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Human Sustainability and Vector-Born Disease Control

Dr. T. P. Sagar

Department of Zoology P. M. College of Excellence Govt. P. G. College Seoni (M. P.), India

Abstract: ***Human sustainability has got a close connection with proper management of the diseases that are transmitted by vectors as these diseases rank among the biggest health problems around the world, with over 700, 000 people dying annually. This research paper discusses a One Health and sustainability approach to intervention strategies and environmental aspects of controlling the spread of the disease spread by vectors. This was a mixed-method approach that involved examining the coverage of interventions (e. g., insecticide-treated nets (ITNs) and indoor residual spraying (IRS)) against disease incidence and analysis of environmental factors (e. g., climate and land use). Findings have shown that when decent coverage of proven interventions, such as ITNs and IRS, is high, the burden of disease is considerably reduced, whereas climate variability and anthropogenic environmental changes have a significant impact on the ecology of vectors and transmission of diseases. An example is that chronic IRS resulted in an approximate of 85 percent malaria case count reduction, and moderate rainfall raised the risk of dengue until severe rain reduced insect breeding. These results highlight the importance of combined environmentally friendly policies. We find that human sustainability in endemic areas can be obtained by enhancing the multi-sectoral interventions, community involvement, and environmental control to provide long-term and sustainable control of the vector-borne diseases.***

Keywords: Human Sustainability; Vector-Borne Diseases; Integrated Vector Management (IVM); One Health Approach; Climate Change; Environmental Factors; Intervention Strategies; Dengue; Malaria; Public Health Policy

1. Introduction

Vector-borne diseases (VBDs) are malaria, dengue, Zika, chikungunya, leishmaniasis and Chagas disease, which are a major threat to human health and sustainable development. They impact low- and middle-income groups disproportionately and may prevent economic productivity and social well-being [4] [5]. As an example, there were 299 million cases and 409, 000 deaths of malaria and sub-Saharan Africa contributes to the majority of the burden, estimated to be approximately 85% of the malaria infection in 2019 [6]. In addition to health consequences, VBDs impede livelihoods-ill farmers are unable to work in fields and this keeps crop production and income systems low [4]. Control of such diseases is thus not just a public health necessity but also a human sustainability requirement, which is the capacity of communities to remain healthy, economically productive and in good health in the long run. Nonetheless, the conventional one-way control methods are associated with the following challenges low insecticide resistance, adaptive behavior of the vectors, and resource limitation. The World Health Organization proposes Integrated Vector Management (IVM) to equipment resources to the maximum and have more ecologically sustainable control measures [7]. IVM integrates interventions (e. g. ITNs, IRS, larval source management) and focuses on cross-sector cooperation and evidence-based decision-making to remain effective in the long-term [7]. In addition, the One Health concept-the interdependence between the health of animals, humans, and ecosystems-has taken center stage because in most VBDs, there is an animal reservoir and the environment. The One Health and IVM approaches have to be implemented to deal with the complex cycle of transmission in humans, vectors (usually animals or zoonotic hosts), and shifting environmental circumstances [8]. This paper shows that sustainable human development can be enhanced through efficient VBD control in two different dimensions: (1) Intervention measures (such as tools of the vector control and community-based measures) and (2) Environmental issues (such as climate variability and land-use alterations). Through the analysis of the recent examples and statistics, we will determine the best practices and challenges contributing to the fact that the efforts of controlling the VBD are themselves sustainable and contribute to greater human well-being.

