



AGENDA



- Wastewater-based Epidemiological Surveillance & the IWA Cluster Gertjan Medema, KWR Water Research Institute, Netherlands
- Non-sewered settings
 Sudhir Pillay, Water Research Commission, South Africa
- SARS-CoV-2 surveillance in non-sewered settings in South Africa
 Gina Pocock & Fiona Els, Waterlab & National Center for Infectious Diseases, South Africa
- Ensuring Health Equity: Infectious Disease Surveillance in South East Asia through Non-sewered Wastewater Leshan Wannigama, Chulalongkorn University and King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Thailand
- Wastewater-Based Multi-Pathogen Surveillance in Malawi: Lesson and possible application to One Health Petros Chigwechokha, Malawi University of Science and Technology, Malawi
- Wastewater surveillance from Vellore, India utilities, insights and challenges Dilip Abraham, Christian Medical College Vellore, India
- Q&A Panel Discussion
 Speakers & Moderators
- Close Gertjan Medama & Sudhir Pillay

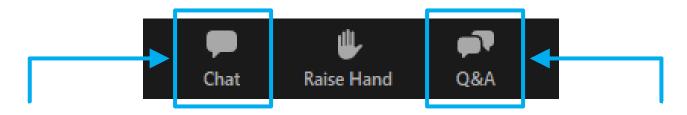
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WEBINAR INFORMATION





- 'Chat' box: please use this for general requests and for interactive activities.
- 'Q&A' box: please use this to send questions to the panelists.
 (We will answer these during the discussions)

Please Note: Attendees' microphones are muted. We cannot respond to 'Raise Hand'.

SPEAKERS & MODERATORS





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South Africa



Dilip Abraham India



Leshan Wannigama Thailand

South Africa

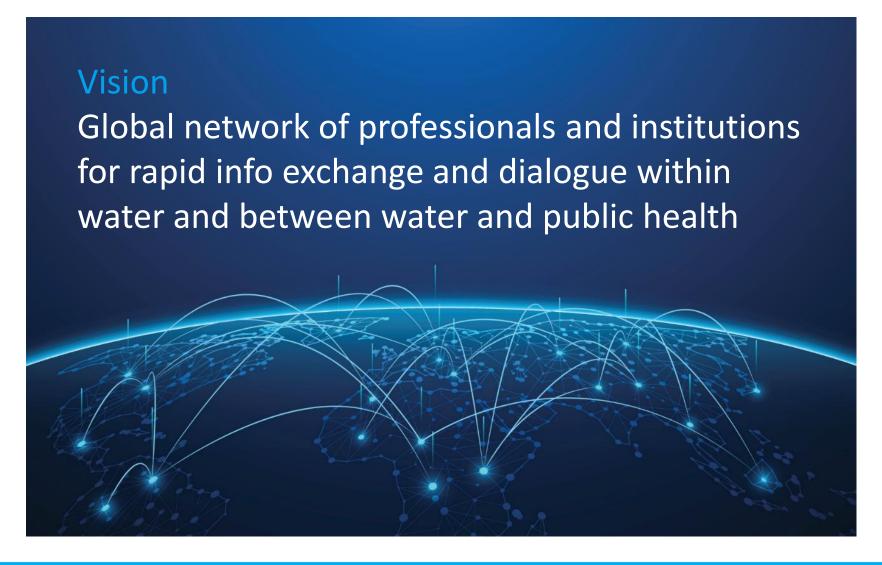
Sudhir Pillay





IWA CLUSTER WASTEWATER-BASED EPIDEMIOLOGICAL SURVEILLANCE





MULTIDISCIPLINARY IN WATER





LINKING WATER TO PUBLIC HEALTH







Deutsches Ärzteblatt



WEBINAR

Wastewater surveillance in non-sewered settings

16 May 2024 15:00 BST



Gertjan Medema KWR Netherlands



Sudhir Pillay WRC South Africa



Gina Pocock
Waterlab
South Africa



Fiona Els NICD South Africa



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GETTING TO KNOW YOU



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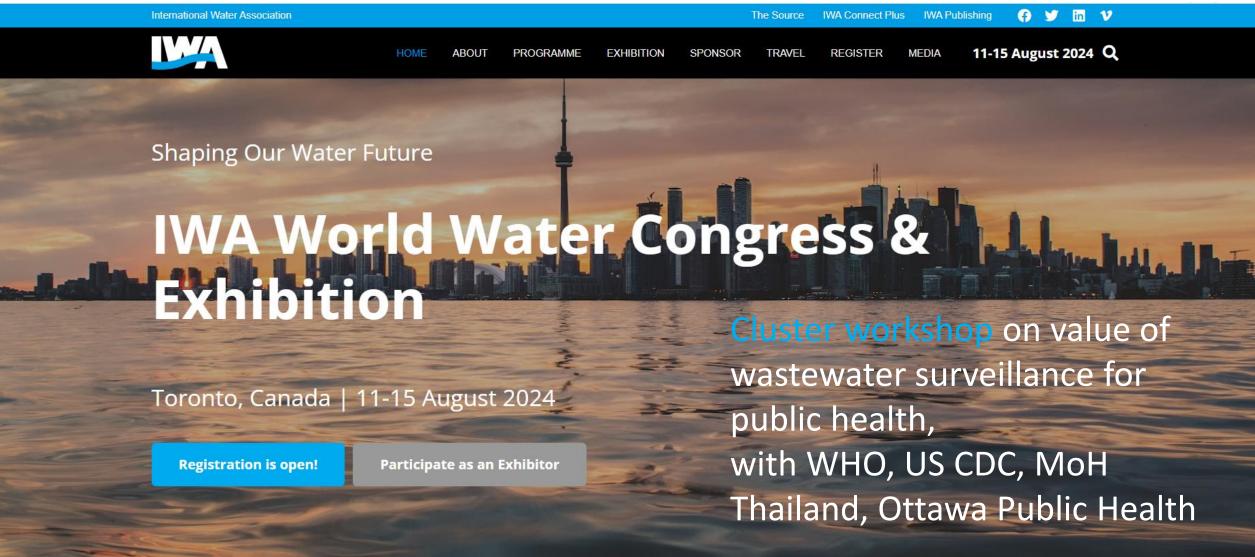
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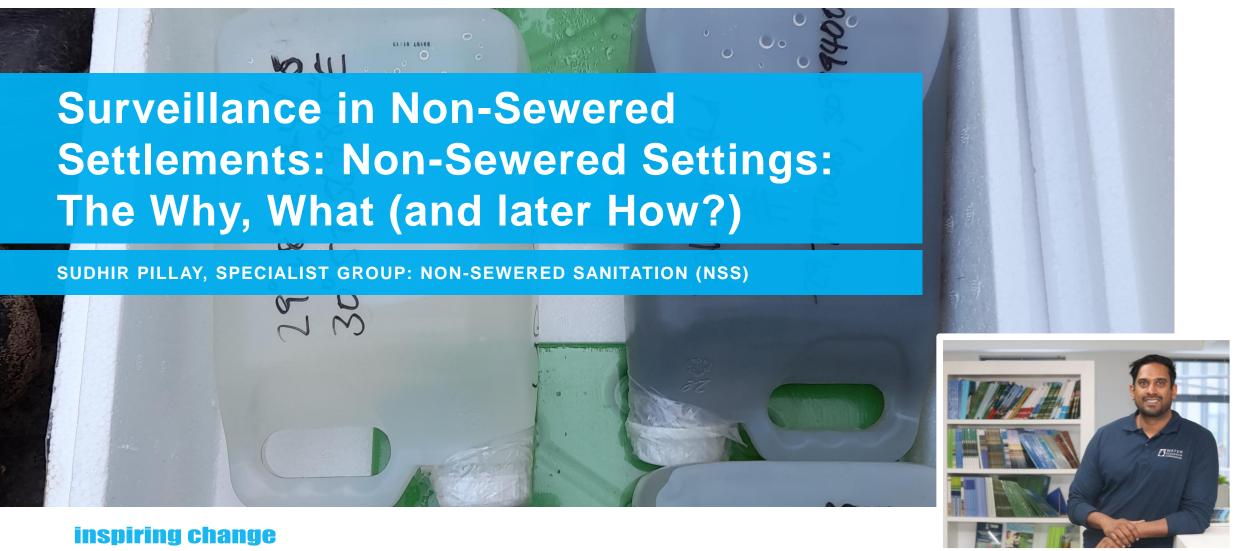
or scan this QR

IWA CLUSTER WASTEWATER-BASED EPIDEMIOLOGICAL SURVEILLANCE









Main photo by WaterLab PTY LTD

WHAT ARE NON-SEWERED AREAS

- Any sanitation system treating human excreta that operates without connection to any sewer or drainage network
- A non-sewered sanitation (NSS) system is a sanitation system that 1) is not connected to a networked sewer system and 2) collects, conveys, and fully treats the specific input, to allow for safe reuse or disposal of the generated output
- Where there is no sewer:
 - Greywater (washing water) discharge into toilet or environment
 - Faecal sludge can accumulate
 - On-site recycling (new generation systems)



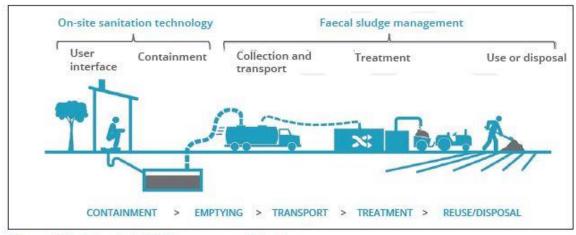


Figure 3.2: A typical FS Management System

Source: Modified from Wikipedia.org, 2020

This Photo by Unknown Author is licensed under CC BY-SA

SANITATION VALUE CHAIN



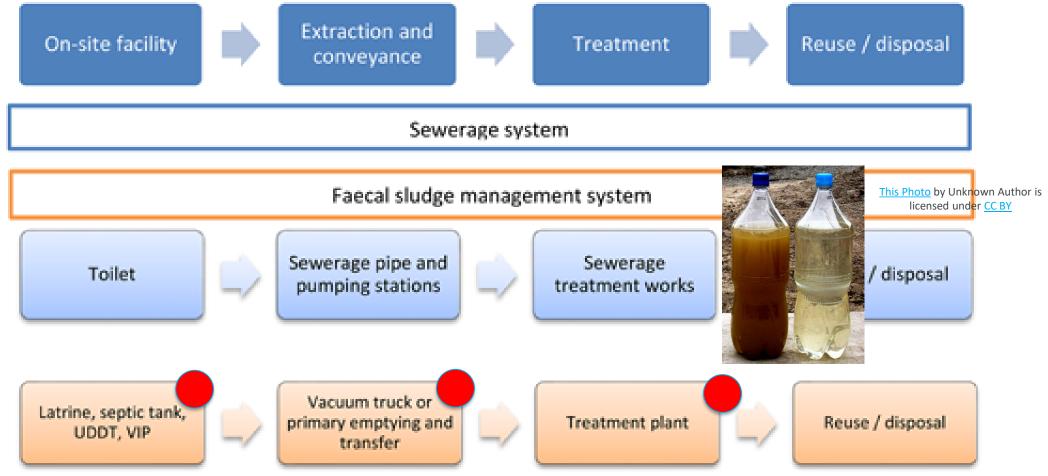
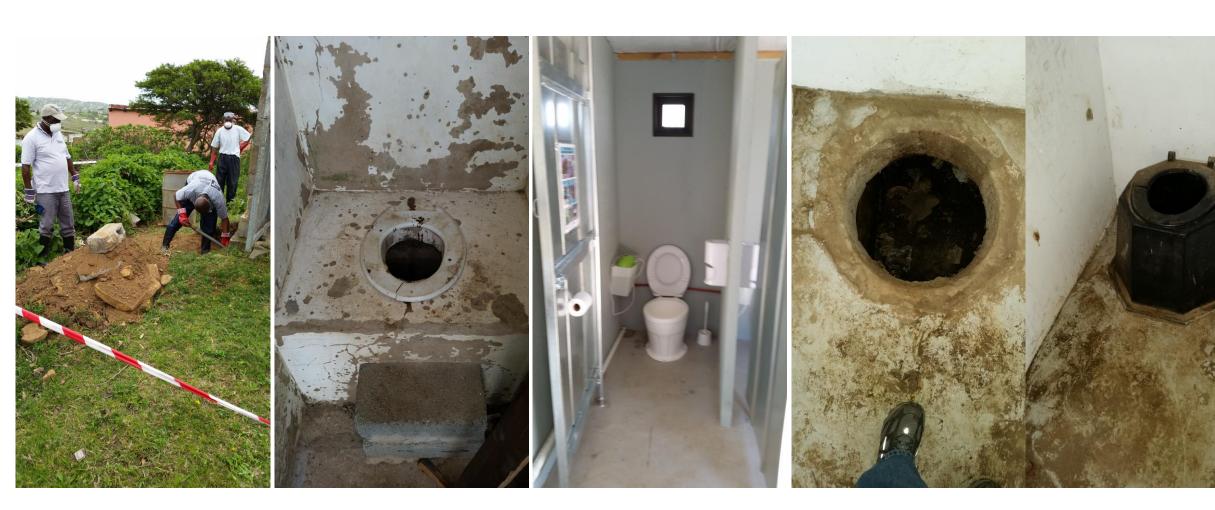


