to quantify the impacts of meteorological conditions on
460 malaria transmission [25].

461 Secondly, analysing monthly average temperatures may obscure diurnal or daily temperature
462 variability, potentially masking the immediate impact of temperature fluctuations on
463 mosquito ecology and malaria transmission.

464 Thirdly, this study did not account for all possible environmental covariates, such as altitude,
465 land-use practices like agriculture, or vector distribution, which could influence malaria
466 transmission.

467 Fourth, malaria cases were diagnosed using both RDTs and microscopy. While microscopy is
468 the gold standard, RDTs were used in several locations due to resource constraints and cost
469 considerations, posing a risk of including false-positive cases. However, previous studies in
470 the region have shown significant agreement between microscopy and RDT results [6].

471 Therefore, data from both sources were integrated to provide a comprehensive view of
472 malaria prevalence.

473 Despite these limitations, this study offers valuable population-level insights crucial for
474 understanding the current and projected impacts of temperature on malaria transmission
475 dynamics. Future research should prioritise integrating more detailed microclimatic data to
476 better quantify the influence of temperature and relative humidity on vector density.

477 Conducting vector sampling across diverse regions and seasons is essential to develop a
478 comprehensive spatiotemporal profile of vector distribution, providing critical evidence for
479 targeted malaria control interventions.

480 **Conclusions**

481 Changing climatic patterns and consequent extreme weather events are associated with
482 malaria resurgence in Pakistan. It is imperative to estimate the climate change-attributed
483 increase in the risk of malaria in vulnerable regions of Pakistan. This study provides evidence
484 showing a direct association between monthly temperature conditions and malaria incidence

485 in the southern districts of KPK, Pakistan. Specifically, temperatures exceeding 22.4°C
486 correspond to a 9-10% increase in malaria transmission for every 1°C rise. The relationship
487 between temperature and malaria transmission is intricate and is influenced by several factors
488 such as precipitation, humidity and other local environmental conditions and human
489 behaviour. The study reveals a lagged impact of mean temperature on malaria incidence,
490 persisting for up to three months. This lagged effect is likely due to the Extrinsic Incubation
491 Period (EIP) of malaria parasites within mosquitoes and accelerated larval development. The
492 lagged effects of temperature on malaria provide a sufficient timeframe for designing
493 interventions to interrupt malaria transmission. Effective malaria control measures include
494 vector control, chemoprevention, case management, surveillance, and community
495 engagement, such as community health education campaigns. The attributable fraction of
496 malaria cases associated with higher temperatures is projected to increase. Rising
497 temperatures and extreme weather events, such as the 2022 floods in Pakistan, have already
498 shown a significant impact on malaria incidence. Urgent, evidence-based studies are needed
499 to craft targeted policies addressing the interplay between climate change and malaria
500 transmission. Policymakers should focus on establishing robust surveillance systems,
501 fostering community engagement, and integrating climate-resilient strategies into healthcare
502 infrastructure.

503 **Data Availability Statement**

504 Malaria Data were acquired from Integrated Vector Control/Malaria Control Program, KPK,

505 Pakistan upon request. These datasets are not publicly available but can be obtained from the

506 data custodians in Directorate General of Health Services, KPK, Pakistan.

507 Environmental data were acquired from Copernicus ERA5-Land monthly averaged data,

508 which are publicly available and can be downloaded from the following link:

509 <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-land-monthly->

510 [means?tab=overview](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-land-monthly-means?tab=overview).

511 All relevant R code used for the analyses and results is publicly available at

512 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14751632>

513 **CRedit Author Statement**

514 SHF: Conceptualisation, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Methodology, Writing – original

515 draft

516 FZ: Conceptualisation, Validation, Visualisation, Writing – original draft

517 JR: Data Curation, Methodology, Writing- review & editing

518 DB: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Validation, Writing – review & editing

519 AA: Methodology, Validation, Writing – review & editing

520 PB: Conceptualisation, Validation, Visualisation, Writing – review & editing

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632 transmission in Europe: a systematic review. *Travel medicine and infectious disease*,
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635 **Table 1: Characteristics of Projected Data Obtained from World Bank's CCKP.**

Projection coverage	Climate model used	Scenarios	Projection years	Projected increase in temperature (ΔT in $^{\circ}C$)	Remarks	Data Source
Pakistan (KPK) 25X25 Km	Multi-Model Ensemble CMIP 6	SSP2-4.5	2040s	1.71	Average Mean Surface Air Temperature	https://climateknowledgeportal.worldbank.org/country/pakistan/climate-data-projections

