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Protocol for an interdisciplinary cross-sectional study investigating the social, biological and community-level drivers of antimicrobial resistance (AMR): Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibiotic Resistance in East Africa (HATUA).

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Protocol for an interdisciplinary cross-sectional study investigating the social, biological and community-level drivers of antimicrobial resistance (AMR): Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibiotic Resistance in East Africa (HATUA).

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4 seeking behaviour; Africa, Eastern.
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For peer review only

Abstract

Introduction: Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a global health threat that requires urgent research using a multidisciplinary approach. The biological drivers of AMR are well understood, but factors related to treatment-seeking and the social contexts of antibiotic (AB) use behaviours are less understood. Here we describe the Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibacterial Resistance in East Africa (HATUA), a multi-centre consortium that investigates the diverse drivers of drug-resistance in urinary tract infections (UTIs) in East Africa.

Methods and Analysis: This study will take place in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. We will conduct geospatial mapping of AB sellers, and conduct mystery client studies and in-depth interviews (IDI) with drug sellers to investigate AB provision practices. In parallel, we will conduct IDIs with doctors, alongside community focus groups. Clinically diagnosed UTI patients will be recruited from healthcare centres, provide urine samples, and complete a questionnaire capturing retrospective treatment pathways, socio-demographic characteristics, attitudes and knowledge. Bacterial isolates from urine and stool samples will be subject to culture and antibiotic susceptibility testing (C&AST). Genomic DNA from bacterial isolates will be extracted with a subset being sequenced. A follow-up household interview will be conducted with 1800 UTI-positive patients, where further environmental samples will be collected. A sub-sample of patients will be interviewed using qualitative tools. Questionnaire data, microbiological analysis and qualitative data will be linked at the individual level. Quantitative data will be analysed using statistical modelling including Bayesian network analysis, and all forms of qualitative data analysed through iterative thematic content analysis.

Ethics and Dissemination: Approvals have been obtained from all national and local ethical review bodies in East Africa and the UK. Results will be disseminated in communities, with local and global policy stakeholders, and in academic circles. They will have great potential to inform policy, improve clinical practice and build regional pathogen surveillance capacity.

Article Summary: Strengths and Limitations of the Study

- Strength: Multi-site, multi-country study with harmonised tools providing opportunity for contextual comparisons.
- Strength: Provides novel linkage at the patient level between treatment pathways, socio-demographics, knowledge and attitudes, and pathogen characteristics (antibiotic susceptibility and genetic profile).
- Strength: Describes the antibiotic provision landscape context of the patients through using geospatial mapping, mystery client and qualitative interviews.
- Limitation: Patient sample is representative of a population of Urinary Tract Infection (UTI) clinic attendees, rather than the general population.

Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) emerges when pathogens evolve ways to survive treatments (i.e. antibiotic, antiprotozoal, antiviral and antifungal medicines). Antibiotic resistance (ABR) is a significant subset of this phenomena and is the focus of this study. Increasing levels of resistance to antibiotics¹ are a serious threat to global health, and, if no action is taken, are projected to cause 10 million excess deaths by 2050 [1]. It is unlikely that this burden will be evenly distributed and Africa is particularly vulnerable to the challenges posed by AMR since the continent suffers the highest morbidity and mortality arising from infectious diseases and the least developed laboratory infrastructure [2]. The economic, cultural and ethnic diversity of Africa mean that the problems surrounding drug resistance are likely both to be distinct from other regions of the world, and to display significant intra-continental diversity. Regional solutions and local approaches are necessary.

Beyond the microbiological and biological origins of ABR and AMR there are bio-social problems requiring an interdisciplinary approach that incorporate social science perspectives on human-microbial interactions [3]. Despite this, social science perspectives on the evolution and control of AMR are rare [4]. Whilst the biological drivers of AMR in pathogens are well explored[5], the extent to which these are modulated by human behaviour in and around antibiotics (AB) is less well understood. Cultural, social, economic and clinical factors play a part in shaping the way people source, consume, use and distribute antibiotics (AB) [6]. More effective AB stewardship is acknowledged as one of the key interventions to preserve existing ABs. If this is to be achieved, then we must address the knowledge gap of structural factors and social behaviours that drive pathogens' antibiotic selection pressure and ultimately genetic changes in pathogens. Such a problem cannot be achieved by one scientific discipline acting alone. Rather, this complex, multifaceted problem requires an integrative approach able to work effectively across disciplines.

Here, we describe a newly formed consortium – the Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibacterial Resistance (HATUA). The consortium brings together expertise in microbiology, pathogen genomics, epidemiology, human geography, anthropology, sociology, computational biology and statistics across 7 institutions, from three East African countries (EAC), the UK and the United States. Taking '*Hatua*' (a Kiswahili word for 'step' or 'action') as inspiration for its acronym, the consortium addresses the social and biological drivers of antibiotic drug-resistance in multiple sites in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, using the clinical prism of urinary tract infection (UTI). UTIs are common globally, and, in LMICs rarely have a laboratory diagnosis. Moreover, they are often mistaken for other illnesses such as sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and consequently remain poorly treated [7,8]. Through synthesis across multiple sites our study, of the burden and drivers of AMR at national and regional levels, will provide insights on ABR emergence that may be applicable to other diseases and contexts.

¹ Antibiotics in this study is specifically used to refer to drugs with antibacterial activity.

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5 The research will focus on four key elements of the ABR problem in UTI: the therapy
6 landscape, the pathogen, the patient, and the community. The research will target three main
7 (inter-related) drivers: First, the supply of antibiotics, second, the level of knowledge of
8 proper use of antibiotics and third, the choice of AB by clinicians and patients and relative
9 effectiveness of treatment. In each case, we will bring novel methodological and theoretical
10 approaches to bear on the issues. Our work will deliver a unique research dataset that links
11 patients, the pathogen, and the socio-economic and socio-demographic picture of the
12 individual and their community. Through our research and impact activities, we will also
13 strengthen diagnostic and analytical capacity, and dynamic pathogen surveillance in the
14 region.
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19 **Theoretical and conceptual framework**

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22 A challenge of inter-disciplinary working is not necessarily finding commonly understood
23 methodologies but shared theoretical (ontological and epistemological) frameworks. This is a
24 theme with which the ‘one health’ paradigm must grapple if it wishes to understand how
25 infectious disease processes are products of both biological and social relations [9]. In this
26 study, we conceptualise the drivers of AB-resistant UTI infections as part of a complex system
27 of interrelating biological and social entities [10], drawing theoretical inspiration from
28 assemblage theory, which facilitates the incorporation of a range of different material
29 actors/actants (humans, animals, microbes) in a single dynamic system [11]. Its advantage is
30 that it encourages experimentalists to engage with the conscious human decision-making in
31 bio-social systems. This approach encourages social scientists to take an ‘ontological turn’,
32 recognising that ‘inanimate’ material things (be they bacteria, drugs, clinics etc), are not merely
33 inert unless given meaning by human subjects, but are themselves able to animate and produce
34 effects. [12] Consequently, we argue that ‘new materialist’ approaches[13] provide an ideal
35 framework for conceptualising AMR as a complex assemblage of human and non-human
36 entities operating at various scales.
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43 In developing our study we reviewed the extant literature on possible social and biological
44 drivers and constructed a representation of a UTI-related AMR assemblage (see simplified
45 version Fig.1) . The representation maintains the false poles of ‘social’ and ‘biological’ but
46 only to emphasise the importance of exploring the integration of socio-biological factors that
47 facilitate AMR. We know that AB suppress bacteria exerting selection pressure that results in
48 the development of ABR (Fig. 1, blue/right) but some of the drivers of this process lie in the
49 social realm (Fig 1, white/left). The behaviours of individual agents such as health care
50 workers, patients and those in the community are situated within the structures and
51 institutions that shape them. For example, improvements in structural inequalities around
52 water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) at the household or community-scale might reduce the
53 development of UTIs and the need for antimicrobial use in the first place [14], removing one
54 significant driver of AMR selective pressure.
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6 Previous research has focused on challenges faced by clinicians in attempting to prescribe
7 antimicrobials effectively, such as knowledge, diagnosis, and drug availability [15]. However
8 in EAC, pharmacies, drug shops and other informal sellers are ubiquitous, existing side by
9 side with the public and private healthcare systems, other providers such as traditional
10 healers, and veterinary providers. With such medical pluralism, non-prescription dispensing
11 of antimicrobials for self-medication is extremely common [16,17], influenced not only by
12 individual-level abilities but by larger social and regulatory structures.
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16 At the centre of this assemblage we identify a ‘new material’ nexus (coloured grey)
17 consisting of critical practices (such as dispensing, AB use in animals and AB stewardship
18 practices), and the treatment-seeking pathways of UTI patients. This central nexus describes
19 the entanglement of socio-biological processes that likely drive selective pressure in bacteria
20 and thence development of AMR UTI. A focus for HATUA is to describe and investigate the
21 social and biological drivers of patients’ treatment seeking pathways, or “patient pathways”,
22 and how these relate to patterns of AMR at individual and community level. We
23 conceptualise a patient pathway as a longitudinal sequence of health seeking behaviours
24 taken by individuals when they feel ill, which might include delays in seeking treatment, self-
25 medication, [18], attending various formal and informal healthcare providers, and taking
26 medications more or less appropriately. These pathways may be complex, non-linear and,
27 given the economic and socio-cultural barriers to clinically ideal pathways, iterative. Rather
28 than theorise healthcare decision making as patients freely and rationally choosing from a
29 suite of available options, pathway-based models view behaviour as a sequence of steps each
30 with its own situated rationality, and set of social dependencies, constraints and inter-
31 relationships [19,20]. This draws on concepts of ‘medical syncretism’ which describe how
32 patients may oscillate between different types of healthcare in a single illness episode. [21]
33 Requiring detailed longitudinal analysis, this approach has most often been operationalised
34 using qualitative interviews, as in the case of abortion-related care [22–24] and quantitative
35 approaches are rare [25–27]. In this study we collect large-scale quantitative data alongside
36 qualitative IDIs, which are linked to individual-level pathogen and AMR profiles.
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47 **Pilot Phase 2017-18**

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49 HATUA pilot activities in 2017-18 in Uganda demonstrated the feasibility of the holistic
50 approach by conducting a study of microbiological and genomic features of urinary
51 pathogens collected from clinic patients, combined with quantitative socio-demographic data.
52 Genomic characterisation of the strains (predominantly *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae*) revealed
53 high levels of resistance mainly disseminated via clonal and horizontal transfer [28]. We also
54 conducted in-depth interviews with patients and healthcare providers, and focus group
55 discussions with community members in Mbarara district, Uganda to explore behaviours and
56 attitudes to AB use. These highlighted potential drivers of AMR including distrust and
57 misuse of ABs, failure to complete treatment courses, human use of veterinary drugs and
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combined consumption of ABs and traditional medicines, which informed the development of the main study.