Image From: https://iwaponline.com/washdev/article/8/2/176/39027/The-cost-of-urban-sanitation-solutions-a

NSS ENVIRONMENTS – HIGHLY VARIABLE EVEN IN SAME LOCALITY

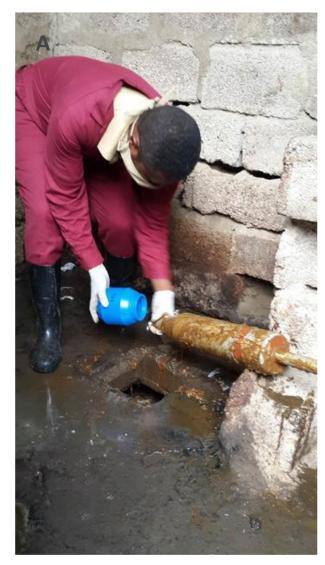




Photos by WRC in same province

SAMPLES – DIFFERENT WAYS TO COLLECT









Photos (a) Jimma University, (b) WRC, (c) University of Malawi, (d) WaterLab PTY LTD

FUNDAMENTAL DIFFERENCES IN SAMPLE COMPOSITION



- Heterogeneous Composition: mixture of human excreta, water, urine, and other solid and liquid waste. Its composition can vary significantly depending on factors such as location, diet, and sanitation practices, making it challenging to establish consistent characterization parameters
- Variable Chemical & Physical Properties: wide range of organic and inorganic compounds, solids and water content, viscosity, density and particle size distribution
- Pathogen Content: usually contains a high concentration of pathogens, including bacteria, viruses, and parasites
- Storage & Collection Variability: wide range of systems from latrines to septic tanks, wet vs dry, different loading rates and designs
- Regulatory & Standards Variability: variation in designs and regulation
- Sampling variability: Analysis can be challenging due to its heterogeneous nature and the potential for stratification within storage systems, especially dry sanitation systems.

HIGHLY VARIABLE WASTE IN NSS SYSTEMS

	Pit latrine sludge	High strength sludge from bucket latrines and public toilets	Low strength sludge from septic tanks	Sewage – in waterborne sewerage systems
Source	Brouckaert and Foxon, 2008		Heinss et al, 1998	
COD (mg/l wet)	90 000-225 000	20 000-50 000	< 10 000	500 – 2 000
COD (mg/g dry)	210-1230	571-1429	<333	50-200
N as NH ₄ (mg/l wet)	9 000 (TKN)	2 000-5 000	<1 000	30-70
N as NH ₄ (mg/g dry)	100 (TKN)	60-150	<33	3-7
Total solids (%)	20	>3.5	< 3	<1
Soluble solids(mg/l wet)	220 000	≥30 000	≈ 7 000	200-700





THE CHALLENGE OF NSS SURVEILLANCE



Variety of NSS systems

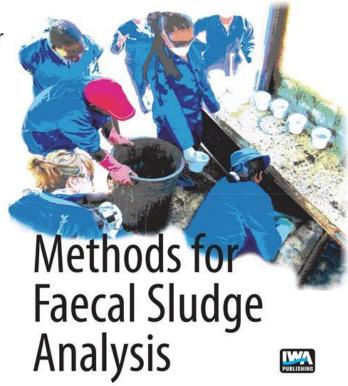
- Variable characteristics (not like WWTW)
- Variable sampling sites (toilets, transport like honeysuckers, treatment wor
- Not a regulated site
- Lack of formalised workers for sampling (training & SOPs required)

NSS systems are highly variable per site & country

- Variable design
- Washers vs wipers
- Dry vs flush
- Water ingression

Standards, Financing & Regulation

- Business case & modelling (vs clinical)
- Long-term financing
- Citizen-science approach? SOP for sampling, collection and analysis



Konstantina Velkushanova • Linda Strande • Mariska Ronteltap Thammarat Koottatep • Damir Brdjanovic • Chris Buckley

Should we include into this or develop a separate technical guidance document?

HOW WOULD IT BENEFIT DEVELOPING COUNTRIES



- Urban slums Social Distancing difficult
- Shared water & sanitation facilities
- Accessibility & affordability to medical care
- Availability of test kits for patient testing
- Alleviate supply chain for test kits & vaccines
- COVID-19: Inequity with vaccines







SARS-CoV-2 surveillance in nonsewered settings in South Africa

DR GINA POCOCK AND FIONA ELS









BACKGROUND





- Wastewater surveillance has recently emerged as a flexible and robust method to monitor infectious diseases
- It has been used in various countries to monitor SARS-CoV-2
- Recently started to monitor for other pathogens (influenzas, cholera, typhoid etc)
- Wastewater infrastructure need to be in place for it to work effectively

BACKGROUND





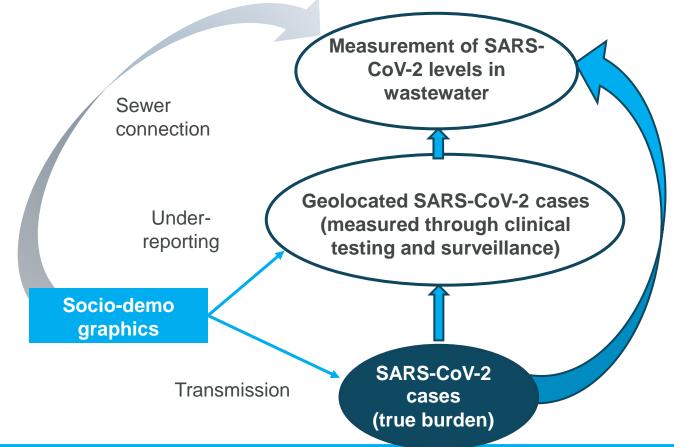
- South Africa has a functioning and representative wastewater surveillance system for SARS-CoV-2 located at sentinel site wastewater treatment plants
 - This programme has achieved success in monitoring levels and genotypes circulating in the population
- However, 43% of the population is not connected to a sewer network (Statistics SA)
 - In South African metropolitan areas 16.8% live in informal dwellings
- Utility of environmental surveillance in unsewered areas is presently unmeasured in our context and data pertaining to wastewater surveillance will have global reference

We developed a conceptual framework to help us understand what approach to take in evaluating environmental surveillance



Measurement of SARS-CoV-2 levels in rivers and surface runoff

Unsewered communities





Waterlab - identified by NICD researchers through SACCESS network participation

Measurement of SARS-CoV-2 levels in rivers and surface runoff

Unsewered communities



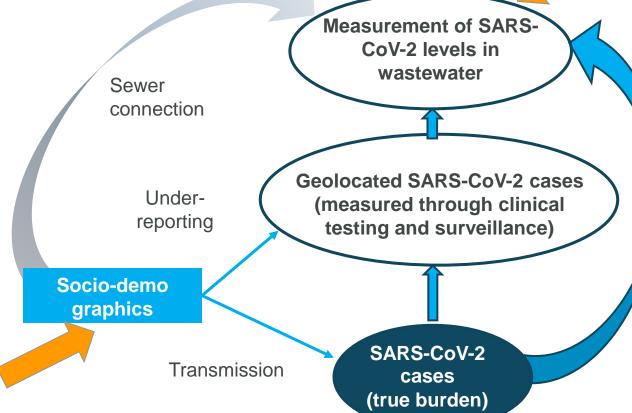


Division of the National Health Laboratory Service

Routine wastewater surveillance in South Africa



GCRO - identified to NICD researchers through referral by Wits School of Public Health





Waterlab - identified by NICD researchers through SACCESS network participation

Measurement of SARS-CoV-2 levels in rivers and surface runoff

Unsewered communities





- Interdisciplinary collaboration was needed
- How do we fit various datasets together to draw meaningful conclusions?

GCRO Gauteng City-Region Observatory

GCRO - identified to NICD researchers through referral by Wits School of Public Health

Sewer connection CoV-2 levels in wastewater

Geolocated SARS-CoV-2 cases (measured through clinical testing and surveillance)

Measurement of SARS-

Socio-demo graphics

Transmission

Under-

reporting

SARS-CoV-2 cases (true burden) Routine wastewater surveillance in South Africa

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

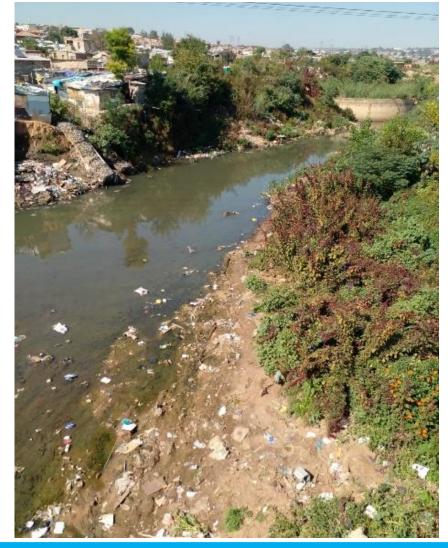
Aim:

Characterise populations in non-sewered areas where wastewater samples were tested for SARS-CoV-2 to better understand the relationship with environmental surveillance

Objectives:

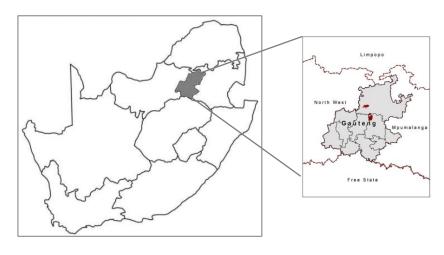
- To identify sites, collect samples and quantify SARS-CoV-2 in non-sewered settings in densely populated areas of Gauteng province
- Characterise catchment areas (topography and drainage profile), population demographics and Quality of Life at sample collection sites
- 3. Geolocate laboratory-confirmed SARS-CoV-2 cases to catchment areas
- 4. To describe relationships between environmental SARS-CoV-2 concentration, demographics and laboratory-confirmed cases





METHODS

 Descriptive study to determine causal and contributory relationships regarding incidence of communicable disease and social determinants of health



- Gauteng is one of 9 Provinces in South Africa, and has 46 rivers
- We purposely identified 4 river sampling sites within the City of Ekurhuleni and the City of Johannesburg that are impacted by untreated surface run-off from informal and unsewered communities:
 - Blesbokspruit (A), Kaalspruit (B)
 - Jukskei River (C), Klipspruit (D)