2. Review of Literature

An increasing amount of literature points at the strengths and weaknesses of the existing VBD control measures, as well as the significant role of environmental factors. Intervention Strategies: ITNs and IRS scale-up have resulted in significant morbidity and mortality reductions in the past decades of malaria control [9]. ITNs have been widely considered to be one of the most cost effective intervention, which can prevent more than half of the malaria cases and child mortality, which can be reduced by approximately 27% in high transmission regions [10]. During 2000-2015, there was an increase in the share of at-risk African populations sleeping under ITNs by more than fivefold, with global campaigns on this matter reducing the proportion of malaria incidences and malaria deaths by 18% and 48% respectively [11]. Nations have gained a lot, such as a nationwide free distribution of bednets in the Democratic Republic of Congo has resulted in 41% less all-cause childhood deaths in high-malaria areas [12]. IRS has also been shown to be effective: in Uganda, a study discovered that the cessation of IRS led to a five-fold increase in malaria cases whereas the reintroduction of IRS led to a greater than five-fold decline in cases within 8 months, which eventually led to an approximate eighty-five percent reduction in incidence after four years of continuous spraying [2]. These data show that it is important that the interventions coverage is high-gaps can quickly turn back progress. Meanwhile, excessive dependence on the use of chemicals causes the concern of insecticide resistance and environmental effects. The pyrethroid-based insecticides that are the most commonly used insecticides in nets are developing resistance and new approaches are being developed, including nets that have been treated with synergists or new classes of insecticides [13]. New technology is being explored: e. g., Wolbachia bacteria which have been introduced in Aedes mosquitoes have proved to be extremely effective in minimizing dengue. An Indonesian randomized trial showed a reduction of 77% in virologically-confirmed cases of dengue and 86 percent in hospitalizations in Wolbachia-treated places [14]. On the same note, biological control and genetic options (e. g. sterile mosquitoes or gene-drive mosquitoes) are being considered as viable and sustainable alternatives, potentially decreasing the use of standard insecticides. The other promising direction is the community involvement and environmental management. Pellecer Rivera et al. (2023) report on a Guatemalan participatory Chagas control intervention that included housing and rodent control and management of chicken coops; this program provided an integrated intervention that addressed the underlying ecological risk factors and led to a lasting reduction in Triatoma infestation (up to nine-fold in certain communities) [15] [16]. These examples add to the statement that a combination of social, environmental, and health interventions can improve the adoption and sustainability of control measures [17] [18]. Environmental Factors: Environmental dynamics have a significant impact on VBD dynamics due to the human-driven changes. The effect on the vectors life cycles and the pathogen transmission rate is a direct one on climate variability. Increased temperatures tend to hasten the breeding and replication of mosquitoes, to species-specific extents. In Lao PDR, weekly mean temperature of 29 deg C, was linked to a relative risk of incidence of dengue of nearly 4.2 times that of 24 deg C [3]. Rainfall is nonlinear: light rainfall may enhance the breeding areas of mosquitoes (stagnant water), but severe rains may carry away larvae. A national study in the Lao PDR found that the largest dengue risk increased with the weekly rainfall (relative risk 1.76 vs. none), with the maximum risk at rainfall above 200 mm since breeding habitats were likely likely to be flooded out [3]. Such data are consistent with the trends observed in other countries-both floods and droughts can change the transmission of various diseases [19] [20]. An example of how heavy rainfall can cause malaria or dengue outbreaks is through the increase in aquatic habitats [19], but droughts have also been associated with West Nile virus outbreaks by altering the interactions between birds and mosquitos [21]. Along with climate, land use and urbanization are some of the major contributors to the emergence of VBDs. Deforestation and agricultural growth may cause human beings to be in closer contact with vectors or animal reservoirs, as well as altering the local temperature and humidity. Deforestation has also been linked to the re-emergence of malaria in the areas because of the formation of sunlit pools where the mosquito breed [22] [23]. Similarly, agricultural irrigation (e. g. rice paddies) will offer optimal habitats to Anopheles mosquitoes, which may raise the risk of malaria or Japanese encephalitis should it not be controlled [23] [24]. Urbanization also encourages container-breeding Aedes mosquitoes; indeed, a recent international survey identified a definite threshold of human population density and built environments in disease patterns: the higher the human population density and built environments, the more diseases such as dengue, chikungunya and Zika increase at the expense of malaria and leishmaniasis which are prevalent in less disturbed, rural ecosystems [25]. Skinner et al. (2023) indicated that the existence of urban VBDs is strongly correlated with areas with high human footprint index, whereas malaria is linked with reduced human disturbance, which means that the spontaneous urban growth may result in sudden changes in the societal health requirements [26]. Climate change also makes these problems worse because it increases the appropriate geography of vectors. Modelling simulation predicts that the increase in temperature will increase the geographic range over which the Aedes mosquitoes can live, exposing new populations to the dengue and other arboviruses in the next decades [27]. The literature, in general, indicates that long-term control of VBDs should involve the inclusion of environmental aspects-such as climate adaptation, environmental management (such as eradicating breeding sites and enhancing water storage) and land-use planning as part of the conventional public health approaches [14] [28]. The sustainable management involves a multi-disciplinary approach that is holistic and requires environment, urban planning, and community development sectors to be involved together with health agencies [28].

