# 1 FULL TITLE

- 2 Navigating cross-reactivity and host species effects in a serological assay: A case study of the
- 3 microscopic agglutination test for *Leptospira* serology
- 4
- 5 SHORT TITLE
- 6 Navigating cross-reactivity in a serological assay
- 7

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# 18 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

- 19 ROM, ACRG, BB, KCP and JOL-S conceived the study. RLG processed the biological samples. ROM, ACRG,
- 20 and AHG created the figures and analyzed the data. ROM and ACRG drafted the manuscript. All authors

21 revised the manuscript.

22

#### 23 DATA ACCESSIBILITY

24 Code and data can be found at: <u>https://github.com/rileymummah/x-reactivity/</u>

25	
26	<b>CDC DISCLAIMER:</b> The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the author(s) and do not
27	necessarily represent the official position of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
28	
29	ABSTRACT
30	Background
31	Serology (the detection of antibodies formed by the host against an infecting pathogen) is frequently
32	used to assess current infections and past exposure to specific pathogens. However, the presence of
33	cross-reactivity among host antibodies in serological data makes it challenging to interpret the patterns
34	and draw reliable conclusions about the infecting pathogen or strain.
35	
36	Methodology/Principal Findings
37	In our study, we use microscopic agglutination test (MAT) serological data from three host species with
38	confirmed infections to assess differences in cross-reactivity by host species and diagnostic lab. All host
39	species are known to be infected with the same strain of <i>Leptospira interrogans</i> . We find that absolute
40	and relative antibody titer magnitudes vary systematically across host species and diagnostic
41	laboratories. Despite being infected by the same Leptospira serovar, three host species exhibit different
42	cross-reactivity profiles to a 5-serovar diagnostic panel. We also observe that the cross-reactive antibody
43	titer against a non-infecting serovar can remain detectable after the antibody titer against the infecting
44	serovar declines below detectable levels.
45	
46	Conclusions/Significance
47	Cross-reactivity in serological data makes interpretation difficult and can lead to common pitfalls. Our
48	results show that the highest antibody titer is not a reliable indicator of infecting serovar and highlight

an intriguing role of host species in shaping reactivity patterns. On the other side, seronegativity against
a given serovar does not rule out that serovar as the cause of infection. We show that titer magnitudes
can be influenced by both host species and diagnostic laboratory, indicating that efforts to interpret
absolute titer levels (e.g., as indicators of recent infection) must be calibrated to the system under
study. Thus, we implore scientists and health officials using serological data for surveillance to interpret
the data with caution.

55

#### 56 AUTHOR SUMMARY

Serology is frequently used for disease surveillance, especially in systems that are resource constrained 57 58 or logistically challenging. Serological testing involves analyzing blood serum samples to detect 59 antibodies with reactivity toward specific pathogens (or more generally, molecular antigens), with the 60 goal of characterizing past exposure to those pathogens. However, these antibodies can be non-specific 61 and may react against other related pathogens or strains – a phenomenon known as cross-reactivity. 62 Interpretation of serological data exhibiting cross-reactivity is difficult and simplifying assumptions are 63 often made (e.g., to interpret the strain that elicits the highest antibody titer level as the infecting 64 pathogen strain). Our work shows that interpreting antibody data requires more nuance and more 65 caution. Both absolute titer levels and relative reactivity against different strains can vary across host 66 species and diagnostic laboratory, so it is essential to interpret these data in the appropriate context. 67 These host species differences in antibody reactivity and cross-reactivity patterns make direct 68 comparisons across species inadvisable but may present an opportunity to use these patterns to learn 69 more about circulating pathogen strains and transmission links in host communities.