Hydrology of Gauteng Rustenburg Legend rivers in gauteng provinc FAO, NPS, NRCAN, GeoBase, IGN, Kadaster NL, Ordnance Survey, Esri GCRO | Chy. other other vatery 1 280 Kilometers

METHOD: SAMPLE TYPES

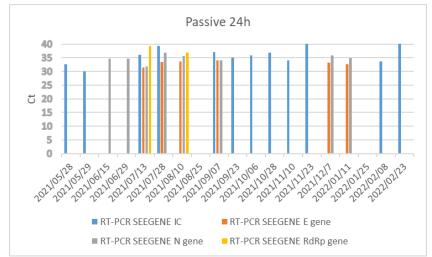
Sample selection

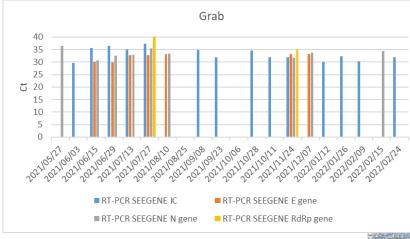
Grab Samples

- Identified informal settlements lacking access to sewered sanitation located in close proximity to a river
- Rivers provide more stable sample points than greywater pools which are transient in nature

Passive samples

- Device covered in shadecloth and anchored at sample point for a specific period, then viral nucleic acid eluted from gauze in the lab
- Passive sampling was conducted in parallel to grab samples at a subset of sample sites















Concentration	Nucleic acid extraction	SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR & amplification	Molecular analysis platform	Limit of quantification (genome copies/ml)
Skimmed milk flocculation	QIAamp® Ultrasens® Virus kit (1mL)	Allplex™ 2019-nCoV Assay and 2019_ nCoV_N positive control plasmid	QuantStudio [™] 5 Real- Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems)	16

BLESBOKSPRUIT SAMPLING SITE

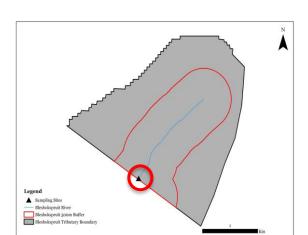


Fig 1: Buffer (red line) and catchment areas (black line) upstream of sampling site

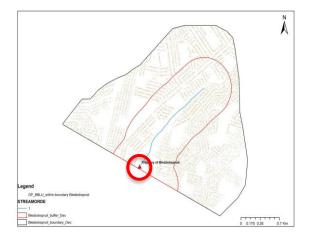


Fig 2: Building base land use upstream of sampling site





BLESBOKSPRUIT SAMPLING SITE

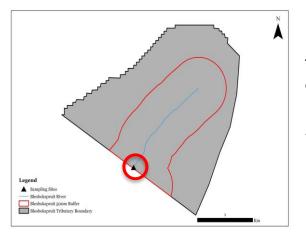


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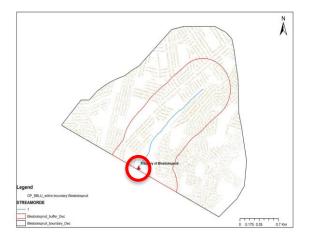


Fig 2: Building base land use upstream of sampling site

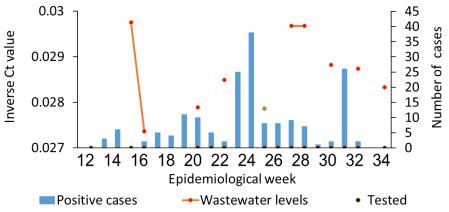


Fig 3: Geolocated SARS-CoV-2 cases in the catchment area (blue bars) and quantitative SARS-CoV-2 river results (Ct threshold), from epidemiological week 12-35, 2021.

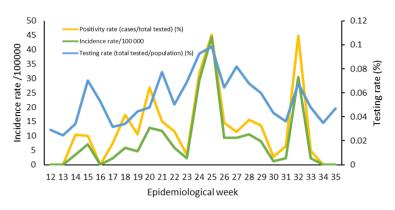


Fig 4: <u>Positivity rate</u>, incidence rate and testing rate of geolocated SARS-CoV-2 cases in the catchment area, from epidemiological week 12-35, 2021.





BLESBOKSPRUIT SAMPLING SITE





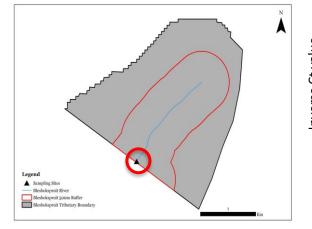


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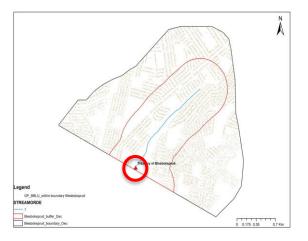


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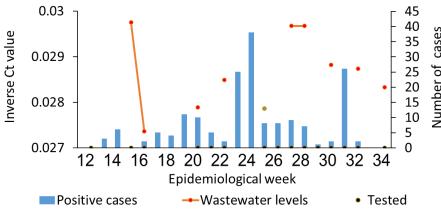


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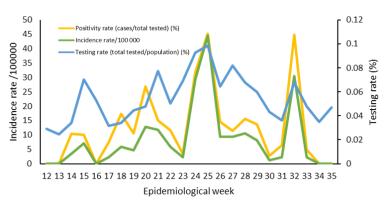


Fig 4: <u>Positivity rate</u>, incidence rate and testing rate of geolocated SARS-CoV-2 cases in the catchment area, from epidemiological week 12-35, 2021.

Quality of Life Survey

	Blesbokspruit Catchment	City of Ekurhuleni
Total population	85,383	4,074,030
Population density (people/km²)	15,580	2,063
Cumulative incidence/100 000	172	2,470
Number of respondents	47	2214
Economic:		
Income <r1600< th=""><th>25 (53.0%)</th><th>830 (34.5%)</th></r1600<>	25 (53.0%)	830 (34.5%)
No income	1 (2.2%)	35 (1.5%)
Informal dwelling	3 (6.7%)	475 (21.5%)
% ≥ 3 persons per room	50.3	35.9
Water:		
Piped, into the dwelling	24 (50.8%)	2,505 (72.5%)
Piped, into the yard only	23 (49.2%)	714 (20.7%)
Healthcare:		
Uses public health care facilities	41 (88.7%)	2,385 (69.1%)
Tried and successfully tested for COVID-19	45 (95.9%)	3,384 (98.0%)
Struggled to access healthcare	2 (4.1%)	228 (6.6%)
COVID-19 Index (% unable to protect against COVID-19)	39.7	31.7
Quality of life (Score out of 100)	55.1	61.3

INTERPRETATION AND IMPACT



- Positive results in rivers indicate that the river is being used for sanitary purposes, or there is broken infrastructure present
- Access to care is limited in informal settlements, and they have higher vulnerability,
- This could have impacts on disease transmission and severity, especially if patients don't get treatment on time
- Strengthening environmental surveillance in marginalised communities could bridge the gap for vulnerability
- When environmental surveillance indicate higher concentrations of disease (especially in vulnerable communities), additional support and services should be rendered

KEY LESSONS AND CONCLUSIONS

- Sampling logistics can be difficult and time consuming, requiring extensive support from municipalities, river action groups and community leaders
 - Transport of large volumes of water is costly, and cold chain must be maintained out of rural areas
 - Dilution during rainy season may hinder detection
- Passive sampling may overcome issues of low yield during high dilution periods, allow for easier and cheaper transport of samples, and improved consistency
 - Sample processing is much quicker, although the logistics of passive sampling are more onerous and require community assistance
- Opportunity for training and capacity building, and development of community "champions" to assist with sampling



KEY LESSONS AND CONCLUSIONS

- Urban water streams represent a rich and highly relevant source of information about exposure to pathogens
 - as well as the opportunity to monitor emerging contaminants, lifestyle indicators, and antimicrobial resistance
- Environmental surveillance can better inform clinicians or public health authorities on disease burden and health service needs in marginalised communities
- Traditional clinical surveillance can be strengthened to include environmental water testing
 - Report to policy makers in real time (district health officials)
 - Report to public health officials on a dashboard
- Samples can be used for wastewater-based epidemiology for a broader scope of pathogens, using the same methods as applied for SARS-CoV-2



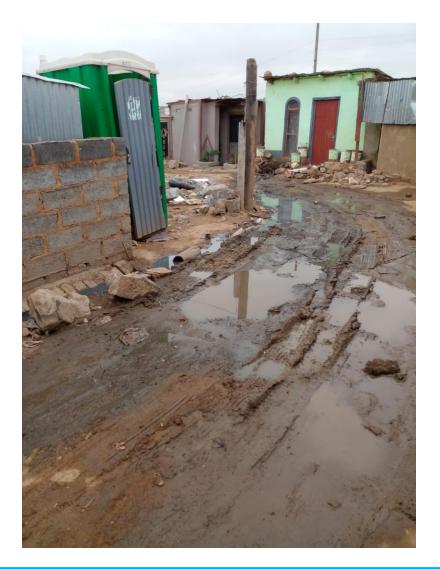


CHALLENGES

- How best to start collaborations, and enter these marginalised communities?
- How do we get buy-in and support from the community
- How do we share information with the communities?
- Public health policies; How do we inform clinicians?

THANK YOU













BILL&MELINDA GATES foundation





Ensuring Health Equity: Infectious Disease Surveillance in SouthEast Asia through Non-sewered Wastewater

Leshan Wannigama M.D., Ph.D.

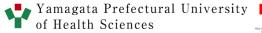
Department of Infectious Diseases and Infection Control, Yamagata Prefectural Central Hospital Yamagata, Japan

Centre of Excellence in Antimicrobial Resistance and Stewardship, Faculty of Medicine, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand













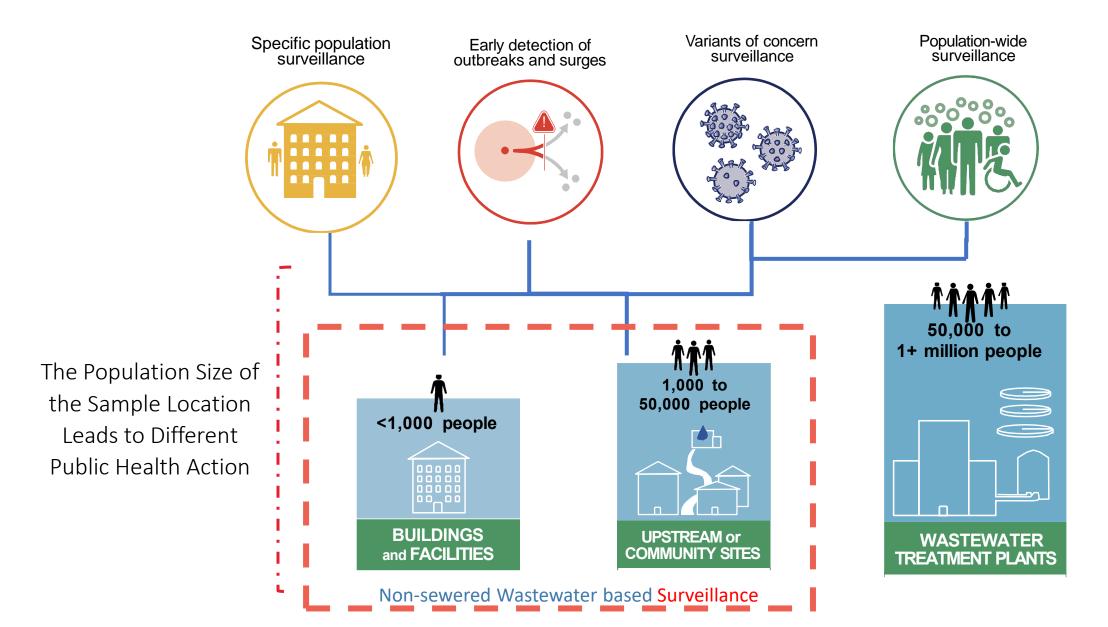




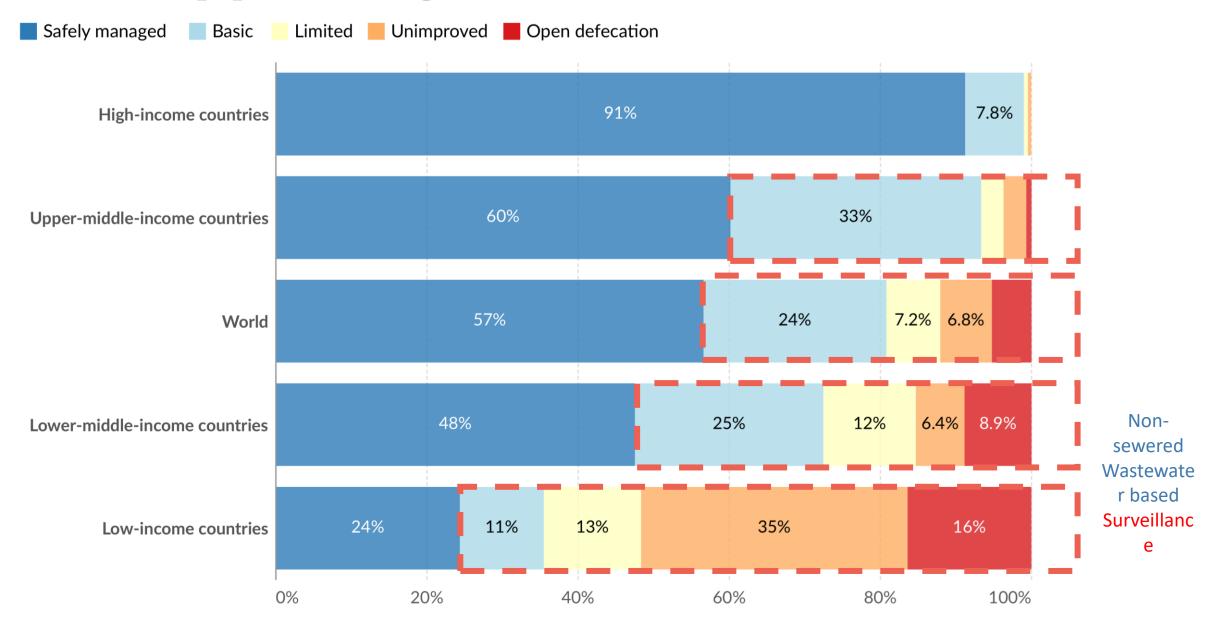




Four Uses of Wastewater Testing results

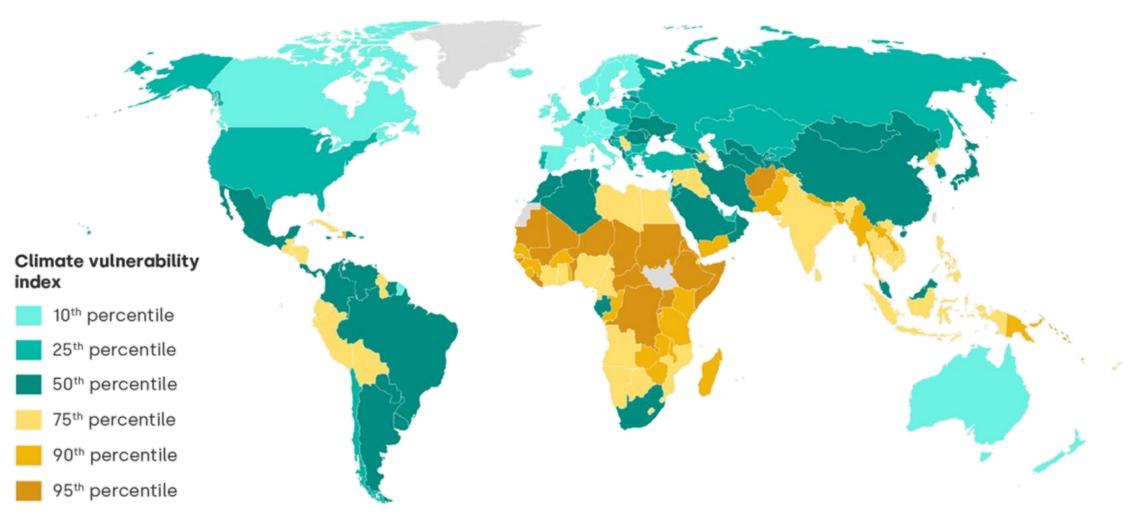


Share of the population using sanitation facilities



Data source: WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (JMP) (2024) OurWorldInData.org/sanitation | CC BY

Regions in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia are among the most vulnerable to climate change



Source: Data from ND-GAIN (https://gain.nd.edu/our-work/country-index/)

Despite the potential for wastewater testing to include populations that are not monitored through individual testing or sewered testing, there are health inequalities that must be addressed in low and middle-income countries



Identifies new clusters and outbreaks, which then triggers investigation and action through Non-sewered Wastewater based Surveillance Community markets/ shopping centers Symptomatic infected individuals Community houses non-sewered Asymptomatic sketch by TAN SOON CHERN **Entertainment venues** infected individuals

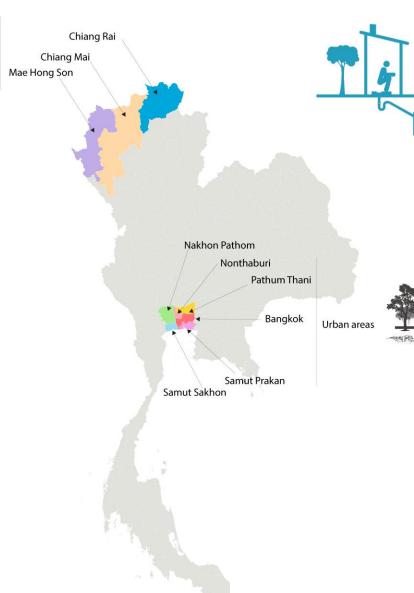
Participatory infectious disease surveillance through non-sewered wastewater in low and middle -income

countries



- Community/food markets
- · Community malls

In total, 1512 samples were collected from Bangkok, 2976 from five adjacent provinces, and 744 from rural provinces between July 2020 and August 2021.

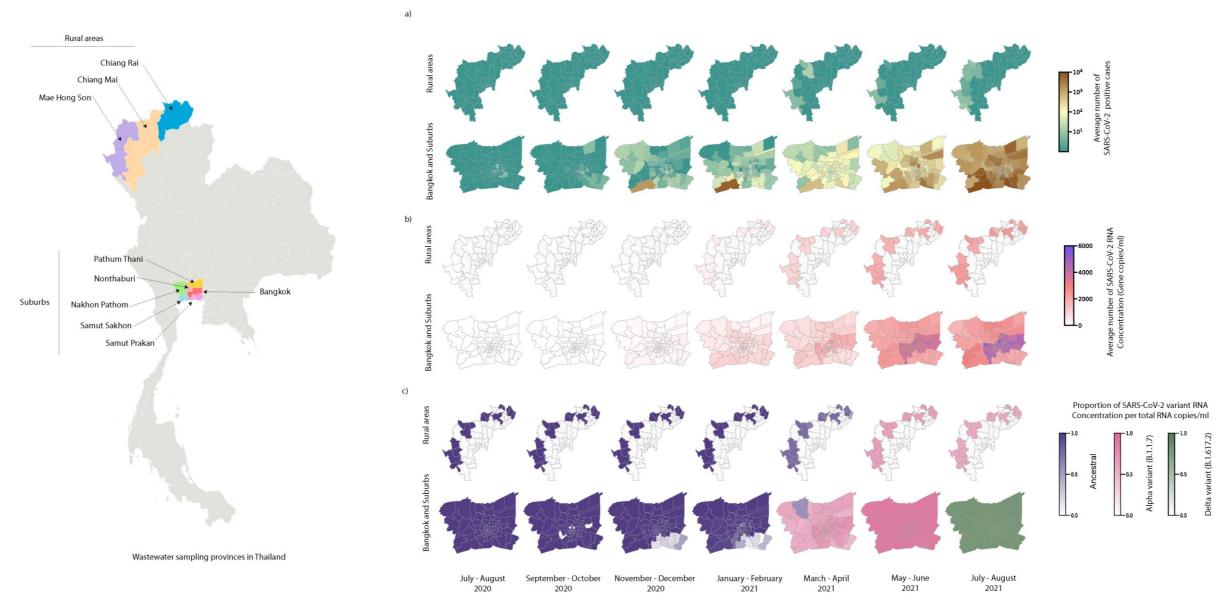


Standard grab sampling method followed by molecular detection

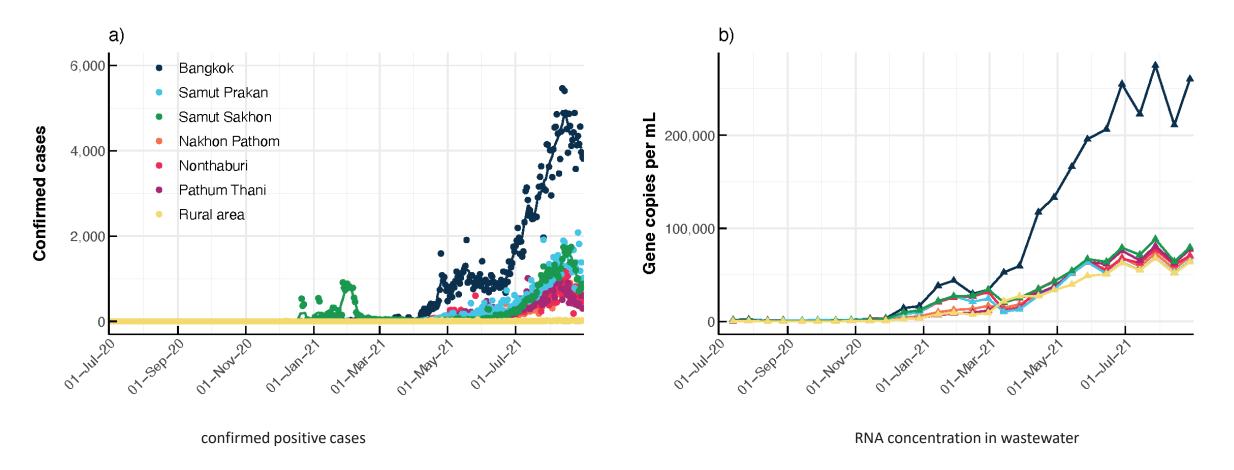


- Condominium complexes
- Cafeteria and shopping centers
- Community/food markets
- Office complexes
- Wastewater treatment plants
- Entertainment/leisure venues
- Work sites (construction camps)
- Housing complexes

Starting in November 2020, SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentrations in wastewater increased gradually, aligned with the increasing trend in daily newly reported cases in Bangkok and five surrounding provinces. Rural areas followed the same direction, even though SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentration remained relatively low compared to Bangkok and the five surrounding provinces



An increase in the estimated incidences based on wastewater SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentrations was observed before infected individuals were officially reported