Methods and Analysis: Main HATUA study

Field Activities and Data Collection

HATUA's activity will take place in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania and multidisciplinary teams will sequentially survey in three study areas (SA) in each country (Figure 2). The locations are socio-demographically distinct: (1) Urban, economically advanced settings that potentially increase affordability and access to ABs; (2) Remote villages in poorer areas, where poverty, physical isolation and lower access to ABs possibly lead to potential drivers such as sharing of prescriptions, restricted microbiological culture and poor AB susceptibility testing (C&AST) capacity; and (3) Pastoralist and neglected network - areas with highly mobile pastoralist communities, and high levels of animal-human interaction fostering a zoonotic link. The tertiary hospital (level 5), and lower level healthcare facilities in the SAs (Level 4, 3 and 2 clinics/ hospitals) will be used to recruit UTI patients and also conduct interviews with healthcare providers (see Work streams (WS) 1, 2 and 3 below). Beyond the hospitals, the activity will take place in the rest of the SA, visiting AB retailers, households and communities. At the start of activities in all SAs, community inception workshops will be held to introduce and communicate the goals of HATUA to relevant stakeholders (the local community, village health teams, doctors, hospital and lab workers, local health authorities). Sampling will begin in April 2019 in some sites and will continue through 2020 (Covid-19 permitting). All data collection tools and operating protocols are standardised allowing valid comparison across sites and countries. For collecting quantitative, social science and laboratory data, and geospatial mapping we will use EpiCollect5 (<https://five.epicollect.net>) [29] a customisable mobile data gathering tool installed on tablets and mobile phones.

[Fig.2 about here]

Recruitment of sample of UTI Patients

At the heart of the HATUA study will be a linked data set of 1800 patients (600 per country, 200 per site with culture-confirmed UTI (Table 1). Given the estimated UTI prevalence from the pilot study, this will mean recruiting three times that number, c. 5400 patients. Sample size calculations were challenging, given the number of possible ways of measuring this, and limited evidence of different prevalence rates for community and hospital-acquired resistant UTI infections adults and children in this region. To estimate precision, under a binomial model, the numbers required to obtain a 95% confidence interval for the prevalence of 0.5 with width no greater than 0.1 would be a little under 400 (384). That model relies on there being no underlying population or sampling structure and so will lead to an underestimate of the true required numbers in our complex study. Our larger study size of 600 per country will provide some robustness to our ability to estimate this parameter with the desired accuracy,

while allowing us to uncover some of the population structures that, if modelled correctly, will improve the precision in our estimate of prevalence. In level 2, 3, 4 and 5 hospitals in each SA we will recruit adult and child outpatients (min. 90% of the total sample), that a doctor identifies as suffering with UTI-like symptoms (e.g. burning /irritation during urination, dysuria, pyuria). In level 5 hospitals we will also recruit inpatients (max. 10% of the total). For non-pregnant child patients aged under 18 years data, will be provided by an accompanying parent or guardian. Our sample is representative only of the population of clinic attendees, rather than the general population and is likely to include a higher proportion of patients with treatment failures, who are wealthier, and patients living closer to clinics. However, clinic attendees are an important patient subset as these are the individuals specifically for whom clinicians must make patient management and treatment decisions.

Table 1: Target sample sizes for HATUA data collection tools

	Per study site			Per country TOTAL	Study TOTAL
	Phase 1	Phase 2	Total		
Patient questionnaire	~300, to recruit 100 UTI +	~300, to recruit 100 UTI +	~600, to recruit 200 UTI +	~1800, to recruit 600 UTI +	~5400, to recruit 1800 UTI+
Household questionnaire	100	100	200	600	1800
Patient IDIs	5	5	10	30	90
Healthcare worker IDIs	1-5	0-5 to fill quota	5	15	45
Drug seller mystery client study visits	-	50	50	150	450
Drug seller IDIs	-	10	10	30	90
Focus group discussions	-	4-8	4-8	12-24	36-72

A urine sample and where possible a faecal sample will be taken from all patients. From catheterised inpatients urine catheter samples will be gathered, whereas outpatients will be advised how to self-collect mid-stream urine samples. In addition, patients will have a questionnaire administered to collect retrospective data on their recent clinical history, and related treatment seeking and AB usage (see Fig. 3). The questionnaire will also capture individual level socio-demographics (e.g. age, gender, education, household and family circumstances), household socioeconomic factors (e.g. housing type, amenities and asset ownership used to derive multidimensional poverty indices), attitudes, related behaviours and residential geographic information.

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6 During initial recruitment, all patients will be asked to consent to being followed up if they
7 test positive for a UTI. Eligible outpatients with culture-confirmed UTI will be re-contacted
8 for a follow-up to their homes (see WS4; below). For logistical reasons, only patients living
9 within an approximate distance of 70 km from the level 5 hospital and 10 km from the level 4
10 and 3 hospitals will be eligible for follow up. During follow-up a questionnaire will be
11 administered to a competent adult member of the household to capture sanitation and
12 hygiene, socio-demographics, economic and poverty dimensions, household health seeking
13 behaviour, and livestock keeping practices. Environmental sampling of soil, animal faecal
14 samples and other materials in the immediate proximity of the home will be conducted. To
15 enrich the quantitative data, a sub-sample of UTI patients will be purposively selected for
16 qualitative IDIs based on their having drug-resistant UTI pathogens or reporting complex
17 patient treatment pathways (10 per SA, 90 in total).
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23 The resulting qualitative and quantitative social science data and microbiological data will
24 form an individual-level linked dataset. This will incorporate quantitative questionnaire data
25 collected at the clinic and the home, qualitative data from IDIs, C&AST and WGS of
26 pathogens from the patient, and C&AST from household samples (see Fig. 4). This can be
27 related to multi-scalar data on landscape (WS1).
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34 **Further data collection**

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36 **Geospatial mapping:** Using EpiCollect on a GPS-enabled tablet, in all SAs, we will conduct
37 geospatial mapping of observed AB providers in the local community (e.g. from hospitals
38 and clinics, to retail pharmacies and informal drug sellers, to veterinary drug shops).
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41 **Mystery client study of drug sellers:** A common means of reducing response bias from
42 surveys is to use mystery client or simulated client studies to investigate ‘real life’ dispensing
43 practices of drugs sellers and pharmacies [17,30]. Using the sampling frame created by the
44 geospatial mapping exercise above, we will randomly select outlets to participate in a
45 simulated/mystery client study. Trained fieldworkers using predefined scenarios will request
46 ABs and/or advice for the treatment of UTI-like symptoms. After the encounter, they will
47 record data including whether and what kind of AB they were offered, the course and
48 regimen they were sold, whether they were asked for a prescription, costs, and advice given.
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53 **Qualitative IDIs with drug sellers:** We will also select 10 drug sellers/ pharmacies per SA
54 (see Table 1) for qualitative IDIs to investigate their knowledge, motivations, attitudes and
55 practices around AB provision and AMR.
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58 **Qualitative IDIs with healthcare workers:** In our recruitment hospitals /clinics, we will
59 recruit trained clinical professionals using convenience sampling to investigate their
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3 knowledge, attitudes and AB provision/prescribing practices using qualitative IDIs (5 per SA,
4 45 in total).

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8 **Community Focus Groups:** In each SA, age- and gender-specific community focus group
9 discussions will be conducted (among non-study participants), selecting from a range of
10 socio-economic status groups and focused on knowledge and attitudes towards UTIs, AMR
11 and health seeking pathways. In total up to 24 FGDs per country will be conducted.

13 **Patient and public involvement**

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16 In addition to the community focus groups conducted during pilot work, and the community
17 inception workshops (detailed above), at the end of SA activities, we will use Community
18 Dialogues (CDs) that bring together community members, health workers and veterinarians
19 to a face-to-face engagement discussing the findings, and stimulate community participation
20 and full engagement, and also identify how grassroots health workers might be used most
21 effectively to improve ABR stewardship.

25 **Research questions and data analysis plan**

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28 The main research questions and corresponding analyses are designed within five inter-linked
29 WS.

