

1 **Personal view**

2 **Sustainable AMR Surveillance: time for a global funding mechanism?**

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21 **Summary**

22 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is predicted to outstrip malaria, HIV and tuberculosis combined as a
23 leading infectious cause of death by 2050. Strengthening the knowledge and evidence base for AMR
24 through surveillance and research is one of the five main objectives of the WHO Global Action Plan on
25 AMR. While recent efforts to strengthen diagnosis and surveillance have been encouraging, these are
26 unlikely to be sustainable without continued funding support in most low-resource settings.

27 We estimated the continued costs of a standard national AMR surveillance system in low- and middle-
28 income countries (LMICs). For 46 LMICs the costs would account for more than 2% of their total
29 domestic general government health expenditure (GGHE-D), and for 28 of these countries they are more
30 than 5% of their total GGHE-D. This is not sustainable without a long-term global financing mechanism.

31

32 **Keywords:** AMR, surveillance, low resource settings, economics, financing

33

34 Microbiological diagnosis has improved steadily in high-income and higher-middle-income countries
35 over decades and is the cornerstone of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) surveillance in humans. The time
36 from specimen collection to results has been getting progressively shorter, and more patients get
37 appropriate antimicrobial treatment. Introduction of new technologies and automation in the
38 laboratory have contributed to this progress, e.g. matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization–time-of-
39 flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) reduces the time to pathogen identification by 24-36 hours.
40 Automation of data analysis at the facility level has been adopted and implemented in Thailand, an
41 upper-middle-income country, leading to improved actions against AMR at both facility and national
42 levels.¹⁻³ In low-resource settings, use of similar technology is the exception, due to high cost (initial
43 outlay for MALDI-TOF is approximately 350,000 USD followed by more than 30,000 USD annually for
44 maintenance) and other barriers such as stockouts and unstable power supply.^{4,5} Laboratories in low-
45 resource settings are more likely to be understaffed and underused, with technicians working across all
46 pathology disciplines. Achieving turnaround times to results shorter than the average length of stay of
47 the patients is challenging. Data from microbiology laboratories in low-resource settings are rarely used
48 for actions at the facility level due to lack of data expertise and potential bias caused by underutilization
49 of microbiology diagnostic tests.^{1,6-9} Expanding AMR surveillance to animals and the environment
50 presents even greater challenges since capacity is currently even lower than in the human health
51 sector.^{10,11}

52 The standard approach to AMR surveillance in bacteria causing human infections proposed by the World
53 Health Organization Global Antimicrobial Resistance and Use Surveillance System (GLASS)¹² is
54 surveillance based on routine microbiological investigations from representative sites (hospitals) in a
55 country. The AMR Diagnostic Initiative launched by WHO in 2023 highlights the importance of access to
56 high quality diagnostics for bacterial and fungal pathogens and AMR.¹³ WHO GLASS (2023) recommends
57 countries gradually increase the number of surveillance sites over time without pre-specifying the
58 optimum number.^{12,14} A previous economic analysis has shown that routine diagnostic microbiology in a
59 low-resource setting using established methods which permit bacterial identification to species level,
60 plus antimicrobial susceptibility testing, can cost anywhere between USD 11 to 31 per specimen (Figure
61 1) or USD 105–304 per bacterial isolate.¹⁵ This is considerably higher than the cost of common antibiotic
62 treatments, which are often available over-the-counter without involvement of healthcare professionals
63 or prescription. This cost is also higher than the cost of diagnosis of other high burden infectious
64 diseases (e.g. a rapid diagnostic test for malaria costs around 0.5-1.5 USD). This cost difference is just for
65 reagents and does not take into account the infrastructure, training and quality management needed to
66 deliver microbiology testing.

