



# Tackling the burden of AMR

## Mortality preventable by interventions

# Strategies for reducing AMR burden

INTERVENTION 1: A GLOBAL PUBLIC AWARENESS CAMPAIGN .....	19
INTERVENTION 2: IMPROVE SANITATION AND PREVENT THE SPREAD OF INFECTION .....	21
INTERVENTION 3: REDUCE UNNECESSARY USE OF ANTIMICROBIALS IN AGRICULTURE AND THEIR DISSEMINATION INTO THE ENVIRONMENT .....	24
INTERVENTION 4: IMPROVE GLOBAL SURVEILLANCE OF DRUG RESISTANCE AND ANTIMICROBIAL CONSUMPTION IN HUMANS AND ANIMALS .....	32
INTERVENTION 5: PROMOTE NEW, RAPID DIAGNOSTICS TO REDUCE UNNECESSARY USE OF ANTIMICROBIALS .....	35
INTERVENTION 6: PROMOTE DEVELOPMENT AND USE OF VACCINES AND ALTERNATIVES .....	40
INTERVENTION 7: IMPROVE THE NUMBER, PAY AND RECOGNITION OF PEOPLE WORKING IN INFECTIOUS DISEASE .....	44

# Context—the last generation of action plans

Public health actions to tackle AMR have a positive impact on population health...

The OECD has identified interventions that, for their impact on population health and heavy costs voided, could be defined 'best buys' to tackle AMR. The set of policies assessed are aligned with the WHO Global Action Plan on AMR and encompass:

- improving hygiene in healthcare facilities, including promotion of handwashing and better hospital hygiene;

stewardship programmes promoting more prudent use of antibiotics to end decades of over-prescription;

the use of rapid diagnostic tests in primary care to detect whether an infection is bacterial or viral;

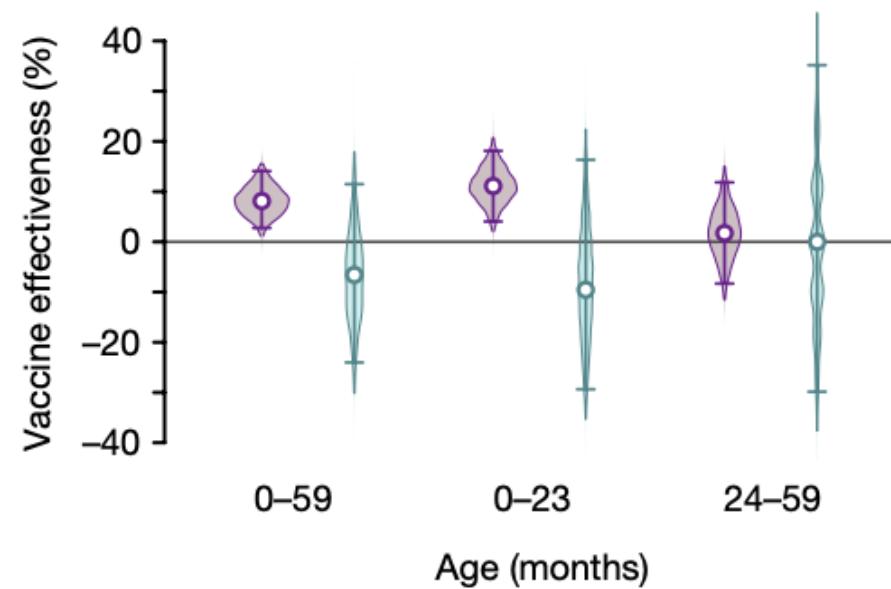
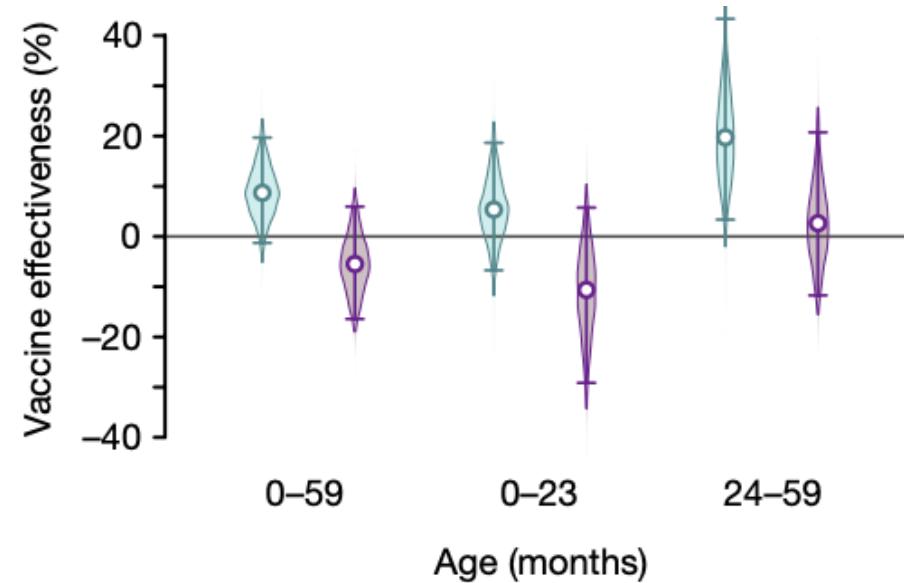
delayed prescription; and

public awareness campaigns.

# Taking action amid competing priorities

- Little knowledge of the specific impact achievable through each intervention that has been recommended
  - Strength of evidence that the measure is effective?
  - Does that evidence connect the intervention to the actual outcome or just describe intermediate steps along the causal chain?
  - Magnitude of impact—how many deaths (etc.) preventable, if deployed?
  - Feasibility of implementation ***in all settings?***
- Interventions come at a cost: doing one thing means not doing something else
- Each of these must be known specifically to guide concrete action

# Direct effects of PCV and rotavirus vaccines



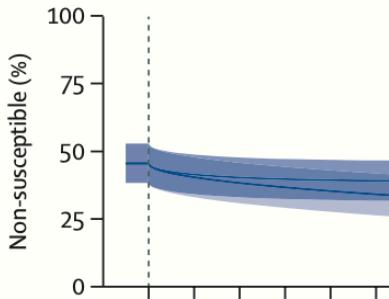
1:3 matched case control study (country, age, sex, season, wealth quintile, urbanicity, health access/utilization (receipt of pentavalent vaccine doses)

Lewnard et al., *Nature* 2020

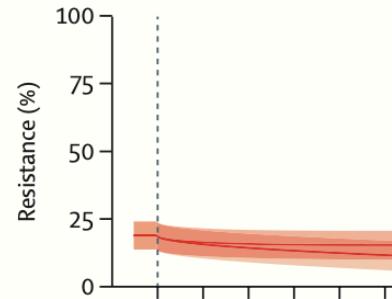
# Implications for resistance (pneumococci)

## A Penicillin

10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-11.5 (95% CI -14.4 to -8.6);  
with secular trend  
-6.4 (-8.6 to -4.2)

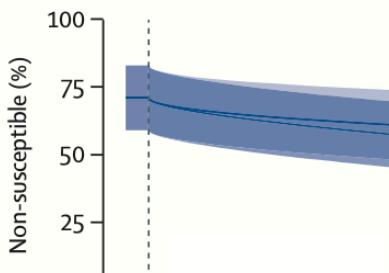


10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-7.3 (95% CI -9.4 to -5.3);  
with secular trend  
-3.6 (-5.1 to -2.0)

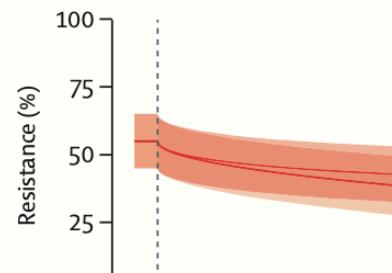


## C Sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprin

10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-9.7 (95% CI -15.2 to -4.3);  
with secular trend  
-13.0 (-17.0 to -9.1)