70

#### 71 INTRODUCTION

72 Identification of current infections and past exposure to specific pathogens is fundamental to 73 studying the epidemiology and ecology of infectious diseases. The correct identification of the infecting 74 species, serovar and/or strain is the basis for understanding intra- and interspecies epidemiological 75 linkages. Serology, or the detection of serum antibodies formed by the host against an infecting 76 pathogen, is used to detect individuals with current infections or prior exposure to a specific pathogen 77 and is a widely used diagnostic for large-scale pathogen surveillance, particularly in wildlife systems. 78 Cross-reactivity among antibodies complicates serology-based surveillance of many pathogen 79 groups including *Chlamydia* spp., *Shigella* spp., flavivruses, rickettsia, hantaviruses, *Salmonella* spp., and 80 Brucella spp. (1-10, 10-12). It is often assumed that the strain that elicits the highest antibody titer is the 81 infecting strain, but titer magnitudes can depend on many factors including host species, host immune 82 history, laboratory reference strains, or time since infection, so cross-reactions can distort this picture. 83 Absolute titer levels are also used to estimate the recency of infection, but the quantitative titer 84 dynamics (i.e., titer kinetics) among cross-reacting antibodies may differ such that the detected 85 maximum titers and the rates of titer decline vary by strain (13–15). Thus, conclusions regarding the 86 recency of infection for pathogens, such as Leptospira, Salmonella, or Brucella, whose serological tests 87 assess antibody titers against a panel of infecting strains/serovars may differ depending on which 88 antibody titer results are used. Additionally, when rates of decline differ among strains/serovars, 89 seronegative results may also be unreliable. Antibody titers against the infecting strain could decline to 90 undetectable levels while titers of cross-reacting antibodies against other strains may remain 91 detectable. At the same time, characterization of cross-reactivity in serological testing could provide 92 crucial insights into predictable relationships between cross-reacting antibodies, enabling accurate 93 interpretation of serological results (16). 94 The microscopic agglutination test (MAT) is the serological diagnostic reference test for

94 The microscopic agglutination test (MAT) is the serological diagnostic reference test for
 95 pathogenic species within the genus *Leptospira*, the causative agents of the disease leptospirosis (17).

96 The test consists of challenging serial dilutions of serum with live cultured bacteria and observing (with 97 dark-field microscopy) the amount of agglutination that occurs due to serum antibodies binding to the 98 antigen presented by the bacteria. An endpoint antibody titer is reported as the highest serum dilution 99 that agglutinates at least half (50%) of the cells from the strain tested (18). However, diagnostic 100 laboratories will often only test up to a specific serum dilution (yielding a a non-endpoint titer) because 101 running a sample to titer endpoint can be labor- and cost-intensive. For Leptospira, MAT is typically 102 performed using a panel of 1-20+ cultured isolates. Serovars (strains of Leptospira historically 103 determined by serological reactions) are chosen for the panel based on what is known to circulate in the 104 area or host species being tested. MAT is known to be affected by cross-reactivity and paradoxical 105 reactions. Anti-Leptospira antibodies show a high degree of cross-reactivity in MAT results, whereby 106 antibodies generated by infection with one strain will react with antigens of multiple strains 107 (Chirathaworn et al., 2014; Smythe et al., 2009). Positive antibody titers against different strains make 108 assessment of the infecting serovar and identification of epidemiological linkages difficult. Paradoxical 109 MAT reactions, in which the early response is directed most strongly to a non-infecting serovar, are 110 common in humans and other host species and further complicate any effort to identify the infecting 111 strain from MAT results alone (14,15).

112 The cross agglutinin absorption test (CAAT) has traditionally been viewed as the gold standard 113 isolate-based reference method for *Leptospira* serovar typing (18,21). While CAAT is used to identify, 114 define, and describe potential new serovars, it is very rarely used for routine typing since it is a time-115 consuming method, and few reference labs are certified to perform it worldwide (22). Even with 116 alternatives to CAAT such as pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) and whole genome sequencing 117 methods, Leptospira strain typing has traditionally required high concentrations of bacterial genetic 118 material (22). Usually, the necessary quantity can only be obtained by growing the sampled isolate in 119 specialized culture media. Growing a viable culture from a sample is time-consuming (on the scale of

120 months) and prone to failure, even when the sample is obtained from acutely ill animals (which are 121 assumed to have a higher bacterial load), so it is rarely performed. However if a cultured isolate can be 122 obtained, the strain can be typed reliably (or identified as a potential new strain) by PFGE or genome 123 sequence typing methods, which are much faster and cheaper alternatives to CAAT (23–25). 124 Leptospira genetics have revealed that the serological classification system does not match 125 genetic taxonomy. Historically, *Leptospira* was classified into serovars based on serological reactivity 126 and, furthermore, clustered into serogroups based on antigenically-related serovars (17). However, with 127 the dawn of genetic classification approaches, we learned that Leptospira serovars do not align neatly with species delineations. Thus, serovars and serogroups can span multiple Leptospira species (e.g., L. 128 129 interrogans serovar Pomona and L. kirschneri serovar Mozdok belong to the same serogroup; Adler & de 130 la Peña Moctezuma, 2010; Arent et al., 2017). Furthermore, when this low resolution of serovar is 131 combined with potential cross-reactivity on serovar panels, there are clear advantages to using whole 132 genome sequencing when possible. Until recently, culturing Leptospira isolates was the limiting step in 133 reliable serovar identification; new genomic techniques have made it possible to acquire near-complete 134 genome sequences without an isolate (28) or identify serovar with genetic determinants (29), but these 135 can be cost-prohibitive.