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32 **WS1: The Therapy Landscape.** This WS will investigate how ABs are provided and
33 utilised in our study areas, in a number of interlinked ways. First, by analysing the geospatial
34 data collected on AB providers, we will describe the spatial distribution and density of drug
35 dispensing outlets in both formal and informal healthcare settings. Second, we will analyse
36 the data from the mystery client studies geospatially. Third, by combining quantitative
37 statistical analysis of the mystery client study with systematic thematic coding of the
38 qualitative interviews, we will investigate the AB provision practices and knowledge among
39 different AB providers. By developing an understanding of differences in the AB provision
40 landscape and the knowledge, motivations and practices of AB sellers, we will seek to
41 determine what factors regulate individual patient pathways to AB use.

43
44 **WS2: Pathogen.** In this WS we will confirm urinary tract infection, identify the pathogenic
45 organisms present, and determine the antimicrobial susceptibility. Urine samples from 1800
46 culture-confirmed UTI patients will be analysed to investigate the burden of disease and
47 resistance. AST will be conducted on an agreed set of clinically relevant ABs along with
48 special phenotypes such as extended spectrum beta-lactam resistance (ESBL) (see Appendix
49 1). The WHONET data capture and reporting software will be adopted in all SA hub
50 laboratories, providing automated analysis of various multidrug resistant (MDR) phenotypes.
51 Genomic DNA of the samples will be extracted and sequenced. The resulting whole genome
52 sequence (WGS) libraries will be used to characterise the isolates and define pathogen
53 population structures. We will identify the local and regional spread of AMR determinants
54 and describe their evolutionary dynamics and local reservoirs among HATUA bacterial

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3 populations. These data will be linked to patient and household socio-demographics to
4 pinpoint possible drivers of resistance at patient, hospital and household level. By comparing
5 our collections with previously published genomes, high risk clones and their potential
6 origins will be determined and their spread mapped across space and time.
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10 **WS3: Patient.** This WS will investigate social, structural and behavioural drivers of AMR by
11 identifying the various patient pathways to treatment and how these intersect with the AMR
12 process. We will summarise quantitative pathway data using longitudinal latent class
13 analysis, and/or sequence analysis, and relate this statistically to AMR profiles at individual
14 and community level. To identify how treatment pathways could become more clinically
15 effective, we will combine quantitative and qualitative patient pathway data with in-depth
16 interviews from drug sellers and doctors, to investigate sources of prescribed and non-
17 prescribed ABs and practices, prevalence, and determinants of self-medication, and how
18 these is constituted.
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23 **WS4: Community.** In this WS we will investigate social and community attitudes to
24 treatment seeking, AB use and AMR and how community household level factors including
25 hygiene practices, health related behaviour, livestock keeping practices, and the household
26 microbiological landscape influence AMR and broader risk burdens. Questions in the
27 household questionnaire addressesing AB use with animals and animal products will be
28 statistically related to AMR burden in urine, faecal and environmental samples. We will also
29 analyse relevant data gathered during patient IDIs and community focus groups, using
30 systematic thematic coding in Nvivo to give us information about experiences of illness and
31 localised rationales for treatment.
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36 **WS5: Interdisciplinary synthesis.** In this WS we will integrate and synthesise the data
37 collected in WS 1-4 to explore how population and individual level behaviours and processes
38 interact to contribute to the risk of AMR. Using the patient linked dataset, we will generate
39 hypotheses about direct and indirect drivers of AMR using Bayesian network analysis. [31]
40 We will use Bayesian networks to identify latent factors in different data types and then
41 connect them with each other and key outcome variables in a heterogeneous network across
42 all data. The network structure will identify direct and indirect influences on AMR, and
43 Bayesian networks' probabilistic inference will predict the probability of impact on AMR of
44 change in different drivers. Multi-level regression will then be used to identify which of these
45 direct and indirect drivers account for the most variance in outcome and provide numerical
46 predictions of modifications.
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Discussion

Ethical considerations

Informed consent

Written informed consent will be obtained from all participants prior to any data or specimen collection, with the exception of drug sellers taking part in the mystery client study, for whom the process would invalidate the approach. Participants will consent for questionnaire-filling/interviewing/focus groups (including audio recording), and for sample collection and analysis, and shipment of samples to third-party labs for WGS. All patient samples will be non-invasive by urine & stool collection only. The principal language of recruitment and administration of the informed consent document (ICD) and the questionnaire will be the language used in hospitals (i.e. Kiswahili for Kenya and Tanzania, and Luganda, Runyankole and Ngakarimojong for Uganda). Local translators will be used to draft the ICD, and ICD will be back -translated. The consent process will be administered by fieldworkers who understand the relevant languages and dialects.

Privacy and confidentiality

A number of procedures will be used to protect the confidentiality of respondents and the information collected: (1) Questionnaires/interviews will be conducted only in a private setting; (2) All interviewers will be trained in research ethics; (3) All data will be kept strictly confidential and numeric IDs will be used in place of names on all of the data collection instruments. At each new step of data collection, participants will be informed of confidentiality procedures during the consent process. All patients in the linked part of the study will be anonymised and identified through an 8-figure identifier, and barcode to link social science and laboratory data effectively. Any personal data will be stored on handwritten consent forms securely, and separately from questionnaire, test results and patient IDs. EpiCollect data are uploaded to a secure cloud server. The reason for recruitment to the household follow-up will not be disclosed or discussed with anyone except the patient/respondent themselves. Geospatial data identifying home locations and drug sellers will be edited to avoid disclosure. Participants in other IDI and FGDs together with data from mystery client visits will be anonymised and recordings, translations and transcriptions will be stored and transferred securely.

Ethics approvals

The study received ethical approval from the University of St Andrews, UK (No. MD14548, 10/09/19); National Institute for Medical Research, Tanzania (No. 2831, updated 26/07/19), CUHAS/BMC research ethics and review committee (No. CREC /266/2018, updated on 02/2019), Mbeya Medical Research and Ethics Committee (No. SZEC-2439/R.A/V.1/303030), Kilimanjaro Christian Medical College, Tanzania (No. 2293, updated 14/08/19); Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (No. HS2406, 18/06/18); Makerere University, Uganda (No. 514, 25/04/18); and Kenya Medical Research Institute (04/06/19); Scientific and Ethics review committee(SERU) No.

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3 KEMRI/SERU/CMR/P00112/3865 V.1.2 . For Uganda, administrative letters of support were
4 obtained from the District Health Officers (DHOs) to allow the research to be conducted in
5 the respective hospitals and health centres.
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8 **Results dissemination, and impact**

9 HATUA's data will be available via an interactive website that will collate and present AMR
10 data from across the EAC overlaid with socio-economic, microbiological and genome data.
11 Data will be visualised and shared in Microreact (<https://microreact.org>) [32]. The
12 consortium is partnered with the East African Health Research Commission (EAHRC), a
13 statutory organ of the EAC (East African Community) which will spearhead the integration
14 of HATUA outputs into policy at the EAC level. In the near-term, this will allow doctors to
15 access information they can use to improve diagnosis and prescription patterns based on
16 resistance profiles prevailing locally. In the longer-term, HATUA will lay a strong
17 foundation for a regional surveillance initiative, and will provide a vital resource for regional
18 AMR policy formulation. The results have great potential to inform policy, improve clinical
19 practice and build capacity for pathogen surveillance in the region. The novel linked
20 microbiological, genomic and social science linked data will provide new insights into social
21 drivers of AMR.
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30
31

32 **Authorship Statement**

33
34 The following are members of the HATUA (Holistic Approach to Unravel Antibacterial
35 Resistance in East Africa) Consortium:

36 Matthew T. G. Holden (UK, project PI) , Benon B. Asiimwe (Co-I, Uganda), John Kiiru (Co-
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48 **Contributorship statement**

49
50 MH led the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed protocols and data collection
51 tools, and is the guarantor of the project. BBA contributed to the conceptualisation of the
52 project, helped designed the tools, and led the pilot data collection and main data collection in
53 Uganda. JK contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and
54 led the pilot data collection and main data collection in Kenya. SEM contributed to the
55 conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and led the pilot data collection
56 and main data collection in Tanzania. SN contributed to the conceptualisation of the project,
57 helped designed the social science tools, led the pilot data collection and coordinates social
58 science data collection in Uganda, and leads WS4. KK contributed to the conceptualisation of
59
60

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2
3 the project, helped designed the social science tools, contributed to the analysis plan, leads
4 WS5, and wrote the first draft of this protocol. MK contributed to the conceptualisation of the
5 project, helped designed the social science tools, contributed to the analysis plan. JRM
6 contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the social science tools,
7 and coordinates social science data collection in Tanzania. DJS contributed to the
8 conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and leads WS3. BTM contributed
9 to the conceptualisation of the project, and helps coordinates data collection in Kilimanjaro,
10 Tanzania. VAS contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, wrote parts of the data
11 analysis plan and supervises analyses. SG contributed to the conceptualisation of the project,
12 leads WS2, and oversees microbiological data quality. AS coordinates data collection and
13 work stream activities and helped write this draft protocol. JS contributed to the
14 conceptualisation of the project, and provides oversight to WS2. AE contributed to the
15 conceptualisation of the project, and provides analytical oversight to WS2. DA contributed to
16 the conceptualisation of the project, and the genomic analysis for WS2. GSK contributed to
17 the conceptualisation of the project, and facilitates policy dissemination in EAC. WS
18 contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped design the tools, and leads WS1.
19 All authors revised the draft paper.
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23 **Competing interests**

24 We declare no competing interests.
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26
27

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52 **Data sharing statement**

