ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025



# Malaria Vaccine Awareness, Access, and Equity: Challenges and **Solutions**

Mayaki-Adeolu Felicia Foyeke, Dr Ojo Ibironke Cecilia

Faculty of Nursing Science, University of Medical Sciences, Ondo State, Nigeria

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.51244/IJRSI.2025.1210000344

Received: 02 November 2025; Accepted: 10 November 2025; Published: 22 November 2025

# **ABSTRACT**

Malaria remains a critical public health issue, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, where it disproportionately affects vulnerable populations, including children under five. Despite promising breakthroughs, such as the World Health Organization (WHO)-approved RTS,S/AS01 malaria vaccine, challenges persist in vaccine awareness, access, and equitable distribution. This review examines current malaria vaccine implementation efforts, identifies systemic barriers, and highlights opportunities for enhancing uptake and equity. Key issues include inadequate community awareness, vaccine hesitancy, funding constraints, logistical limitations, and weak health infrastructure. Despite these barriers, innovative approaches such as scalable manufacturing, community engagement, and integrated delivery systems offer hope for achieving broader vaccine coverage. Addressing these challenges through multisectoral collaboration and targeted policy reform is essential for reducing malaria-related morbidity and mortality and progressing toward malaria elimination.

Keywords: Malaria, Vaccine, Equity, Access, Vaccine Hesitancy, RTS, Sub-Saharan Africa

Word Count: 280

# INTRODUCTION

The search for a malaria vaccine has been one of the most ambitious goals in global health. For decades, scientists and public health experts have worked tirelessly to find a way to prevent a disease that kills hundreds of thousands of people each year, most of them children in Africa. The journey toward a malaria vaccine began in laboratories and research institutes in developed countries, particularly in Europe and North America, where scientists focused on understanding the complex life cycle of the Plasmodium falciparum parasite. Early studies in the mid-to-late 20th century concentrated on identifying which stages of the parasite could be targeted by the human immune system. These efforts formed the scientific foundation for vaccine development. As research advanced in developed countries, Africa became the natural center for vaccine testing and evaluation. Since malaria transmission is highest in sub-Saharan Africa, African countries provided the most suitable environments for clinical trials. Partnerships between African research centers, global health organizations, and pharmaceutical companies allowed large-scale studies to be conducted under real-world conditions. Countries such as Ghana, Kenya, and Malawi hosted pivotal trials that provided critical data on the vaccine's safety, efficacy, and practicality. These collaborations not only produced valuable evidence but also helped strengthen local research capacity and health infrastructure. African scientists, clinicians, and communities played essential roles in making malaria vaccine trials successful, showing that local participation is key to achieving lasting health solutions.

Malaria continues to be a leading cause of morbidity and mortality, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), with Nigeria bearing the largest global burden. Despite significant investments in vector control and antimalarial drugs, the rise in insecticide and drug resistance has intensified the urgency for novel preventive tools, notably vaccines. Nigeria is the country with the highest global burden of malaria, which is still a major cause of



ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

illness and mortality, especially in LMICs. The need for new preventative measures, particularly vaccinations, has increased due to the rise in insecticide and drug resistance, even with large investments in vector control and antimalarial medications.

An important step forward in the fight against malaria was the creation of the RTS,S/AS01 vaccine, which targets the Plasmodium falciparum parasite. However, logistical, sociocultural, and financial obstacles make it difficult to successfully translate scientific discoveries into public health outcomes. This study assesses the state of the malaria vaccine rollout in Nigeria and suggests evidence-based tactics to increase vaccination uptake, awareness, and equitable access.

The development of the RTS,S/AS01 vaccine, targeting the Plasmodium falciparum parasite, marked a pivotal advancement in malaria control. However, translating scientific breakthroughs into public health success is hampered by logistical, socio-cultural, and economic challenges. This paper evaluates the current landscape of malaria vaccine rollout, focusing on Nigeria, and proposes evidence-based strategies to promote awareness, equitable access, and vaccine uptake.

#### **METHODS**

This manuscript is based on a comprehensive literature review of scholarly articles, WHO reports, government documents, and NGO publications from 2017 to 2025. The manuscript based on a comprehensive narrative literature review designed to synthesize existing evidence on malaria vaccine awareness, access, and equity. The review drew on a wide range of scholarly and policy-based sources published between 2017 and 2025, a period marked by intensified malaria vaccine research, WHO pilot implementations, and the global rollout of the RTS,S and R21 vaccines.