136 In practice, many epidemiological and ecological studies of leptospirosis rely only on serum MAT 137 data due to its affordability, relative ease, and lack of reliance on obtaining isolates. MAT is recognized 138 as unreliable for strain typing because of cross-reactivity among serovars, but as it is often the only 139 evidence available, especially for wildlife systems, many authors use it as a basis to speculate on the 140 infecting serovar in their systems (e.g., Bishara et al., 2002; Panaphut et al., 2002; Santos et al., 2016; 141 Sehgal et al., 1995; Tunbridge et al., 2002). Unlike many commonly used serological tests, MAT does not 142 require host-specific reagents, which facilitates direct comparison between host species. This is 143 beneficial as many Leptospira serovars infect multiple mammal hosts. For example, Leptospira

144 interrogans serovar Pomona has been documented in deer, sea lions, pigs, island foxes, raccoons, 145 covotes, and striped skunks (13.35–39) to name a few. Correctly interpreting the differences and 146 similarities in MAT results across different species is an important step in describing the ecology of 147 Leptospira in a potential multi-host system. Whether the pattern of cross-reactivity against a specific 148 serovar differs across host species has not been investigated or characterized. 149 In our study, we leverage a unique ecological system with one circulating strain of *Leptospira* 150 interrogans in three sympatric wildlife host species and test the reliability of MAT as a tool to infer 151 epidemiological processes. We specifically investigate the interpretation of maximum titers as markers 152 of infecting serovar and the interpretation of quantitative titer levels as markers of time since exposure. 153 We also highlight the potential confounding of host species and laboratory effects. Our results suggest 154 that all MAT results (i.e., both absolute and relative quantitative titers) should be interpreted with 155 caution and consideration of host species, while at the same time there is potential to infer powerful 156 insights into infecting and circulating strains from host-serovar specific patterns of cross-reactivity. 157

#### 158 DATA & METHODS

## 159 Study Animals and Sample Collection

160 Our dataset comprises samples from California sea lions (Zalophus californianus), island foxes 161 (Urocyon littoralis), and island spotted skunks (Spilogale gracilis) with confirmed infections of L. 162 interrogans serovar Pomona. Samples were collected from 107 sea lions that had stranded along the 163 central California coast between 2004-2017 and were admitted to The Marine Mammal Center (TMMC; 164 Sausalito, California) for rehabilitation. An additional thirty sea lion samples were collected from free-165 ranging wild sea lions from the central California coast and northern Oregon, between 2010 and 2012, 166 as described in Prager et al., 2020. The majority of sea lions were diagnosed with acute leptospirosis 167 (97/137) based on clinical signs, serum chemistry results, and necropsy data (41).

168	Samples from island foxes (n=59) and island spotted skunks (n=4) were collected between 2011
169	and 2016 during annual grid and target trapping conducted by the National Park Service (NPS) as part of
170	a monitoring program on Santa Rosa Island, California. Santa Rosa Island has an area of approximately
171	214 km <sup>2</sup> and only three terrestrial mammal species (island foxes, island spotted skunks, and island deer
172	mouse (Peromyscus maniculatus), and has no known history of Leptospira circulation before our study.
173	Fox and sea lion data include both sexes and all age classes. All four skunks were adult males.
174	
175	Ethics Statement
176	All California sea lion samples were collected under authority of Marine Mammal Protection Act
177	Permits No. 932-1905-00/MA-009526 and No. 932-1489-10 issued by the National Marine Fisheries
178	Service (NMFS), NMFS Permit Numbers 17115–03, 16087–03, and 13430. The sample collection protocol
179	was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees (IACUC) of The Marine Mammal
180	Center (Sausalito, CA; protocol # 2008–3) and the University of California Los Angeles (ARC # 2012-035-
181	12. UCLA is accredited by AAALAC International. The Marine Mammal Center and UCLA adhere to the
182	national standards of the U.S. Public Health Service Policy on the Humane Care and Use of Laboratory
183	Animals and the USDA Animal Welfare Act. Isoflurane gas was used to anesthetize all wild-caught, free-
184	ranging sea lions for sampling. All island fox and skunk samples were collected by the National Park
185	Service under USFWS permit TE-08267-2.
186	

