

I. Background

- Anti-microbial resistance is currently one of the greatest global health threat (CDC, 2020, WHO, 2020).
- Efforts have previously focused on the healthcare sector through antibiotic stewardship and surveillance (Cueni, 2020)
- Poor water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) practices and infrastructure contribute to the transmission of resistant bacteria (Iskandar et al., 2020)
- Low-and middle-income countries (LMICs) such as Malawi have pre-existing WASH challenges, which increase the risk of population exposure to AMR (Cassivi et al., 2020).
- There is an existing knowledge gap regarding the prevalence of AMR in the wider community environment (Ahammad et al., 2018)

II. Study Objectives

Main study objective

- Examine potential human and animal exposure to AMR in public spaces in both urban and rural settings in Southern Malawi

Specific objectives

- Understand contributing practices to environmental contamination and exposure.
- Identify potential risk pathways of exposure in the environment
- Determine the presence of resistant ESBL *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* in the exposure pathways

III. Methods

- Data collected monthly from September 2020-April 2021
- Method based on the principles of the Sanipath tool (<https://www.sanipath.net>)
- Conducted in 3 study sites; Ndirande (Urban), Chileka (Peri-urban) and Chikwawa (Rural)
- In-depth Interviews with community leaders (n=9) selected purposively to understand the WASH status in the study sites
- Transect walks in 3 sections of each study site to identify potential transmission pathways
- 40 environmental samples from potential transmission pathways collected every month at each study site (n=120/month)
- Thematic analysis was used to generate themes from the interviews
- Samples were pre-processed (filtration, enrichment) and then grown on ESBL CHROMagar™ media to identify ESBL *E. coli* and ESBL *K. pneumoniae* isolates.
- Univariate analysis conducted using Stata 14.0 (College Station, TX: StataCorp LP) to describe the data.



Figure 1: Data collection team



Figure 2: Sample collection from a drain

IV. Results: Interviews & transect walks

Infrastructure:

- Poor bathrooms and latrines leading to open drains

WASH practices:

- Poor solid waste disposal in the urban and peri-urban
- Poor animal waste management and disposal.

Perceived Risk:

- Open wells and rivers perceived as safe sources of water for household chores but not for drinking.

Identified transmission pathways:

- Drains
- Standing water
- Areas of frequent hand contact (e.g. borehole handles)
- Soil (dumping sites and playing areas).

(Examples of transmission pathways shown in Figure 4)

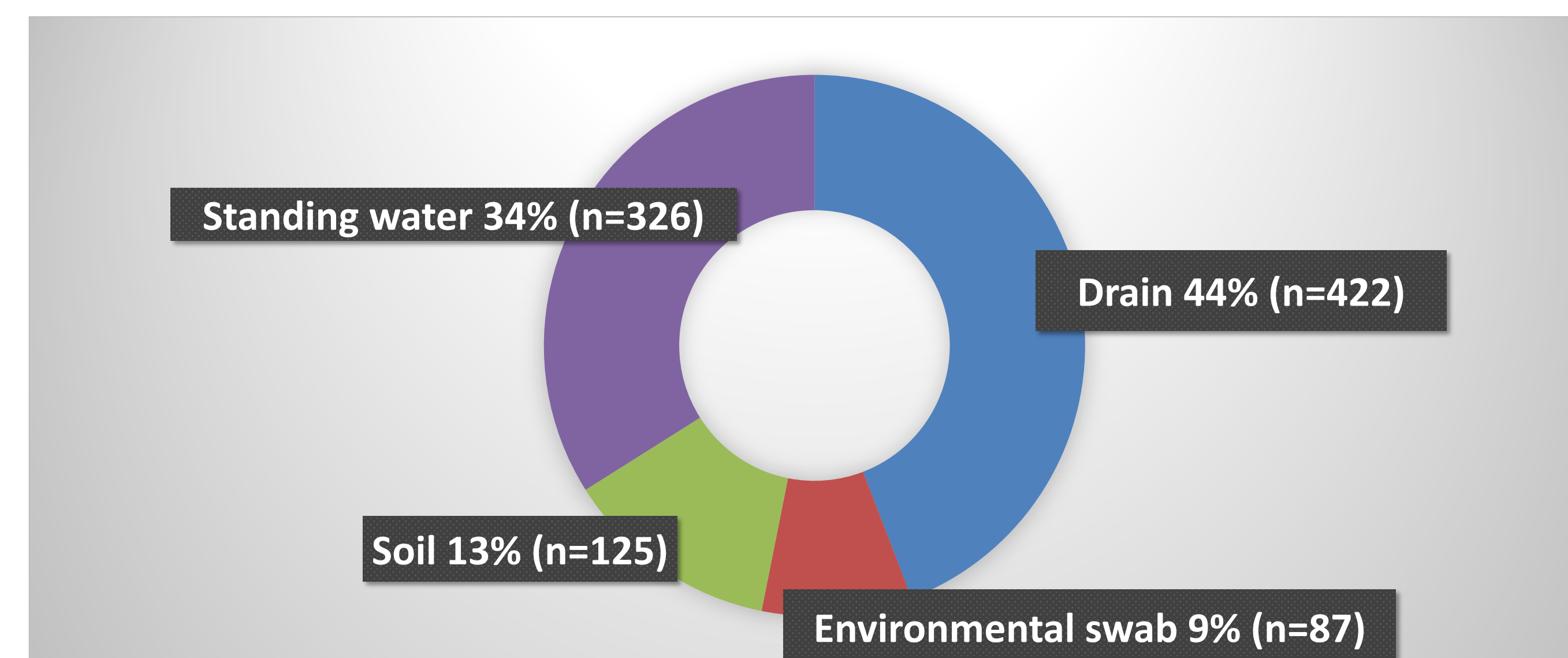
Pathway	Type of exposure
Drain water	Contact/ingestion
Standing water	Contact/ingestion
Bathing water	Contact/ingestion
Public taps	Contact
Waste disposal sites	Contact/ingestion
Broken pipes	Contact/ingestion
Soil	Contact/ingestion
Animals	Contact

