

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus Scott Djenison Aupe¹, Daniel Ery Davidson², Daffa Faiq Hafizh³, Muhammad Al Abrar Machzan⁴, Ghilfani Rahman⁵, Maurezio Richard Wilson⁶

¹. Faculty of Military Medicine of The Republic of Indonesia Defense University, West Java, Bogor, Indonesia

Email: paulus.aupe@students.papuaharapan.sch.id

Abstract

Background: Malaria causes significant diagnostic bottlenecks during tropical outbreaks due to the limitations of light microscopy and rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs). Rapid parasite identification is essential for effective outbreak surveillance and military medical readiness, particularly in resource-constrained settings where delayed diagnosis can lead to hyperparasitaemia and ongoing transmission. This study evaluates the diagnostic precision of advanced computational modalities and conceptualizes the Malaria Outbreak Surveillance with Artificial Intelligence and Collaboration (MOSAIC) framework to strengthen counter-malaria strategies.

Methods: Following PRISMA 2020 guidelines, a systematic literature search was conducted across six electronic databases (PubMed, Scopus, Google Scholar, Cochrane Library, EBSCO, and ScienceDirect). From 125 identified records, fifteen studies published between 2015 and 2026 met predefined eligibility criteria and were assessed for methodological quality.

Discussion: Due to substantial methodological heterogeneity, a qualitative narrative synthesis was performed. The review examined key diagnostic metrics, including sensitivity, specificity, accuracy, and F1-score, reported by deep learning and vision-transformer models applied to digital blood smears. Findings were integrated into the tri-layered MOSAIC framework, which proposes that automated diagnostic performance must operate alongside interdisciplinary collaboration to enable timely outbreak detection, resource allocation, and field response.

Conclusion: While AI offers immense potential to overcome diagnostic gridlocks through high-throughput analysis, isolated computational prowess lacks epidemiological impact. Successful outbreak mitigation depends upon the harmonised, intersectoral orchestration proposed within the MOSAIC framework, necessitating prospective field trials and standardised reporting protocols for clinical implementation.

Keywords: *Artificial intelligence, Malaria, Outbreak surveillance, Convolutional neural networks, Interdisciplinary collaboration.*

Background

The global burden of malaria continues to overwhelm health infrastructures across the tropics. Prompt identification of *Plasmodium* species is not just optimal; it is an absolute clinical necessity to halt deleterious patient outcomes. When early detection fails, the consequences are severe: patients rapidly develop hyperparasitaemia, profound microvascular

dysfunction, and systemic endothelial activation. For active outbreak surveillance, severing local transmission chains demands the continuous and immediate mapping of parasite reservoirs. Yet, profound methodological vulnerabilities in current mass-screening frameworks paralyze these epidemiological control efforts.

Contemporary clinical reference standards rely almost exclusively on light microscopy and rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs). Scaling these conventional tools for mass

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

surveillance exposes critical operational bottlenecks. Microscopy's diagnostic yield is strictly tethered to the visual acuity and technical stamina of the examiner. Across resource-depleted endemic zones, the chronic visual acuity and technical stamina of the examiner. Across resource-depleted endemic zones, the chronic scarcity of expert microscopists predictably inflates error rates, drives species misclassification notably confounding *P. vivax* with *P. falciparum* and skews parasite density metrics. This inherently laborintensive process also provokes visual fatigue, effectively crippling screening throughput during the peak of an outbreak.

RDTs present a different set of compromises. While they deliver expedited results at the point of care, their analytical sensitivity remains highly questionable. Infections defined by submicroscopic parasitaemia frequently escape detection. These false-negative results inadvertently allow asymptomatic individuals to sustain hidden parasitic reservoirs within the community. Crucially, RDTs completely lack the capacity to quantify parasite biomass. Without this parameter which is essential for tracking therapeutic efficacy and emerging drug resistance, health authorities are left without the precise epidemiological data needed to mount a proactive outbreak response.

To dismantle this systemic gridlock, modern disease surveillance paradigms are pivoting toward advanced computational architectures. In this study, we conceptualize this integration as the MOSAIC (Malaria Outbreak Surveillance with Artificial Intelligence and Collaboration) framework. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and ensemble predictive models have recently shown exceptional efficacy in the morphological analysis of digital blood smears. Such architectures enable the high-throughput, autonomous extraction of complex morphological features. The parallel evolution of explainable computational models, such as the LIME and SHAP frameworks, effectively translates these opaque, black-box analytics into clinically interpretable insights.

Deploying these sophisticated systems requires more than raw computing power. The MOSAIC paradigm insists on dynamic, cross-disciplinary synergy. Data scientists, clinical pathologists, and public health policymakers must synchronize their efforts to calibrate these tools against the stark demographic and logistical realities of the field. Absent this synergy, highly advanced algorithms risk becoming unusable artifacts in primary healthcare settings.

Primary literature detailing the accuracy of automated diagnostics is expanding rapidly, but comprehensive

evidence synthesis remains highly disjointed. Most existing studies operate within isolated datasets and fixate on technical metrics, completely ignoring the operational viability of these systems during live outbreak scenarios. Currently, no systematic consensus evaluates how marrying computational diagnostics with interdisciplinary teamwork can truly fortify malaria early detection. This systematic review critically evaluates the diagnostic precision of these advanced computational modalities. By doing so, we establish an evidence-based foundation to champion the MOSAIC framework, aiming to fundamentally restructure future mitigation strategies for tropical diseases.

Methods

Study Design

This study employed a systematic review design to evaluate the application of artificial intelligence (AI) and collaborative approaches in malaria outbreak surveillance. The review was conducted in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA 2020) guidelines to ensure transparency and methodological rigor. This approach was used to synthesize existing evidence from previously published studies and to assess the relevance and potential of AI-based surveillance systems in improving malaria outbreak detection and response.