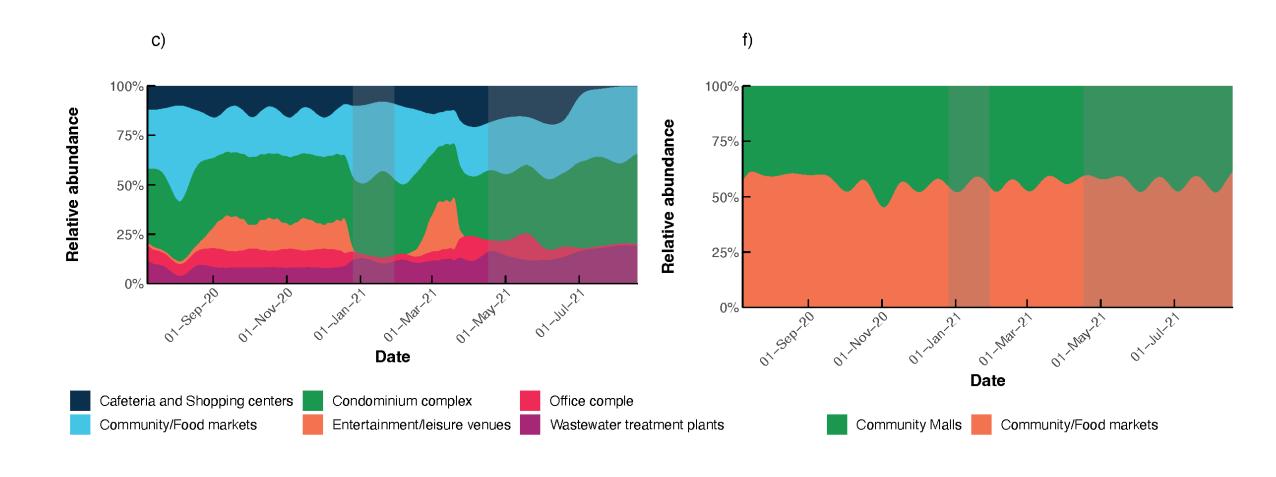


Wastewater-based estimated incidence showed a steep increase starting from the last week of November 2020. However, case-based incidences remained low until April 2021

Bangkok, wastewater sample positive for Alpha, B.1.1.7 in second week of December 2020 Thailand reported their first cases of Alpha, B.1.1.7 on 3 January 2021 Bangkok, wastewater sample positive for Delta, B.1.617.2 in fourth week of March 2021 Relative abundance Thailand reported their first cases of Delta, B.1.617.2 on 24 April 2021 100 Bangkok, Ancestral Relative abundance (%) Nakhon Pathon, Ancestral Rural area, Wild type Bangkok, Alpha, B.1.1.7 Nakhon Pathom, Alpha, B.1.1.7 50 Rural area, Alpha, B.1.1.7 Bangkok, Delta, B.1.617.2 Nakhon Pathom, Delta, B.1.617,2 Rural area, Delta, B.1.617.2

The relative abundance of different SARS-CoV-2 variants in wastewater revealed that the ancestral SARS-CoV-2 was dominant until early March of 2021 in Bangkok and the five surrounding provinces and remained dominant in rural areas until mid-April 2021

Date

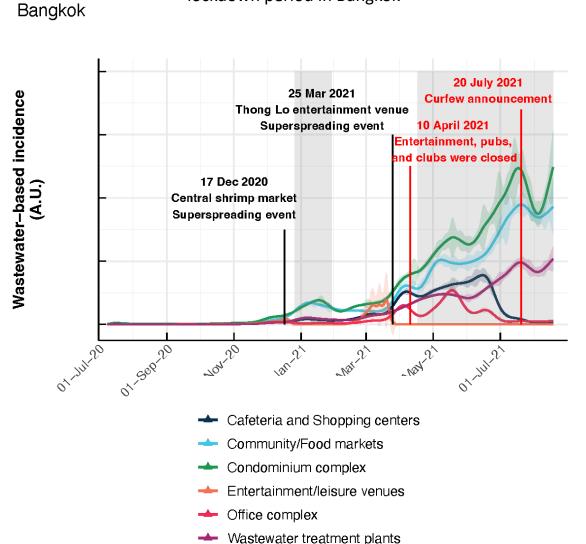


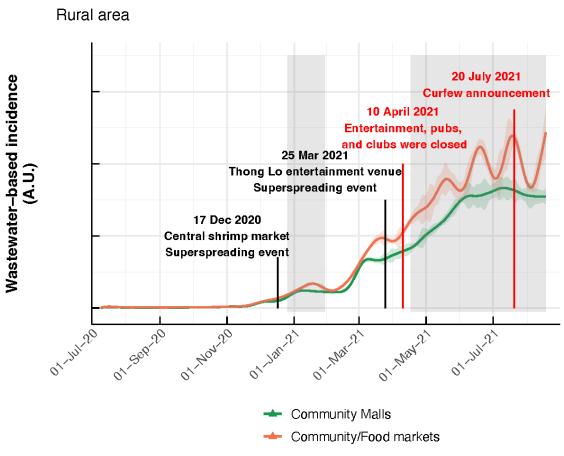
Analysis of SARS-CoV-2 viral RNA concentrations in different facilities revealed that the relative abundances of SARS-CoV-2 viral RNA concentrations in wastewater were relatively high in community/food markets and condominium complexes in Urban areas.

In rural regions, community malls and community/food markets had similar SARS-CoV-2 viral RNA concentrations in wastewater.

Estimation of infection incidences for each facility showed that community/food markets and condominium complexes tend to carry

more infected people (symptomatic or asymptomatic) during the lockdown period in Bangkok

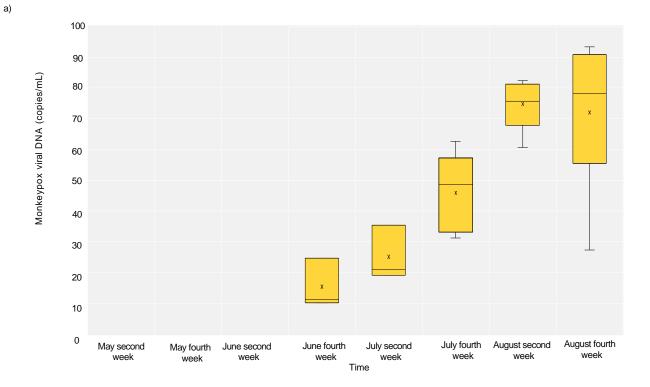


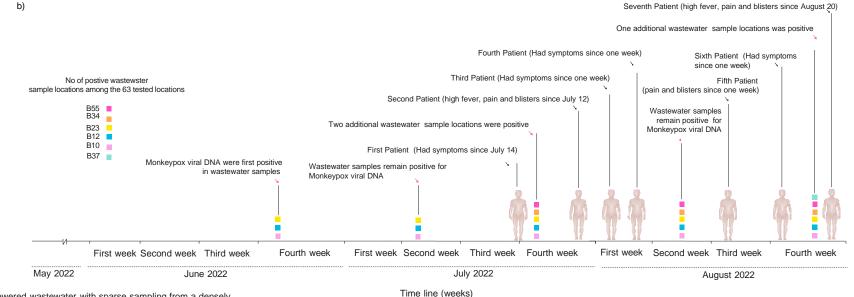


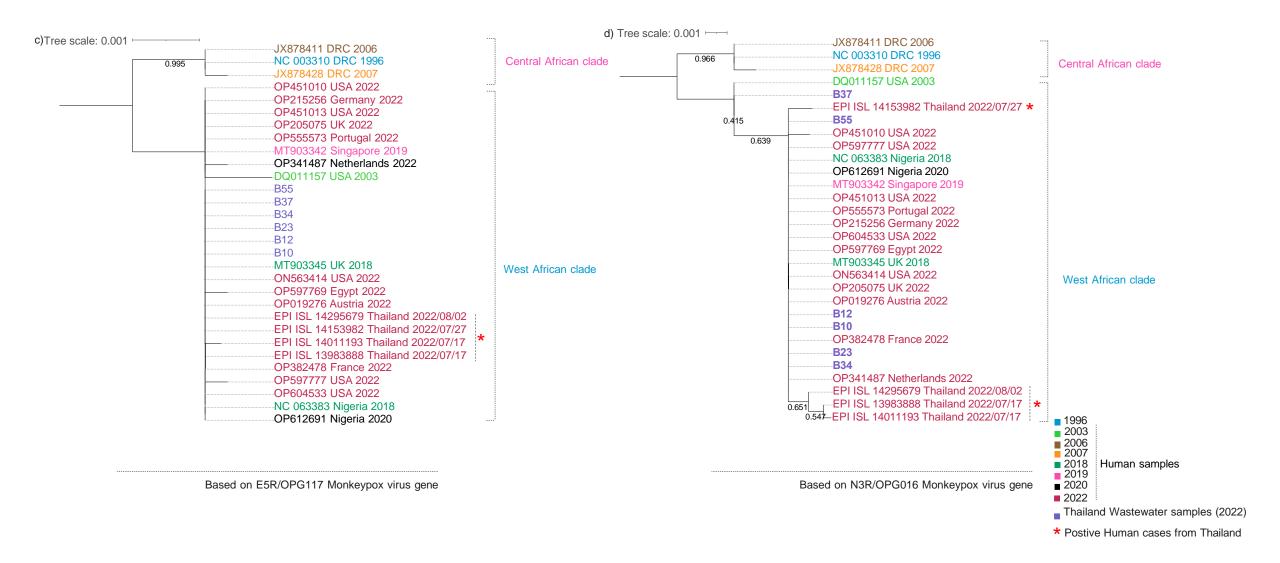
Community/food markets had higher estimated infection incidences in rural regions than community malls based on viral RNA concentrations in wastewater during the lockdown period

Multiple traces of monkeypox detected in nonsewered wastewater with sparse sampling from a densely populated metropolitan area in Asia

- First dataset on monkeypox viral DNA detection from wastewater in Thailand
- Monkeypox viral DNA tracing is possible
 with sparse sampling events
- Non-sewered locations showed positive signals for monkeypox DNA
- Sanger sequencing confirmed the identification of the monkeypox virus.
- Findings expand the use of wastewater
 surveillance in resource limited countries