# **Search Strategy**

A systematic search of academic databases—including PubMed, Google Scholar, Scopus, and Web of Science—was conducted using a combination of keywords and Boolean operators such as "malaria vaccine," "RTS,S," "R21," "vaccine access," "vaccine equity," "vaccine hesitancy," "awareness," "implementation," "sub-Saharan Africa," "low- and middle-income countries (LMICs)," and "public health systems." Grey literature sources such as WHO bulletins, UNICEF reports, national health policy documents, and publications from global health organizations (e.g., Gavi, Global Fund, PATH) were also included to capture real-world implementation data.

#### **Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

Studies and documents were included if they met the following criteria:

Published between January 2017 and December 2025

Focused on malaria vaccines (RTS,S/AS01, R21/Matrix-M, or next-generation candidates)

Addressed at least one of the following: awareness, access, vaccine equity, policy, financing, logistics, community perceptions, or health systems readiness

Conducted in Africa or other LMIC contexts, or providing globally relevant evidence applicable to these settings

Peer-reviewed articles, WHO and government documents, technical reports, or NGO publications

Exclusion criteria were:

Studies unrelated to malaria vaccines (e.g., malaria treatment only)



ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

Articles lacking relevance to awareness, access, or equity

Publications without accessible full text

Non-English language sources (due to feasibility constraints)

# **Data Extraction and Synthesis**

A structured data extraction sheet was used to summarize key variables, including study objectives, population, geographic location, main findings, and relevance to vaccine awareness, access, and equity. The narrative synthesis approach allowed for integration of findings across diverse study designs such quantitative, qualitative, mixed-methods, and policy analyses. Themes were identified inductively and categorized into:

Awareness and community perceptions

Vaccine access barriers

Equity gaps across demographic and geographic groups

Implementation challenges

Consequences of inequitable vaccine distribution

Promising innovative solutions

# **Quality Considerations**

Although the review prioritized peer-reviewed articles and authoritative institutional reports, the narrative design does not include formal appraisal scoring. Instead, emphasis was placed on source credibility, methodological transparency, and applicability to African public health systems. This approach supports a robust synthesis while acknowledging heterogeneity across included sources.

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### **Current State of Awareness and Access**

Although the RTS,S/AS01 vaccine has been piloted in several African countries including Ghana, Kenya, and Malawi, widespread awareness remains low. In Nigeria, despite high malaria prevalence, public knowledge about malaria vaccination is limited, especially in rural and underserved communities. WHO's updated recommendation in 2023 now includes both RTS,S and R21/Matrix-M vaccines, yet implementation remains uneven.

#### Coverage and Implementation in Nigeria

Nigeria accounted for over 27% of global malaria cases and 31% of malaria-related deaths in 2023. In 2024, the first phase of the malaria vaccine rollout began in Kebbi and Bayelsa states. However, coverage is still minimal due to challenges in healthcare infrastructure, logistics, and vaccine acceptance.

# **Challenges to Access and Equity**

Malaria vaccine deployment, particularly with the introduction of RTS,S/AS01 (Mosquirix) and R21/Matrix-M, marks a major public health advancement. However, translating vaccine availability into equitable access remains

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025



highly complex. The challenges cut across structural, socioeconomic, political, logistical, and community-level dimensions.

# 1. Limited Global Supply and Manufacturing Constraints

Insufficient production capacity remains one of the greatest bottlenecks. Demand for malaria vaccines in endemic countries vastly exceeds supply.

Heavily centralized manufacturing, mainly in high-income regions, results in dependency on global supply chains and vulnerability to export restrictions.

New manufacturers (e.g., Serum Institute of India for R21) reduce the pressure but still cannot immediately meet global needs.

Competition between countries for early batches risks allocating vaccines to wealthier or politically influential countries rather than those with highest malaria burden.

# 2. High Cost and Financing Challenges

Malaria vaccines are relatively costlier per dose compared to traditional childhood vaccines.

Many endemic countries rely on external financing (Gavi, Global Fund); delays in financing approvals can hold back introduction.

Countries transitioning out of donor support may struggle with co-financing obligations.

Additional costs—cold chain, training, surveillance, community engagement—further strain limited public health budgets.