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638 **Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Environmental Variables and Malarial Incidence Per 1000 RDTs in**
 639 **Bannu and Lakki Marwat.**

Districts	Monthly Median (range)									
	Mean Temperature (°C)	Humidity (%)		PV Prevalence Rates per 1000 RDT cases		PF Prevalence rate per 1000 RDT cases	Total Cases Prevalence rate per 1000 RDT cases			
Bannu	24.60 (9.45, 35.05)	51.27 (19.57, 74.30)	144.93 (15.66, 1998.52)	2.87 (0.00, 47.30)	150.19 (16.65, 2008.89)					
Lakki Marwat	25.70 (10.79, 35.35)	53.38 (21.58, 76.80)	92.81 (19.04, 229.30)	2.08 (0.26, 12.40)	95.36 (19.79, 232.35)					

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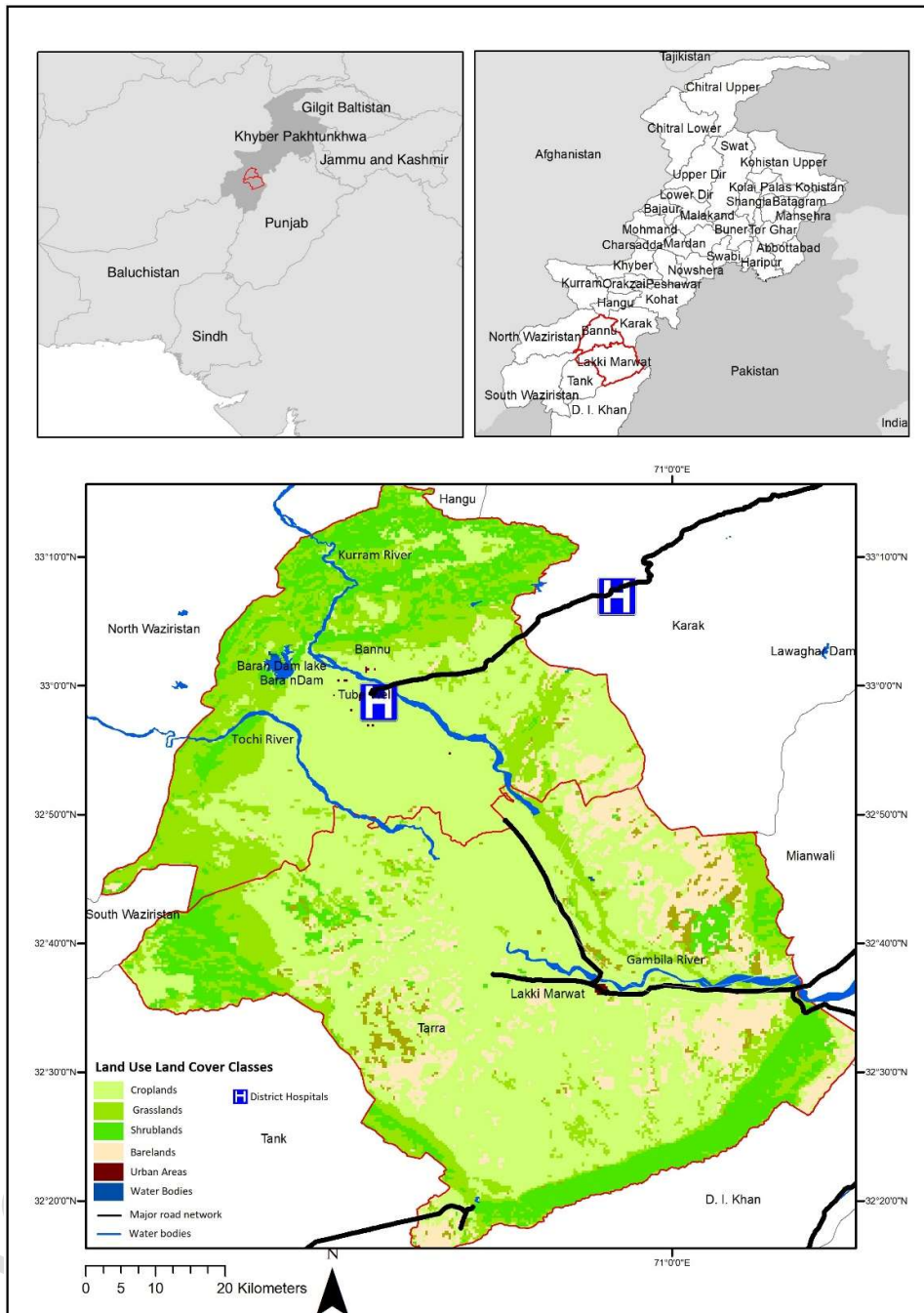
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642 **Table 3: Attributable Fraction of Malarial Cases Associated with Mean Temperatures in Baseline Period**
 643 **(2014-2022) and Projected Climate Change Scenarios (2044-2052 And 2064-2072) for Bannu and Lakki**
 644 **Marwat.**