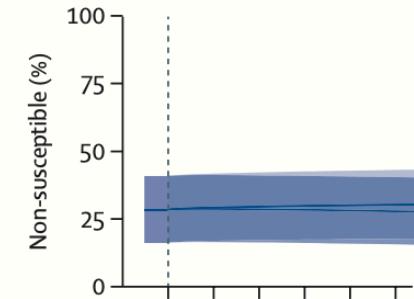
10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-16.0 (95% CI -21.2 to -11.0);  
with secular trend  
-12.0 (-15.9 to -8.3)



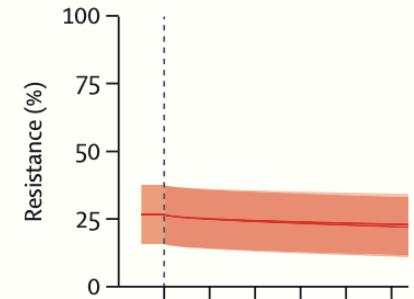
## E Tetracycline

## B Macrolides

10-year difference  
without secular trend  
1.8 (95% CI -1.4 to 5.0);  
with secular trend  
-0.5 (-3.0 to -1.9)

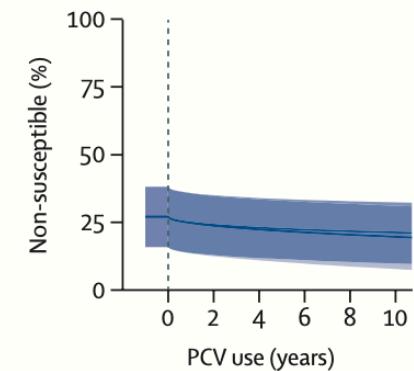


10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-3.6 (95% CI -6.6 to -0.7);  
with secular trend  
-4.5 (-6.9 to -2.2)

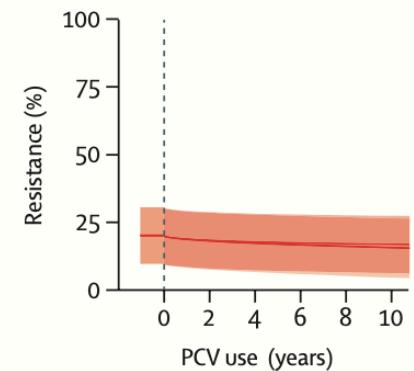


## D Third-generation cephalosporins

10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-7.5 (95% CI -11.9 to -3.1);  
with secular trend  
-5.9 (-9.3 to -2.4)



10-year difference  
without secular trend  
-4.5 (95% CI -8.7 to -0.3);  
with secular trend  
-3.3 (-6.5 to 0.0)



- Implementation of PCVs reduced prevalence of resistance/non-susceptibility among circulating pneumococci globally

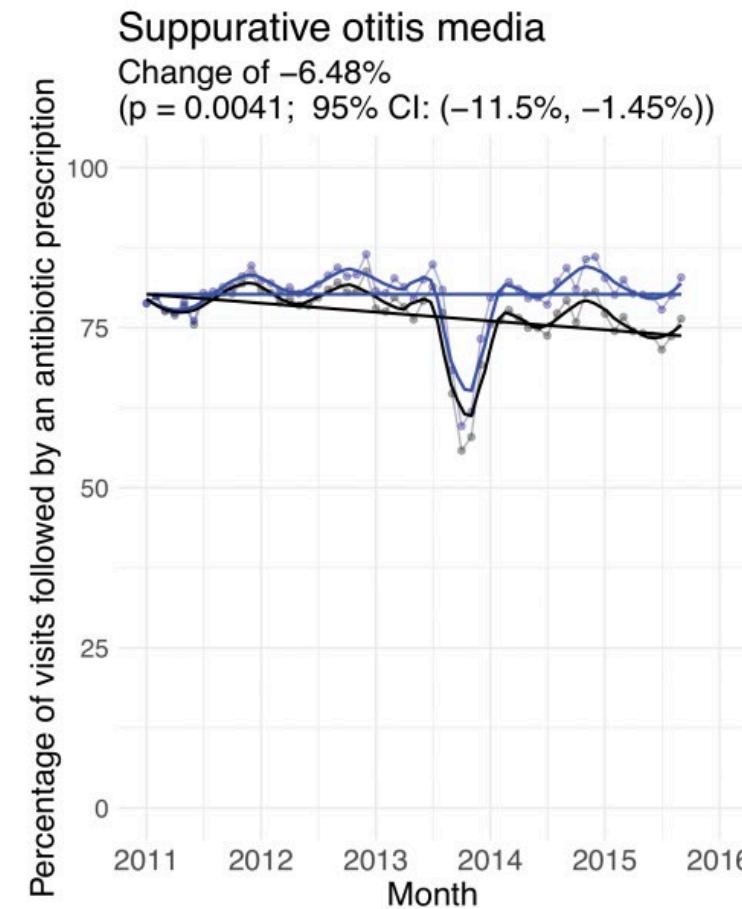
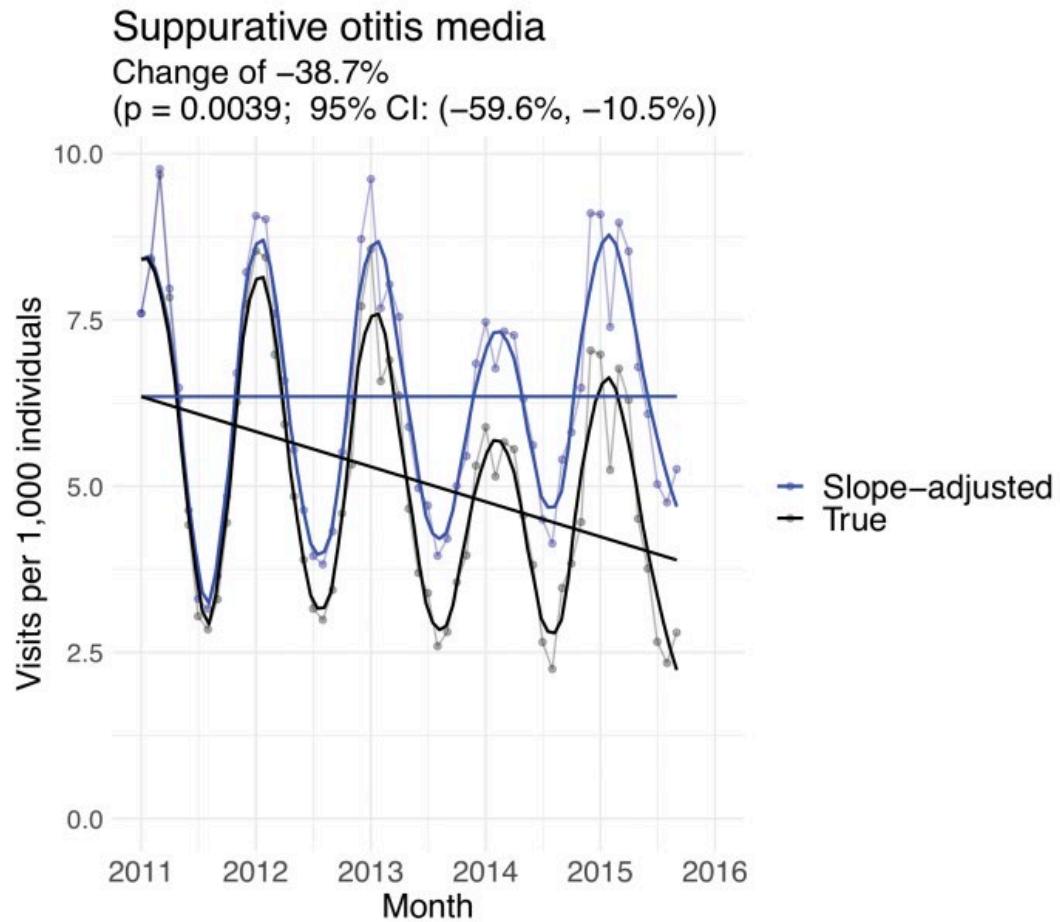
# RSV vaccine efficacy against antibiotic use