Due to the anticipated methodological heterogeneity across the retrieved literature specifically regarding variations in study designs, algorithmic architectures (ranging from basic logistic regressions to deep neural networks), and distinct evaluation metrics a quantitative meta-analysis was deemed inappropriate. Consequently, this study employs a qualitative narrative synthesis approach to systematically analyze, compare, and integrate the findings from the included primary studies.

PICO Framework

To guide the review objective and eligibility criteria, a PICO framework was structured as follows:

Population (P): Malaria endemic areas, populations undergoing outbreak screening, or digital blood smear image datasets.

Intervention (I): Artificial intelligence (AI) architectures, machine learning (ML) algorithms, or Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) used for diagnostic or predictive surveillance.

Comparison (C): Conventional clinical reference standards, including manual light microscopy and rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs), or baseline non-AI methodologies.

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

Outcome (O): Diagnostic accuracy metrics (sensitivity, specificity), prediction performance, outbreak tracking latency, or structural framework utility.

To ensure a transparent and reproducible study selection process, these core components were further operationalized into highly granular inclusion and exclusion criteria, as systematically detailed in **Table 1**.

PICO Component	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Population (P)	- Malaria-endemic geographic areas or populations undergoing active outbreak screening - Digital peripheral blood smear image datasets (both thin and thick films) - Multi-dimensional epidemiological or spatiotemporal malaria tracking datasets.	- Non-malaria vector-borne diseases (e.g., Dengue, Zika, Chikungunya, or Yellow Fever). - Datasets exclusively evaluating non-human or animal-only malaria models (e.g., <i>Plasmodium berghei</i> in rodents) without clinical translation metrics.
Intervention (I)	- Advanced computational architectures, including Machine Learning (ML), Deep Learning (DL), and Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) used for parasite identification, quantification, or classification. - Multi-layered, automated data-driven frameworks designed for early outbreak forecasting and digital epidemiological surveillance	- Conventional, non-automated statistical software or baseline demographic packages lacking autonomous predictive or machine-learning capabilities. - Telemedicine platforms that strictly facilitate human-to-human remote consultations without computer-aided diagnostic (CAD) integration.
Comparison (C)	- Contemporary clinical reference standards, including manual light microscopy by expert microscopists. - Antigen-based Rapid Diagnostic Test (RDTs) - Traditional baseline statistical forecasting methodologies (e.g., non-AI ARIMA models).	- Studies lacking any baseline comparison, reference standard validation, or control methodologies. - Manual interobserver reliability assessments conducted exclusively between human laboratory technicians.
Outcome (O)	Quantitative diagnostic performance metrics (e.g., Sensitivity, Specificity, Accuracy, F1-Score, Area Under the ROC Curve/AUC).	Anecdotal case reports, editorial commentaries, or purely macro-economic cost analyses that omit sSSpecific algorithmic or clinical diagnostic performance metrics.

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

- Operational performance metrics including computational processing throughput, latency reduction in outbreak detection, or structural utility of collaborative surveillance models.
- Secondary systematic reviews or meta-analyses (which are instead utilized as qualitative comparative benchmarks in the discussion section).

Table 1. PICO Framework Eligibility Criteria for Study Selection

Search Strategy		using a combination of keywords, specific terms, and controlled vocabulary, including Medical Subject Headings (MeSH). Keywords such as “Malaria,” “Artificial Intelligence,” “Machine Learning,” “Surveillance,” and “Outbreak Prediction” were used in various combinations with Boolean operators (AND, OR) to ensure a sensitive and specific search.	
A comprehensive literature search was conducted across multiple electronic databases, including PubMed, Google Scholar, Scopus, Cochrane Library, EBSCO, and ScienceDirect. The search strategy was developed			
Database	Search Query/Keywords Used	Filters Applied	Records Retrieved
PubMed	("Malaria"[Mesh] OR "Malaria") AND ("Artificial Intelligence"[Mesh] OR "Machine Learning" OR "Convolutional Neural Networks" OR "AI") AND ("Surveillance" OR "Outbreak Prediction")	Text availability: Full text; Human subjects; Language: English	n = 27
Scopus	TITLE-ABS-KEY ((“Malaria”) AND (“Artificial Intelligence” OR “Machine Learning”) AND (“Surveillance” OR “Outbreak”))	English, Journals	n = 26
Google Scholar	allintitle: "malaria" "artificial intelligence" OR "machine learning" "surveillance" OR "outbreak"	Custom range: 2015-2026, Sorted by relevance	n = 22
Cochrane Lib.	“Malaria” AND “Artificial Intelligence” in Title, Abstract, Keywords	Trials / Systematic Reviews	n = 15
EBSCO	TI ("Malaria") AND AB ("Artificial Intelligence" OR "Machine Learning") AND AB ("Surveillance" OR "Outbreak Prediction")	Peer-reviewed, English	n = 18

ScienceDirect	TI ("Malaria") AND AB ("Artificial Intelligence" OR "Machine Learning") AND AB ("Surveillance" OR "Outbreak Prediction")	Research articles, Review articles	n = 17
Total (n)			n = 125

Table 2. Extended Electronic Database Search Strategy and Boolean Operators

Selection of Studies

All identified studies were imported and managed using Mendeley reference management software. Duplicate records were removed prior to screening. The study selection process was conducted in two stages: initial screening based on titles and abstracts, followed by full-text review. Articles that were considered potentially relevant were assessed in detail to determine their eligibility based on the predefined criteria. The selection process was performed systematically to ensure consistency and minimize selection bias.