53 We intend to make anonymised data available for research purposes in a secure platform in
54 due course.
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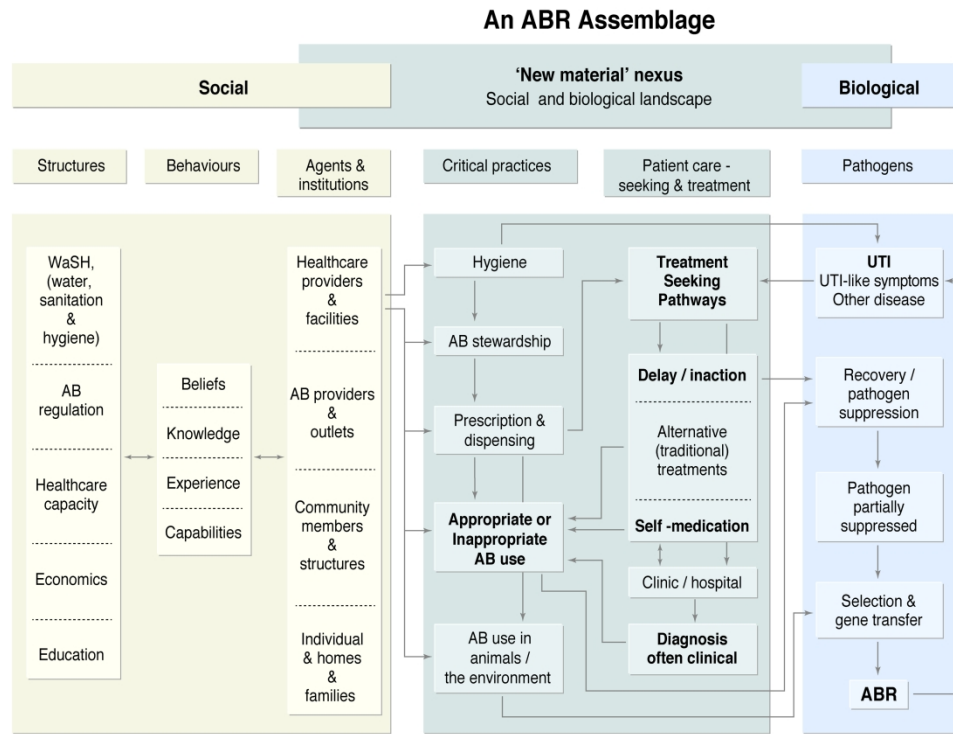


Fig.1: An ABR assemblage (a complex set of inter-related factors) as it refers to UTI

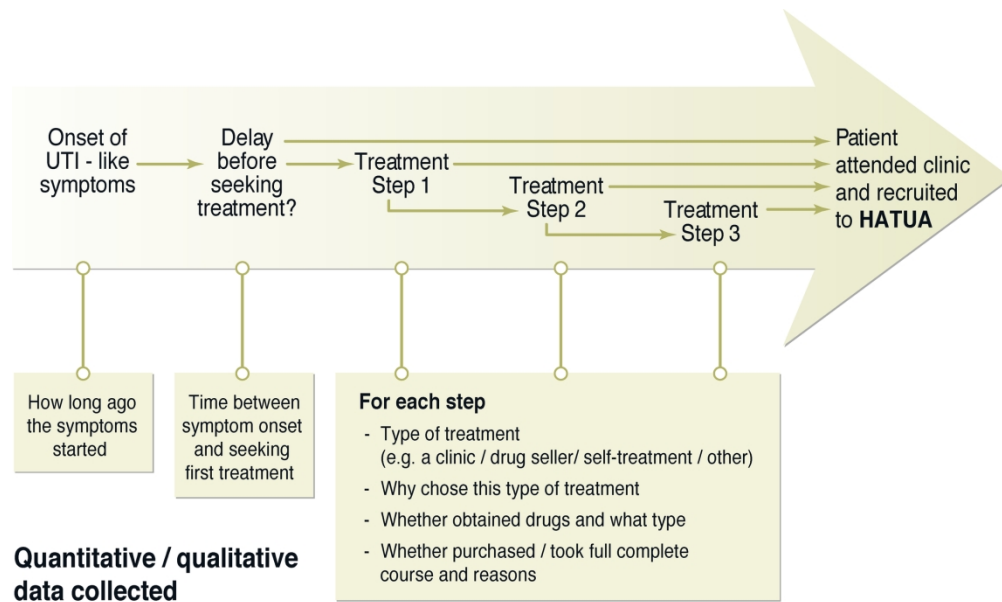
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Figure 2: Location of HATUA Study Areas (SAs)

90x108mm (600 x 600 DPI)



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Figure 3: Description of quantitative and qualitative data collected about the self-reported 'patient pathway' in the linked patient sample

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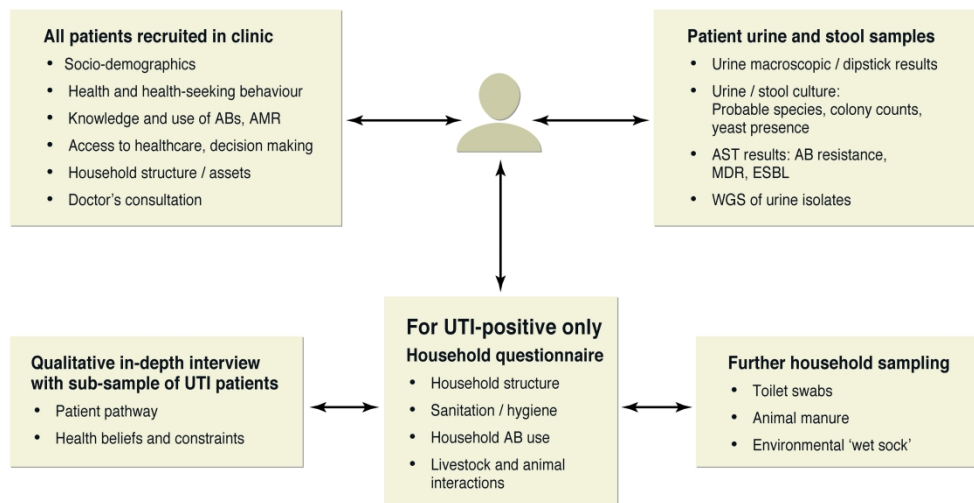


Figure 4: The linked individual-level patient dataset collected in HATUA

155x80mm (600 x 600 DPI)

Appendix A. Agreed set of clinically relevant ABs for AST

Class	Generic Name
Penicillins + β -lactamase inhibitors	Amoxicillin/clavulanate
Anti-staphylococcal β -lactams	Cefoxitin
ESBL Cephalosporins	Ceftazidime
ESBL Cephalosporins	Ceftriaxone
Fluoroquinolones	Ciprofloxacin
Macrolides	Erythromycin
Aminoglycosides	Gentamycin
Oxazolidinones	Linezolid
Quinolone	Nalidixic Acid
Nitrofurantoin	Nitrofurantoin
Folate pathway inhibitors	Sulfamethoxazole
Tetracycline	Tetracycline
Folate pathway inhibitors	Trimethoprim
Glycopeptides	Vancomycin

BMJ Open

Protocol for an interdisciplinary cross-sectional study investigating the social, biological and community-level drivers of antimicrobial resistance (AMR): Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibiotic Resistance in East Africa (HATUA)

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2020-041418.R1
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	14-Jan-2021
Complete List of Authors:	<p>Asiimwe, Benon; Makerere University, School of Biomedical Sciences Kiiru, John; KEMRI, Centre of Microbiology Research Mshana, Stephen E.; Catholic University of Health and Allied Sciences, Department of Microbiology and Immunology Neema, Stella; Makerere University, College of Humanities and Social Science Keenan, Katherine; University of St Andrews, Geography and Sustainable Development Kesby, Mike; University of St Andrews, Geography and Sustainable Development Mwanga, Joseph R.; Catholic University of Health and Allied Sciences, Public Health Sloan, Derek; University of Saint Andrews, School of Medicine mmbaga, blandina; Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre, Department of Paediatrics Smith, V Anne; University of St Andrews, School of Biology Gillespie, Stephen; University of St Andrews, School of Medicine Lynch, Andy G.; University of St Andrews, Schools of Mathematics and Statistics and Medicine Sandeman, Alison; University of St Andrews, School of Medicine Stelling, John; Brigham and Women's Hospital, Department of Medicine Elliott, Alison; London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Clinical Research Department; Medical Research Council/Uganda Virus Research Institute and London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine Uganda Research Institute Aanensen, David; Centre for Genomic Pathogen Surveillance, Wellcome Genome Campus; University of Oxford, Big Data Institute Kibiki, Gibson E.; East African Health Research Commission Sibiiti, Wilber; University of St Andrews, School of Medicine Holden, M; University of Saint Andrews, Consortium, HATUA; University of St Andrews, School of Medicine</p>
Primary Subject Heading:	Global health
Secondary Subject Heading:	Infectious diseases, Pharmacology and therapeutics, Qualitative research, Urology, Public health

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Keywords:	Urinary tract infections < UROLOGY, Microbiology < NATURAL SCIENCE DISCIPLINES, SOCIAL MEDICINE, Infection control < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Public health < INFECTIOUS DISEASES

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Protocol for an interdisciplinary cross-sectional study investigating the social, biological and community-level drivers of antimicrobial resistance (AMR): Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibiotic Resistance in East Africa (HATUA).

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3 **Keywords:** Drug Resistance, Microbial; Urinary Tract Infections; antimicrobial stewardship; drug-
4 seeking behaviour; Africa, Eastern.
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6 **Word count:** 4,571 words.
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For peer review only

Abstract

Introduction: Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a global health threat that requires urgent research using a multidisciplinary approach. The biological drivers of AMR are well understood, but factors related to treatment-seeking and the social contexts of antibiotic (AB) use behaviours are less understood. Here we describe the Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibacterial Resistance in East Africa (HATUA), a multi-centre consortium that investigates the diverse drivers of drug-resistance in urinary tract infections (UTIs) in East Africa.