City		Attributable	Attributable	Attributable	
		Fraction PV	Fraction PF	Fraction Total	
				Cases	
Bannu	Baseline	39.1 (21.7, 51.7)	45.3 (24.1, 59.0)	39.8 (23.2, 51.9)	
	2044-2052	SSP2 4.5	41.4 (23.4, 54.2)	51.3 (27.9, 65.8)	42.2 (25.0, 54.5)
		SSP5 8.5	42.3 (24.1, 55.0)	51.8 (28.4, 66.1)	43.0 (25.7, 55.3)
	2064-2072	SSP2 4.5	42.5 (24.2, 55.3)	52.5 (28.9, 66.9)	43.3 (25.8, 55.5)
		SSP5 8.5	39.9 (23.1, 51.2)	51.6 (28.9, 64.8)	40.6 (24.6, 51.6)
	Lakki Marwat	Baseline	54.0 (34.4, 68.9)	28.8 (-32.0, 66.6)	54.1 (34.6, 68.8)
2044-2052		SSP2 4.5	55.3 (35.7, 69.8)	30.9 (-35.9, 70.7)	55.4 (36.0, 69.8)
		SSP5 8.5	57.2 (37.3, 71.7)	32.5 (-38.8, 73.7)	57.3 (37.6, 71.8)
2064-2072		SSP2 4.5	57.4 (37.5, 72.0)	32.6 (-39.1, 74.0)	57.6 (37.7, 72.0)
		SSP5 8.5	53.4 (35.2, 66.5)	33.1 (-40.9, 74.4)	53.7 (35.5, 66.7)

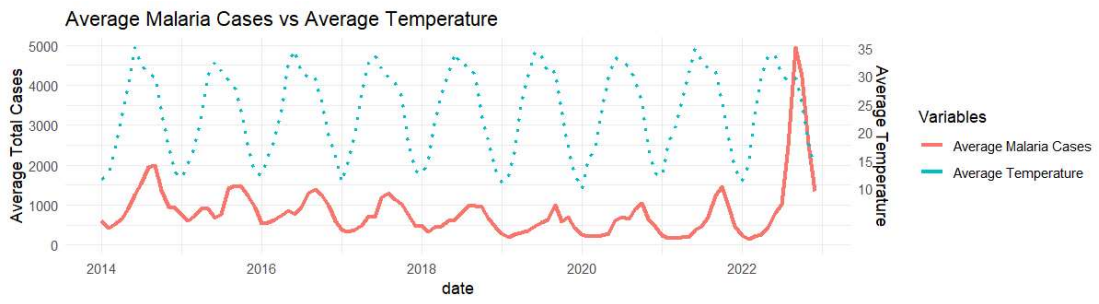
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Figure 1