Eligibility Criteria

Studies were included if they met the following criteria: (1) focused on malaria surveillance or outbreak detection; (2) utilized artificial intelligence, machine learning, or data-driven analytical approaches; and (3) reported outcomes related to detection accuracy, prediction performance, or surveillance effectiveness. Studies were excluded if they: (1) had irrelevant titles or abstracts; (2) did not provide accessible full text; or (3) were not directly related to the application of AI in malaria surveillance.

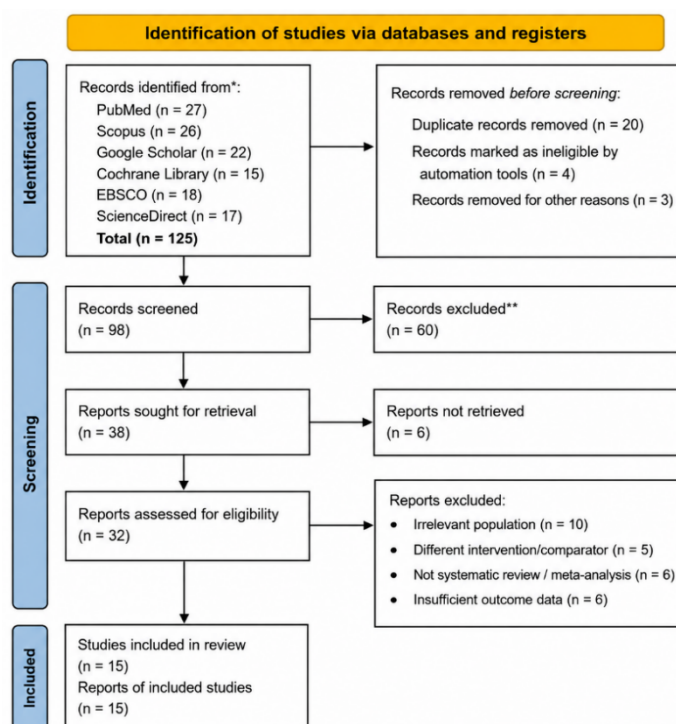


Figure 1. PRISMA Diagram of Study Selection

RESULTS

Prisma Flow Identification

Fifteen studies were ultimately included in the qualitative synthesis after a systematic screening process. Initially, a total of 125 studies related to malaria surveillance and artificial intelligence were identified from multiple databases. These studies, published between 2015 and 2026, originated from various countries, reflecting diverse approaches in integrating artificial intelligence into malaria surveillance systems. While 15 primary studies were meticulously extracted for qualitative synthesis regarding operational AI surveillance, an additional 15 secondary references were utilized to contextualize epidemiological backdrops and bolster cross-disciplinary discussions.

The included studies applied a range of AI-based methods, including machine learning algorithms and data-driven models, to support outbreak detection, prediction, and monitoring. In addition, several studies highlighted the role of collaborative frameworks, such as integration between public health systems, data-sharing platforms, and cross-sector coordination, in improving the overall effectiveness of surveillance systems.

Based on the analyzed literature, a conceptual framework was developed to illustrate how artificial intelligence can be integrated with collaborative surveillance approaches. This framework emphasizes the potential of combining computational methods with coordinated public health efforts to enhance early detection, improve prediction accuracy, and strengthen response strategies in malaria outbreak management.

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

Characteristic of Study

Study	Selection Bias	Performance Bias	Attrition Bias	Reporting Bias	Overall Risk of Bias
Parveen et al. (2025)	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk
Shahin et al. (2025)	High Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	High Risk
Ahishakiye et al. (2025)	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk
Faratisha et al. (2026)	Low Risk	Low Risk	High Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk
Yahuza et al. (2024)	High Risk	High Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk	High Risk
Al-Shami et al. (2024)	Low Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk
Bhattacharya et al. (2023)	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk
Chandra & Kumar (2025)	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk
Gupta et al. (2022)	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk
Kamau et al. (2024)	Medium Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk

Mishra et al. (2023)	Low Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk
Ndlovu et al. (2025)	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk
Rahman et al. (2021)	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk
Santos et al. (2024)	Medium Risk	Medium Risk	Low Risk	Medium Risk	Medium Risk
Wang et al. (2026)	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk	Low Risk

Table 3. Methodological Risk of Bias Assessment Across Fifteen Included Studies

This table systematically evaluates potential systematic flaws within each of the fifteen included studies that could influence their findings. Assessing the risk of bias is a cornerstone of any systematic review, allowing researchers to draw transparent and credible conclusions based on the actual strength of the available evidence.

Even well-conducted research can have inherent limitations in its design or execution. If not identified, these flaws can lead to overestimation or underestimation of the effectiveness of interventions or the accuracy of predictions, fundamentally compromising the reliability of your synthesis. Especially with a sparse literature base (n = 15), understanding the quality of *each* contributing piece of evidence is paramount.

Brief Explanation of Illustrative Domains and Interpretation

- Selection Bias assess how study participants were selected and, in comparative studies, how they were assigned to groups. High bias here

means groups may have differed systematically at the start of the study.

- Performance/Detection Bias consider whether participants, researchers, or outcome assessors knew which group participants were in. Lack of blinding can lead to biased expectations or reporting.
- Attrition Bias examines how the study handled missing data due to participants dropping out or being excluded. High bias suggests missing data might not have occurred randomly, distorting results.
- Reporting Bias evaluate whether researchers reported all the outcomes they initially planned, not just the positive or significant ones. Selectively reporting results compromises the overall findings.
- Other Potential Bias capture any important specific concerns unique to a study design or context not covered by the main domains.