3. Material and Methods

The research design applied in this study is a mixed-method research that incorporates the quantitative analysis of data and qualitative review of the intervention case studies. The primary objective of our study was (a) Secondly, to assess two parameters of the disease outcomes in terms of intervention coverage-ITN ownership/use and IRS implementation-versus malaria incidence, and (b) Environmental metrics-rain patterns in particular-versus dengue incidence by reviewing published epidemiological data. The information came on the basis of recent peer-reviewed publications and reports on the state of the global health. In one instance, data on malaria incidence and the coverage of interventions in Uganda and DRC served as the measure of the effect of long-term IRS implementation and mass ITN distribution on the trends in malaria [2] [12]. Equally, weekly climatological data (rainfall, temperature) and dengue cases counts in Lao PDR were examined to clarify the association between climate and diseases [3]. We compared and tabulated pre- and post-intervention indicators and determined relative changes (percentage or rate ratios) to measure the effects of interventions. Simultaneously, we performed the literature-supported case analysis of the community-based integrated interventions (the Guatemalan Chagas control program and Wolbachia deployment in Indonesia) to qualitatively evaluate the impact factors affecting the adoption and maintenance [15] [14]. The qualitative element also comprised the review of policy and strategy reports (e. g., the WHO Global Vector Control Response framework and One Health framework) to put the approach to multi-sectoral collaboration and environmental management into its national agenda [7] [8]. The methodology enables a thorough comprehension of intervention performance in the real-life context and the environmental effects on the outcomes by triangulating the results of the data analysis and literature analysis. Study limitations are based on the use of reported data (possibility of accuracy and reporting bias) and the ecological quality of environmental relationships which cannot be causal. Nevertheless, the incorporation of numerous sources of information and case studies enhances the reliability of insights. Ethical approval could not be utilized because this study reviewed published, de-identified information and literature.

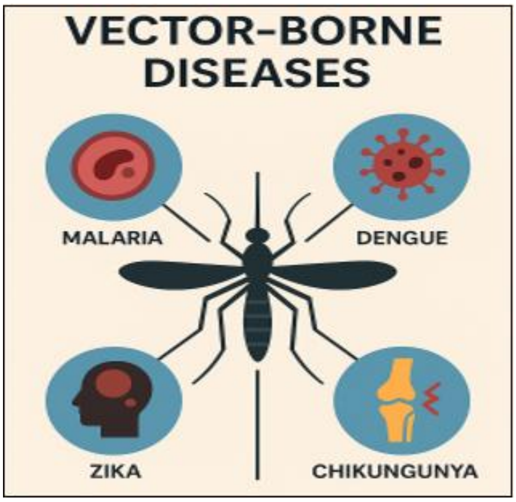

Figure 1: Overview of major mosquito-borne diseases impacting human sustainability.