# 3. Weak Health Systems and Infrastructure Gaps

Rural and remote communities often lack functional health facilities, stable electricity, or adequate staffing.

Cold chain restrictions for RTS,S and R21 require consistent 2–8°C storage, which is challenging in areas with unreliable power supply.

Inconsistencies in last-mile delivery systems compromise timely availability.

Fragmented health information systems affect tracking of multi-dose vaccine schedules and monitoring of coverage.

# 4. Workforce Capacity and Training Limitations

Vaccine introduction requires skilled vaccinators trained on handling new products, managing multi-dose schedules, and reporting adverse events.

In many countries, health workforce shortages are severe, particularly in high-burden rural regions.

Frequent staff turnover reduces continuity and increases the need for repeated, costly training.

#### 5. Socioeconomic Inequities

Households in low-income settings may face barriers such as:

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025



Transportation costs to clinics

Loss of daily wages when caregivers must take time off work

Poor health literacy that limits understanding of vaccine benefits

Regions with the highest malaria burden (sub-Saharan Africa) also show the lowest vaccination coverage, reflecting entrenched structural inequities.

#### 6. Gender-Related Barriers

In many communities, women are primary caregivers but lack decision-making power over health choices and finances.

Cultural norms may restrict women's mobility without male permission, limiting clinic access.

Misconceptions surrounding fertility or safety for pregnant/breastfeeding women may deter uptake.

7. Community Acceptance, Misinformation, and Historical Vaccine Hesitancy

Introduction of a "new" malaria vaccine meets:

Concerns about safety and side effects

Mistrust arising from historical neglect or prior negative experiences with health services

Misinformation spread via social networks, radio, or local influencers

Vaccine fatigue and skepticism—exacerbated by COVID-19 misinformation—can undermine acceptance.

8. Competing Health Priorities

Governments with limited budgets must weigh malaria vaccines against:

Maternal/newborn health

HIV, TB, nutrition programs

Outbreaks (e.g., cholera, measles) may divert resources, delaying malaria vaccine rollout.

This crowding out effect disproportionately affects countries with weaker health system.

# 9. Complex Dosing Schedules

RTS,S requires four doses (three initial + one booster), making completion challenging for mobile or rural populations.

High drop-out rates between doses reduce vaccine effectiveness at population level.

Tracking and reminders are difficult in settings lacking digital health systems or caregiver contact information.

10. Regulatory and Policy Bottlenecks

RSIS

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

Differences in national regulatory readiness, dossier review times, and importation approval procedures delay rollout.

Some countries lack clear guidance or political commitment for integrating malaria vaccines into routine immunization schedules.

11. Geopolitical Instability and Humanitarian Emergencies

Conflict zones face:

Disrupted supply chains

Destroyed health facilities

Displacement of caregivers and children

Refugee camps require tailored vaccination strategies but often fall outside national immunization planning.

12. Inequitable Distribution Within Countries

Even after national adoption, inequities persist:

Urban/peri-urban areas receive vaccines first.

Hard-to-reach rural communities face delays.

Pastoralist and nomadic populations experience particularly low coverage.

Local politics can influence which districts get early access.

13. Gaps in Post-Introduction Monitoring and Pharmacovigilance

Limited surveillance capacity weakens:

Monitoring of adverse events following immunization (AEFI)

Measuring real-world vaccine effectiveness

Identifying inequities in coverage

Without strong monitoring systems, governments may hesitate to scale vaccines widely.

Key barriers include:

- **High Vaccine Cost and Limited Production Capacity:** Limited manufacturing capacity and high costs constrain supply.
- Weak Health Infrastructure: Cold-chain storage and trained personnel are lacking in rural areas.
- Geographical and Socioeconomic Disparities: Marginalized groups face significant barriers to access.
- Vaccine Hesitancy and Misinformation: Cultural beliefs, lack of trust, and misinformation hinder uptake.



ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

# **Challenges in Vaccine Development**

The complexity of the Plasmodium lifecycle, antigenic diversity, and weak immune responses have historically hindered vaccine development. However, recent innovations, including mRNA technologies and next-generation vaccines, offer new possibilities.