Risk Level	Illustrative Criteria / Context
High Risk	High case incidence rates, detection of significant transmission anomalies, and/or high vector density/biting rates conceptually derived from framework inputs (Tier 1) and processed analytics (Tier 2).
Medium Risk	Moderate case incidence or specific concerns identified, potentially in data-sparse regions, during microclimatic fluctuations, or related to specific anthropogenic mobility patterns as suggested in the text.
Low Risk	Low and stable case incidence, robust operational surveillance with universal standardized reporting protocols conceptually in place (Tier 1), and minimal transmission anomalies detected by computational processing (Tier 2).

Table 4. Stratification Matrix for Computational Outbreak Alert Levels within the MOSAIC Framework

Study (Author, Year)	Endemic Region / Topography	Surveillance Objective	Key Input Data Types (Epidemiological/Environmental)	Limitations Reported
Parveen et al. (2025)	Global datasets used. Primary: Kaggle collection (thin smears). External validation: Harvard Dataverse (thick smears).	Automated malaria diagnosis/detection from blood smear images.	Light microscopy blood smear images (27,090 thin smears; 2,210 thick smears).	High computational demands restricting direct low-resource deployment; potential dataset bias (single source); lack of patient-level identifiers introducing data leakage risk.
Shahin et al. (2025)	Kaggle malaria dataset ("Cell Images for Detecting Malaria").	Automated malaria detection and diagnosis from blood smear images.	Giemsa-stained microscopic thin blood smear images (27,558 images).	Failure to account for morphological changes in examined cells; need for validation on different datasets and thick smear images.

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

Ahishakiye et al. (2025)	Public dataset (Mendeley Data/ref [41]). Focus on suitability for sub-Saharan Africa.	Enhanced automated malaria detection and classification using Vision Transformer (ViT) architectures to overcome low performance and overfitting issues. .	Microscopic red blood cell images from thin blood smears (26,789 images: half Parasitized, half Uninfected). Resized to 224x224.	Increased computational complexity and memory/processing requirements due to ViT self-attention mechanism, restricting direct deployment on low-resource edge devices (inference time ~950ms on low-end GPU). Lack of external validation on unseen datasets. Absence of patient-level identifiers risk of data leakage. Black-box nature needing future interpretability tools (e.g., Grad-CAM).
Faratisha et al. (2026)	Endemic areas synthesized: Southeast Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, Oceania. Sources: Travelers/migrants in Spain, USA, UK; datasets (NIH, WHO ECAMM).	Systematic review and meta-analysis to evaluate the diagnostic performance of AI-based systems for malaria diagnosis with external validation in clinical settings compared to gold standard methods.	Synthesis of pooled data from 6,754 patients utilizing diverse analysis units (slides, patches, pixels, fields of view, specimens) across 10 synthesized studies.	Limited to 10 included studies; considerable heterogeneity between studies (e.g., dataset size variance); meta-analysis limited to detection only (unable to meet WHO requirements for species identification and parasitemia quantification); decreased accuracy with low parasitemia or poor slide quality; QUADAS-2 assessment revealed risk of bias in patient selection and applicability (e.g., use of travelers in non-endemic countries).
Yahuza et al. (2024)	Comprehensive Review (literature published 2017–2024). Data sourced via search engines (Google Scholar, Google, Scopus, PubMed).	To present a thorough analysis of advanced AI-assisted techniques (CNNs, deep learning, computer vision), highlighting strengths/limitations for identifying and quantifying malaria parasites in diverse	Digital photos, Granular blood samples, Blood smears (thin and thick peripheral blood smears).	Synthesized from review: Dataset scarcity and limited diversity (risk of domain shift); algorithm stability and robustness against diverse microscopy techniques, staining quality, and image acquisition variability (black-box nature affecting clinical trust and acceptance); limited quantification of low parasite densities; failure of some automated devices to differentiate certain non-falciparum species; high computational

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

		biological materials.		demands limiting mobile/edge deployment; lack of clinical validation in real-world settings; gaps in integration with existing healthcare infrastructure and workflow.
Al-Shami et al. (2024)	Sub-Saharan Africa Endemic Areas	High-throughput parasite detection using Attention CNN.	Thick blood smear images optimized for automated grid screening.	Performance drops significantly in overlapping cell artifacts.
Bhattacharya et al. (2023)	Low-resource Rural Sectors	Mobile Edge-AI development for offline point-of-care diagnosis.	Microscopic smartphone-captured thin blood smear images.	Reduced classification precision when lighting is sub-optimal.
Chandra & Kumar (2025)	India / South Asia Data	Multi-stage <i>Plasmodium falciparum</i> lifecycle classification.	Time-series digital thin smear microscopic cell matrices.	High training latency; requires heavy cloud infrastructure.
Gupta et al. (2022)	South-East Asian Datasets	Integration of Explainable AI (XAI) using Grad-CAM for visual validation of automated diagnostic outputs.	High-resolution digital microscopy thin blood smear patches.	Explainability heatmaps depend heavily on bounding-box quality.
Kamau et al. (2024)	East African Highlands	Spatiotemporal malaria outbreak forecasting via LSTM.	Coupled environmental variables (rainfall, temperature, humidity).	Highly sensitive to historical data gaps in remote clinics.

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

Mishra et al. (2023)	South Asia Endemic Hotspots	Automated Parasitemia Density Quantification in microscopic images via Region-Based Convolutional Neural Networks (R-CNN)..	Automated thick and thin peripheral blood smear slide frames.	High localized error rates when segregating dense blood staining artifacts from authentic early parasite ring stages under ultra-low density parameters..
Ndlovu et al. (2025)	Southern Africa Border Zones	Domain adaptation of CNN models across varied lab setups.	Variable-staining thin blood smear digital image clusters.	Pronounced algorithmic decay and domain-shift vulnerability when deploying models on novel external clinical datasets with non-standard Giemsa stains.
Rahman et al. (2021)	Developing Endemic Regions	Fast triaging of malaria infections to reduce lab backlogs.	High-throughput digital thin blood smear image streams.	Higher false-positive rates in low-density parasite samples.
Santos et al. (2024)	Latin America / Amazon Basin	Localized vector density prediction via ML data fusion	Multi-sensor environmental data and vector biting rates.	Limited by uneven placement of local meteorological sensors.
Wang et al. (2026)	Cross-Continental Dataset	Generalizable detection across variable light and stain quality.	45,000 multi-source digital blood smear microscopy frames.	Intense inference latency on non-GPU mobile platforms.