**Table 2. VE against antimicrobial prescriptions among infants within the ITT population**

Setting and end point	Through 90 d from birth			Through end of follow-up		
	RSV F vaccine, no. of events per 100 person-y (no. of events)	Placebo, no. of events per 100 person-y (no. of events)	VE (95% CI), %	RSV F vaccine, no. of events per 100 person-y (no. of events)	Placebo, no. of events per 100 person-y (no. of events)	VE (95% CI), %
All countries, person-y	730	379		2,908	1,504	
All antimicrobial prescriptions	133.7 (976)	148.7 (563)	12.9 (1.3–23.1)	111.2 (3,234)	112.8 (1,696)	3.4 (–4.8–11.1)
All antimicrobial prescriptions for LRTI*	71.0 (518)	82.2 (311)	16.6 (1.4–29.4)	61.8 (1,797)	62.4 (939)	3.3 (–7.6–13.1)
HICs	242	132		953	516	
All antimicrobial prescriptions	55.8 (135)	72.2 (95)	20.2 (–10.1–42.2)	62.8 (599)	66.1 (341)	5.2 (–14.2–21.3)
All antimicrobial prescriptions for LRTI*	10.3 (25)	20.5 (27)	49.4 (3.5–73.5)	10.4 (99)	12.6 (65)	13.2 (–30.6–42.4)
LMICs	488	247		1,955	988	
All antimicrobial prescriptions	172.3 (841)	189.5 (468)	10.9 (–2.1–22.2)	134.8 (2,635)	137.1 (1,355)	2.8 (–6.5–11.3)
All antimicrobial prescriptions for LRTI*	101.0 (493)	115.0 (284)	12.8 (–3.6–26.7)	86.9 (1,698)	88.5 (874)	2.2 (–9.2–12.5)

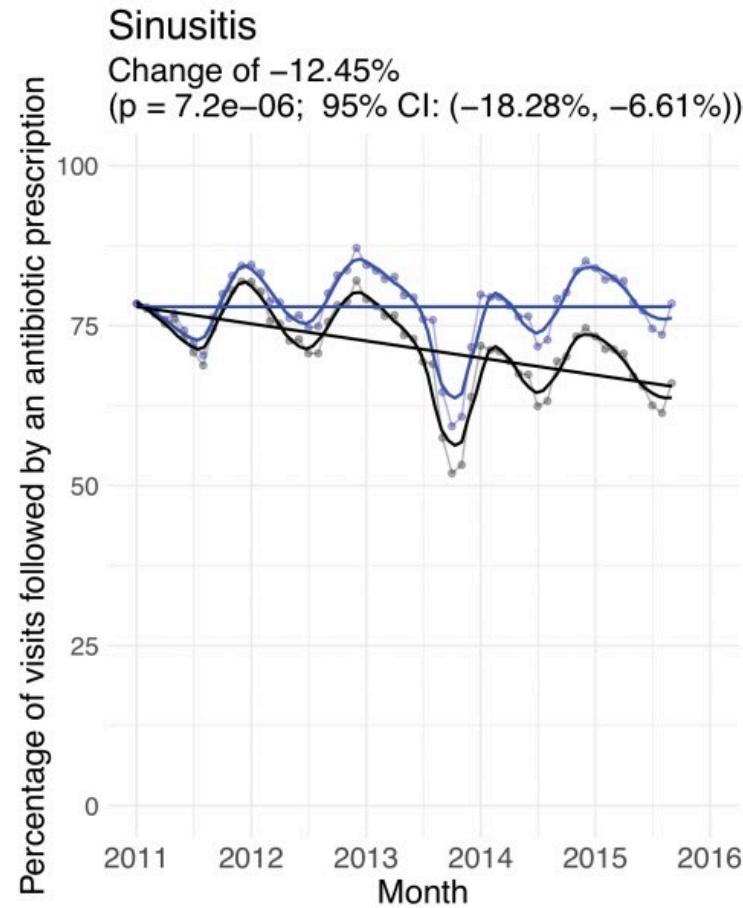
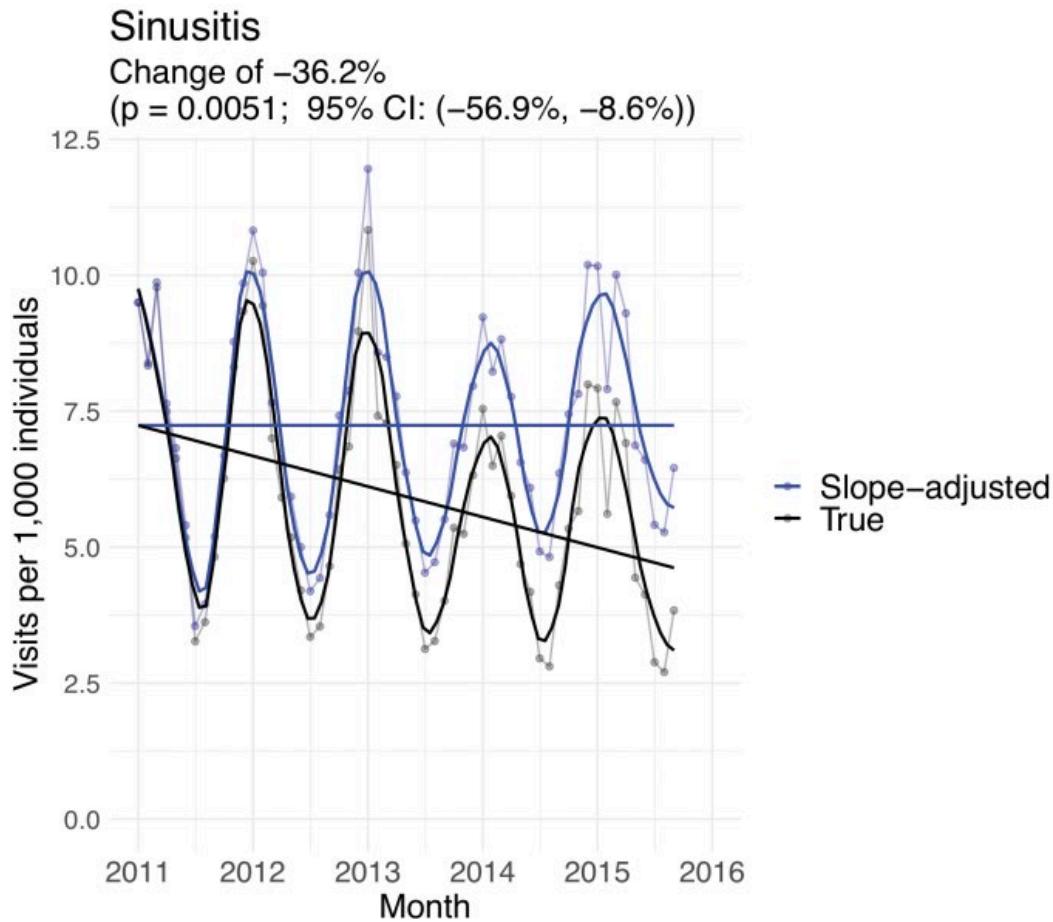
Novavax fusion protein RSV vaccine in mothers prevented substantial proportion of antibiotic use in first 3 months of life in US and South Africa (among other countries). **Promising sign for higher-efficacy licensed vaccines.**

# The importance of preventing infections



Although stewardship has been prioritized, greater share of recent reductions in antibiotic use is attributable to reduced incidence of infections rather than changes in prescribing