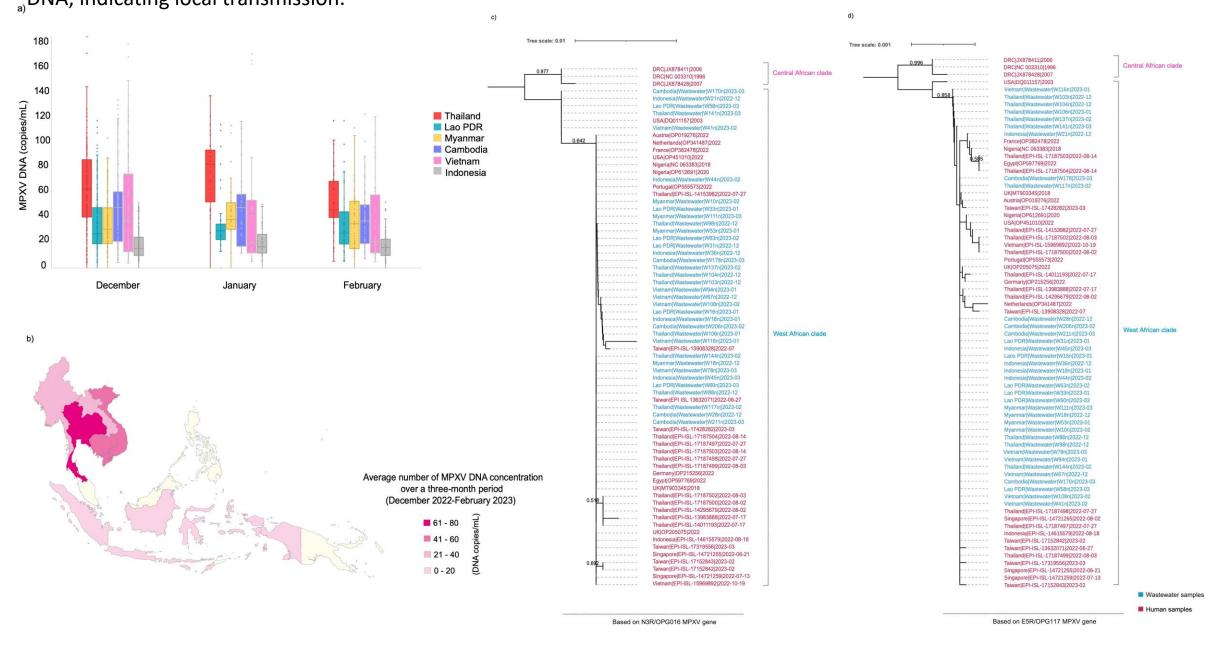


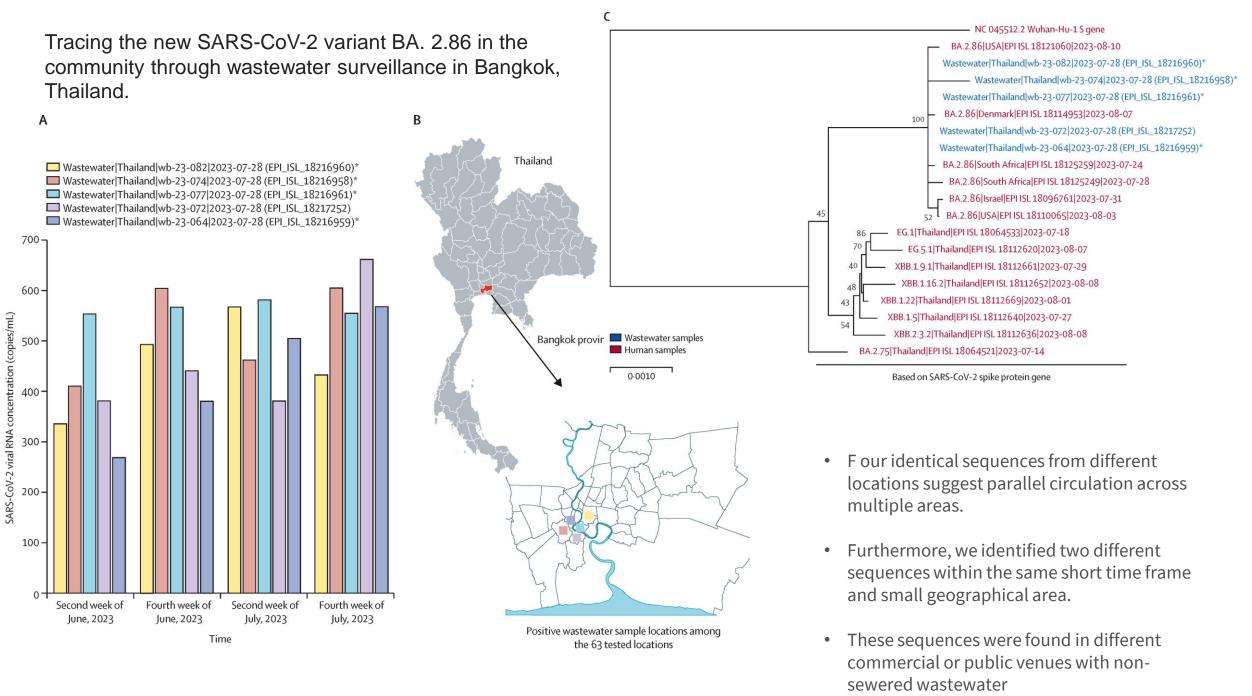


Phylogenetic analysis of the sequence of c) E5R/ OPG117 and d) N3R/OPG016 gene reflect that wastewater samples are

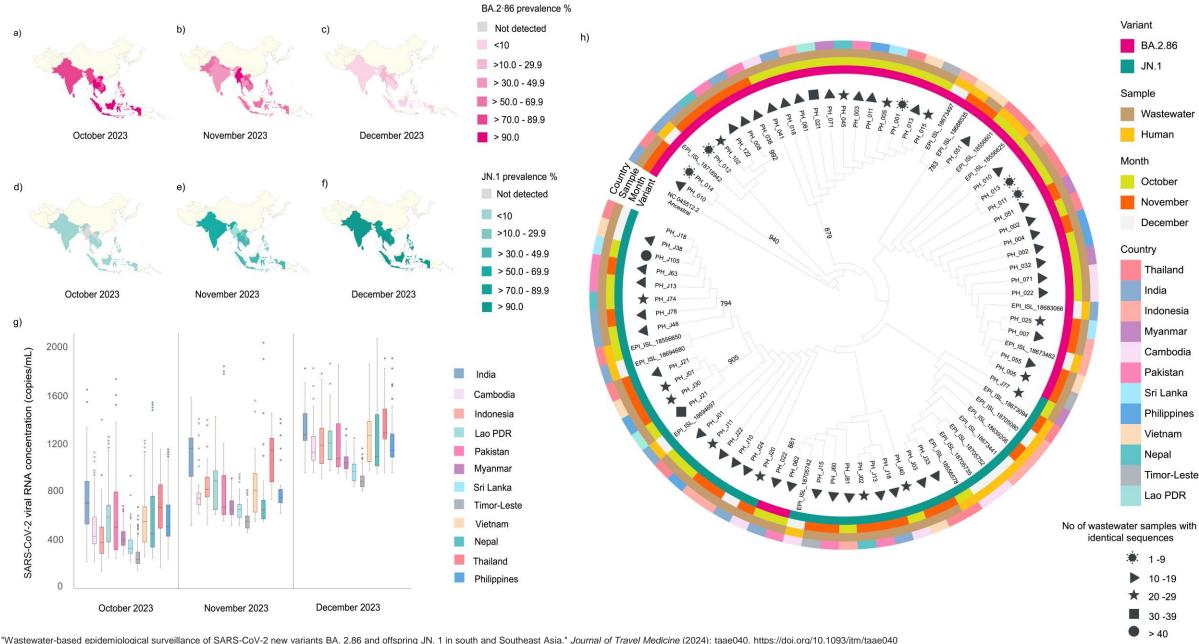
clustering with positive clinical cases from Thailand and other geographical origins connected to the monkeypox 2022 outbreak

Non-sewered wastewater surveillance in six Southeast Asian countries revealed positive signals for Monkeypox virus (MPXV) and DNA, indicating local transmission.





Wastewater-based epidemiological surveillance of SARS-CoV-2 new variants BA.2.86 and offspring JN.1 in South and Southeast Asia through non-sewered wastewater



Summary

- Participatory infectious disease surveillance through Non-sewered Wastewater can provide actionable information in more a clinically relevant timeframe
- Non-sewered Wastewater showed the distribution of infectious disease across different facilities
- We provide an equitable approach to wastewater monitoring with sparse sampling
- Also proven useful for assessing risk factors, vaccine effectiveness, and patterns of healthcare utilization while being less expensive, more flexible, and more scalable than traditional systems.
- Participatory infectious disease surveillance through Non-sewered Wastewater provides unique disease information that is not available through traditional surveillance sources
- Findings advance health equity in low-resource countries with poor sewer system



Thanks to all the members and collaborators

























We thank all the volunteers, LGBTQIA+ community and marginalized, vulnerable indigenous communities who kindly supported with sample collection. Our team comprises individuals who self-identify as underrepresented ethnic minorities, gender minorities, members of the LGBTIQOO+1 Ally community and individuals living with disabilities.



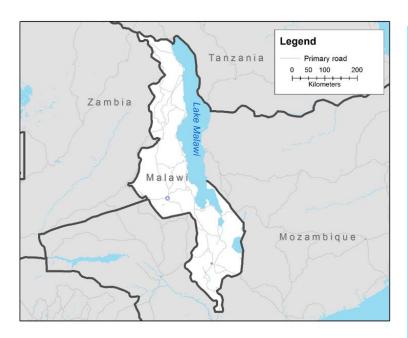
Addressing Challenges for Establishing a Non-Sewered Wastewater Surveillance system in Malawi

PETROS CHIGWECHOKHA, MALAWI UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (MUST)



SANITATION PROFILE FOR MALAWI







Key Area	Stats/Burden
Diarrheal disease burden	824 foodborne DALY per 100,000
Household drinking water (basic)	70% of the population
Household sanitation facilities (safely managed)	24% of the population
Household hygiene (basic)	8% of the population
School drinking water (basic)	78% of schools
School sanitation facilities (basic)	66% of schools
Health care facilities water (basic)	78% of facilities
Health care facilities sanitation (basic)	3% of facilities
Literacy levels	67.31%
Unemployment rate	18.5%

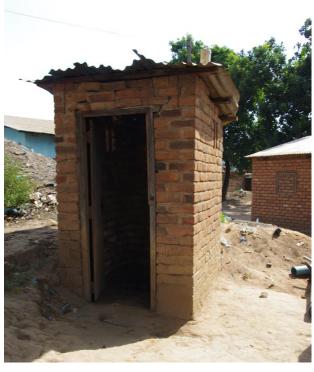
☐ SS Africa remains behind - 7% sewered sanitation against 43% global status.

CONTEXT

the international water association

Low WBE surveillance

Most LMICs remain behind on wastewater-based pathogen surveillance and detection 92% of MW relies on on-site and NS sanitation systems.



Fecal sludge management problems

☐ Pit emptying services unavailable/ expensive

The pits are often abandoned once full

Utilization of WBE to monitor community health status difficult/impossible.

Public Health monitoring Challenges

Dependency on clinical data for community disease monitoring, often unavailable and unreliable

NSS WASTEWATER SAMPLING – NOT EASY



On-site sanitation sampling is a daunting task as opposed to centralized treatment plants

- NS sampling not a luxury requires dedication
- ☐ Let us honor the tireless efforts of those who brave these challenging environments.









POLICY LEVEL CHALLENGES



Policy challenges are often related to the nascency of WBE

Limited commitment from governments

Lack of awareness by policy makers



WHY??

Associated with the fact that WBE is a relatively new in most LMICs

Need promote awareness among relevant government authorities

TECHNICAL CHALLENGES IN SETTING-UP NS SURVEILLANCE





Sampling Frame and protocol not easy



POSSIBLE SOLUTION

Need for fully functional lab for wastewater-based surveillance



Limited Equipment

Lack of BSL-2 and RT-qPCR



POSSIBLE SOLUTION

North-south partnerships and collaborations



Limited Human Capacity

(Lab and Bioinformatics)



POSSIBLE SOLUTION

Embark on Training capacity building programs

Well trained workforce is critical



Unavailability of well documented clinical data



Governments needs to strengthen data digitization

LOGISTICAL AND PROTOCOL CHALLENGES



Supply of Consumables

Most reagents not available in African countries

Ethical considerations
IRB approval and site
approval takes time and
require good planning

Supply chain bottlenecks

Operation and maintenance of laboratory

Problems with access to foreign currency for purchase of supplies

CURRENT EFFORTS





bs.acs.org/est



Advancing the Use of Fecal Sludge for Timelier and Better-Quality Epidemiological Data in Low- and Middle-Income Countries for Pandemic Prevention

Petros Chigwechokha, Renée Street, and Rochelle H. Holm*

Cite This: https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.2c07788		Read Online		
ACCESSI	Metrics & More	1	Article Recommendations	

KEYWORDS: COVID-19, fecal sludge, low- and middle-income countries, pathogen, wastewater-based epidemiolog

The availability and accessibility of water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) services are key in preventing disease transmission. Monitoring non-infectious severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) RNA in wastewater can serve as an early indicator of changes in coronavirus disease (COVID-19) cases in a particular catchiment area; systems, such as at households, in shared outhouses, and in septic tanks. These on-site sanitation systems, a positive step toward improved household WASH services, are used by 43% of the global population, mainly comprising low- and middle-income countries (LMICS). There is an urgent need to expand descrintized (non-sewered system) surveillance as as it is currently focused on SARS-CoV-2 wastewater from centralized (sewered) systems.

centralized (sewered) systems. Wastewater surveillance of centralized systems presents a vastly distinct set of challenges compared with feed sludge surveillance. For example, sewers also contain gave water and sometimes stormwater, and wastewater is commonly sampled as a composite volume over a 24 h period, whereas feed sludge is most commonly grab sampled. Broadening the focus of non-sewered suntainton surveillance (MSSS) should accommodate feed along analysis to support globally relevant public health. Even before the COVID-19 pandemic, feed allonge was used

Even before the COVID-19 pandemic, fecal shudge was used as a valuable source of information for understanding community health. 'Unfortunately, interest in fecal shudge research has been largely limited to a small group of researchers funded by a few core donors. The pandemic has renewed the focus of both science and policy. Surveillance of pathogens in fecal shudge may need to be adapted and could include Vibric olorare or poliorinus however, this should be funded vibric olorare or poliorinus however, this should be public health impact in LMIGs can be amplified by using fecal slugge data in addition to delical data in multipathogen disease surveillance and continuous local monitoring for early warnings of a pandemic.