IV Results: Transmission pathways



Figure 4: Transmission pathways: (a) Standing water (b) Drain (c) Soil-Dumping site (d) Soil-Animal slaughter area (e) Environmental swab-Borehole handle

IV. Results: Microbiological samples



**Environmental swabs collected from areas of frequent communal contact e.g. borehole handle

Figure 5: Sample distribution per type

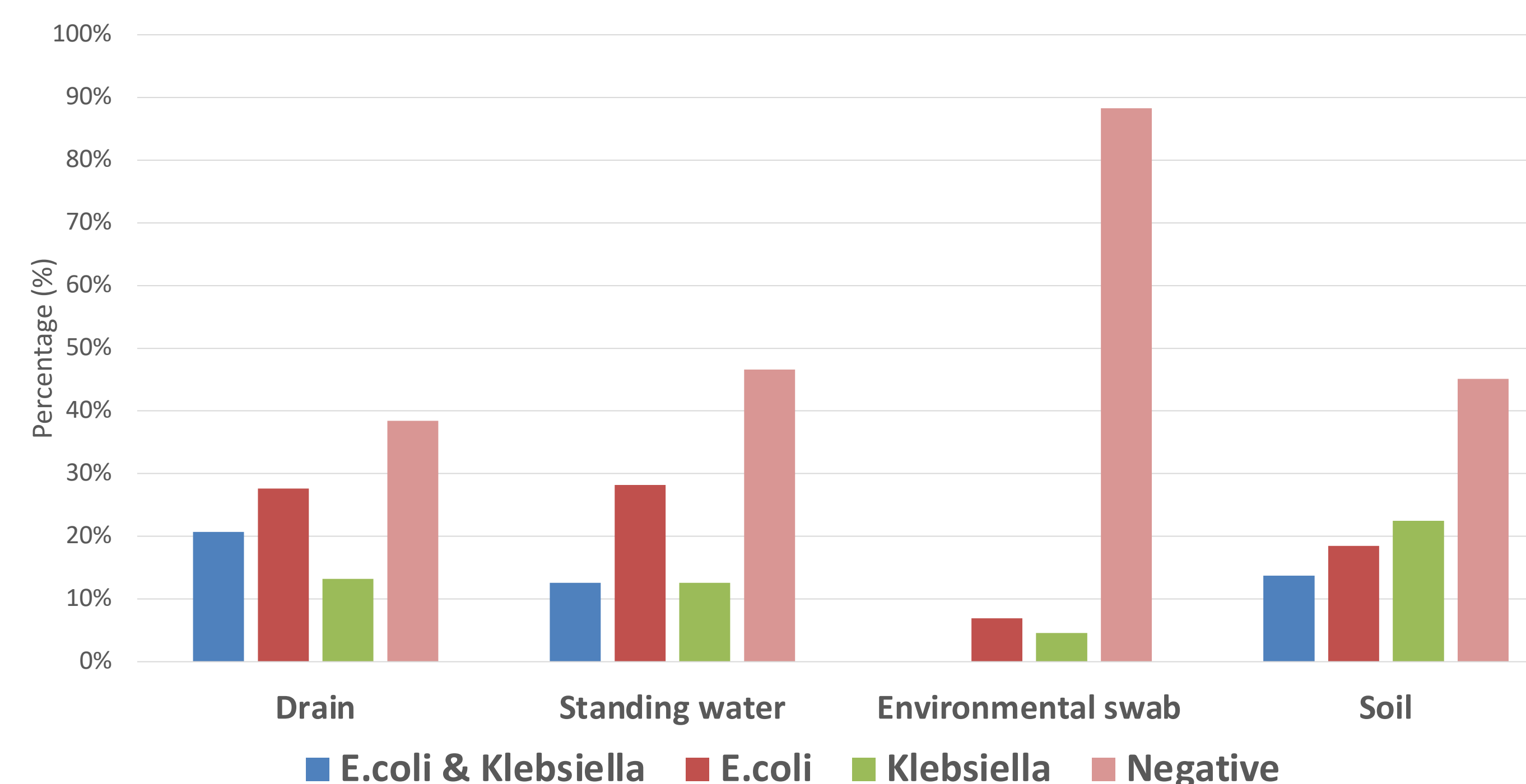


Figure 6: ESBL Positivity per sample type, stratified by bacterial species

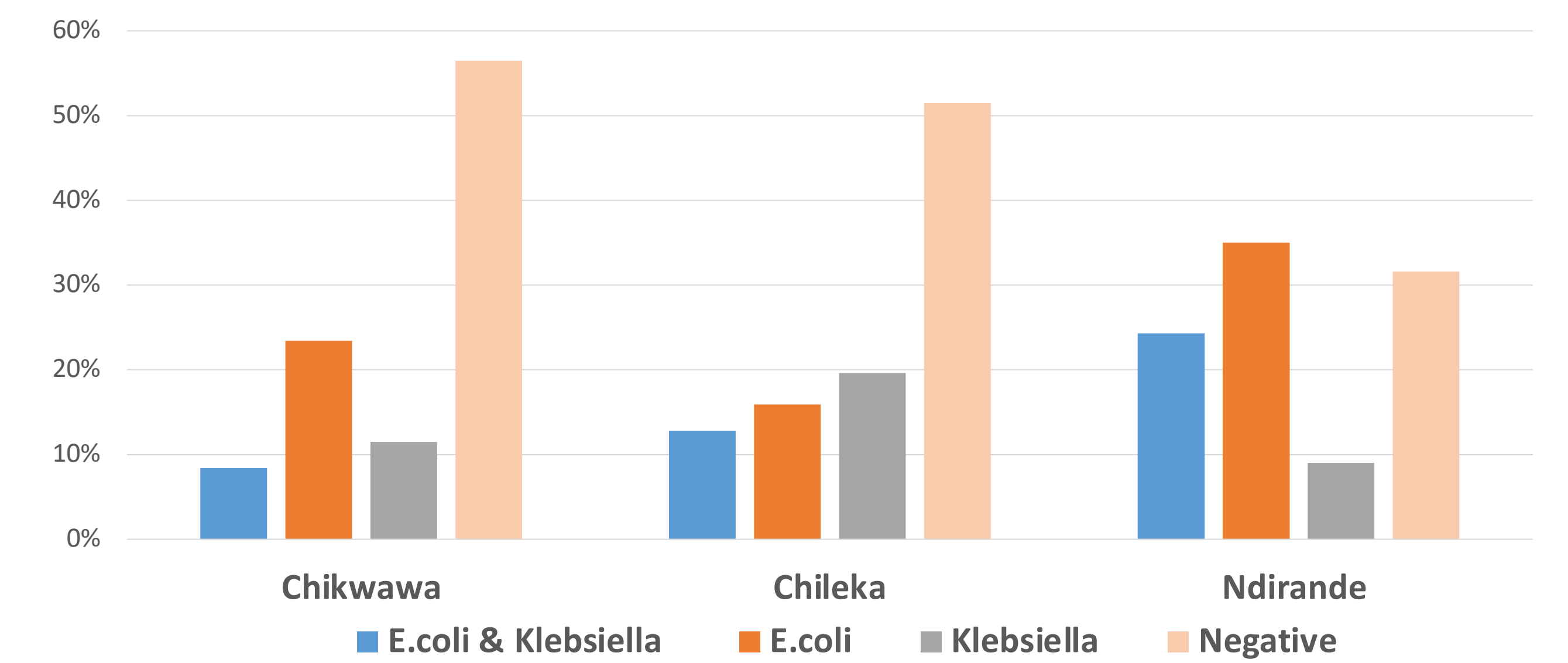


Figure 7: ESBL Positivity per site, stratified by bacterial species

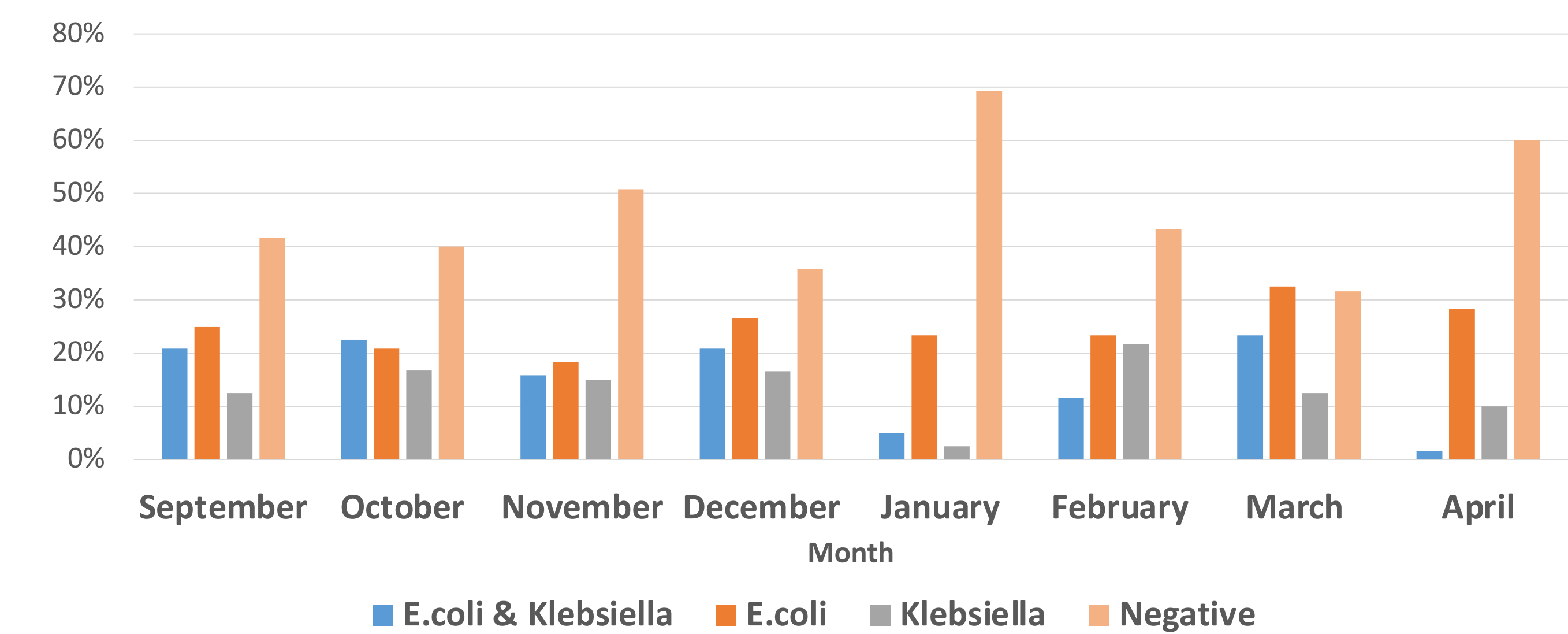


Figure 8 : ESBL positivity per site each month, stratified by bacterial species

V. Conclusions

- Poor hygiene practices & infrastructure in communities, lead to contaminated environments which are potential transmission pathways for AMR.
- Drains and standing water are the major transmission pathways in community environments.