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Figure 2



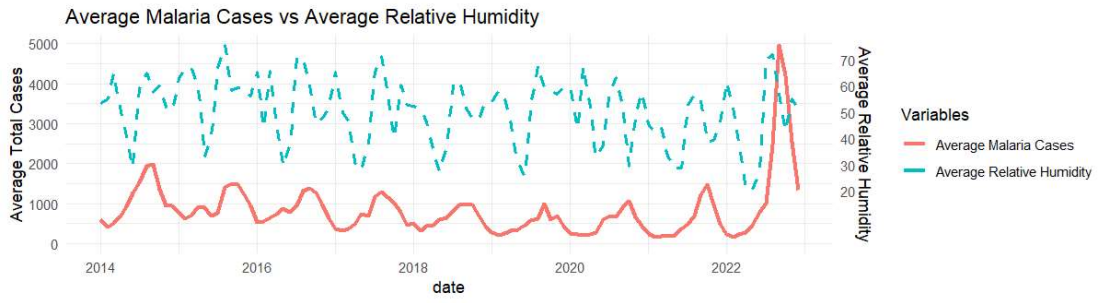
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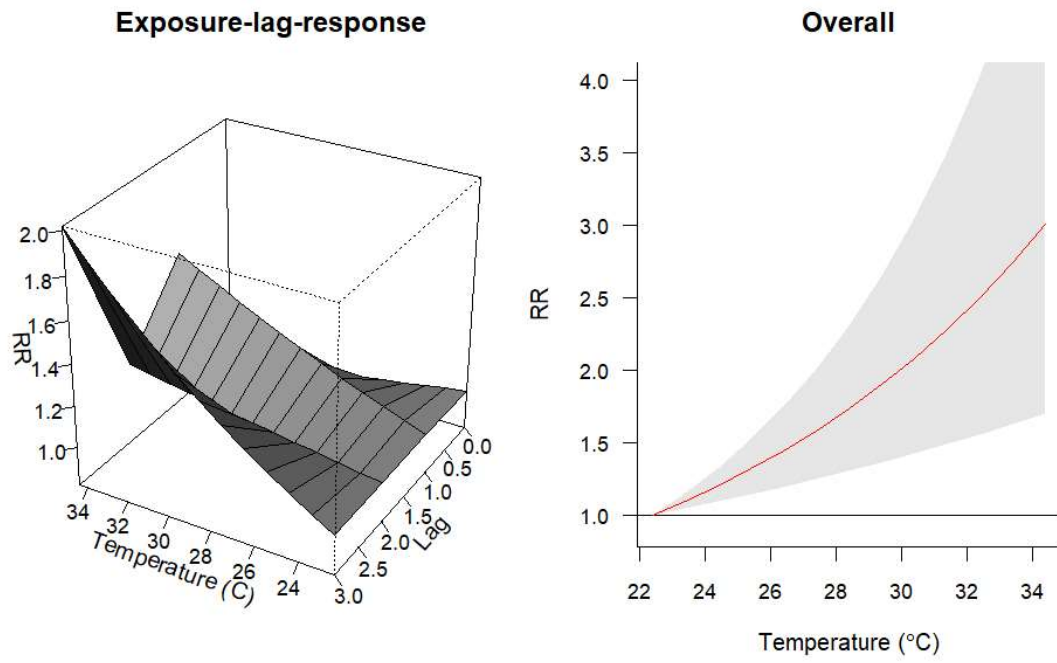
Figure 3



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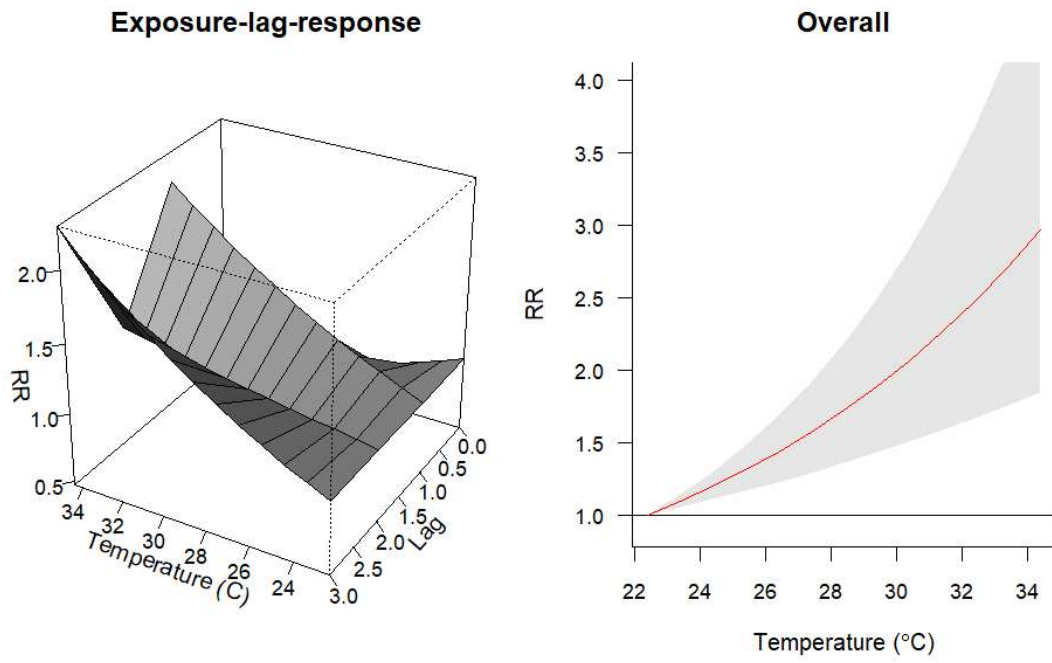
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