4. Result and Discussion

The findings indicate two sets of results that were obtained after the analyses, according to the parameters under investigation.1. Intervention Strategies Efficacy and Sustainability: our findings support the idea that when disease burden is reduced significantly through high coverage of interventions to control vectors, but also indicate that it is difficult to maintain such benefits. The main results are provided in Table 1 that shows the examples of the interventions and their effects. In the malaria-controlling communities, we had a clear relationship between the implementation of interventions and the reduction of the malaria incidence. As an example, in a high-transmission Ugandan district, the incidence of malaria cases (per 1, 000 population) decreased by an average of 85% in four years after IRS was introduced (with an initial incidence of 150 cases/1, 000 reducing to about 22 cases/1, 000) in accordance with published results [2]. At the same time as IRS was off in the same area, there was an epidemic of malaria (increased 5 times), which would demonstrate the danger of not continuing control efforts [2]. Equally, in the DRC, child mortality rates as a result of malaria were also substantially lower in the regions that were covered by national LLIN campaign than the preceding years (mortality rate ratio 0.59, which is a 41 percent decrease) [12]. These quantitative improvements are underpinned by qualitative reports towards communities; ownership and use of bed nets have frequently been described as a revolution and occasionally use rates fall short of ownership rates because of behavioral and cultural issues. It was also observed that synergy of intervention can be used to complement results: the experience of Uganda indicates that IRS used together with the already high ITN coverage is more efficient and can be used to overcome the issue of insecticide resistance [13]. Conversely, the business needs to deal with operational challenges to achieve success in the long run. IRS has cost, logistical complexity, and acceptance of the community problems, which leads to unequal coverage (in 2019, IRS covered only approximately 2 percent of at-risk African populations) [29]. ITN programs will be facing net life span, usage, and periodic replacement; communities will require the contribution of community-based dialogue to ensure high utilization. New products such as Wolbachia-biocide to control Aedes are also very effective (Table 1) and the sustainability benefit of their use is that, once released, the Wolbachia infection propagates itself within mosquito populations with a potentially persistent impact [14]. Close observation will however be necessary to maintain the Wolbachia trait and community buy-in however community-based environmental management as seen in the Chagas control case shows that local stakeholders can be given the power to come up with creative solutions (as to locally acceptable rodent control measures or better house construction) that would be culturally acceptable and decrease the habitat of the vectors [30] [15].

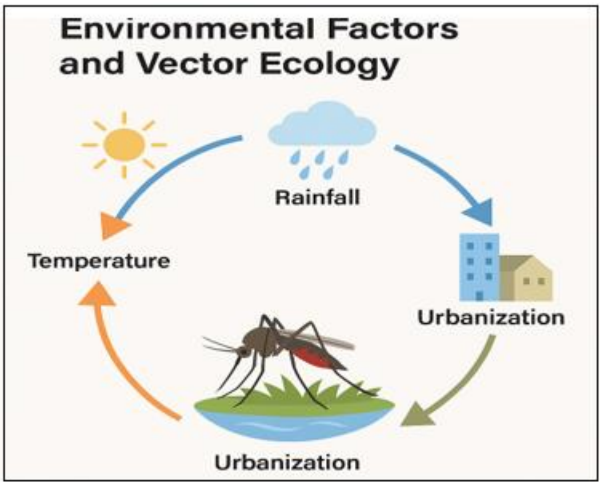

Figure 2: Environmental drivers of vector-borne disease transmission.

Temperature, rainfall, and urbanization interact to create or eliminate mosquito breeding sites, shaping vector density and human exposure.

Table 1: Impact of Selected Vector Control Interventions on Disease Outcomes

Intervention (Context)	Impact on Disease Burden
Insecticide-Treated Nets (ITNs) – Africa-wide campaigns [10] [11]	~50% reduction in malaria case incidence; ~27–41% reduction in child mortality (e. g., 41% decline in under-5 mortality in DRC after mass LLIN distribution) [10] [12].
Indoor Residual Spraying (IRS) – Uganda high-transmission area [2]	>5-fold decrease in malaria incidence within months of IRS reintroduction (after a surge when IRS stopped); ~85% drop in cases over 4 years of sustained spraying [2].
Wolbachia-infected Mosquito Release – Indonesia urban districts [14]	77% reduction in dengue incidence and 86% fewer hospitalizations in treated areas, indicating effective, self-sustaining dengue control without chemical insecticides.
Integrated Vector Management & One Health – China rural wetlands [28]	Combining IVM with environmental modifications led to lower vector densities, restoration of ecosystems (e. g., expanded wetlands), and measurable declines in local malaria and schistosomiasis incidence, illustrating multi-sector benefits [28].