67

68 **Figure 1. Steps and cost of processing a blood culture versus a malaria rapid diagnostic test. Example**
 69 **of processing a blood culture positive for an ESBL-producing *E. coli* which includes 1st and 2nd line**
 70 **antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) and ESBL confirmation testing**



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72 Note: costs are based on actual costs in Lao PDR (see breakdown in Supplementary Material)

73

74 Using routine diagnostic microbiology as the platform on which AMR surveillance is based has clear
 75 benefits for case-management, infection prevention and control, and antimicrobial stewardship,¹⁶ but it
 76 will take time to achieve high coverage in most countries. Alternative lower cost models of surveillance
 77 are being evaluated by the WHO such as interval national AMR prevalence surveys.¹⁷ These are not
 78 viewed as a long term solution but rather to fill a gap while sustainable surveillance systems are built up.
 79 The survey methodology proposes alternative approaches to sampling ranging from all hospitals in small
 80 countries to more complex multi-stage cluster sampling of larger populations. Using the latter approach
 81 it is envisaged that “the number of hospitals in the final sample will range from ≥ 30 (to improve the
 82 precision of the estimators) to ≤ 60 (for logistic and resource considerations).”¹⁷

83 Recommended add-on activities to routine surveillance include surveillance of drug susceptibility of
 84 *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, surveillance for extended-spectrum beta lactamase (ESBL)-producing *E.coli* in
 85 human, animal and environmental sectors (“Tricycle”), and implementation of the WHO attributable
 86 mortality protocol.¹⁸

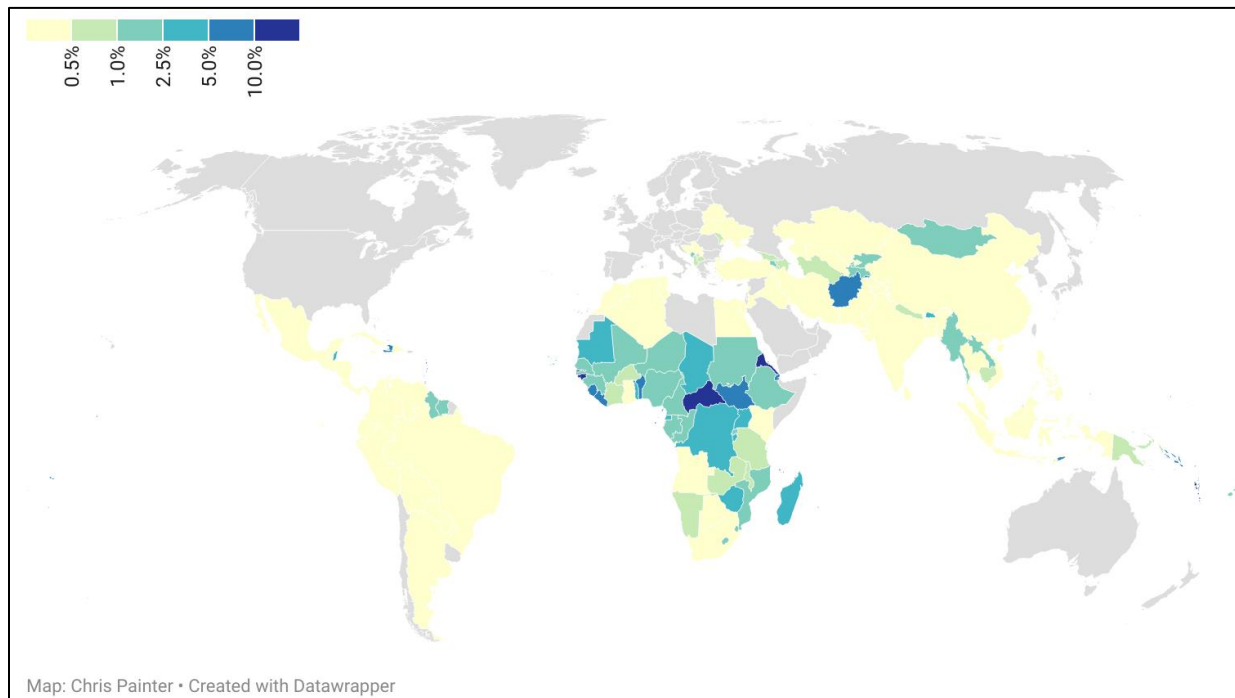
87 Over the last five years, with support from external donors such as the UK Fleming Fund (active in 24
88 LMICs in Africa and Asia), several countries have begun to kick-start or, in some cases, revive their
89 microbiology laboratory capacity in order to generate AMR surveillance data. This is a very positive
90 development but, given the high costs of microbiological testing and maintenance of diagnostic
91 instruments procured during these initiatives, there are serious concerns about sustainability once this
92 support ends. There is inevitably a lag between establishment of diagnostic laboratories and optimal
93 utilization by clinicians. Such delays may result in the perception of a poor return on investment, in the
94 sense of production of reliable and representative AMR surveillance data.