# 187 Sample Analysis

All animals included in this study had real time polymerase chain reaction (rt-PCR) confirmed Leptospira DNA in urine or kidney tissue as described by Wu et al (42), and the infecting Leptospira serovar was confirmed as *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona using PFGE as described previously by

191 Galloway & Levett (23) on all cultured isolates (N<sub>CSL</sub> = 19, N<sub>fox</sub> = 11, N<sub>skunk</sub> = 1).

192	Serum samples were tested by microagglutination test (MAT) against a panel of five Leptospira
193	serovars comprising L. interrogans serovars Pomona, Autumnalis, Djasiman, Bratislava, and
194	Icterohaemorrhagiae. Most of the samples included in this analysis were tested against more than five
195	serovars (56 CSL samples and 7 fox samples were tested with a 20-serovar panel). We exclude tested
196	serovars that yielded almost entirely negative or very low results for all host species, and serovars for
197	which the overlap between tested samples was low among the host species. All titers used in the host
198	species comparison were analyzed at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in Atlanta,
199	Georgia using MAT (as described in Prager et al., 2013) and run to endpoint dilution. Titer results were
200	log-transformed for ease of interpretation using the following formula: log <sub>2</sub> (titer/100) + 1, thus a titer of
201	1:100 = 1, 1:200=2, 1:400=3, etc. Titers reported as <1:100 are represented by 0.
202	In a separate analysis focusing on variability among laboratories, a subset of 46 fox sera were
203	MAT analyzed at three reference laboratories using a 2-serovar panel (Pomona and Autumnalis). The
204	laboratories are referred to as Labs A, B, and C. Antibody titers against serovar Pomona were evaluated
205	to endpoint at all three labs. Serovar Autumnalis was not titrated to endpoint for all samples at all labs.
206	At Lab A, 43 of 46 samples were titrated to endpoint and 3 of 46 were only tested at a dilution of 1:100
207	(all were positive). At Lab B, all 46 samples were titrated to endpoint. At Lab C, all 46 serum samples
208	were titrated to a 1:6400 dilution ( $\log_2$ titer = 7) but not beyond.
209	

# 210 Data Selection

To analyze antibody cross-reactivity patterns within and between host species, we selected MAT results from animals for which there was at least one positive urine PCR or culture result, which confirms current *Leptospira* infection. We did separate analyses for animals with PCR- or cultureconfirmed infection ( $n_{CSL} = 137$ ;  $n_{fox} = 59$ ;  $n_{sku} = 4$ ) and animals with confirmed infection and PFGEconfirmed serovar ( $n_{CSL} = 19$ ;  $n_{fox} = 11$ ;  $n_{sku} = 4$ ). Only one skunk sample was PFGE-positive, so we

216 included samples from all four skunks in both analyses. We also performed an additional comparison of 217 PCR- or culture-confirmed skunks with all MAT-positive skunks to confirm that patterns were consistent. 218 For individuals that had been sampled longitudinally, we selected the MAT result from the serum 219 sample with a collection date closest to that of the positive urine sample. The majority of MAT results 220 from foxes (55/59) and all from skunks (4/4) were from sera collected on the same day as the Leptospira 221 PCR- or culture-positive urine. Sea lion serum samples used for MAT were collected within 5 days of the 222 date that the PCR- or culture-positive urine or kidney sample was collected (range = 0-5 days, median = 223 0 days). To analyze relative titer magnitudes among host species, we standardized antibody titer levels 224 by dividing a given antibody titer by the highest antibody titer detected against any serovar in the 5-225 serovar MAT panel for that host serum sample. 226 We evaluated a subset of 46 fox serum samples at three certified testing laboratories as 227 described above (see section on Sample Analysis) to compare MAT results across laboratories. Fox 228 serum samples were chosen for this lab comparison based on MAT titer results from Lab A. For each 229 MAT antibody titer level ranging from 1:100-1:51200, three serum samples with that MAT antibody titer 230 against serovar Pomona, as reported by Lab A, were selected where possible (Table S1). In addition to 231 these 30 samples, we included a further 10 samples that had no detectable antibodies against serovars 232 Pomona and Autumnalis at Lab A, and six samples that had no detectable antibodies against serovar 233 Pomona but were MAT positive against serovar Autumnalis at Lab A.