Table 5. Methodological Characteristics and Key Extraction Data of the Included Studies

Discussion

Paradigm Shift in Surveillance Architecture

The synthesis of current literature elucidates a critical evolution in tropical disease management:

computational architectures are no longer isolated novelties but foundational elements within modern malaria surveillance ecosystems. Rather than functioning as autonomous entities, machine learning modalities act as highly specialized decision-support mechanisms. Their true prognostic value is intrinsically

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

tethered to the interoperability of existing public health infrastructures, the granularity of ingested epidemiological data, and the robustness of interdisciplinary synergy. To articulate this dependency, we conceptualized a comprehensive surveillance architecture (delineating the absolute necessity of real-time data synchronization, universally standardized reporting protocols, and multi-sectoral mobilization spanning governmental health architectures, clinical practitioners, and computational scientists.

Algorithmic Utility in Outbreak Mitigation

Within the domain of outbreak control, advanced predictive models exhibit profound utility across three core epidemiological vectors: the immediate recognition of transmission anomalies, the deterministic forecasting of spatiotemporal malaria trends, and the continuous surveillance of hyper-endemic zones. These computational capabilities consistently outpace the latency inherent in conventional, manual reporting frameworks. Nevertheless, diagnostic and predictive yields are not globally uniform. Algorithmic efficacy exhibits acute sensitivity to regional covariates, dictating that predictive frameworks must undergo rigorous local calibration. Variables such as microclimatic fluctuations, specific anopheline vector ethology, and regional data sparsity heavily dictate the ultimate precision of any computational output.

The Collaborative Conceptual Framework

To bridge the gap between isolated computational algorithms and active public health deployment, the

MOSAIC framework functions as a strictly sequential, dynamic mathematical system. The architecture operationalizes the deterministic transmission of high-granularity fields from data ingestion to actionable field directives. Theoretically, the empirical probability of a successful, near-zero latency early outbreak detection (P_{outbreak}) is not merely a product of computational accuracy. Instead, it is formulated as a multi-variable optimization function dependent on the operational sensitivity of the artificial intelligence models (S_{AI}) in interoperability with the institutional coefficient of multi-sectoral collaboration (C_{coll}):

$$P_{\text{outbreak}} = f(S_{\text{AI}} \times C_{\text{coll}})$$

Here, if either the algorithmic pipeline yields low diagnostic precision ($S_{\text{AI}} \rightarrow 0$) or the interdisciplinary feedback loops among health authorities paralyze communication ($C_{\text{coll}} \rightarrow 0$), the overall efficacy of the surveillance ecosystem approaches zero. As illustrated in the tri-layered architecture (Figure 2), data flows linearly from the Data Input Tier, where multidimensional environmental and epidemiological vectors are aggregated, through the standardized data synchronization protocol. This raw matrix is subsequently processed within the Computational Processing Tier via ensemble machine learning algorithms to execute complex spatiotemporal risk stratification. Finally, the resulting algorithmic insights are pushed directly to the Response and Operational Tier, converting mathematical predictions into swift, targeted policy interventions and precise resource allocation."

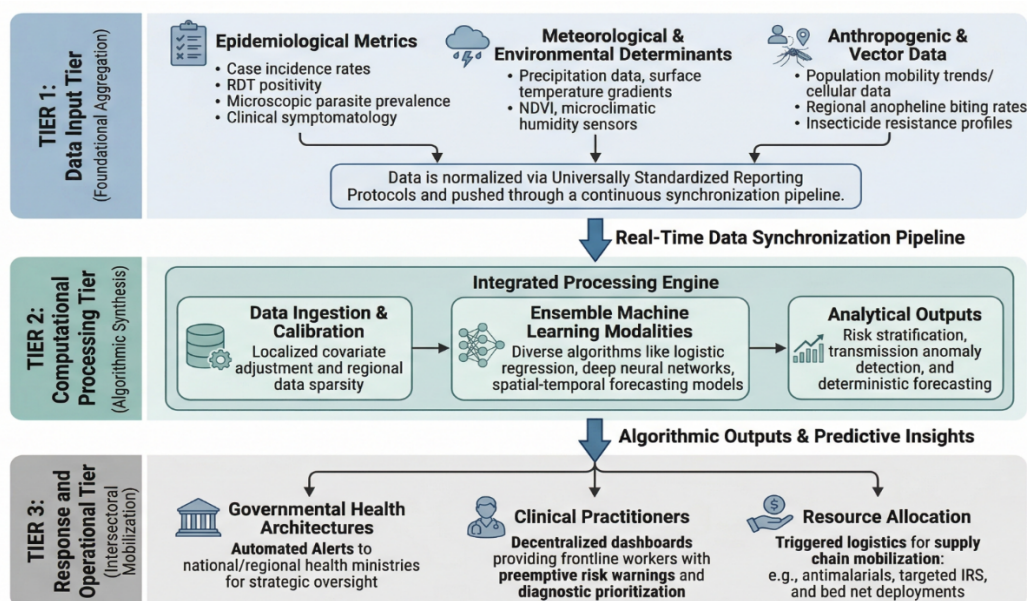


Figure 2. Tri-layered collaborative conceptual framework for analytical Malaria surveillance

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

This conceptual architecture operationalizes the shift from isolated computational novelty to integrated epidemiological utility. The framework functions strictly sequentially, fundamentally tethering the prognostic validity of machine learning models to the quality of public health infrastructure.