# The importance of preventing infections



Although stewardship has been prioritized, greater share of recent reductions in antibiotic use is attributable to reduced incidence of infections rather than changes in prescribing

# WASH interventions

Improved source, not on premises	Improved source, on premises	Improved source, on premises, higher water quality*	Improved source, on premises, continuous supply†	POU chlorination	POU solar treatment	POU filtration
<b>Unimproved</b>						
RR (95% CI)	0.81 (0.70–0.94)	0.79 (0.60–1.03)	0.48 (0.26–0.87)	0.73 (0.37–1.44)	0.66 (0.56–0.77)	0.63 (0.50–0.80)
p value	0.0060	0.076	0.017	0.36	<0.0001	0.0002
<b>Improved, not on premises</b>						
RR (95% CI)	..	0.97 (0.75–1.25)	0.59 (0.32–1.07)	0.90 (0.46–1.77)	0.81 (0.68–0.95)	0.78 (0.63–0.96)
p value	..	0.79	0.081	0.75	0.012	0.023
<b>Improved, on premises</b>						
RR (95% CI)	..	..	0.61 (0.35–1.05)	0.93 (0.50–1.74)	..	..
p value	..	..	0.072	0.82	..	..
Results are adjusted for combined intervention (RR 0.89 [95% CI 0.74–1.08]). POU=point-of-use. RR=relative risk. *Based on two studies. <sup>24,34</sup> †Based on one study. <sup>35</sup>						
<b>Table 1: Results of the meta-regression model for water supply interventions</b>						

Recent evidence of the effectiveness of prevailing WASH interventions has been mixed (e.g., WASH Benefits Trials in Bangladesh & Kenya), underscoring the need for higher-quality interventions

However, large effect sizes of (successful) WASH interventions in preventing diarrhea, respiratory tract infections, and other acute antibiotic-treated conditions suggest possibility for reducing antibiotic use

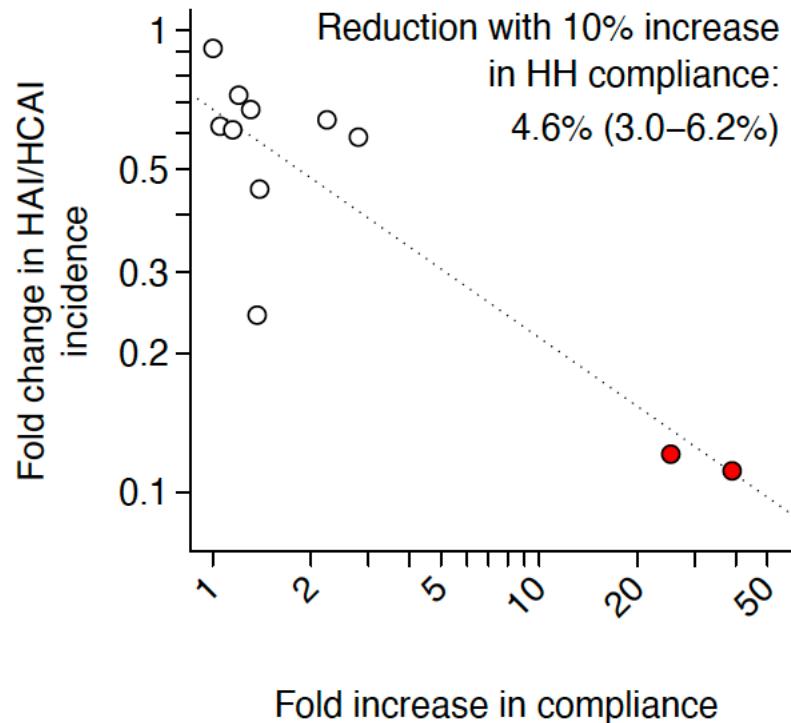
Wolf et al., *Lancet* 2022

Wolf et al., *Lancet* 2023

	Prevalence of WASH minimum risk exposure counterfactual in 2019*	Association between WASH counterfactual and outcome (against lowest level of exposure)
<b>Diarrhoea</b>		
Safely managed drinking water	37.9% (27.1–49.9)	0.48 (0.26–0.87), p=0.017 <sup>4</sup>
Basic sanitation connected to sewer	29.7% (23.9–36.1)	0.53 (0.30–0.93), p=0.030 <sup>4</sup>
Handwashing with soap after potential faecal contact	26.4% (23.4–29.6)	0.7 (0.64–0.76), p<0.0001 <sup>4</sup>
<b>Acute respiratory infections</b>		
Handwashing with soap after potential faecal contact	26.4% (23.4–29.6)	0.83 (0.76–0.90), p<0.0001 <sup>7</sup>
Data are prevalence (95% CI) or relative risk (95% CI), p value. WASH=drinking water, sanitation, and hygiene. *Aggregated across included countries.		
<b>Table 1: Counterfactual and outcome association for diarrhoea and acute respiratory infections</b>		

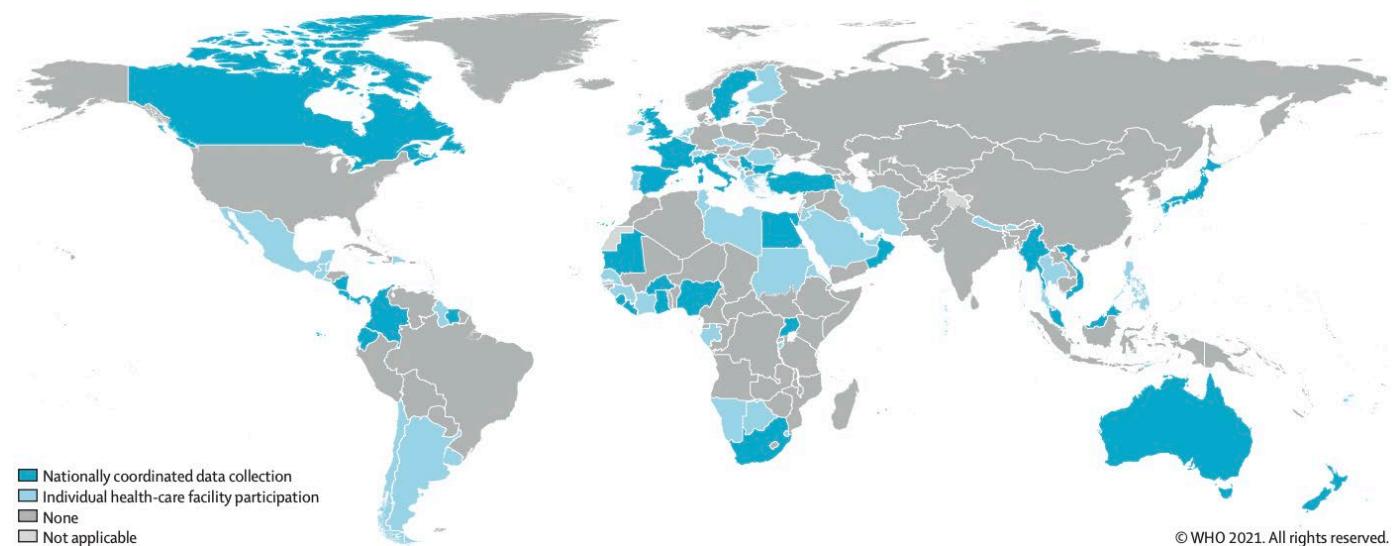
# Improving IPC relative to current levels