234

235 RESULTS

All host species exhibited strong antibody cross-reactivity against the five *Leptospira* serovars included in the MAT panel. The serovar against which the highest antibody titer was measured differed among the three host species, despite the fact that all were infected by *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona (Fig 1; Fig S1). The highest antibody titers detected in the majority of California sea lion (89.8%) and

240	spotted skunk (100%) samples were against serovar Pomona, but the highest antibody titer detected in
241	Channel Island fox samples was most often against serovar Autumnalis (69.5%). Further, we detected a
242	clear difference in the absolute magnitude of anti-Leptospira antibody titers across the three host
243	species (Fig 2; Fig S2). Across four of the five serovars, sea lions exhibited consistently higher antibody
244	titers relative to foxes and skunks. The exception was serovar Autumnalis, against which similar antibody
245	titer magnitudes were detected in sea lions and foxes (Fig 2). Meanwhile, antibody titers detected in
246	skunks were consistently lower than those from the other host species. Patterns were consistent
247	between the PCR- and culture-confirmed dataset and the PFGE-confirmed dataset for all species (Figs S1
248	& S2). We further compared PCR- and culture-confirmed skunks to all skunks that were MAT-positive
249	against one of the five serovars on the panel and found similar results (Fig S3).
250	We examined titer dynamics and changes in the cross-reactivity profile through the course of
251	infection and recovery using individual-level longitudinal data from 46 foxes sampled from 2009-2019. In
252	particular, one fox illustrated a course of infection during which the titer against the non-infecting
253	serovar (Autumnalis) was always higher than the titer of the infecting serovar (Pomona) and remained
254	positive after the latter declined to zero (Fig 3). Although this was the clearest case study of this
255	phenomenon in our dataset, other individuals had similar courses of infection where their highest titer
256	was consistently against a non-infecting serovar (Fig S4).
057	

Analysis of 46 fox serum samples at three different diagnostic laboratories showed that both absolute and relative titer levels against serovars Pomona and Autumnalis varied systematically among labs (Fig 4). When comparing absolute antibody titer magnitude against serovar Pomona, the median titer was lowest from Lab A and highest from Lab C, with titers detected against serovar Pomona roughly one dilution greater at Lab B than Lab A, and more than three dilutions greater at Lab C than Lab A (Fig 4B). Endpoint titers against serovar Autumnalis were not run for all samples at all three laboratories so comparisons were not possible at greater than 1:6400 dilution (log<sub>2</sub> titer = 7). Thirty-two of the samples

tested at Lab C were positive at dilutions less than 1:6400 against serovar Autumnalis, but endpoint
titers for the 14 samples that were still positive at the 1:6400 dilution are unknown. When assessing
relative titer magnitude between labs, we found that at Lab A, antibody titers against serovar
Autumnalis were generally higher than those against serovar Pomona (Figs 4A & S5), whereas at Labs B
and C, antibody titers detected against serovar Autumnalis were generally equal to (Lab B) or less than
(Lab C) those against serovar Pomona (Figs 4A & S5)

270

## 271 **DISCUSSION**

272 We tested sera from three host species at three different testing laboratories using the MAT 273 assay and found that antibody cross-reactivity patterns can differ gualitatively and guantitatively across 274 host species, despite infection with the same causative agent (in our case study, the same species and 275 serovar of Leptospira). We also showed that the highest detected antibody titer is not necessarily 276 against the infecting serovar, and that both relative and absolute antibody titer magnitudes detected 277 against different serovars can vary by diagnostic lab. MAT titers and cross-reactivity patterns are frequently used to characterize Leptospira epidemiology or ecology, with some studies proposing that 278 279 the infecting serovar is that against which the highest MAT antibody titer is detected (30–34,43) or 280 interpreting high MAT antibody titers against multiple serovars as proof of multiple circulating strains 281 (44). Our results highlight that these interpretations are not robust and can lead to inaccurate 282 conclusions regarding the epidemiology of *Leptospira* transmission dynamics within and between host 283 species. This work raises clear caveats for the use and interpretation of MAT data, as well as questions 284 regarding the biological mechanisms by which host species can influence MAT results. We outline 285 lessons learned from our analyses and discuss the implications for interpreting MAT results. 286