Methods and Analysis: This study will take place in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. We will conduct geospatial mapping of AB sellers, and conduct mystery client studies and in-depth interviews (IDI) with drug sellers to investigate AB provision practices. In parallel, we will conduct IDIs with doctors, alongside community focus groups. Clinically diagnosed UTI patients will be recruited from healthcare centres, provide urine samples, and complete a questionnaire capturing retrospective treatment pathways, socio-demographic characteristics, attitudes and knowledge. Bacterial isolates from urine and stool samples will be subject to culture and antibiotic susceptibility testing (C&AST). Genomic DNA from bacterial isolates will be extracted with a subset being sequenced. A follow-up household interview will be conducted with 1800 UTI-positive patients, where further environmental samples will be collected. A sub-sample of patients will be interviewed using qualitative tools. Questionnaire data, microbiological analysis and qualitative data will be linked at the individual level. Quantitative data will be analysed using statistical modelling including Bayesian network analysis, and all forms of qualitative data analysed through iterative thematic content analysis.

Ethics and Dissemination: Approvals have been obtained from all national and local ethical review bodies in East Africa and the UK. Results will be disseminated in communities, with local and global policy stakeholders, and in academic circles. They will have great potential to inform policy, improve clinical practice and build regional pathogen surveillance capacity.

Article Summary: Strengths and Limitations of the Study

- Strength: Multi-site, multi-country study with harmonised tools providing opportunity for contextual comparisons.
- Strength: Provides novel linkage at the patient level between treatment pathways, socio-demographics, knowledge and attitudes, and pathogen characteristics (antibiotic susceptibility and genetic profile).
- Strength: Describes the antibiotic provision landscape context of the patients through using geospatial mapping, mystery client and qualitative interviews.
- Limitation: Patient sample is representative of a population of Urinary Tract Infection (UTI) clinic attendees, rather than the general population.

Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) emerges when pathogens evolve ways to survive treatments (i.e. antibiotic, antiprotozoal, antiviral and antifungal medicines). Antibiotic resistance (ABR) is a significant subset of this phenomena and is the focus of this study. Increasing levels of resistance to antibiotics¹ are a serious threat to global health, and, if no action is taken, are projected to cause 10 million excess deaths by 2050 [1]. It is unlikely that this burden will be evenly distributed and Africa is particularly vulnerable to the challenges posed by AMR/ABR since the continent suffers the highest morbidity and mortality arising from infectious diseases and the least developed laboratory infrastructure [2]. The economic, cultural and ethnic diversity of Africa mean that the problems surrounding drug resistance are likely both to be distinct from other regions of the world, and to display significant intra-continental diversity. Regional solutions and local approaches are necessary.

Beyond the microbiological and biological origins of ABR and AMR there are bio-social problems requiring an interdisciplinary approach that incorporate social science perspectives on human-microbial interactions [3]. Despite this, social science perspectives on the evolution and control of AMR are rare [4]. Whilst the biological drivers of AMR in pathogens are well explored[5], the extent to which these are modulated by human behaviour in and around antibiotics (AB) is less well understood. Cultural, social, economic and clinical factors play a part in shaping the way people source, consume, use and distribute antibiotics (AB) [6]. More effective AB stewardship is acknowledged as one of the key interventions to preserve existing ABs. If this is to be achieved, then we must address the knowledge gap of structural factors and social behaviours that drive pathogens' antibiotic selection pressure and ultimately genetic changes in pathogens. Such a problem cannot be achieved by one scientific discipline acting alone. Rather, this complex, multifaceted problem requires an integrative approach able to work effectively across disciplines.

Here, we describe a newly formed consortium – the Holistic Approach to Unravelling Antibacterial Resistance (HATUA). The consortium brings together expertise in microbiology, pathogen genomics, epidemiology, human geography, anthropology, sociology, computational biology and statistics across 7 institutions, from three East African countries (EAC), the UK and the United States. Taking '*Hatua*' (a Kiswahili word for 'step' or 'action') as inspiration for its acronym, the consortium addresses the social and biological drivers of antibiotic drug-resistance in multiple sites in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, using the clinical prism of urinary tract infection (UTI). UTIs are common globally, and, in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) rarely have a laboratory diagnosis. Moreover, they are often mistaken for other illnesses such as sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and consequently remain poorly treated [7,8]. Through synthesis across multiple sites our study, of the burden and drivers of ABR at national and regional levels, will provide insights on ABR emergence that may be applicable to other diseases and contexts.

¹ Antibiotics in this study is specifically used to refer to drugs with antibacterial activity.

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5 The research will focus on four key elements of the ABR problem in UTI: the therapy
6 landscape; the pathogen; the patient; and the community. The research will target three main
7 (inter-related) drivers: First, the supply of antibiotics; second, the level of knowledge of
8 proper use of antibiotics and third; the choice of AB by clinicians and patients and relative
9 effectiveness of treatment. In each case, we will bring novel methodological and theoretical
10 approaches to bear on the issues. Our work will deliver a unique research dataset that links
11 patients, the pathogen, and the socio-economic and socio-demographic picture of the
12 individual and their community. Through our research and impact activities, we will also
13 strengthen diagnostic and analytical capacity, and dynamic pathogen surveillance in the
14 region.
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19 **Theoretical and conceptual framework**

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22 A challenge of inter-disciplinary working is not necessarily finding commonly understood
23 methodologies but shared theoretical (ontological and epistemological) frameworks. This is a
24 theme with which the ‘one health’ paradigm must grapple if it wishes to understand how
25 infectious disease processes are products of both biological and social relations [9]. In this
26 study, we conceptualise the drivers of AB-resistant UTI infections as part of a complex system
27 of interrelating biological and social entities [10], drawing theoretical inspiration from
28 assemblage theory, which facilitates the incorporation of a range of different material
29 actors/actants (humans, animals, microbes) in a single dynamic system [11]. Its advantage is
30 that it encourages experimentalists to engage with the conscious human decision-making in
31 bio-social systems. This approach encourages social scientists to take an ‘ontological turn’,
32 recognising that ‘inanimate’ material things (be they bacteria, drugs, clinics etc), are not merely
33 inert unless given meaning by human subjects, but are themselves able to animate and produce
34 effects. [12] Consequently, we argue that ‘new materialist’ approaches[13] provide an ideal
35 framework for conceptualising ABR as a complex assemblage of human and non-human
36 entities operating at various scales.
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43 In developing our study we reviewed the extant literature on possible social and biological
44 drivers and constructed a representation of a UTI-related ABR assemblage (see simplified
45 version Fig.1) . The representation maintains the false poles of ‘social’ and ‘biological’ but
46 only to emphasise the importance of exploring the integration of socio-biological factors that
47 facilitate ABR. We know that AB suppress bacteria exerting selection pressure that results in
48 the development of ABR (Fig. 1, blue/right) but some of the drivers of this process lie in the
49 social realm (Fig 1, white/left). The behaviours of individual agents such as health care
50 workers, patients and those in the community are situated within the structures and
51 institutions that shape them. For example, improvements in structural inequalities around
52 water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) at the household or community-scale might reduce the
53 development of UTIs and the need for antimicrobial use in the first place [14], removing one
54 significant driver of ABR selective pressure.
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6 Previous research has focused on challenges faced by clinicians in attempting to prescribe
7 antimicrobials effectively, such as knowledge, diagnosis, and drug availability [15]. However
8 in EAC, pharmacies, drug shops and other informal sellers are ubiquitous, existing side by
9 side with the public and private healthcare systems, other providers such as traditional
10 healers, and veterinary providers. With such medical pluralism, non-prescription dispensing
11 of antimicrobials for self-medication is extremely common [16,17], influenced not only by
12 individual-level abilities but by larger social and regulatory structures.
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16 At the centre of this assemblage (Figure 1) we identify a ‘new material’ nexus (coloured
17 grey) consisting of critical practices (such as dispensing, AB use in animals and AB
18 stewardship practices), and the treatment-seeking pathways of UTI patients. This central
19 nexus describes the entanglement of socio-biological processes that likely drive selective
20 pressure in bacteria and thence development of ABR UTI. A focus for HATUA is to
21 describe and investigate the social and biological drivers of patients’ treatment seeking
22 pathways, or “patient pathways”, and how these relate to patterns of ABR at individual and
23 community level. We conceptualise a patient pathway as a longitudinal sequence of health
24 seeking behaviours taken by individuals when they feel ill, which might include delays in
25 seeking treatment, self-medication, [18], attending various formal and informal healthcare
26 providers, and taking medications more or less appropriately. These pathways may be
27 complex, non-linear and, given the economic and socio-cultural barriers to clinically ideal
28 pathways, iterative. Rather than theorise healthcare decision making as patients freely and
29 rationally choosing from a suite of available options, pathway-based models view behaviour
30 as a sequence of steps each with its own situated rationality, and set of social dependencies,
31 constraints and inter-relationships [19,20]. This draws on concepts of ‘medical syncretism’
32 which describe how patients may oscillate between different types of healthcare in a single
33 illness episode. [21] Requiring detailed longitudinal analysis, this approach has most often
34 been operationalised using qualitative interviews, as in the case of abortion-related care [22–
35 24] and quantitative approaches are rare [25–27]. In this study we collect large-scale
36 quantitative data alongside qualitative IDIs, which are linked to individual-level pathogen
37 and ABR profiles.
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48 **Pilot Phase 2017-18**