## A. Primary scenario



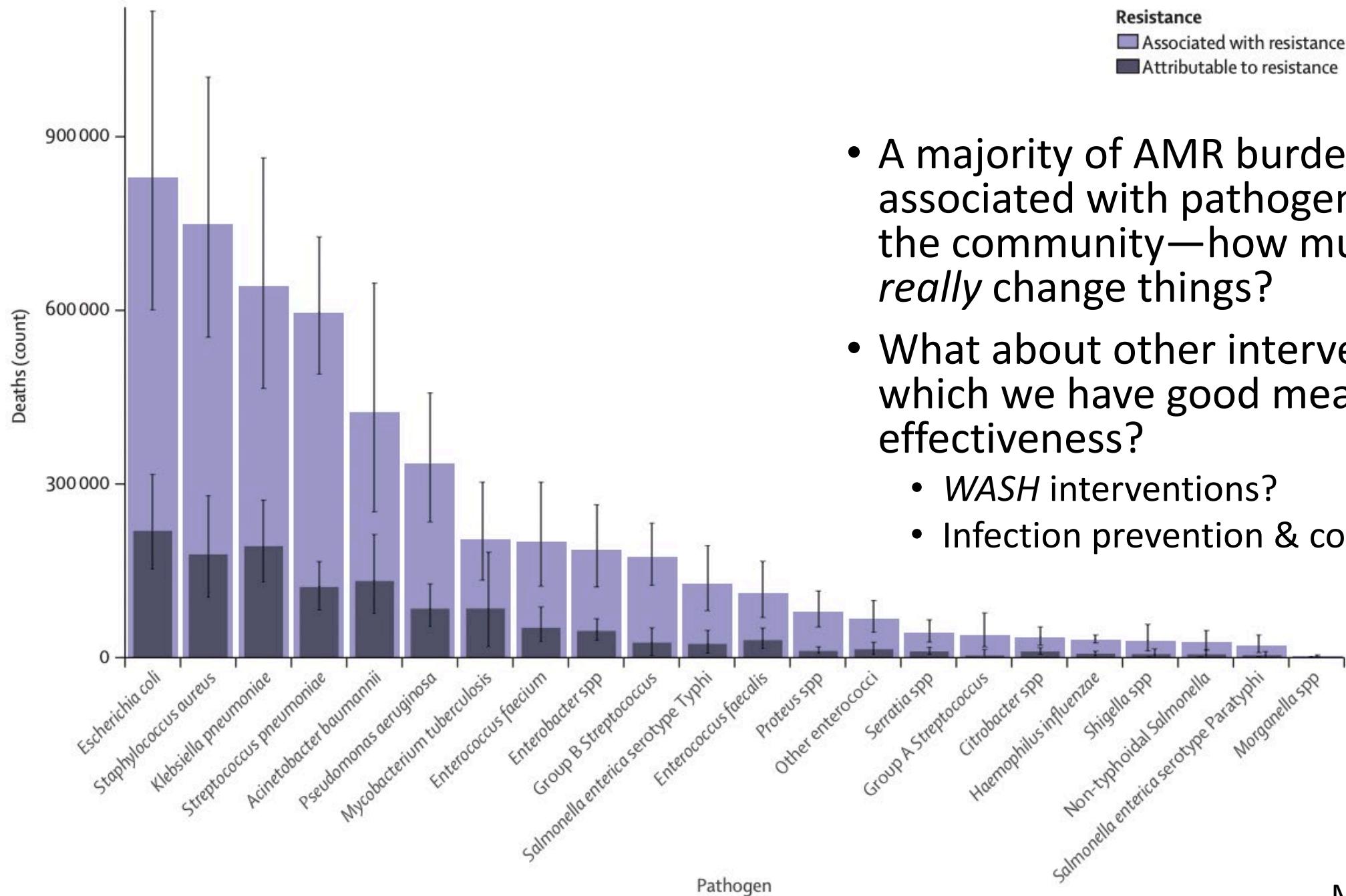
## Implementation of hand hygiene in health-care facilities: results from the WHO Hand Hygiene Self-Assessment Framework global survey 2019

Marlieke E A de Kraker\*, Ermira Tartari\*, Sara Tomczyk, Anthony Twyman, Laurent C Francioli, Alessandro Cassini, Benedetta Allegranzi, Didier Pittet



Meta-analysis: change in HAI/HCAI incidence with bundled IPC interventions in LMIC settings (Lewnard et al., *forthcoming*)

*Lancet Infect Dis* 2022

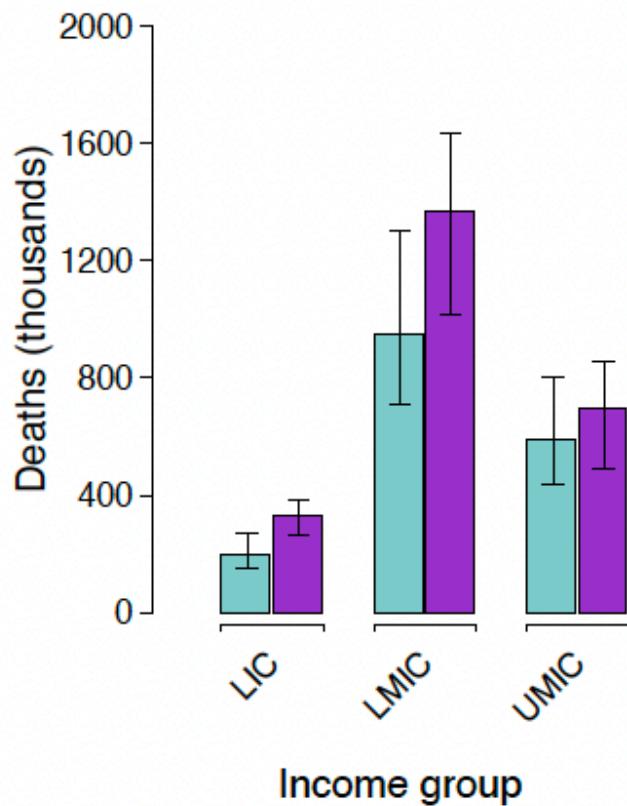


- A majority of AMR burden is not associated with pathogens acquired in the community—how much will vaccines *really* change things?
- What about other interventions for which we have good measures of effectiveness?
  - WASH interventions?
  - Infection prevention & control?

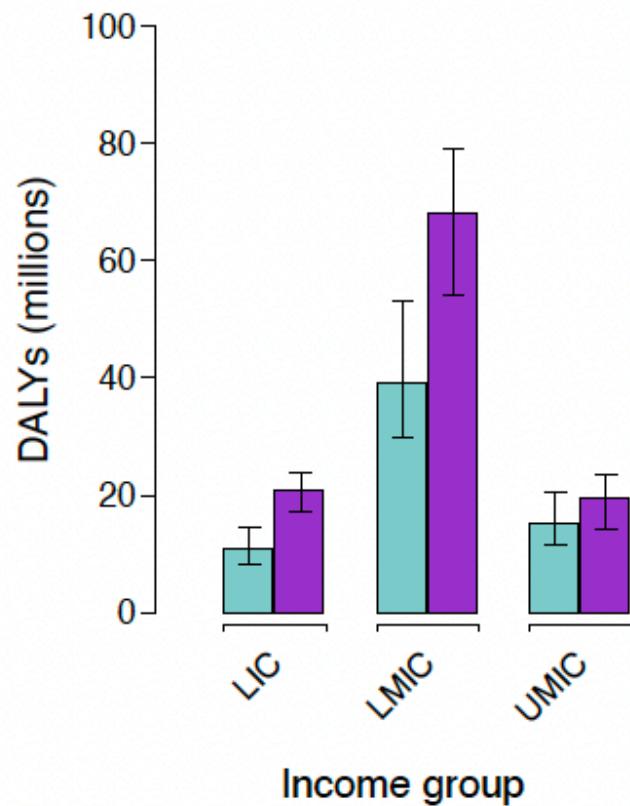
# Origin of AMR infections

 Healthcare associated or hospital acquired infections  
 Community acquired infections