95 To investigate whether AMR surveillance is a sustainable routine activity for low-resource settings we
96 estimated the sustained cost burden required to conduct target AMR surveillance in humans, animals
97 and the environment in all LMICs (as categorised by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and
98 Development (<https://www.oecd.org/en/about.html>) Assistance Committee's list of official
99 development assistance recipients). We searched PubMed (for terms "AMR" and "Surveillance" and
100 "cost" in Title/Abstract) and Google for estimates of costs of AMR surveillance. The annual costs per
101 surveillance site were obtained from Seale et al. 2016,¹⁹ using an average obtained from three LMIC
102 countries (Ethiopia, Kenya and Vietnam), and inflated to 2019 cost values. First-year costs were omitted
103 as these included set-up costs and this analysis was focused on the longer-term financial sustainability of
104 AMR surveillance. The cost estimates were combined with the number of surveillance sites required to
105 achieve target levels of human AMR surveillance. In the base case, the number of surveillance sites
106 required was conservatively estimated as the minimum of two options: a) one site per first-level
107 administrative division²⁰ in the country, which we anticipated would be a standard approach for most
108 countries; or b) one site per five million population, with a minimum of five sites per country (an
109 assumption also used by Seale et al. 2017).¹⁹ The median number of estimated sites per country was
110 five. The maximum number of sites estimated using this approach was Indonesia with 38, whilst 84
111 countries had the minimum of five sites.

112 The Fleming Fund states that their country grants typically support 4-10 human health surveillance sites
113 and 1-3 animal health laboratories, so we assumed that conducting appropriate target levels of animal
114 and environmental AMR surveillance would incur an additional 25% of costs. The total cost estimates
115 were combined with domestic general government health expenditure (GGHE-D) per capita (PPP) data
116 and population estimates from 2019,²¹ to produce estimated costs of AMR surveillance as a percentage
117 of total GGHE-D. Data from 2019 was used instead of 2020, which was the most recent year with
118 comprehensive data coverage across the countries, as government health spending was irregular in this
119 year due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Estimates were generated for 129 of 136 LMICs, as the required
120 data were unavailable for seven countries. The results are displayed in Figure , and show that for many
121 LMICs the estimated cost required to conduct AMR diagnosis and surveillance is substantial. We
122 estimate that for 46 LMICs the costs would account for more than 2% of the total GGHE-D, and for 28 of
123 these countries it is more than 5% of the total GGHE-D, and a burden of over 10% of total GGHE-D for 17
124 of this same group. The mean and median burden as a percentage of total GGHE-D was 4.02% and
125 0.98%, respectively. The results and interactive data map are available at:
126 <https://datawrapper.dwcdn.net/GoCj3/1/> and all of the data and calculations performed, including the
127 total cost estimates for each country, can be found in the Supplementary Material. The Supplementary
128 Material also includes a set of results where the maximum of the number of sites calculated under

129 option a) or b) was used (with a maximum number of five sites for countries with populations under 1.5
130 million), rather than the minimum as was used in the base case.

131 *Figure 2. Estimated costs of target AMR surveillance as a percentage of total domestic general*
132 *government health expenditure in 2019*



133
134 Note: Colour scale displays percentage values.

135 Discussion

136 AMR is predicted to outstrip malaria, HIV and tuberculosis combined as a leading infectious cause of
137 death by 2050.²² Since 2002, the Global Fund for AIDS, TB and Malaria has transformed the ability of
138 more than 100 countries to respond to these diseases and saved millions of lives.²³ Eligibility for
139 funding/investment depends on country income status and disease burden with high income countries
140 and OECD-DAC members ineligible for funding. As proposed in an editorial in 2022,²⁴ a similar system
141 will be needed to enable all countries to respond to AMR, including conducting AMR surveillance – one
142 of five main objectives of the WHO Global Action Plan on AMR.