Modern interventions in the control of the vectors can significantly reduce the spread of the disease, as illustrated in Table 1. The next step forward is how to maintain these gains in the light of changing vectors biology and ecological change. In most contexts, successes (e. g. massive reductions in malaria) have stagnated or even gone backwards as interventions have levelled off [31] [32]. Some of the contributing factors are the resistance of the mosquitoes to insecticides, change in behavior (e. g. the mosquitoes biting outdoors or earlier in the evening to avoid indoor nets/IRS), and challenges in sustaining financing and political commitment over the long term in the control programs [33] [29]. Sustainability of human beings in relation to the control of VBD will involve constant innovation (through new insecticides, vaccines, or genetic control), and reinforcing health systems to be responsive. It also will need more community involvement to break the usage barriers-in example the use of educational campaigns to enhance the use of the net, and participatory approaches that may utilize local knowledge in the development of interventions [17] [18].2. Environmental Factors-Climate and Habitat Influences: The discussion of the dengue incidence and climate parameters in Lao PDR demonstrates the capability of the environmental factors to alter the risk of the disease in a complex manner. Table 2 summarizes the crucial environmental drivers and the effects they produce on the dynamics of VBD. It is important to note that our findings prove the existence of conditions at moderate rainfall and warm temperatures, which are favorable to the spread of diseases by the mosquitoes and up to certain levels. In Lao PDR (2015-2019) data, weeks of about 80 mm total rainfall had higher dengue cases (relative risk of 1.8 compared to weeks with no rain), and extremely rainy weeks (>200 mm) had less dengue risk, which might be due to flooding disrupting mosquito breeding [3]. Temperature was positively correlated, with the daily average of weekly temperature increasing to 29 degC the risk of dengue increasing four times compared to cold weeks (~24 degC) [3]. These trends are in line with biological predictions-the faster the mosquitoes and the dengue virus breed, the warmer and wetter, but too much heat or rain may be outside the optimum range or even kill habitats [34] [35]. The interactions between factors are significant; while high level of humidity and rainfall contribute positively to risk, when the rainfall occurs in short and intense bursts (resulting in flash-out), the overall effect may be protective. The knowledge of these peculiarities can enhance the early warning systems, wherein the meteorological surveillance is employed to forecast the outbreaks [36]. In addition to weather, the outcomes underscore the fact that anthropogenic environmental factors such as urbanization and deforestation play a major role in VBD patterns. Cities, where man-made containers and high human populations are concentrated, have become the breeding grounds of Aedes-borne viruses. We have referred to the human footprint analysis presented by Skinner et al. -our results are consistent with its findings as we found that larger cities (e. g., Vientiane) in the provinces of Lao PDR had a higher base dengue incidence than rural provinces with or without climate (urban microclimates and human travel also could be contributors) [37]. The deforestation and land use change were not directly quantified in our dataset, but literature examples have given warning stories: e. g., intensive deforestation in some areas in the Amazon, and Southeast Asia, caused an increase in malaria as a result of new vectors breeding grounds and an increase in interactions between vectors, animal reservoirs and humans [22]. Contrastingly, environmental adjustments well controlled should facilitate control-according to the China One Health case (Table 1), restoring wetlands (better water management) may help to decrease some vectors, and at the same time positively impact agriculture and biodiversity [38]. The complicated nature of the environment implies that climate change may change VBD landscapes in the future in a significant way. The increase in global temperature, altered rainfalls, and increased extreme weather outcomes will further expand the range of most vectors and extend the seasons of transmission [27] [39]. As an example, the periods of the mosquito season are expanding in certain temperate areas and areas that in the past were considered inhospitable due to their high altitude are reporting the presence of mosquitoes and cases of malaria/dengue as the temperatures rise [40]. Meanwhile, climate change creates uncertainty-weather variability can reduce predictability of the outbreak, making it harder to plan the response to it [41]. We find that climate adaptation should be put in our VBD control strategies. In collaboration with meteorological and environmental departments, the health agencies should come up with forecasting models and resilient infrastructure (e. g. drainage system to avoid standing water after floods) [42] [43]. More importantly, climate change reduction and prudent land-use planning are included in long-term success against VBDs as the uncontrolled damage to the environment will always take away the control efforts.