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50 HATUA pilot activities in 2017-18 in Uganda and Kenya aimed to develop capacity and
51 demonstrate the feasibility of the holistic study design by conducting a study of
52 microbiological and genomic features of urinary pathogens collected from clinic patients,
53 combined with quantitative socio-demographic data. Patients with UTI-like symptoms were
54 recruited in public clinics and hospitals in Nairobi, Kenya and Isingiro District, Uganda, and
55 provided bacterial samples (most commonly urine, but also stool). In Uganda, 129 of these
56 patients (or their guardians) also completed questionnaires capturing their socio-demographic
57 features, antibiotic knowledge and behavioural characteristics (see summary in Appendix A,
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3 Table A1). While the sample size for the questionnaire was not sufficient for detailed
4 statistical analysis, the data indicated a higher proportion of women recruited than men (71%
5 female), and the majority of patients were of working age. Over half of the respondents had
6 taken medication in the last six months (55%), and of those who did, most obtained
7 medications from clinics or health centres and nearly one fifth (18%) from drug shops.
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11 Urine samples were analysed using culture and antibiotic sensitivity testing (C&AST) and a
12 total of 150 bacterial isolates (n=91 from Kenya and n=59 from Uganda) were genomically
13 characterised, which confirmed high prevalence of uropathogenic strains *E. coli* and *K.*
14 *pneumoniae*, and revealed high levels of multi-drug resistance mainly disseminated via clonal
15 and horizontal transfer (the full results are reported here [28]). This exploratory pilot study
16 illustrated the feasibility of collecting linked microbiological, genomic and socio-economic
17 data, and highlighted important operational fieldwork issues regarding linkage, and follow-up
18 to the homestead.
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23 We also conducted in-depth interviews with healthcare providers (e.g. nursing assistants),
24 and four focus group discussions with community members (mainly crop farmers and
25 pastoralists) in Isingiro district, Uganda to explore behaviours and attitudes to AB use, and
26 identify possible drivers of ABR for hypothesis generation. These data were analysed using
27 thematic content analysis, which highlighted potential drivers of ABR. Among community
28 members, these included including distrust and misuse of ABs, failure to complete treatment
29 courses, human use of veterinary drugs and combined consumption of ABs and traditional
30 medicines, which informed the development of the research questions in the main study.
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35 **Methods and Analysis: Main HATUA study**

36 **Field Activities and Data Collection**

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38 HATUA's activity will take place in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania and multidisciplinary
39 teams will sequentially survey in three study areas (SA) in each country (Figure 2). The
40 locations are socio-demographically distinct: (1) Urban, economically advanced settings that
41 potentially increase affordability and access to ABs; (2) Remote villages in poorer areas,
42 where poverty, physical isolation and lower access to ABs possibly lead to potential drivers
43 such as sharing of prescriptions, restricted microbiological culture and poor AB susceptibility
44 testing (C&AST) capacity; and (3) Pastoralist and neglected network - areas with highly
45 mobile pastoralist communities, and high levels of animal-human interaction fostering a
46 zoonotic link. The tertiary hospital (level 5), and lower level healthcare facilities in the SAs
47 (Level 4, 3 and 2 clinics/ hospitals) will be used to recruit UTI patients and also conduct
48 interviews with healthcare providers (see Work streams (WS) 1, 2 and 3 below). Beyond the
49 hospitals, the activity will take place in the rest of the SA, visiting AB retailers, households
50 and communities. At the start of activities in all SAs, community inception workshops will be
51 held to introduce and communicate the goals of HATUA to relevant stakeholders (the local
52 community, village health teams, doctors, hospital and lab workers, local health authorities).
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3 Sampling will begin in April 2019 in some sites and will continue through 2020 (Covid-19
4 permitting). All data collection tools and operating protocols are standardised allowing valid
5 comparison across sites and countries. For collecting quantitative, social science and
6 laboratory data, and geospatial mapping we will use EpiCollect5 (<https://five.epicollect.net>)
7 [29] a customisable mobile data gathering tool installed on tablets and mobile phones.
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11 [Fig.2 about here]
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14 **Recruitment of sample of UTI Patients**

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16 At the heart of the HATUA study will be a linked data set of 1800 patients (600 per country,
17 200 per site with culture-confirmed UTI (Table 1). Given the estimated UTI prevalence from
18 the pilot study, this will mean recruiting three times that number, c. 5400 patients. Sample
19 size calculations were challenging, given the number of possible ways of measuring this, and
20 limited evidence of different prevalence rates for community and hospital-acquired resistant
21 UTI infections of adults and children in this region. To estimate precision, under a binomial
22 model, the numbers required to obtain a 95% confidence interval for the prevalence of 0.5
23 with width no greater than 0.1 would be a little under 400 (384). That model relies on there
24 being no underlying population or sampling structure and so will lead to an underestimate of
25 the true required numbers in our complex study. Our larger study size of 600 per country will
26 provide some robustness to our ability to estimate this parameter with the desired accuracy,
27 while allowing us to uncover some of the population structures that, if modelled correctly,
28 will improve the precision in our estimate of prevalence. In level 2, 3, 4 and 5 hospitals in
29 each SA we will recruit adult and child outpatients (min. 90% of the total sample), that a
30 doctor identifies as suffering with UTI-like symptoms (e.g. burning /irritation during
31 urination, dysuria, pyuria). In level 5 hospitals we will also recruit inpatients (max. 10% of
32 the total). For non-pregnant child patients aged under 18 years data, will be provided by an
33 accompanying parent or guardian. Our sample is representative only of the population of
34 clinic attendees, rather than the general population and is likely to include a higher proportion
35 of patients with treatment failures, who are wealthier, and patients living closer to clinics.
36 However, clinic attendees are an important patient subset as these are the individuals
37 specifically for whom clinicians must make patient management and treatment decisions.
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Table 1: Target sample sizes for HATUA data collection tools

	Per study site			Per country TOTAL	Study TOTAL
	Phase 1	Phase 2	Total		
Patient questionnaire	~300, to recruit 100 UTI +	~300, to recruit 100 UTI +	~600, to recruit 200 UTI +	~1800, to recruit 600 UTI +	~5400, to recruit 1800 UTI+
Household questionnaire	100	100	200	600	1800
Patient IDIs	5	5	10	30	90
Healthcare worker IDIs	1-5	0-5 to fill quota	5	15	45
Drug seller mystery client study visits	-	50	50	150	450
Drug seller IDIs	-	10	10	30	90
Focus group discussions	-	4-8	4-8	12-24	36-72

A urine sample and where possible a faecal sample will be taken from all patients. From catheterised inpatients urine catheter samples will be gathered, whereas outpatients will be advised how to self-collect mid-stream urine samples. In addition, patients will have a questionnaire administered to collect retrospective data on their recent clinical history, and related treatment seeking and AB usage (see Figs. 3 and 4 for the topics covered in the questionnaire). The questionnaire will capture individual level socio-demographics (e.g. age, gender, education, household and family circumstances), household socioeconomic factors (e.g. housing type, amenities and asset ownership used to derive multidimensional poverty indices), treatment seeking behaviours, attitudes towards medication, antibiotics and AMR, and residential geographic information.

[Fig 3 about here]

During initial recruitment, all patients will be asked to consent to being followed up if they test positive for a UTI. Eligible outpatients with culture-confirmed UTI will be re-contacted for a follow-up to their homes (see WS4; below). For logistical reasons, only patients living within an approximate distance of 70 km from the level 5 hospital and 10 km from the level 4 and 3 hospitals will be eligible for follow up. During follow-up a questionnaire will be administered to a competent adult member of the household to capture sanitation and hygiene, socio-demographics, economic and poverty dimensions, household health seeking behaviour, and livestock keeping practices. Environmental sampling of soil, animal faecal

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3 samples and other materials in the immediate proximity of the home will be conducted using
4 a variety of approaches, including toilet swabs, and boot sock/swab sampling of the soil in
5 and around the homestead. To enrich the quantitative data, a sub-sample of UTI patients will
6 be purposively selected for qualitative IDIs based on their having drug-resistant UTI
7 pathogens or reporting complex patient treatment pathways (10 per SA, 90 in total). The
8 qualitative interviews will be conducted using a standardised topic guide across sites, which
9 covers experience of illness, stigma, patient pathway narratives, experience of the doctor's
10 consultation and subsequent steps, understanding of risk factors for UTI, AMR and AB
11 stewardship.
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16 The resulting qualitative and quantitative social science data and microbiological data will
17 form an individual-level linked dataset. This will incorporate quantitative questionnaire data
18 collected at the clinic and the home, qualitative data from IDIs, C&AST and WGS of
19 pathogens from the patient, and C&AST from household samples (see Fig. 4). This can be
20 related to multi-scalar data on landscape (WS1).
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27 **Further data collection**