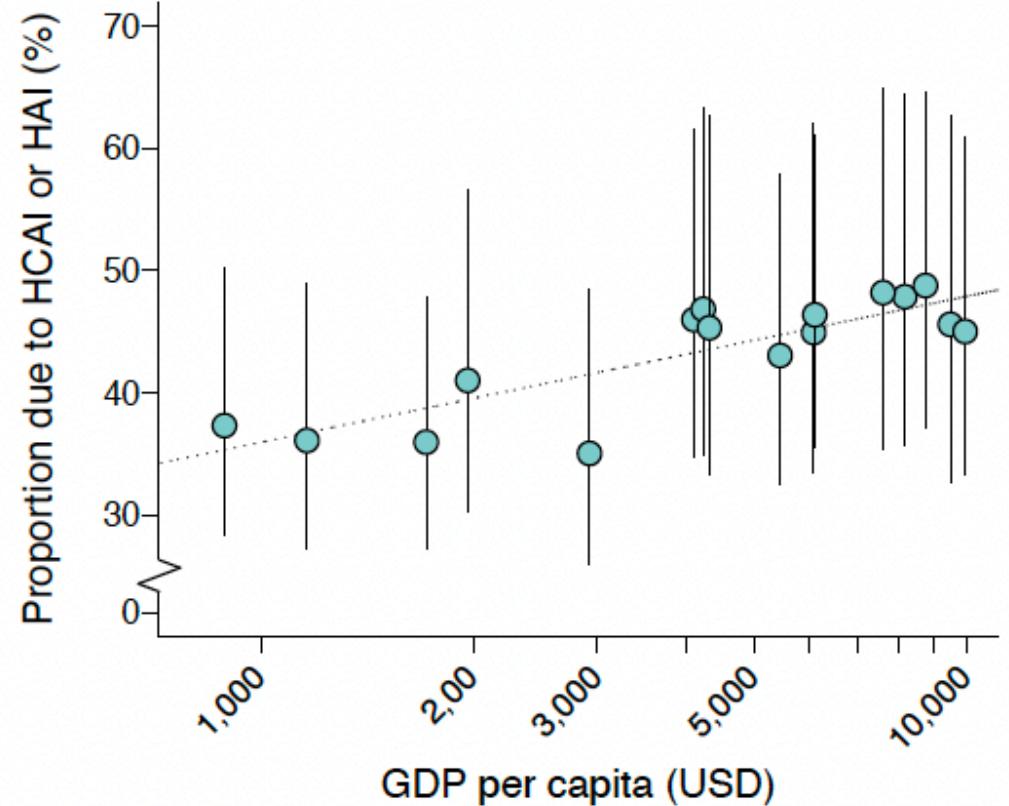
**B. Deaths by income group**



**C. DALYs by income group**

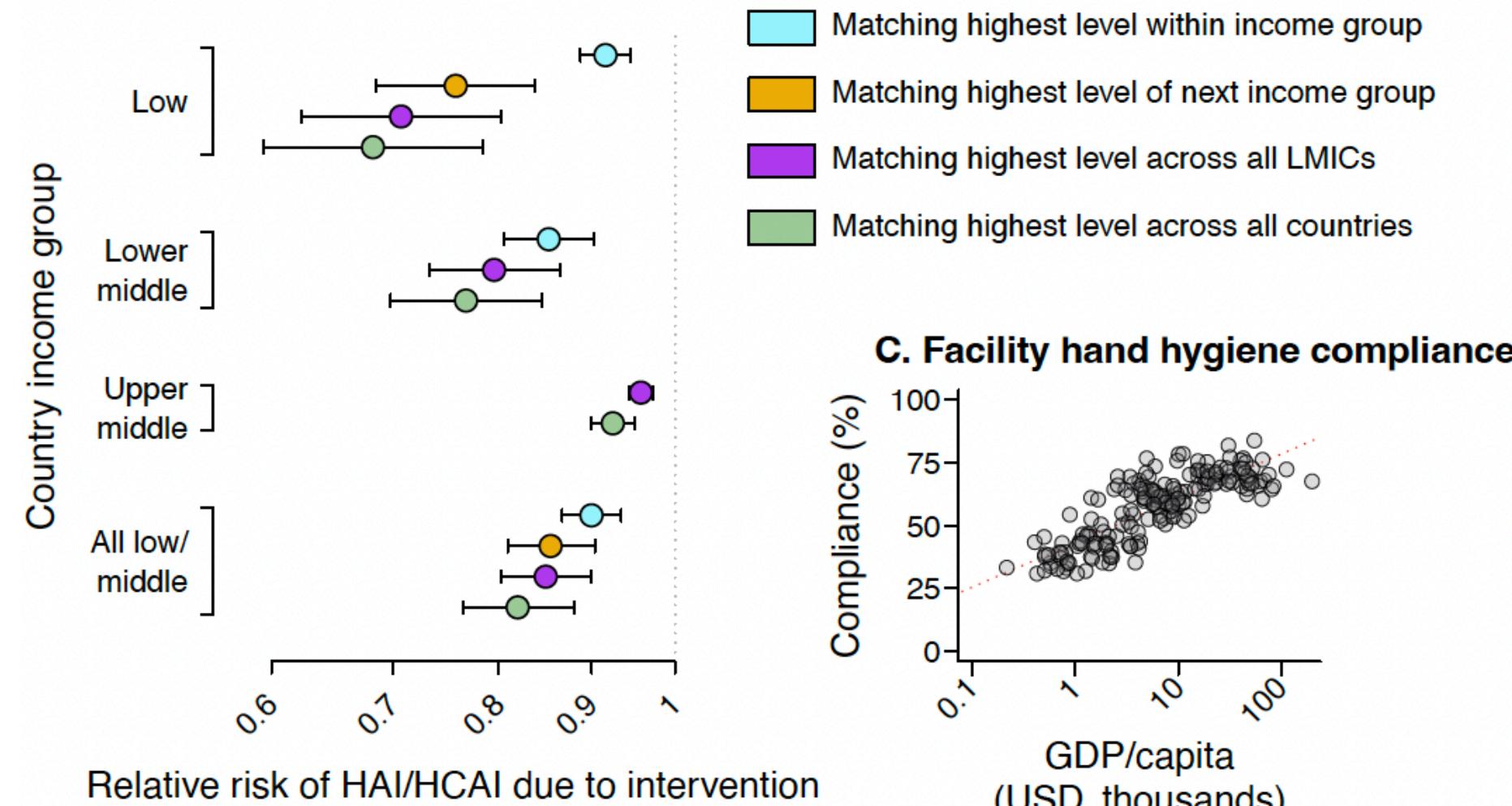


**D. Infection setting by income group**

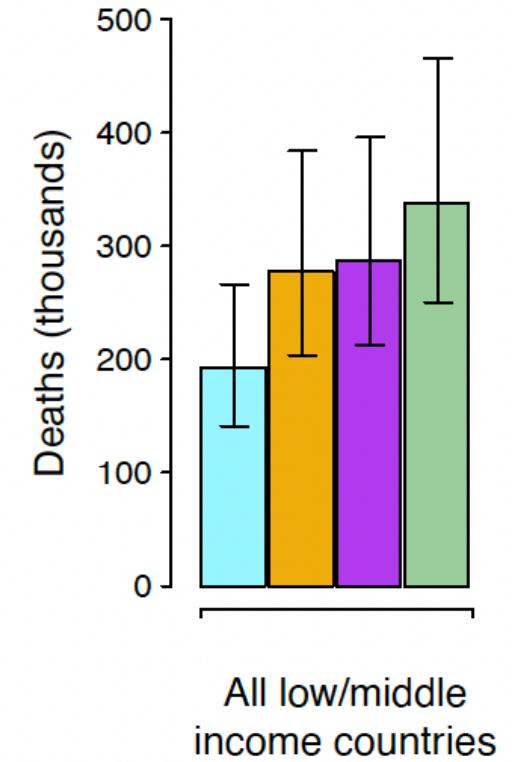
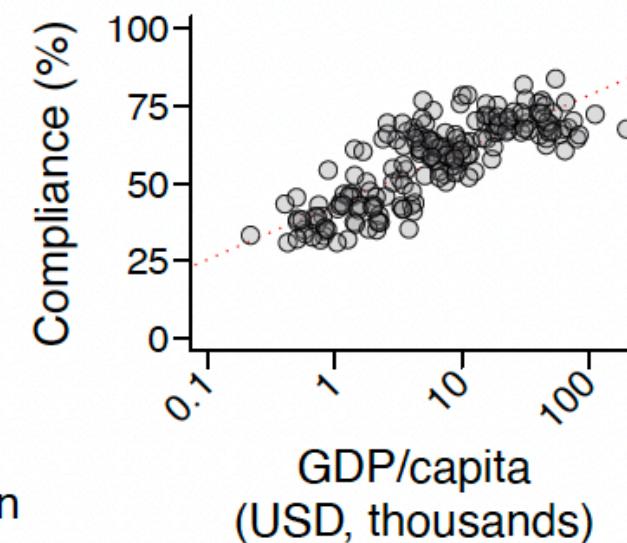