# Key barriers include:

- High Vaccine Cost and Limited Production Capacity: Limited manufacturing capacity and high costs
  constrain supply.
- Weak Health Infrastructure: Cold-chain storage and trained personnel are lacking in rural areas.
- Geographical and Socioeconomic Disparities: Marginalized groups face significant barriers to access.
- Vaccine Hesitancy and Misinformation: Cultural beliefs, lack of trust, and misinformation hinder uptake.

# **Consequences of Inequity**

Inequitable access to malaria vaccines, across countries, regions, and socioeconomic groups has substantial and farreaching consequences. Because malaria burden is unevenly distributed, inequity in access not only worsens health gaps but also reinforces cycles of poverty, weak health systems, and social exclusion. Below are expanded consequences organized across epidemiological, health system, socioeconomic, and ethical domains.

1. Persistent High Burden in Vulnerable Populations

When vaccines fail to reach populations at highest risk—particularly children in rural, remote, or impoverished communities—malaria transmission remains intense. This leads to:

Higher incidence, morbidity, and mortality concentrated in already marginalized populations.

Maintenance of regional hotspots that undermine broader national and global progress.

Continued vulnerability to seasonal surges and epidemics, especially during rainy seasons or humanitarian crises.

These pockets of high transmission ultimately weaken overall malaria control and elimination prospects.

2. Widening Health Inequalities

Inequitable access to vaccination widens existing gaps in:

Child survival rates

Immunization coverage

Access to preventive interventions (e.g., ITNs, IPTp)

Children in wealthier or urban areas benefit from comprehensive malaria protection, while those in poor, rural settings remain disproportionately exposed. This reinforces the cycle where health outcomes are strongly determined by geography, income, gender, or education level.

RSIS

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

# 3. Reduced Overall Vaccine Impact and Cost-Effectiveness

Malaria vaccines are most impactful when coverage is high and equitably distributed. Inequity reduces effectiveness in several ways:

Incomplete or uneven coverage compromises herd-protective effects.

High-transmission pockets act as reservoirs, increasing reinfection risk in other regions.

Health systems face higher costs from recurring malaria episodes, hospital admissions, and treatment failures.

As a result, the public health return on investment is significantly reduced, undermining the rationale for large-scale deployment.

4. Greater Economic Burden on Families and Communities

Communities excluded from malaria vaccination bear ongoing direct and indirect costs:

Medical expenses for repeated treatments or hospital admissions

Loss of income due to caregiver time off work

School absenteeism among children, leading to long-term educational disadvantages

Economic shocks from severe malaria, which can push households into deeper poverty

These costs disproportionately affect poor families, perpetuating intergenerational cycles of deprivation.

5. Increased Strain on Health Systems

Areas that lack equitable access to malaria vaccines face persistent pressure on health systems due to:

High caseloads at primary health centers

Overloaded inpatient and pediatric wards

Frequent stockouts of antimalarial drugs

Increased need for diagnostic testing and community outreach

Health workers become overstretched, reducing quality of care for other essential services such as antenatal care, routine immunization, or maternal health.

6. Undermined Trust in the Health System

Perceived or actual inequities, such as urban areas receiving vaccines before rural communities, or wealthy families accessing private supplies—can fuel:

Distrust in government and public health authorities

Feelings of neglect among marginalized groups

Reduced acceptance of future vaccines or health interventions

RSIS

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

Mistrust increases vulnerability to misinformation, reducing community cooperation with malaria control programmes.

# 7. Increased Risk of Drug Resistance

Where vaccines are not equitably distributed, communities rely heavily on antimalarial drugs. This creates:

Greater selection pressure for parasite drug resistance

Higher rates of treatment failure

Potential spread of resistant strains to other regions

Inequity therefore carries not only local but regional and global risks.

8. Entrenched Gender and Social Inequities

Women, low-income caregivers, displaced populations, and ethnic minorities often face the greatest barriers to access. The consequences include:

Disproportionate burden of caregiving for sick children

Higher psychological stress and financial strain on women

Exclusion of marginalized groups from the benefits of new health innovations

This perpetuates structural inequities and limits progress toward universal health coverage.

9. Slower Progress Toward National and Global Malaria Targets

Inequitable vaccine distribution undermines:

National malaria control strategies

WHO's Global Technical Strategy (GTS) 2025/2030 targets

Efforts toward eventual malaria elimination

Countries with deep internal inequities experience stagnation in malaria metrics, slowing global progress.