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29 **Geospatial mapping:** Using EpiCollect on a GPS-enabled tablet, in all SAs, we will conduct
30 geospatial mapping of observed AB providers in the local community (e.g. from hospitals
31 and clinics, to retail pharmacies and informal drug sellers, to veterinary drug shops).
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35 **Mystery client study of drug sellers:** A common means of reducing response bias from
36 surveys is to use mystery client or simulated client studies to investigate 'real life' dispensing
37 practices of drugs sellers and pharmacies [17,30]. Using the sampling frame created by the
38 geospatial mapping exercise above, we will randomly select outlets to participate in a
39 simulated/mystery client study. Trained fieldworkers using predefined scenarios will request
40 ABs and/or advice for the treatment of UTI-like symptoms. After the encounter, they will
41 record data including whether and what kind of AB they were offered, the course and
42 regimen they were sold, whether they were asked for a prescription, costs, and advice given.
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47 **Qualitative IDIs with drug sellers:** We will also select 10 drug sellers/ pharmacies per SA
48 (see Table 1) for qualitative IDIs to investigate their knowledge, motivations, attitudes and
49 practices around AB provision and ABR. These will discuss the service they provide to the
50 community, understanding and attitude to governance and AMR, and about the business and
51 economic drivers of their work.
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55 **Qualitative IDIs with healthcare workers:** In our recruitment hospitals /clinics, we will
56 recruit trained clinical professionals using convenience sampling to investigate their
57 knowledge and attitudes using qualitative IDIs (5 per SA, 45 in total). The topic guide covers
58 experience of UTI diagnosis and prescribing, knowledge, attitudes towards 'antibiotic
59 stewardship', and understandings of drivers of ABR including economic, and cultural issues.
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5 **Community Focus Groups:** In each SA, age- and gender-specific community focus group
6 discussions will be conducted (among non-study participants), selecting from a range of
7 socio-economic status groups. The topic guide will cover experience of illness, pathways to
8 care, experience of healthcare services, accessing antibiotics, perceptions of AMR, and
9 antibiotic stewardship. In total up to 24 FGDs per country will be conducted.
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12 **Patient and public involvement**

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15 In addition to the community focus groups conducted during pilot work, and the community
16 inception workshops (detailed above), at the end of SA activities, we will use Community
17 Dialogues (CDs) that bring together community members, health workers and veterinarians
18 to a face-to-face engagement discussing the findings, and stimulate community participation
19 and full engagement, and also identify how grassroots health workers might be used most
20 effectively to improve ABR stewardship.
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23 **Research questions and data analysis plan**

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27 The main research questions and corresponding analyses are designed within five inter-linked
28 WS.
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31 **WS1: The Therapy Landscape.** This WS will investigate how ABs are provided and
32 utilised in our study areas, in a number of interlinked ways. First, by analysing the geospatial
33 data collected on AB providers, we will describe the spatial distribution and density of drug
34 dispensing outlets in both formal and informal healthcare settings. Second, we will analyse
35 the data from the mystery client studies geospatially. Third, by combining quantitative
36 statistical analysis of the mystery client study with systematic thematic coding of the
37 qualitative interviews, we will investigate the AB provision practices and knowledge among
38 different AB providers. By developing an understanding of differences in the AB provision
39 landscape and the knowledge, motivations and practices of AB sellers, we will seek to
40 determine what factors regulate individual patient pathways to AB use.
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45 **WS2: Pathogen.** In this WS we will confirm urinary tract infection, identify the pathogenic
46 organisms present, and determine the antimicrobial susceptibility. Urine samples from 1800
47 culture-confirmed UTI patients will be analysed to investigate the burden of disease and
48 resistance. AST will be conducted on an agreed set of clinically relevant ABs along with
49 special phenotypes such as extended spectrum beta-lactam resistance (ESBL) (see Appendix
50 B). The WHONET data capture and reporting software will be adopted in all SA hub
51 laboratories, providing automated analysis of various multidrug resistant (MDR) phenotypes.
52 Genomic DNA of the samples will be extracted and sequenced. The resulting whole genome
53 sequence (WGS) libraries will be used to characterise the isolates and define pathogen
54 population structures. We will identify the local and regional spread of ABR determinants
55 and describe their evolutionary dynamics and local reservoirs among HATUA bacterial
56 populations. These data will be linked to patient and household socio-demographics to
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3 pinpoint possible drivers of resistance at patient, hospital and household level. By comparing
4 our collections with previously published genomes, high risk clones and their potential
5 origins will be determined and their spread mapped across space and time.
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8 **WS3: Patient.** This WS will investigate social, structural and behavioural drivers of ABR by
9 identifying the various patient pathways to treatment and how these intersect with the ABR
10 process. We will summarise quantitative pathway data using longitudinal latent class
11 analysis, and/or sequence analysis, and relate this statistically to ABR profiles at individual
12 and community level. To identify how treatment pathways could become more clinically
13 effective, we will combine quantitative and qualitative patient pathway data with in-depth
14 interviews from drug sellers and doctors, to investigate sources of prescribed and non-
15 prescribed ABs and practices, prevalence, and determinants of self-medication, and how
16 these is constituted.
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22 **WS4: Community.** In this WS we will investigate social and community attitudes to
23 treatment seeking, AB use and ABR and how community household level factors including
24 hygiene practices, health related behaviour, livestock keeping practices, and the household
25 microbiological landscape influence ABR and broader risk burdens. Questions in the
26 household questionnaire addressesing AB use with animals and animal products will be
27 statistically related to ABR burden in urine, faecal and environmental samples. We will also
28 analyse relevant data gathered during patient IDIs and community focus groups, transcribed
29 and translated by local translators and fieldworkers, using systematic thematic coding in
30 Nvivo to give us information about experiences of illness and localised rationales for
31 treatment.
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36 **WS5: Interdisciplinary synthesis.** In this WS we will integrate and synthesise the data
37 collected in WS 1-4 to explore how population and individual level behaviours and processes
38 interact to contribute to the risk of ABR. Using the patient linked dataset, we will generate
39 hypotheses about direct and indirect drivers of ABR using Bayesian network analysis. [31]
40 We will use Bayesian networks to identify latent factors in different data types and then
41 connect them with each other and key outcome variables in a heterogeneous network across
42 all data. The network structure will identify direct and indirect influences on ABR, and
43 Bayesian networks' probabilistic inference will predict the probability of impact on ABR of
44 change in different drivers. Multi-level regression will then be used to identify which of these
45 direct and indirect drivers account for the most variance in outcome and provide numerical
46 predictions of modifications. Information about antibiotic sensitivity of urinary pathogens
47 will be blinded from fieldworkers conducting household visits and questionnaires, and from
48 microbiologists collecting environmental samples from households, to ensure fidelity.
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55 **Ethics and Dissemination**

56 **Ethical considerations**

57 *Informed consent*

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Written informed consent will be obtained from all participants prior to any data or specimen collection, with the exception of drug sellers taking part in the mystery client study, for whom the process would invalidate the approach. Participants will consent for questionnaire-filling/interviewing/focus groups (including audio recording, which will be subsequently transcribed and translated by locally trained fieldworkers), and for sample collection and analysis, and shipment of samples to third-party labs for WGS. All patient samples will be non-invasive by urine & stool collection only. The principal language of recruitment and administration of the informed consent document (ICD) and the questionnaire will be the language used in hospitals (i.e. Kiswahili for Kenya and Tanzania, and Luganda, Runyankole and Ngakarimojong for Uganda). Local translators will be used to draft the ICD, and ICD will be back-translated. The consent process will be administered by fieldworkers who understand the relevant languages and dialects.

Privacy and confidentiality

A number of procedures will be used to protect the confidentiality of respondents and the information collected: (1) Questionnaires/interviews will be conducted only in a private setting; (2) All interviewers will be trained in research ethics; (3) All data will be kept strictly confidential and numeric IDs will be used in place of names on all of the data collection instruments. At each new step of data collection, participants will be informed of confidentiality procedures during the consent process. All patients in the linked part of the study will be anonymised and identified through an 8-figure identifier, and barcode to link social science and laboratory data effectively. Any personal data will be stored on handwritten consent forms securely, and separately from questionnaire, test results and patient IDs. EpiCollect data are uploaded to a secure cloud server. The reason for recruitment to the household follow-up will not be disclosed or discussed with anyone except the patient/respondent themselves. Geospatial data identifying home locations and drug sellers will be edited to avoid disclosure. Participants in other IDI and FGDs together with data from mystery client visits will be anonymised and recordings, translations and transcriptions will be stored and transferred securely.

Ethics approvals

The study received ethical approval from the University of St Andrews, UK (No. MD14548, 10/09/19); National Institute for Medical Research, Tanzania (No. 2831, updated 26/07/19), CUHAS/BMC research ethics and review committee (No. CREC /266/2018, updated on 02/2019), Mbeya Medical Research and Ethics Committee (No. SZEC-2439/R.A/V.1/303030), Kilimanjaro Christian Medical College, Tanzania (No. 2293, updated 14/08/19); Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (No. HS2406, 18/06/18); Makerere University, Uganda (No. 514, 25/04/18); and Kenya Medical Research Institute (04/06/19); Scientific and Ethics review committee(SERU) No. KEMRI/SERU/CMR/P00112/3865 V.1.2 . For Uganda, administrative letters of support were obtained from the District Health Officers (DHOs) to allow the research to be conducted in the respective hospitals and health centres.

Results dissemination, and impact

HATUA's data will be available via an interactive website that will collate and present ABR data from across the EAC overlaid with socio-economic, microbiological and genome data. Data will be visualised and shared in Microreact (<https://microreact.org>) [32]. The consortium is partnered with the East African Health Research Commission (EAHRC), a statutory organ of the EAC (East African Community) which will spearhead the integration of HATUA outputs into policy at the EAC level. In the near-term, this will allow doctors to access information they can use to improve diagnosis and prescription patterns based on resistance profiles prevailing locally. In the longer-term, HATUA will lay a strong foundation for a regional surveillance initiative, and will provide a vital resource for regional ABR policy formulation. The results have great potential to inform policy, improve clinical practice and build capacity for pathogen surveillance in the region. The novel linked microbiological, genomic and social science linked data will provide new insights into social drivers of ABR.

Figure legends/captions.