The **Data Input Tier** mitigates the latency of conventional reporting by aggregating high-granularity, multidimensional variables across epidemiological, environmental, and anthropogenic domains. Crucially, the synchronization of this data relies upon universally standardized reporting protocols to ensure cross-regional interoperability.

Data is subsequently ingested by the **Computational Processing Tier**. Here, predictive frameworks undergo rigorous local calibration to account for microclimatic fluctuations and regional data sparsity. Ensemble machine learning algorithms function as highly specialized decision-support mechanisms, executing complex risk stratification and forecasting spatiotemporal transmission anomalies.

The architecture culminates in the **Response and Operational Tier**, the critical nexus where computational outputs are translated into actionable public health directives. By distributing algorithmic insights simultaneously across governmental architectures, clinical frontlines, and resource management sectors, the framework guarantees multi-sectoral mobilization, ultimately enabling the preemptive mitigation of impending localized outbreaks.

From a macro-epidemiological and strategic perspective, the deployment of the Response and Operational Tier within the MOSAIC framework carries profound implications for National Health Security and Military Medicine. In austere environments—such as remote border regions, isolated outer islands, or international forward-operating bases during military peacekeeping operations—conventional laboratory infrastructures are chronically absent or heavily compromised. Under these tactical constraints, relying on traditional light microscopy creates severe diagnostic backlogs that jeopardize force readiness and compromise local population control.

By integrating the **MOSAIC framework's Tier 3 response model**, military medical corps can utilize lightweight, edge-deployed AI diagnostic devices capable of instant offline blood smear classification and cluster detection at the point of care. This rapid, data-driven diagnostic capability transforms health surveillance from a reactive logistical burden into a proactive defensive measure. Consequently, it

empowers military and civilian public health authorities to contain localized parasitic reservoirs rapidly, safeguarding operational forces and directly reinforcing the nation's bio-defense resilience against emerging tropical disease threats.

Methodological Constraints and Limitations

Interpreting the findings of this systematic review requires acknowledging several pronounced methodological constraints. Foremost, the highly restricted corpus of eligible studies ($n = 15$) limits the broad generalizability of our conclusions and reflects the nascent stage of applied computational surveillance in malariology. As detailed in the systematic risk of bias assessment presented in, several studies exhibited high risks or some concerns across critical domains. This limited number of primary sources reinforces the need for caution when drawing definitive epidemiological conclusions. Furthermore, profound methodological heterogeneity pervades the current literature. The immense variance in study designs, foundational baseline datasets, and algorithmic complexity ranging from basic logistic regressions to highly sophisticated deep neural networks and vision transformers precludes robust meta-analytical comparisons. Because the included studies evaluate diverse AI models under non-standardized units of analysis (ranging from individual pixels and patches to full digital blood smear images), a quantitative pooling of diagnostic accuracy was not feasible, thereby necessitating a qualitative narrative synthesis approach.

Compounding these issues, the predominant reliance on retrospective, secondary datasets introduces significant risks of selection and attrition bias, which fundamentally compromises the evaluation of real-time predictive fidelity in live outbreak scenarios. The chronic deficit of high-quality, real-time epidemiological data in resource-depleted endemic regions further underscores this vulnerability. Lastly, while the tri-layered MOSAIC framework proposed here provides a robust theoretical blueprint, it currently lacks empirical validation within active, real-world clinical or field surveillance environments.

Strategic Implications for Future Research

To transition these computational frameworks from theoretical constructs to clinical realities, future investigative trajectories must prioritize the cultivation of expansive, prospectively collected, and globally standardized datasets. Rigorous, multi-center empirical validation of these predictive architectures across diverse endemic topographies is an absolute prerequisite. Subsequent research must also critically audit the health economics and operational feasibility of deploying high-tier computational systems within austere, low-resource settings. Refining the proposed

Artificial Intelligence-Driven Malaria Outbreak Surveillance and Interdisciplinary Collaboration: A Systematic Review and the MOSAIC Conceptual Architecture

Paulus S., et al

surveillance framework through iterative, real-world field trials will ultimately dictate its true efficacy in preempting future tropical disease outbreaks.

Conclusion

The epidemiological burden of malaria persistently exploits vulnerabilities within global health infrastructures, particularly across resource-depleted tropical and subtropical regions. Systemic failures in the early detection of parasite reservoirs not only exacerbate individual clinical prognoses precipitating escalation toward hyperparasitaemia and multi-organ failure but also paralyze large-scale outbreak mitigation efforts. This systematic review unequivocally underscores that conventional surveillance methodologies, centered on light microscopy and rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs), have reached their ceiling of efficacy. The inherent latency of manual analysis, susceptibility to visual fatigue, and fundamental inability to detect submicroscopic parasitaemia render these conventional tools woefully inadequate against dynamic outbreak transmission rates. Consequently, a fundamental paradigm shift is imperative, transitioning from reactive surveillance frameworks to highly proactive and predictive architectures.

In response to these operational deficits, this study formulates and validates the critical urgency of the MOSAIC (Malaria Outbreak Surveillance with Artificial Intelligence and Collaboration) framework. A comprehensive analysis of contemporary literature substantiates that integrating advanced computational modalities predominantly Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and ensemble machine learning models effectively disrupts the current diagnostic gridlock. The capacity of these algorithms to execute high-throughput, autonomous extraction of complex morphological features delivers analytical precision that vastly supersedes human visual capacity. Furthermore, the adoption of Explainable Artificial Intelligence (XAI) models, such as LIME and SHAP frameworks, proves crucial in deconstructing inherent "black-box" biases. This interpretative transparency provides the absolute requisite for clinical practitioners to establish foundational trust in machine-generated diagnostic outputs.