10. Ethical and Human Rights Implications

From an ethical standpoint, inequity in malaria vaccine access violates the principles of:

Justice (fair distribution of benefits and burdens)

Beneficence (maximizing health benefits)

Rights to health and access to essential technologies

Failure to ensure equitable distribution sends a message that the lives of children in marginalized communities are less valued, an unacceptable moral outcome. Inequitable access to malaria vaccines produces cascading consequences that deepen health disparities, undermine vaccine impact, strain health systems, and perpetuate

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025



poverty. These consequences are not merely technical; they reflect social injustices that hinder progress toward universal health coverage and global malaria elimination. Inequitable access exacerbates existing health disparities, increases child mortality, and undermines global malaria elimination targets. Additionally, unequal access impedes economic productivity and perpetuates cycles of poverty.

# **Innovative Solutions to Improve Malaria Vaccine Access and Equity**

A range of innovative interventions are emerging to close access gaps and ensure equitable uptake of malaria vaccines. These approaches go beyond traditional delivery models and aim to overcome structural, geographic, financial, and sociocultural barriers.

- Mobile Clinics and Drone Delivery: To overcome geographical barriers.
- **Public-Private Partnerships:** For vaccine financing and scalable production.
- **Community Engagement:** To increase awareness and reduce hesitancy.
- **Integrated Health Campaigns:** Combining malaria vaccination with other services like routine immunization and bed net distribution.

# 1. Mobile Clinics and Drone Delivery

Innovative delivery models are critical for reaching underserved populations that face geographical isolation or weak health infrastructure.

#### **Mobile Clinics**

Mobile vaccination units can reach remote, hard-to-access rural communities, fishing settlements, mining areas, and nomadic populations where static health facilities are limited.

They support on-the-spot vaccination, health education, and follow-up for multi-dose schedules.

Mobile clinics can also be integrated with digital health tools—such as electronic registries or SMS reminders—to track children and improve dose completion.

#### **Drone Delivery Systems**

Drones offer rapid, reliable delivery of vaccines and supplies across mountainous terrain, flood-prone areas, or islands.

They help maintain the cold chain by reducing long travel times and exposure to heat.

Drone networks (e.g., those piloted in Rwanda, Ghana, and Malawi) can ensure last-mile distribution of malaria vaccines, particularly during seasonal stockouts or emergencies.

Drones also improve supply chain transparency by enabling real-time monitoring of deliveries and inventory.

Together, these technologies significantly reduce logistical barriers and ensure timely availability of vaccines in high-burden regions.

#### 2. Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs)

RSIS

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

Strong collaborations between governments, global health organizations, and private-sector stakeholders can accelerate vaccine access and reduce reliance on donor funding.

# Key contributions of PPPs include:

Sustainable financing models that blend public investment with corporate social responsibility funds, philanthropic contributions, and private capital.

Expanded manufacturing capacity, especially in low- and middle-income countries, by leveraging private-sector expertise in large-scale production (e.g., partnerships with Serum Institute for R21/Matrix-M).

Strengthened supply chains, with private logistics companies supporting transport, cold chain management, and real-time inventory systems.

Innovation incentives that encourage new delivery technologies, thermostable vaccine research, and robust pharmacovigilance platforms.

PPPs help ensure that malaria vaccines are affordable, scalable, and sustainable, reducing the inequities that arise from supply shortages or financial constraints.

#### 3. Community Engagement and Social Mobilization

Successful malaria vaccination programs rely heavily on community trust, cultural acceptance, and active participation of caregivers.

Strategies to strengthen community engagement include:

Partnering with local leaders, traditional birth attendants, religious groups, and youth associations to disseminate accurate information.

Using radio programs, drama groups, WhatsApp platforms, door-to-door campaigns, and community health volunteers to increase awareness and counter misinformation.

Conducting co-created communication campaigns, where messages are designed with community input to address specific fears, beliefs, or gender-related barriers.

Integrating male involvement initiatives to encourage shared decision-making in child health, improving attendance at vaccination sessions.

Effective community engagement reduces vaccine hesitancy, improves uptake of multi-dose malaria vaccines, and fosters long-term trust in the health system.

#### 4. Integrated Health Campaigns

Integrated service delivery strengthens efficiency, reduces missed opportunities, and maximizes the impact of each community contact.