143 The recent Lancet series emphasized the need for sustainable access to effective antimicrobials to treat
144 drug-resistant infections and proposed different models of funding or incentivization to achieve this, e.g.
145 PEPFAR (U.S. President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief)-type approaches.²⁵ However, facilitating
146 appropriate use of newer antimicrobials will only be possible if diagnostic microbiology is widely
147 available to guide therapy. Without this, a new antibiotic is more likely to be overused in LMICs and at
148 risk of becoming ineffective globally within a few years. AMR is a global problem and does not respect
149 borders.²⁶ Efforts to monitor and reduce AMR should be considered as a global public good. There is an
150 economic and humanitarian incentive for high-income countries to contribute to AMR surveillance and
151 control in countries that are less able to foot the bill. We estimated the mean and median cost of
152 conducting AMR diagnosis and surveillance as a percentage of total GGHE-D at 4.02% and 0.98%,

153 respectively. To help to put this into perspective, Gavi low-income and middle-income countries spent
154 3.3% and 2.4% of total government health expenditure on immunization in 2021.²⁷

155 Global financing initiatives with a narrow focus can have unwanted effects on health systems, shifting
156 national priorities and forgoing opportunities for cross-sectoral integration.²⁸ Focusing on obtaining
157 AMR surveillance data and sustained access to antimicrobials in a vertical programme may be
158 disadvantageous, especially since drivers other than antimicrobial use may be particularly significant;²⁹
159 however the increasing number of deaths that are associated with AMR makes both urgent priorities to
160 address. An added benefit of a new global funding mechanism would be to accelerate progress to make
161 testing more affordable and improve supply chains.³⁰ Currently, the diagnostic market is dominated by a
162 small number of biotech companies with few incentives to lower the costs of their products. The Global
163 Fund uses pooled procurement and price negotiation to strengthen supply chains and reduce the costs
164 of drugs and diagnostics for HIV, TB and malaria, something that is sorely needed for AMR. A
165 comprehensive international funding mechanism for AMR surveillance could also result in other
166 efficiencies, by avoiding duplication of efforts and supporting consistent reporting which will facilitate
167 better understanding of spatial/temporal trends. Comprehensive AMR surveillance data could also
168 improve allocative efficiency and enable funders or governments to designate resources more
169 appropriately.

170 Although the estimates of the number of sites required was performed quite simplistically, by using two
171 estimates of the number of sites that would be required we have attempted to find a pragmatic balance
172 between strictly population-derived estimates and other contextual factors such as population density
173 and geographical barriers that may result in the administrative decentralisation of health services.
174 Contextual factors which could mean the cost estimates used are an under- or over-estimate may exist
175 in some of the considered countries, particularly due to differences in the number of sites required in
176 reality or because the costs per site used do not accurately reflect the situation in certain countries (for
177 example, due to staff wage disparities between or within regions of countries). To avoid overstating the
178 costs, the lowest estimates of the number of sites were conservatively assumed in the base case results.
179 What we believe to be the best cost estimates for conducting effective AMR surveillance available were
180 used, using an average obtained from three LMIC countries (Ethiopia, Kenya and Vietnam).

181 More complex and contextualised estimates would be beneficial, including accounting for existing
182 reimbursement of diagnostic tests through health insurance schemes. In addition, our estimate of the
183 number of sites per country does not take into account technical feasibility of scale-up to reach these
184 numbers. For most countries the number of sites was lower than the maximum number set by the WHO
185 survey methodology and similar or lower than the number of laboratories supported by the Fleming
186 Fund country grants.³¹ CHINET has 74 surveillance sites currently which is substantially more than our
187 base case estimate of 31, but much lower than our alternative higher estimate of 282 (see
188 Supplementary material). It could also be argued that the high costs of surveillance as percentages of
189 GGHE-D produced in the analyses reflect low levels of GGHE-D in countries that should be increased,
190 though that is a nuanced macroeconomic policy debate beyond the scope of this article.

191 While governments in low-resource settings should continue to commit a proportion of their health
192 spending to AMR diagnosis, surveillance and control, it is unrealistic to imagine they can fully cover all
193 costs. Past experience with other infectious diseases shows us that delaying addressing this will only
194 lead to more deaths. The 2024 World AMR awareness week campaign 'AMR is invisible, I am not' of the

195 WHO brings the human cost of AMR to the forefront. Accurate microbiological diagnosis can be life-
196 saving for individuals and underpins global AMR decision-making. Availability of a global evidence base
197 of AMR in time and space is crucial to identify trends and hotspots and to inform treatment guidelines
198 locally. A global funding mechanism is needed to make it happen.

199

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209 **Declaration of interests**

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212

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