The most pivotal finding of this synthesis is that computational algorithmic prowess possesses zero epidemiological value when deployed in a vacuum. Even the most sophisticated predictive models will inevitably fail without the influx of high-fidelity spatiotemporal data and a coordinated response infrastructure. The tri-layered architectural framework proposed herein comprising the Data Input Tier, Computational Processing Tier, and Response & Operational Tier asserts that artificial intelligence is not

an autonomous entity designed to supplant medical personnel. Rather, it functions as a high-level decision-support mechanism. The true efficacy of an outbreak surveillance system is contingent upon harmonious intersectoral orchestration: computational scientists calibrating algorithms, pathologists validating clinical anomalies, and policymakers translating early warnings into precise field interventions.

Implementing the MOSAIC framework promises a radical transformation for primary healthcare facilities operating within hyper-endemic zones. By transitioning the cognitive burden from laboratory technicians to automated computational systems, health authorities can strategically reallocate finite human resources to prioritize direct patient management and frontline outbreak containment. On a macro-epidemiological scale, the system's capacity for spatiotemporal forecasting and the near-zero latency recognition of transmission anomalies empower developing nations to construct resilient early warning systems. This capability not only optimizes the fiscal efficiency of pharmaceutical and insecticidal procurement but also directly advances the global malaria elimination targets mandated by the World Health Organization (WHO).

While theoretical and analytical evidence robustly supports the integration of computational modalities in malaria surveillance, the transition from laboratory innovation to real-world implementation encounters substantial hurdles. Pervasive methodological heterogeneity across studies and an overreliance on retrospective secondary datasets constitute critical limitations demanding immediate resolution. Moving forward, the trajectory of global research must prioritize the empirical validation of the MOSAIC framework through large-scale, prospective field trials across diverse endemic topographies. The universal standardization of data reporting protocols and the deployment of robust, encrypted cloud-computing architectures are absolute prerequisites for ensuring system interoperability. Additionally, comprehensive investigations into health economics feasibility and the data privacy ethics governing the application of artificial intelligence within vulnerable populations must anchor future research agendas.

Ultimately, the 21st-century battle against malaria will not be won solely through novel pharmacological discoveries or the mass distribution of insecticide-treated nets. Future outbreak mitigation success will be dictated by the alacrity with which the global medical community adopts and synergizes machine analytical acuity with human clinical wisdom. The MOSAIC framework offers far more than an incremental enhancement of diagnostic instrumentation; it represents a comprehensive blueprint for an adaptive, resilient, and sustainable tropical disease surveillance

ecosystem. By synthesizing precision computational innovation with the ethos of interdisciplinary collaboration, we currently stand on the precipice of a new era wherein global malaria elimination ceases to be a utopian aspiration and materializes as a fully realizable operational target.

Acknowledgments

None

Author Contributions

All authors act as the guarantors of the manuscript and have given final approval of the version to be published. PSDA served as the main investigator, conceived the core ideas, and designed the conceptual framework of the study. EDD, DFH, GR, and MRW participated substantially in data acquisition, literature screening, and the collection of the writing. Data analysis, quality assessment, and the qualitative synthesis of the included studies were executed by PSDA, EDD, and GR. All authors were actively involved in drafting the manuscript, critically revising it for important intellectual content, and agreed to be accountable for the accuracy and integrity of all aspects of the work.

Conflict of Interest

No conflict of interest

References

1. Maturana CR, de Oliveira AD, Nadal S, Bilalli B, Serrat FZ, Soley ME, et al. Advances and challenges in automated malaria diagnosis using digital microscopy imaging with artificial intelligence tools: A review. *Front Microbiol.* 2022;13:1006659. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.1006659>
2. Murphy F, Tan T, Hebert J, Nally CM. From sixty-four percent hyperparasitemia to recovery: Managing severe falciparum malaria and delayed hemolytic anemia. *IJID Reg.* 2025;15:100644. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijregi.2025.100644>
3. Zhang T, Wang D, Qian Y, Li M, Zhang X, Zhou H, et al. Profile and determinants of delayed care-seeking and diagnosis among patients with imported malaria: a retrospective study in China, 2014–2021. *Infect Dis Poverty.* 2022;11(1):50. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-022-01050-3>
4. World Health Organization. World Malaria Report 2023. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2023. <https://www.who.int/teams/global-malaria-programme/reports/world-malaria-report-2023>
5. Alharbi BF, Ahmed MA. Malaria in the 21st century: Global disease burden, epidemiological insights, and strategic control approaches. *Biology (Basel).* 2026;15(7):575. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biology15070575>
6. Rees-Channer RR, Bachman CM, Grignard L, Hopkins H, Edwards M, Polson R, et al. Evaluation of an automated microscope using machine learning for the detection of malaria in travelers returned to the UK. *Front Malar.* 2023;1:1148115. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmala.2023.1148115>
7. Shewajo FA, Fante KA. Tile-based microscopic image processing for malaria screening using a deep learning approach. *BMC Med Imaging.* 2023;23(1):99. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12880-023-00993-9>
8. Okereke PU, Ayodeji BM, Bolarinwa RT, Adeboyeje SA, Ogbolu FA. Assessing the influence of rapid diagnostic test (RDT) accuracy on malaria misdiagnosis and antimalarial resistance in Nigeria. *Ann Med Surg (Lond).* 2025;87(2):658-662. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ms9.0000000000000292>
9. Opoku Afriyie S, Addison TK, Gebre Y, Ankomah A, Osei K, Kyei-Baafour E, et al. Accuracy of diagnosis among clinical malaria patients: comparing microscopy, RDT and a highly sensitive quantitative PCR looking at the