# Improving IPC relative to current levels

## B. Modifiable risk of HAI/HCAI, by intervention target and country income group

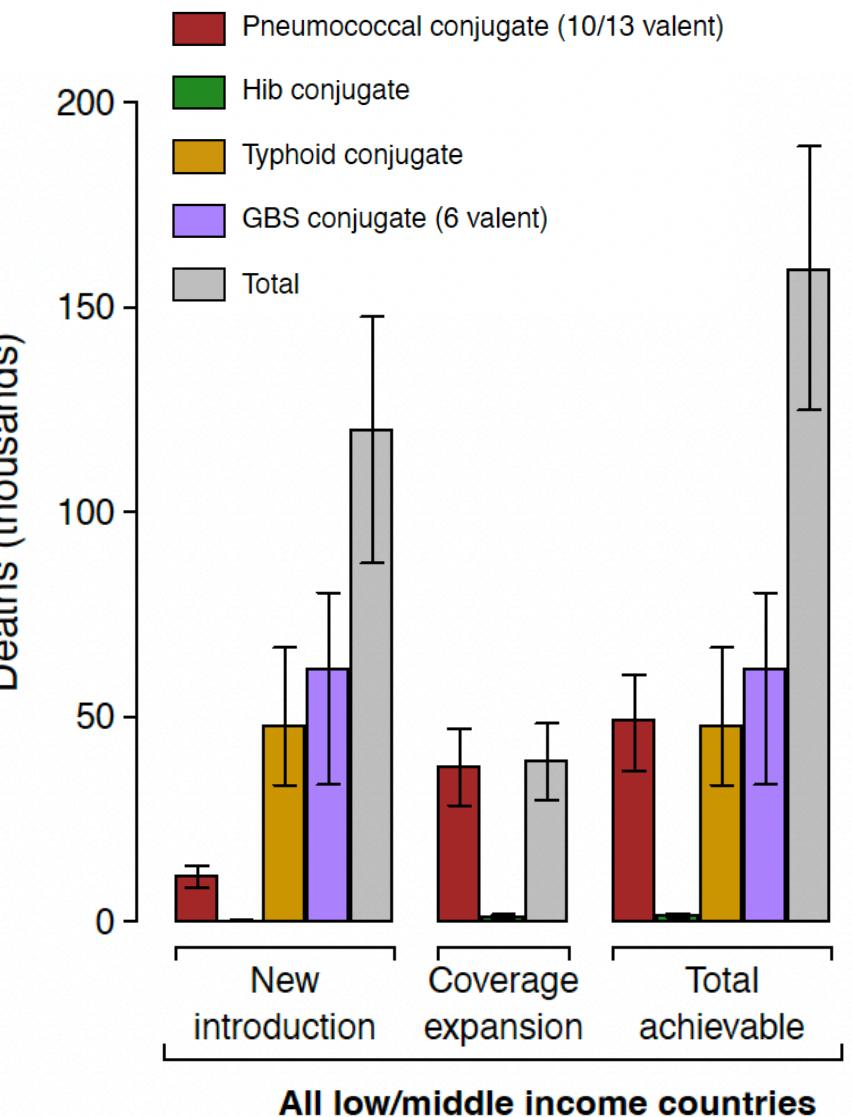
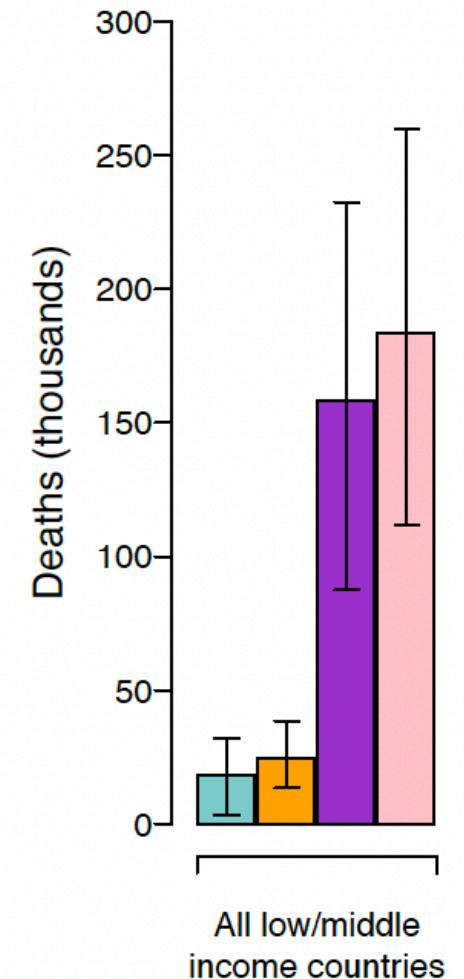
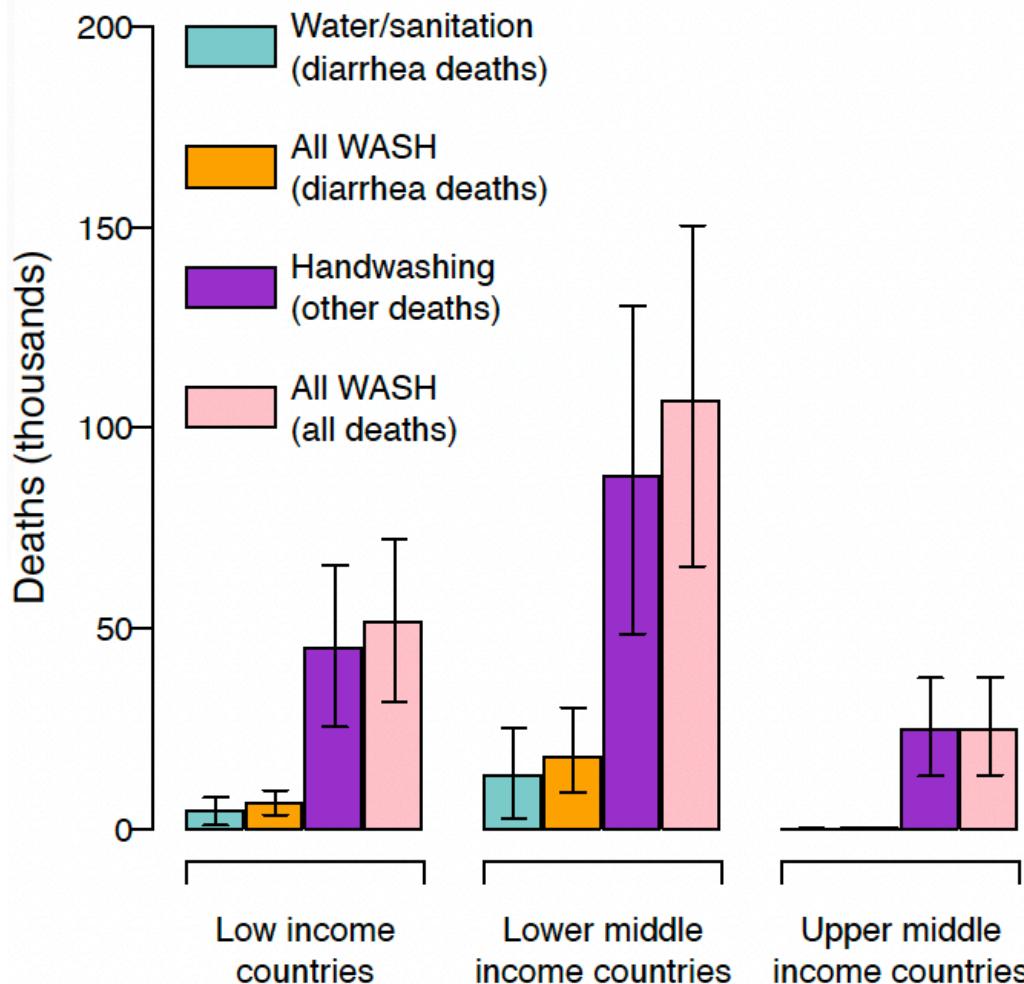