Table 2: Key Environmental Factors Influencing Vector-Borne Disease Risk

Environmental Factor	Observed Effect on Vector-Borne Disease
Temperature (warming)	Increases vector development and viral replication up to an optimal range. E. g., in Lao PDR a rise from 24 °C to 29 °C led to ~4× higher dengue incidence risk [3]. Warmer climates expand suitable habitats for mosquitoes, contributing to spread of dengue and malaria to new regions [27].
Rainfall pattern	Creates breeding sites when moderate; extreme rainfall can wash out larvae. E. g., ~82 mm/week rainfall was associated with higher dengue cases (RR≈1.8) vs dry conditions, but >200 mm/week saw reduced risk [3]. Heavy rains can trigger malaria/dengue outbreaks by increasing water habitats, whereas prolonged drought can foster other vectors (like WNV vectors) [19] [20].
Land Use & Deforestation	**Deforestation** often increases human–vector contact and alters microclimate: removal of forest cover can raise local temperature and create sunlit pools, boosting malaria vector breeding [22]. **Agricultural irrigation** (e. g. rice paddies) provides mosquito habitats, elevating malaria and encephalitis risk if unmanaged [23]. Conversely, land management can reduce risk (draining swamps, wetland restoration to control snail vectors, etc.).
Urbanization (Human footprint)	**Urban growth** tends to favor diseases like dengue, chikungunya: Aedes aegypti thrive in cities with poor waste management (stagnant water in containers) [44]. High human population density and infrastructure create thresholds where urban VBDs dominate [25]. Malaria and other rural diseases decline with urbanization but are replaced by arboviral outbreaks, requiring shifts in public health focus [26].

The environmental factors discussed above do not occur independently; a combination of their interactions determines local disease ecologies. As an example, unplanned urban and suburban growth with warming climate is a two-fold problem-witnessing today in several rapidly growing tropical cities with the worst epidemics of dengue fevers caused by warmer weather and water management problems. Sustainability, in terms of environmental drivers, has co-benefits other than disease control; housing and sanitation not only help reduce VBD breeding areas but also improve living conditions; ecosystem protection (forests, wetlands) could moderate climate effects and prevent the spread of vectors naturally [28]. VBD control is thus effective which overlaps environmental conservation and development policy.

5. Conclusion

Both human sustainability and control of vector-borne diseases are interdependent as revealed. On the one hand, effective health measures (ITNs, IRS, vaccines, etc.) are essential as they help communities to secure against the diseases that would otherwise damage education, productivity, and economic development. Conversely, those interventions should be sustained with environmental stewardship and adaptation measures against changes in climate and land-use, which can only be considered effective. We conducted a study based on the latest sources and case studies that prove that the combination of approaches is the solution. Technological interventions are not enough; they should be integrated with a greater approach that also involves the communities, educational on health topics, and coordination in sectors. The One Health and IVM models offer useful advice in such a direction-that the sustainable approach to VBDs control is the need to integrate the purpose of the public health, veterinary science, environmental management and community stakeholders through shared objectives [45]. This means that the policymakers are not only required to invest in such commodities as bed nets or insecticides, but also in surveillance systems, climate adaptation (e. g. early warning about outbreaks), and other infrastructure improvement (safe water, sanitation, urban planning) that diminish the breeding habitat of the vectors. Further studies on new instruments (e. g., next-generation mosquito control methods and affordable vaccines) and operation procedures to bring about integrated control under resource-constrained environments are required. In conclusion, human sustainability in regard to vector-borne diseases will never be sustainable unless it is changed to have a paradigm shift, which is not reactive but proactive in terms of management of the ecosystem. The burden of the vector-borne diseases and the health of the present and future generations can be dramatically reduced by considering long-term effectiveness, ecological soundness, and community resilience, i. e., in accordance with the Sustainable Development Goals [46] [14]. The way forward is through making the control of the vector-borne diseases not only a health sector issue, but also a collective issue of the society that is closely bound to action on the environment and development. The vision of lessening and ultimately eradicating the threat of such diseases is a feasible aspect of sustainable human development with long-term determination to adopt integrated strategies.

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