Research partnerships are required to progress from individual clinical patient samples (which has been happening



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at a limited scale in healthcare settings) to pooled community samples in terms of fecal sludge. The importance of research partnerships is not new, but possibly more complex in the Southern African sanitation field with five decades of human nonprofit institutions can fill little study by bringing together academic research partners and public health officials for interdisciplinary and collaborative research and increased awareness of NSSS. Such partnerships can enable these settings to innovatively adapt academic or healthcare laboratory operations while maintaining high-quality data and also promote peer-reviewed literature originating from resource-limited laboratory settings.

Immeter and better-quality gloosis epiezmological data sets are required for better pandemic preparedness in the future. There is a need in LMCG for the different, but unique, value of NSSS compared to that of wastewater surveillance, built in capacity at local laboratories that can include fecal studge as part of continuous multipathogen disease surveillance, and continuous multipathogen disease surveillance, and experience of the state of th

Special Issue: Data Science for Advancing Environmental Science, Engineering, and Technology

https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.2c07788



org/estwater

Promoting Surveillance in Sub-Saharan Africa: Moving to Wastewater and Environmental Genomic Surveillance Requires More Attention

Rochelle H. Holm,* Petros Chigwechokha, Craig Kinnear, Anna Winters, and Renée Street



aboratory infrastructure and local capacity are essential for ✓ surveillance programs to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals. Globally, morbidity and mortality due to unsafe household drinking water, sanitation, and hygiene remain major problems.1 During the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, more than a few water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) researchers pivoted to use polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based methods to indicate community disease spread from sewered and non-sewered sanitation samples. The transition from WASH (Sustainable Development Goal 6) to wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE; Sustainable Development Goal 3) was a comfortable shift. Physical laboratory infrastructure, equipment, and workforce capacity were quickly adapted to meet public health needs during the pandemic. However, the expansion of genomic surveillance with sanitation samples requires more thought leadership around environmental health research considerations in low-resource settings as the transition is proving to be much more challenging. In sub-Saharan Africa, there is a workforce gap in the

sanitation field. In the case of Malawi, opportunities are available for approximately 17 600 sanitation experts against limited degree program options nationwide. Existing higher-education programs in WASH may cover sample collection and PCR-based methods for sewered and non-sewered sanitation samples to some extent; however, no genomic surveillance higher-education degree programs are available in Malawi. Thus, transitioning to genomic surveillance requires training obtained the country at training laboratories like those located in South Africa (such as the South Africa Medical Research Council Genomics Platform, the Kwazulu-Natal Research Innovation and Sequencing Platform, or the Centre for Epidemic Response and Innovation) or the Africa Centre of Excellence for Genomics of Infectious Disease in West

these surveillance projects should consider a multiyear, dedicated higher-education training period to build individual expertise (master's level and above), not just a short, one-week course prior to the initiation of core wastewater and environmental surveillance. Municipal piped water suppliers, such as in Malawi, are increasingly pivoting their services to include wastewater and often have existing laboratory infrastructure and local capacity. This may allow for a natural long-term extension of moving existing WASH capacity to WBE, which has been neglected in several capacity-building partner discussions.

With regard to WASH access, WBE surveillance activities are better set up for households with sewered connections that would typically be better off in resource-limited regions. While 43% of the world's population has a sewered sanitation system connection, 67% of households in Latin America and the Caribbean region are connected compared with just 7% in sub-Saharan Africa. Any genomic surveillance in sub-Saharan Africa also needs to also consider fecal sludge from multiple households, such as sampling pit latrines and septic tanks in marketplaces, transport hubs, graveyards, healthcare facilities, and surface water (Figure 1). Overall, the population excluded in this surveillance is important, namely the 6% of the world's population still practicing open defecation.

Wastewater and environmental surveillance still require dinical data for calibration, which cannot be performed without strengthening and integrating clinical data systems. However, if broad-spectrum environmental genomic surveillance indicates, for example, enteric disease or antimicrobial resistance genes, the resources required to respond effectively are often unavailable in the existing healthcare systems of resource-limited regions. Furthermore, the opportunity to develop and capacitate sensitive and specific disease detection and response systems geo-enabled to empower targeted and Need to optimize NSSS protocols to enhance wastewater sample collection, processing and analysis

Need to build local Human capacity in NSSS to enable detection and containment of reemerging and novel disease threats

Need to build infrastructural capacity that will promote NSSS.

Need to promote research partnerships to unlock funding opportunities

WASTEWATER-BASED MULTI-PATHOGEN SURVEILLANCE IN MALAWI



GOAL:

- To build capacity for Wastewater Based surveillance as an early warning tool for various pathogens.
- To understand the relationship between sewage detection and clinical cases

Objectives

- To determine feasibility of wastewater surveillance in a lowresource laboratory setting using available equipment and existing infrastructure.
- To determine if wastewater surveillance data could be modelled with clinical data for decision making process.
- To pilot a Timelier and better-quality in-country epidemiological data sets for better pandemic preparedness in the future.



WASTEWATER-BASED MULTI-PATHOGEN SURVEILLANCE



Current focus → Five pathogens

- V. cholerae
- S. Typhi
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis (TB)
- Measles
- SARS CoV2

Sample collection – August 2022

Collection interval - Weekly

Processing done in BSL-2

Initial focus – PCR detection

Switched to culture – Procurement

PCR later done on isolated for confirmation

Challenges in market access





IMPLEMENTATION TIMELINE



3 days

RT-PCR

Timeline

Days to prepare

Days to results

Quarterly confirmation

Preparation of media

2 days

Sample collection

1 day

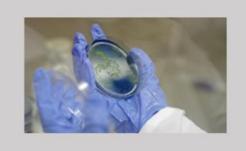
Culture-based methods

4 days

confirmation

Nucleic Acid Extraction





Report as presence/absence





Microbiology (BSL-2) and Molecular Bio Labs

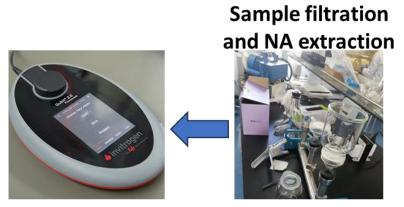
RT-PCR lab

Culture lab Field

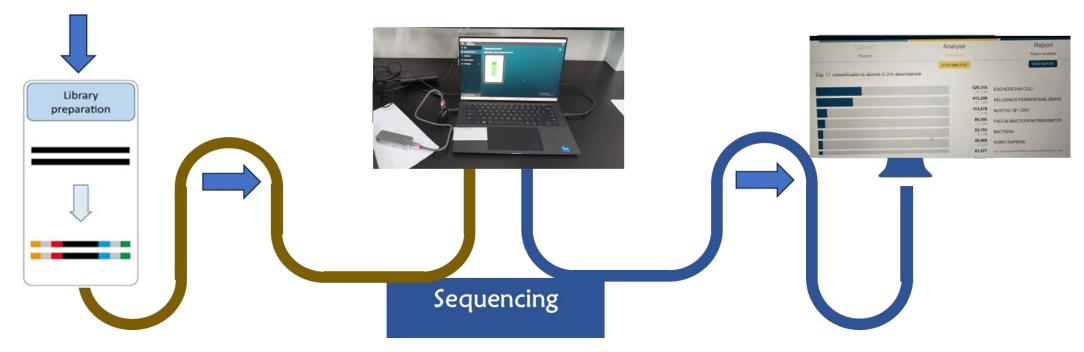
Timeline	
1 week	Identify locally relevant fecal shedding pathogens? the international water association
1 week	What is current clinical testing approach, including BSL2, 3, or 4?
2 weeks	Obtain ethical clearance for samples, set-up sanitation lab space, define quality monitors
1-12 weeks	Start culture methods Order PCR supplies
8 weeks	Collect and analyze sanitation samples from sites with known positive clinical cases
2 weeks	Obtain clinical data
2 weeks	Pair clinical and sanitation system data for comparison for proof of concept

GENOMICS ANALYSIS





NA Quantification



FUTURE PLANS





To expand to more sites of sample collection as well as add other pathogens of concern to Malawi



To build a robust metagenomic sequencing capabilities for Wastewater based surveillance.



To develop a dashboard based on our weekly Lab



Train Medical microbiologists in wastewater analysis to increase the capacity in the Lab



Capacity building in Bioinformatics.



Procurement of Robust sequencing platform.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS



Malawi University of Science and Technology

Ruth Nyirenda Chimwemwe Tandwe Ranken Namaumbo

Dr Rochelle Holm.

University of Louisville

Rockefeller Foundation

For the Financial support of the pilot





Wastewater surveillance from Vellore, India - utilities, insights and challenges

DILIP ABRAHAM, CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE VELLORE

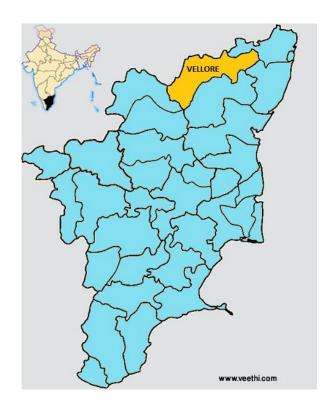
dilip.abraham@cmcvellore.ac.in



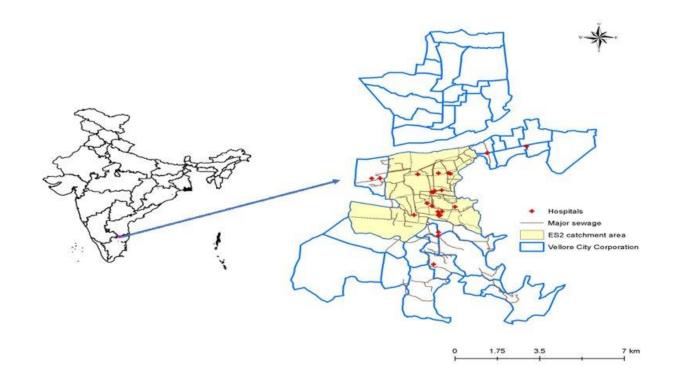




Study area in Vellore

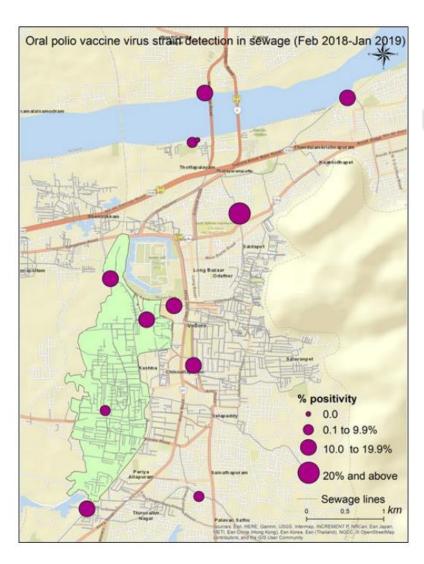


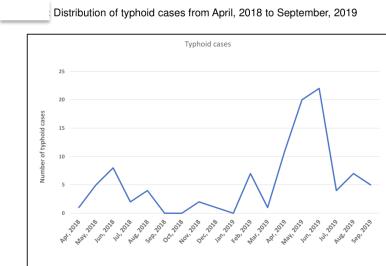
- Environmental surveillance across 24 wards of Vellore city in May 2021 the international water association
- Spread over 16.25 sq.km; catchment population of 1,95,000 people
- Average population density of 26,500 / sq.km