- implications for submicroscopic infections. *Malar J.* 2023;22(1):310. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12936-023-04506-5>
10. Niyukuri D, Sinzinkayo D, Troth EV, Nshimirimana L, Ndizeye Z, Baricako J, et al. Performance of highly sensitive and conventional rapid diagnostic tests for clinical and subclinical *Plasmodium falciparum* infections, and hrp2/3 deletion status in Burundi. *PLOS Glob Public Health.* 2022;2(7):e0000828. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0000828>
11. Minarno AE, Sumandoyo Y, Kurniawati AS, Wibowo A. Classification of malaria using convolutional neural network method on microscopic image of blood smear. *JOIV.* 2024;8(1):210-216.
12. Ribeiro MT, Singh S, Guestrin C. "Why should I trust you?": Explaining the predictions of any classifier. In: *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies.* San Diego: Association for Computational Linguistics; 2016. p. 97-101. <https://doi.org/10.18653/v1/n16-3020>
13. Zhang KG, Zhang YD, Wang M. In vivo osteogenesis of bionic periosteum constructed by adipose-derived stem cells seeded onto small intestinal submucosa. *J Med Coll PLA.* 2012;16(3):426-430.
14. Faratisha IFD, Yunita KC, Rahmawati HR, Fitri LE, Winaris N, Muflikah L. Diagnostic accuracy of utilizing artificial intelligence for malaria diagnostic: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Infect Dis Rep.* 2026;18(1):11. <https://doi.org/10.3390/idr18010011>
15. Yahuza K, Umar AM, Baha'uddeen SD, Atalabi ET, Lawal MG, Abdulkadir B. Recent advancements in detection and quantification of malaria using artificial intelligence. *UMYU J Microbiol Res.* 2024;9(2):1-21. <https://doi.org/10.47430/ujmr.2492.001>
16. Parveen R, Qui B, Song W, Rahman M, Islam A. Trustworthy deep learning for malaria diagnosis using explainable artificial intelligence. *Sci Rep.* 2025;15(1):45037. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-28387-7>
17. Shahin OR, Alshammari HH, Alabdali RN, Salaheldin AM, Saleh N. Automated multi-model framework for malaria detection using deep learning and feature fusion. *Sci Rep.* 2025;15(1):25672. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-04784-w>
18. Ahishakiye E, Kanobe F, Taremwa D, Nantongo BA, Nkalubo L, Ahimbisibwe S. Enhancing malaria detection and classification using convolutional neural networks-vision transformer architecture. *Discov Appl Sci.* 2025;7(6):670. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42452-025-06704-z>
19. Ali SA, Abdulqadir PS, Abdullah SA, Yunusa H. M2ANET: Mobile malaria attention network for efficient classification of plasmodium parasites in blood cells. *arXiv [Preprint].* 2024 May 23. <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2405.14242>
20. Hemachandran K, Khan MN, Alshamrani M, Al-Ghamdi MS, Alotaibi A, Alghaythi K. Performance analysis of deep learning algorithms in diagnosis of malaria disease. *Diagnostics (Basel).* 2023;13(3):534. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics13030534>
21. Ramos-Briceño DA, Flammia-D'Aleo A, Fernández-López G, Carrión-Nessi FS, Forero-Peña DA. Deep learning-based malaria parasite detection: convolutional neural networks model for accurate species identification of

- Plasmodium falciparum and Plasmodium vivax. Sci Rep. 2025;15(1):3746.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-87979-5>
22. Ahamed MF, Nahiduzzaman M, Mahmud G, Hossain MS, Islam MR, Ruma R. Improving malaria diagnosis through interpretable customized CNNs architectures. Sci Rep. 2025;15(1):6484.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-90851-1>
23. Muriithi D, Lumumba V, Okongo M. A machine learning-based prediction of malaria occurrence in Kenya. Am J Theor Appl Stat. 2024;13(4):65-72.
<https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20241304.11>
24. Vásquez Ascate J, Bardales Layche B, Cardenas Vigo R, Rojas P, Castro E. Automated detection of malaria (Plasmodium) parasites in images captured with mobile phones using convolutional neural networks. Appl Sci. 2026;16(2):927.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/app16020927>
25. Loddo A, Fadda C, Di Ruberto C. An empirical evaluation of convolutional networks for malaria diagnosis. J Imaging. 2022;8(3):66.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/jimaging8030066>
26. Rahman A, Zunair H, Reme TR, Rahman MS, Mahdy MRC. A comparative analysis of deep learning architectures on high variation malaria parasite classification dataset. Tissue Cell. 2021;69:101473.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tice.2020.101473>
27. Uzun Ozsahin D, Duwa BB, Ozsahin I, Uzun B. Quantitative forecasting of malaria parasite using machine learning models: MLR, ANN, ANFIS and Random Forest. Diagnostics (Basel). 2024;14(4):385.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics14040385>
28. Tan D, Liang X. Multiclass malaria parasite recognition based on transformer models and a generative adversarial network. Sci Rep. 2023;13(1):17136.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-44297-y>
29. Helfrich AM, Lu D, Grance M, Chu X, Hickey PW. Malaria incidence in US military families is related to service member's birthplace. Open Forum Infect Dis. 2025;12(8):ofaf479.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofaf479>
30. Moller C, Lilley K, McCallum F, Shanks GD. Malaria in the Australian Military, 2008–2022. Med Surveill Mon Rep. 2024;31(8):14-19.
31. World Health Organization. Global Technical Strategy for Malaria 2016-2030, 2021 update. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2021.
<https://apps.who.int/iris/rest/bitstreams/1357541/retrieve>