## C. Facility hand hygiene compliance

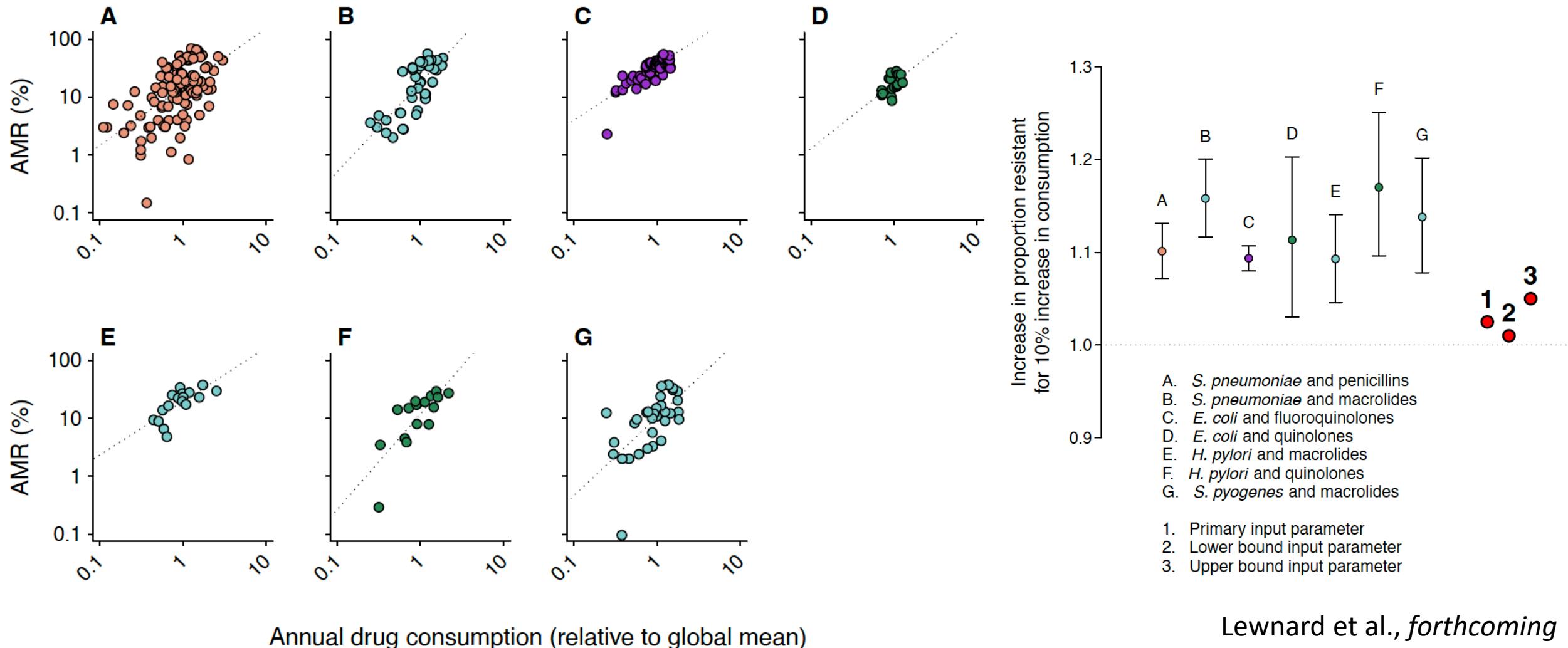


# WASH and vaccines: “direct” prevention

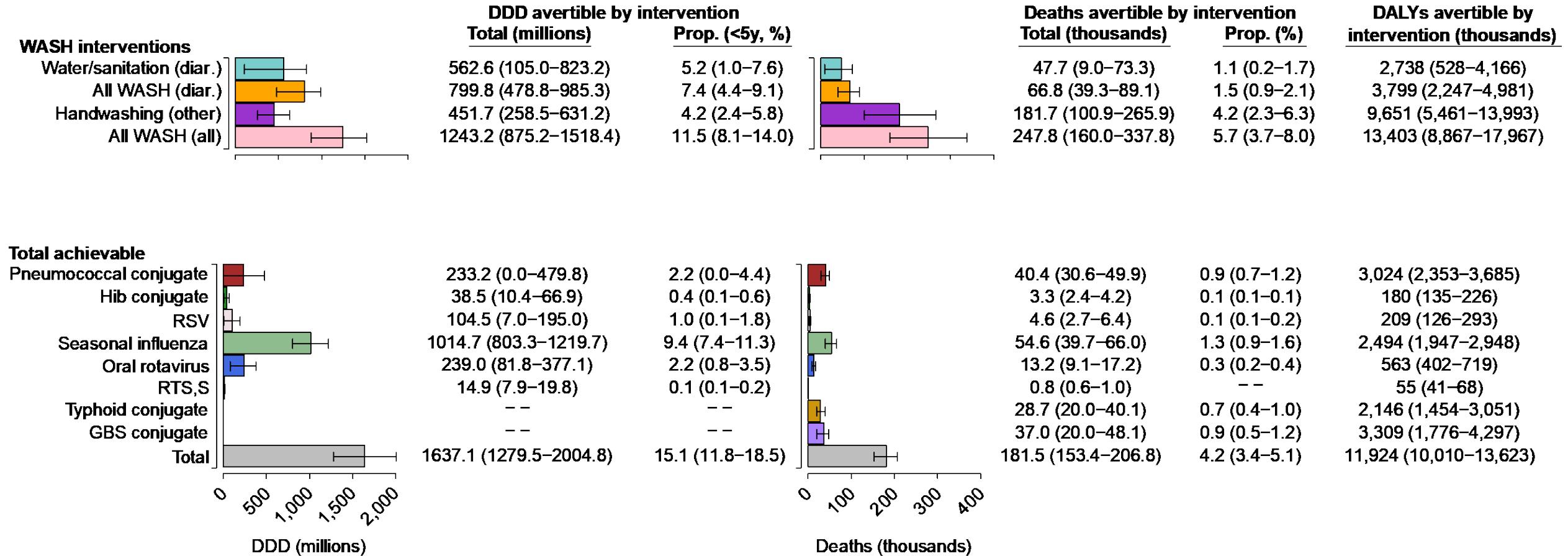
## A. Avertible deaths, by intervention, cause, and country income group



# WASH and vaccines: reducing antibiotic use and direct prevention of infections



# WASH and vaccines: accounting for antibiotic use



# Thank you

jLewnard@berkeley.edu