- Presence of ESBL *E. coli* & *K. pneumoniae* in over half of the transmission pathways in the urban site indicates a greater exposure of the urban population to ESBL *E. coli* & *K. pneumoniae*.
- The persistence and high levels of ESBL bacteria throughout both wet and dry seasons point towards a continued and ongoing risk within the broader environment
- Environmental water, sanitation and hygiene conditions need to be improved to reduce transmission of resistant bacteria.

VI. Citation

Ahammad, S., Arduino, M., Husman, A. M. de R., Durso, L., Edge, T., (2018). *Initiatives for Addressing Antimicrobial Resistance in the Environment: Current Situation and Challenges*. <https://wellcome.org/sites/default/files/antimicrobial-resistance-environment-report.pdf>

CDC. (2020, March 13). *What Exactly is Antibiotic Resistance?* Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <https://www.cdc.gov/drugresistance/about.html>

Cueni, T. (2020). *How to stop drug-resistant superbugs from causing the next pandemic*. World Economic Forum. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/11/amr-antibiotic-resistance-global-risk-death/>

Cassivi, A., Tilley, E., Waygood, E. O. D., & Dorea, C. (2020). Trends in access to water and sanitation in Malawi: Progress and inequalities (1992–2017). *Journal of Water and Health*, 18(5), 785–797. <https://doi.org/10.2166/wh.2020.069>

Iskandar, K., Molinier, L., Hallit, S., Sartelli, M., Catena, F., Coccolini, F., Craig Hardcastle, T., Roques, C., & Salameh, P. (2020). Drivers of Antibiotic Resistance Transmission in Low- and Middle-Income Countries from a "One Health" Perspective—A Review. *Antibiotics*, 9(7). <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics9070372>

WHO. W. H. O. (2020). *Antimicrobial resistance*. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/antimicrobial-resistance>