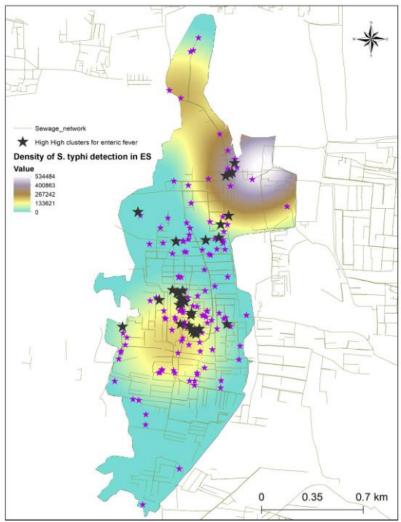


ES - 1: ENVIRONMENTAL SURVEILLANCE FOR SABIN POLIO VIRUSES, SALMONELLA TYPHI AND AMR GENES IN VELLORE (JANUARY 2018 – JUNE 2020)









ES2 - WASTEWATER SURVEILLANCE OF *S.* TYPHI IN INDIA AND COMPARISON WITH CLINICAL/SEROLOGICAL SURVEILLANCE (2020 – 2021)



- investigate the optimal design for a typhoid/paratyphoid environmental surveillance (ES) system that will inform vaccine introduction and impact monitoring
- 1) implement typhoid ES with partners at sites conducting blood-culture surveillance over a 12-month period (India, Malawi and potentially Ghana).
- 2) ask what ES site characteristics (catchment population, local facilities, chemical and physical waterquality parameters) correlate with detection of *S.* Typhi or human-restricted control organisms that indicate faecal contamination.
- 3) investigate whether *S.* Typhi load and genetic diversity in ES samples correlate with disease incidence rates in the local population.

ES2 - SITE SELECTION

the international water association

Spatial mapping of sewage network



Characterizing drains into three levels based on their sizes (length & width), sewage flow..

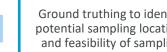


"Integration with highresolution digital elevation models to delineate hydrological catchments, and estimate associated populations"*



Ground truthing to identify potential sampling locations and feasibility of sampling











Selection of 40 sampling locations based on slope, catchment population and spread



*Uzzell CB, Troman CM, Rigby J et al. Environmental surveillance for Salmonella Typhi as a tool to estimate the incidence of typhoid fever in low-income populations. Wellcome Open Res 2023, 8:9 (https://doi.org/10.12688/wellcomeopenres.17687.1)

Detection of S. Typhi – sample processing



1. Membrane filtration

- Collection 1 L
- Filtration
- Filter processing
- Extraction
- PCR



2. Moore Swab

- Preparation
- Deployment
- Enrichment
- Filtration
- Filter processing
- Extraction and PCR





- 2 sample processing methods employed:
 - One grab sample and one "trap" sample
- Sampling frequency:
 - Once per month
- 3rd May 2021 29 April 2022
 - 520 grab samples and
 517 Moore swabs

Detection of S. Typhi & WW characteristics



Table 5

Salmonella strain (No. tested)	ttr	sseJ	tviB		srfJ	SPC0869	SPA2308	staG	
Salmonella Typhi (556)	556	0	553		0	0	0	556	
Atypical Salmonella Typhi (3)	3	0	0		0	0	0	3	
Salmonella Paratyphi A (315)	315	0	0		0	0	315	0	Г
Salmonella Paratyphi B (53)	53	0	0		53	0	0	0	
Salmonella Paratyphi C (6)	6	6	6		0	6	0	0	
*NTS Serovar (952)	952	938	0		380	19	50	41	
Non-Salmonella spp. (7)	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	Г
*The combination of genes present wer	re h	ous, plea	0 000 51	or	lementar	V Table 1 for	details		

Nair et al, 2019 - A real-time PCR for the differentiation of typhoidal and non-typhoidal Salmonella

Targets

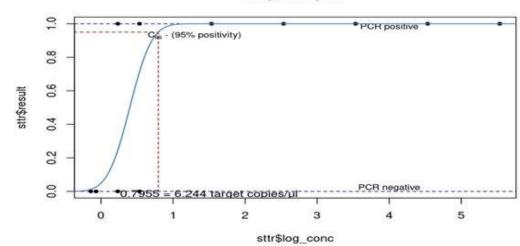
- ttr
- staG
- tviB
- HF-183
- IC
 - Sample positive only if all Typhi targets detected
- Double positives were retested for the negative target as a singleplex PCR

Aquaprobe AP-2000

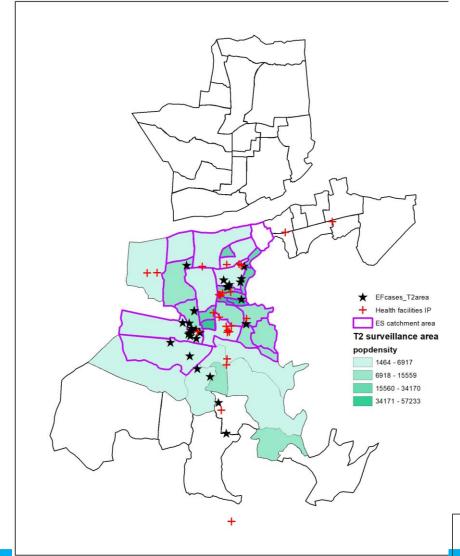


- Temperature
- Baro
- PH
- ORP
- TDS
- Salinity
- Turbidity

qPCR standardization ttr probit plot



Clinical incidence of Typhoid



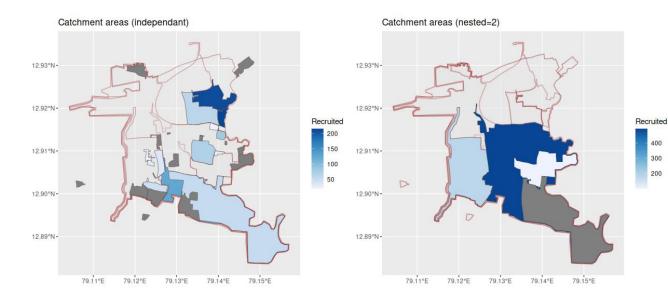
- Hospital based sentinel surveillance since April 20
- Recruiting fever cases aged 6 months and above from defined geographical area; 1,90,000 population across 31 wards association
- Of the 1108 eligible cases, 95% recruited and blood culture done in 92% of them
- 32 cases of enteric fever over one year from study area
- 28 cases (87.5%) of EF cases were from the ES catchment area
- Of the 28 cases, 17 Salmonella Paratyphi "A" & 11 S. Typhi

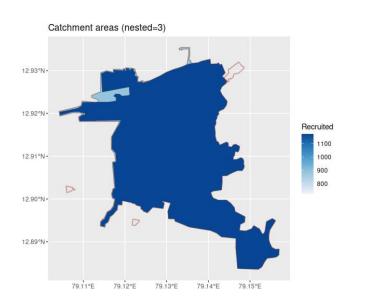
Age Group	No. of Cases	Population	Crude Incidence Per 100 000 Person Years (95% CI)
0–4	4	8082	49.5 (13.5–126.7)
5–9	3	9772	30.7 (6.3–89.7)
10–14	0	10 430	0.0 (.0–35.4)
15–29	4	35 728	11.2 (3.1–28.7)
30+	0	77 788	0.0 (.0–4.7)
Total	11	141 800	7.8 (3.9–13.9)

Christopher B Uzzell, Dilip Abraham, Jonathan Rigby, Catherine M Troman *et al.* **Environmental Surveillance for** *Salmonella* **Typhi and its Association With Typhoid Fever Incidence in India and Malawi**, *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 2023; https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiad427

Sero-survey for HlyE IgG

- Clinical surveillance was limited due to deviation in health-seeking behaviour during the pandemic
- Carried out HlyE IgG testing for 1200 study participants from 0–15-year-old
- Based on catchment areas (CA) for ES site
- Each CA would recruit proportionate agestratified numbers
- Correlate ES detection with seroincidence

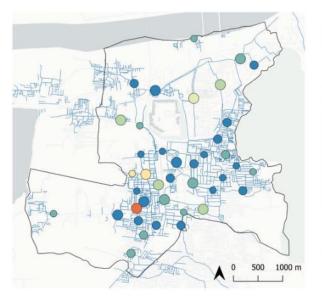




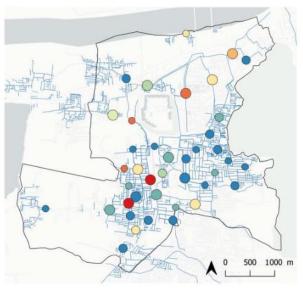
Results - ES positivity & trends

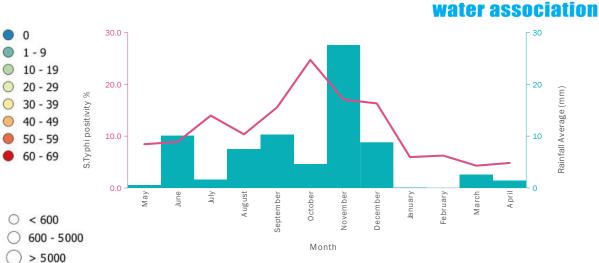


Membrane filtration



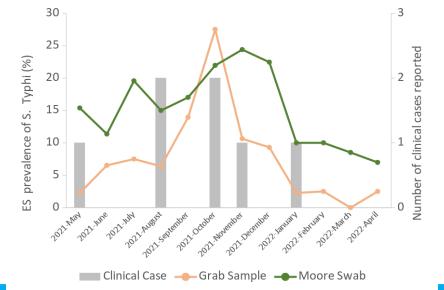
Moore swab





Rainfall average ——Positivity%

Туре	Total samples	Positive		
Membrane				
filtration	520	39 (7.5%)		
Moore	517	79 (15.3%)		
Total	1037	118 (11.4%)		



Utilities, insights and challenges?



Challenges/Watch out for

- Validate the method at your own site and train personnel
- Loss of Moore swabs rat bites, removal by members of the local community
- Time management
- Reagent procurement and supply chain
- Data management
- qPCR validation
- Avoid freeze-thaws of DNA extracts
- Scalability and automation
- What is a positive sample?
- Normalization MST? Flow rate?
- Communication with public health personnel on how to use this data

Insights

- Sampling frequency and methodology would need to fit with the defined usecase and setting of ES
- Data analysis is not standard and would need to be tailored for the pathogen and use-case
- Variability of detection is very high in LMIC settings
- Molecular targets should be chosen after thorough literature review and preferably with consensus in the field
- Delineation and description of catchment areas is essential
- Availability of some amount of clinical surveillance data or estimation of disease burden is essential for validation

Utility

- Estimation of disease burden typhoid
- Predicting outbreaks SARS-CoV-2
- Detection of novel variants/vaiantf of concern SARS-CoV-2, polio
- Localization of source of outbreak
- Delineation and description of catchment areas is essential
- Availability of some amount of clinical surveillance data or prior estimation of disease burden is essential for validation



Q&A Discussion

MODERATOR: GERTJAN MEDEMA & SUDHIR PILLAY

UPCOMING IWA WEBINARS & EVENTS





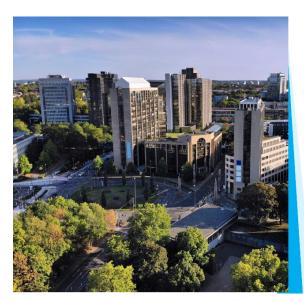




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