Examples of integrated approaches:

Combining malaria vaccination with routine immunization sessions, vitamin A supplementation, deworming, or growth monitoring.

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025



Linking malaria vaccine delivery with ITN distribution, seasonal malaria chemoprevention (SMC), antenatal care (ANC), or child welfare clinics

Implementing multi-disease outreach campaigns that deliver several services at once, reducing transportation costs and time burdens for caregivers.

Using integrated digital tools, such as Child Health Cards or electronic trackers—to monitor vaccine schedules and ensure continuity of care.

Integrated approaches reduce fragmentation, increase coverage, and strengthen health system efficiency while ensuring caregivers receive comprehensive preventive services.

# **Implications for Nursing Practice and Education**

# **Nursing Practice**

Nurses play a central role in vaccine administration, health education, and community sensitization. Their involvement is essential in building trust, addressing hesitancy, and advocating for underserved populations.

# **Nursing Education**

Nursing curricula should incorporate content on malaria vaccines, health equity, and community health engagement. Empowering nurses with knowledge and leadership skills will strengthen advocacy and implementation at the grassroots level.

# **CONCLUSION**

The journey to malaria elimination is complex but achievable. Vaccination, when combined with strategic partnerships, infrastructure development, and community involvement, presents a powerful tool in reducing malaria's burden. To achieve sustainable success, global and national stakeholders must address systemic barriers to access and equity.

# RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1. **Increase funding** for malaria vaccine development and distribution.
- 2. Strengthen global partnerships to improve supply chains and infrastructure.
- 3. **Invest in health systems**, especially cold-chain logistics and workforce capacity.
- 4. **Promote community engagement** to combat misinformation and hesitancy.
- 5. **Integrate malaria vaccination** into existing national health strategies.

# REFERENCES

- 1. Adeloye D, Jacobs W, and Amuta AO,. (2017). Coverage and determinants of childhood immunization in Nigeria: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Vaccine. 2017;35(22):2871–2881. pmid:28438406.
- 2. Adeyemo AO, Aborode AT, Bello MA, et al. Malaria vaccine: the lasting solution to malaria burden in Africa. Ann Med Surg (Lond). 2022;79:104031.
- 3. Afolabi AA, Îlesanmi OS. Dealing with vaccine hesitancy in Africa: the prospective COVID-19 vaccine context. Pan Afr Med J. 2021;38:5–9.

ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025



- 4. Alonso PL. Malaria: a problem to be solved and a time to be bold. Nat Med. 2021;27:1506–9.
- 5. Angela E. Apeagyei, Nishali K. Patel, Ian Cogswell, Kevin O'Rourke, Golsum Tsakalos & Joseph Dieleman (2024). Examining geographical inequalities for malaria outcomes and spending on malaria in 40 malaria-endemic countries, 2010–2020. Malaria Journal volume 23, Article number: 206
- 6. Aremu TO, Ajibola OA, Oluwole OE, Adeyinka KO, Dada SO, Okoro ON. Looking beyond the malaria vaccine approval to acceptance and adoption in Sub-Saharan Africa. Front Trop Dis. 2022;3:22.
- 7. Aremu TO, Singhal C, Ajibola OA, et al. Assessing public awareness of the malaria vaccine in Sub-Saharan Africa. Trop Med Infect Dis. 2022;7:215.
- 8. CDC—(2024). Malaria—Malaria Worldwide—Impact of Malaria. Published April 1 2024. AccessedJanuary23,2025. https://www.cdc.gov/malaria/malaria worldwide/impact.html.
- 9. Chukwuocha UM, Okorie PC, Iwuoha GN, Ibe SN, Dozie IN, and Nwoke BE. (2018). Awareness, perceptions and intent to comply with the prospective malaria vaccine in parts of South Eastern Nigeria. Malar J. 2018;17(1):187. pmid:29720172
- 10. Crompton PD, Pierce SK, Miller LH. Advances and challenges in malaria vaccine development. J Clin Invest. 2010;120:4168–78.
- 11. David B Olawade a, Ojima Z Wada b, Chiamaka Norah Ezeagu c, Nicholas Aderinto d,\*, Malik A Balogun e, Fiyinfoluwa T Asaolu f, Aanuoluwapo Clement David-Olawade. (2024) Malaria vaccination in Africa: A mini-review of challenges and opportunities.PMCID: PMC11175883 PMID: 38875411 Medicine (Baltimore).2024 Jun 14;103(24):e38565. doi: 10.1097/MD.0000000000038565
- 12. Degarege A, Fennie K, Degarege D, Chennupati S, and Madhivanan P (2019). Improving socioeconomic status may reduce the burden of malaria in sub Saharan Africa: A systematic review and meta-analysis. PLOS ONE. 2019;14(1):e0211205. pmid:30677102
- 13. Dimala CA, Kika BT, Kadia BM, and Blencowe H. (2018). Current challenges and proposed solutions to the effective implementation of the RTS, S/AS01 Malaria Vaccine Program in sub-Saharan Africa: A systematic review. PloS One. 2018;13(12):e0209744. pmid:30596732
- 14. Fact sheet about malaria. Accessed March 14, (2022). <a href="https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/malaria">https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/malaria</a>.
- 15. Gao L, Shi Q, Liu Z, Li Z, Dong X. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on malaria control in Africa: a preliminary analysis. Trop Med Infect Dis. 2023;8:67.
- 16. Grant J, Gyan T, Agbokey F, Webster J, Greenwood B, Asante KP. Challenges and lessons learned during the planning and early implementation of the RTS,S/AS01<sub>E</sub> malaria vaccine in three regions of Ghana: a qualitative study. Malar J. 2022;21:147.
- 17. Immurana M, Boachie MK, Klu D, Dalaba MA, Manyeh AK, and Alhassan RK. (2022) Determinants of willingness to accept child vaccination against malaria in Ghana. Int J Health Plann Manage. n/a(n/a). pmid:34984733
- 18. Ippolito MM, Moser KA, Kabuya JBB, Cunningham C, Juliano JJ. Antimalarial drug resistance and implications for the WHO global technical strategy. Curr Epidemiol Rep. 2021;8:46–62.
- 19. Kavanagh MM, Erondu NA, Tomori O, et al. Access to lifesaving medical resources for African countries:COVID-19 testing and response, ethics, and politics. Lancet.2020;395:1735–8
- 20. MacDonald N, Mohsni E, Al-Mazrou Y, et al. Global vaccine action plan lessons I: recommendations for the next decade. Vaccine. 2020;38:5364–71.
- 21. MacDonald NE. (2015). Vaccine hesitancy: Definition, scope and determinants of Malaria Vaccine. 2015;33(34):4161–4164. pmid:25896383
- 22. Makenga G, Bonoli S, Montomoli E, Carrier T, Auerbach J. Vaccine production in Africa: a feasible business model for capacity building and sustainable new vaccine introduction. Front Public Health. 2019;7:56.
- 23. Malar J. (2015) Social inequalities in malaria knowledge, prevention and prevalence among children under 5 years old and women aged 15–49 in Madagascar. PMCID: PMC4676822 PMID: 26651615 Dec 12;14:499. doi: 10.1186/s12936-015-1010-y
- 24. Mariwah S, Machistey Abane A, Asiedu Owusu S, et al. Formalising "informal" mHealth in Ghana: opportunities and challenges for Universal Health Coverage (UHC). Glob Public Health. 2022;17:768–81.



ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

- 25. McCoy KD, Weldon CT, Malar J., and Ansumana R, (2021). Are malaria transmission-blocking vaccines acceptable to high burden communities? Results from a mixed methods study in Bo, Sierra Leone. 20(1):1–12. pmid:33849572
- 26. Merle CS. Implementation strategies for the introduction of the RTS,S/AS01 (RTS,S) malaria vaccine in countries with areas of highly seasonal transmission: workshop meeting report. Malar J. 2023;22:242.
- 27. Mtenga S, Kimweri A., Malar J., and Romore I, (2016) Stakeholders' opinions and questions regarding the anticipated malaria vaccine in Tanzania. 15(1):189. pmid:27048260
- 28. Mumtaz H, Nadeem A, Bilal W, et al. Acceptance, availability, and feasibility of RTS, S/AS01 malaria vaccine: a review. Immun Inflamm Dis. 2023;11:e899.
- 29. Musa-Booth T, Enobun B, Agbomola A, and Shiff C. (2020). Knowledge, attitude and willingness to accept the RTS,S malaria vaccine among mothers in Abuja Nigeria. Published online 2020.
- 30. Nushaiba I (2021). Explained: Why It Took 54 Years For A Malaria Vaccine. https://www.indiaspend.com/health
- 31. Olufadewa I, Akinrinde D, Adesina M, Oladele R, Ayorinde T, Omo-Sowho U. The approval of the first malaria vaccine: the beginning of the end of the malaria epidemic. J Glob Health. 2022;12:03087.
- 32. Piot P, Larson HJ, O'Brien KL, et al. Immunization: vital progress, unfinished agenda. Nature. 2019;575:119–29.
- 33. Romore I, Ali AM, Semali I, Mshinda H, Tanner M, Abdulla S. and Malar J. (2015); Assessment of parental perception of malaria vaccine in Tanzania. 14(1):355. pmid:26383545
- 34. Sallam M, Al-Khatib AO, Al-Mahzoum KS, Abdelaziz DH, Sallam M. Current Developments in Malaria Vaccination: A Concise Review on Implementation, Challenges, and Future Directions. Clin Pharmacol. 2025 Apr 1;17:29-47. doi: 10.2147/CPAA.S513282. PMID: 40191019; PMCID: PMC11971972.
- 35. Simas C, and Larson HJ. (2021) Overcoming vaccine hesitancy in low-income and middle-income regions. Nat Rev Dis Primer. 7(1):1–2. pmid:34112811
- 36. Sinnis P, Fidock DA. The RTS, S vaccine- a chance to regain the upper hand against malaria? Cell. 2022;185:750–4.
- 37. Sulaiman SK, Musa MS, Tsiga-Ahmed FI, Dayyab FM, Sulaiman AK, and Bako AT (2022) A systematic review and meta-analysis of the prevalence of caregiver acceptance of malaria vaccine for under-five children in low-income and middle-income countries (LMICs). PLoS ONE 17(12): e0278224. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278224">https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0278224</a>
- 38. Tabiri D. (2020) Factors Associated with Malaria Vaccine Uptake in Sunyani Municipality. Thesis. University of Ghana; Accessed January 23, 2025. <a href="http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh/handle/123456789/36411">http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh/handle/123456789/36411</a>.
- 39. Ughasoro MD, Bisi-Onyemaechi AI, and Okafor HU. (2018). Acceptance of malaria vaccine by a rural community in Nigeria. Niger J Med. 27(3):196–203.
- 40. UNICEF (2024). Nigeria Receives Malaria Vaccines Ahead of Roll Out. A joint press release by the National Primary Healthcare Development Agency, GAVI, UNICEF and WHO. 17 October 2024
- 41. White SE, Harvey SA, and Meza G, (2018). Acceptability of a herd immunity-focused, transmission-blocking malaria vaccine in malaria-endemic communities in the Peruvian Amazon: an exploratory study. 17(1):179. pmid:29703192
- 42. WHO (2021).Recommends groundbreaking malaria vaccine for children at risk. Accessed January 23, 2025. <a href="https://www.who.int/news/item/06-10-2021-who-recommends-groundbreaking-malaria-vaccine-for-children-at-risk">https://www.who.int/news/item/06-10-2021-who-recommends-groundbreaking-malaria-vaccine-for-children-at-risk</a>
- 43. WHO 2021, World malaria report (2021). <a href="https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240040496">https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240040496</a>.
- 44. WHO. (2022). Over 1 million African children protected by first malaria vaccine. 2022. Available at: <a href="https://www.who.int/news/item/21-04-2022-over-1-million-african-children-protected-by-first-malaria-vaccine">https://www.who.int/news/item/21-04-2022-over-1-million-african-children-protected-by-first-malaria-vaccine</a>. [access date April 25, 2022].
- 45. Wiysonge CS, Ndwandwe D, Ryan J, et al. Vaccine hesitancy in the era of COVID-19: could lessons from the past help in divining the future? Hum Vaccin Immunother. 2022;18:1–3.



ISSN No. 2321-2705 | DOI: 10.51244/IJRSI | Volume XII Issue X October 2025

46. Yeboah D, Owusu-Marfo J, Agyeman YN. Predictors of malaria vaccine uptake among children 6–24 months in the Kassena Nankana Municipality in the Upper East Region of Ghana. Malar J. 2022;21:1–10.