Fig.1: An ABR assemblage (a complex set of inter-related factors) as it refers to UTI

Figure 2: Location of HATUA Study Areas (SAs)

Figure 3: Description of quantitative and qualitative data collected about the self-reported 'patient pathway' in the linked patient sample

Figure 4: The linked individual-level patient dataset collected in HATUA

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Authorship Statement

The following are members of the HATUA (Holistic Approach to Unravel Antibacterial Resistance in East Africa) Consortium:

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Contributorship statement

MH led the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed protocols and data collection tools, and is the guarantor of the project.

BBA contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and led the pilot data collection and main data collection in Uganda.

JK contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and led the pilot data collection and main data collection in Kenya.

SEM contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and led the pilot data collection and main data collection in Tanzania.

SN contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the social science tools, led the pilot data collection and coordinates social science data collection in Uganda, and leads WS4. KK contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the social science tools, contributed to the analysis plan, leads WS5, and wrote the first draft of this protocol. MK contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the social science tools, contributed to the analysis plan.

JRM contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the social science tools, and coordinates social science data collection in Tanzania. DJS contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped designed the tools, and leads WS3. BTM contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, and helps coordinates data collection in Kilimanjaro, Tanzania. VAS contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, wrote parts of the data analysis plan and supervises analyses. SG contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, leads WS2, and oversees microbiological data quality. AGL advised on the statistical elements fo the project, and helped draft this protocol. AS coordinates data collection and work stream activities and helped write this draft protocol. JS contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, and provides oversight to WS2. AE contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, and provides analytical oversight to WS2. DA contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, and the genomic analysis for WS2. GSK contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, and facilitates policy dissemination in EAC. WS contributed to the conceptualisation of the project, helped design the tools, and leads WS1. All authors revised the draft and revised versions of the paper.

Competing interests

We declare no competing interests.

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10 **Data sharing statement**

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13 We intend to make anonymised data available for research purposes in a secure platform in
14 due course.
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For peer review only

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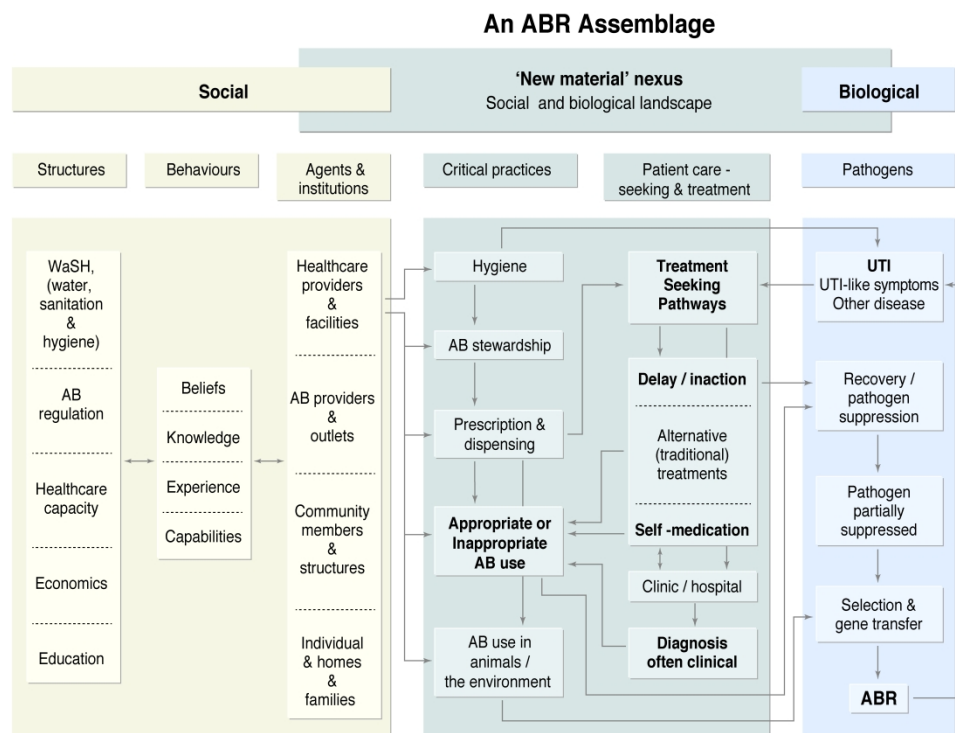
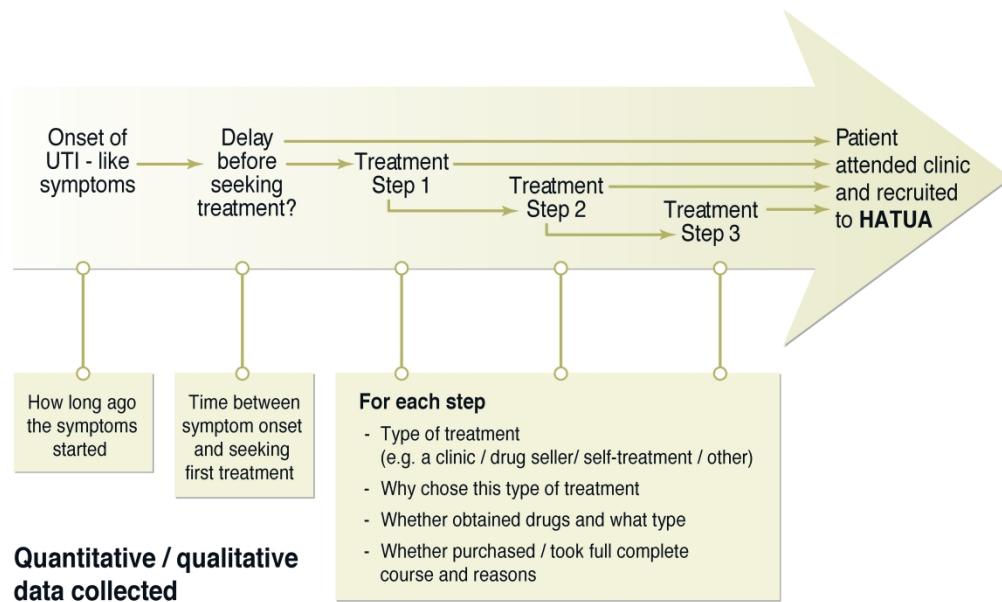


Fig.1: An ABR assemblage (a complex set of inter-related factors) as it refers to UTI

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Figure 2: Location of HATUA Study Areas (SAs)



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Figure 3: Description of quantitative and qualitative data collected about the self-reported 'patient pathway' in the linked patient sample

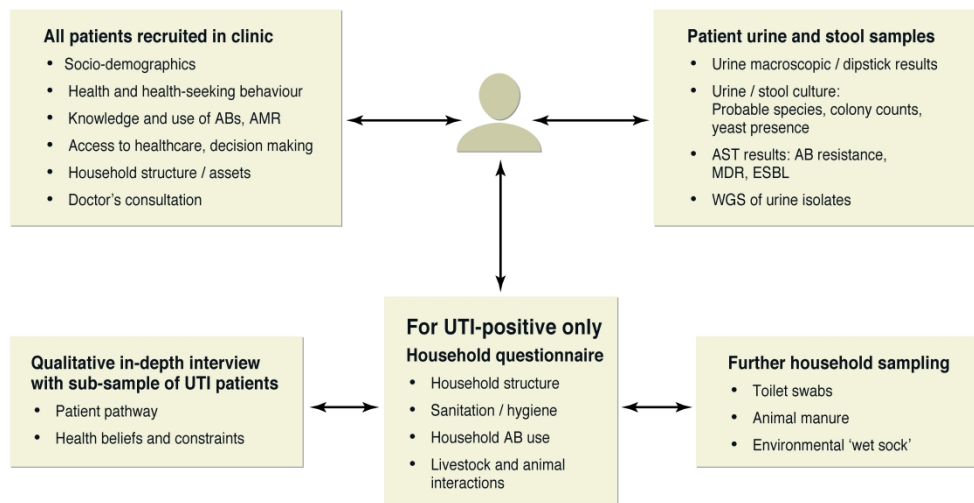


Figure 4: The linked individual-level patient dataset collected in HATUA

Appendix A. Data summary of HATUA Pilot data relating to patient recruitment

Table A1: Summary of socio-demographic characteristics of patients recruited in Mbarara district, Uganda.

	N	%
Gender		
Male	38	29.5
Female	91	70.5
Missing	0	0
Age		
Less than 18	14	10.9
18-34	57	44.2
35-54	47	36.4
55 and over	9	7.0
Missing	2	1.5
Education		
None	30	23.2
Primary	79	61.3
Secondary	14	10.9
Tertiary	4	3.1
Missing	2	1.5
Taken medication in the past 6 months		
No	38	29.5
Yes	72	55.8
Missing	19	14.7
Of those who did, where obtained medication from (multiple choice possible)		
Clinic/ health centre	67	93.0
Drug seller	13	18.0

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3 **Appendix B. Agreed set of clinically relevant ABs for AST**
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AB Class	Generic Name
Penicillins + β -lactamase inhibitors	Amoxicillin/clavulanate
Anti-staphylococcal β -lactams	Cefoxitin
ESBL Cephalosporins	Ceftazidime
ESBL Cephalosporins	Ceftriaxone
Fluoroquinolones	Ciprofloxacin
Macrolides	Erythromycin
Aminoglycosides	Gentamycin
Oxazolidinones	Linezolid
Quinolone	Nalidixic Acid
Nitrofurantoin	Nitrofurantoin
Folate pathway inhibitors	Sulfamethoxazole
Tetracycline	Tetracycline
Folate pathway inhibitors	Trimethoprim
Glycopeptides	Vancomycin