287 Lesson 1: Highest titer does not always indicate infecting serovar.

288 In our study, antibody titers detected in sea lions and skunks were generally highest against 289 serovar Pomona, while foxes typically had the highest titer against serovar Autumnalis (Figs 1, 2, S1 & 290 S2), despite our genetic evidence showing that the infections were caused by serovar Pomona. These 291 results highlight that the serovar against which the highest titer is detected should not be assumed to be 292 the infecting serovar. Misidentification of the infecting serovar could result in a misunderstanding of 293 multi-species transmission patterns with implications for disease management and control. 294 295 Lesson 2: Seronegativity must be interpreted with caution. 296 Our longitudinal samples show that antibody titers against the infecting serovar can decay 297 below the level of detection before those against non-infecting serovars do. Thus, a seronegative result 298 against a given serovar does not necessarily mean it was not the infecting serovar, even when 299 juxtaposed with positive titers against other serovars. This phenomenon could lead to misclassifying the 300 infecting serovar if we rely on MAT for strain identification, or mistakenly ruling out the serovar that 301 caused the infection, especially if exposure occurred in the relatively distant past. 302 303 Lesson 3: Absolute and relative titer magnitudes depend on host species. 304 We observed significant differences in both absolute and relative MAT titer magnitudes among

305 the three host species tested. The same infecting serovar of *Leptospira* gave rise to different MAT cross-

306 reactivity profiles in different host species (Fig 1). In general, we see that sea lions have higher median

307 titers than foxes, which in turn, have higher median titers than skunks across the five serovars (Fig 2).

308 Autumnalis is a notable exception in which sea lions and foxes exhibit a similar median titer magnitude.

309 The mechanisms underlying these differences are unknown.

310

311 Lesson 4: Absolute and relative titer magnitudes can differ across laboratories.

312 We observed systematic differences in absolute and relative titer magnitudes among three 313 certified testing laboratories, including qualitative differences in which serovars elicited the highest 314 titers from the same samples (Fig 4). Despite adherence to excellent laboratory standards and protocols, 315 the nature of the MAT testing process means that some variation among labs is bound to exist. MAT is 316 not standardized among labs, and variation both within and between labs is expected (45). Many factors 317 which are difficult to control can contribute to the variation of MAT results, so caution is needed when 318 comparing MAT titers across laboratories.

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320

## Implications for interpretation of MAT results

321 Of the more than 300 pathogenic Leptospira serovars currently described, most diagnostic MAT 322 panels select a maximum of 20 serovars. In fact, cost and time restrictions typically limit panels to 4-6 323 serovars or fewer, particularly under conditions with fewer resources and lower testing capacity. This 324 leaves the distinct possibility that a circulating serovar (and possibly the infecting serovar) could be 325 omitted from the MAT panel, leading to potential for sub-optimal diagnostics and misunderstanding of 326 circulating strains and transmission linkages. At the bottom line, it's important to recognize that the 327 serovar associated with the maximum titer in a given panel is not necessarily the infecting strain.

328 Titer magnitudes are often used to assess active infections. However, given our finding of 329 differences in absolute titer levels across host species, relying on titer thresholds inferred from data in 330 one species to identify recent or active infections in another can lead to inaccurate diagnosis and poor 331 incidence estimates. For example, longitudinally sampled sea lions acutely infected with L. interrogans 332 serovar Pomona had initial log<sub>2</sub> titers against serovar Pomona ranging from 10 to 12 and these titers 333 declined with a half-life of around 17 days (40). Therefore if log<sub>2</sub> titer thresholds used to define active 334 infection in humans -3 - or dogs -4 - were applied to sea lions, many would be miscategorized as 335 current infections (15,26); this could occur even if the infecting serovar was not included in the MAT

336 panel and the sea lion titers arose from antibody cross-reactivity. Our longitudinal fox data show that 337 foxes could be similarly miscategorized if the human or dog thresholds are applied to them, as some 338 foxes infected with L. interrogans serovar Pomona persist above the  $\log_2 = 4$  threshold for years (Fig S3). 339 It is essential that any efforts to interpret absolute titer levels are calibrated to the system under study. 340 When this is done, titer magnitudes (and their decay) can be used to estimate the recency of infection 341 (13,46–48). Modern titer kinetics approaches have the potential to include additional host-specific 342 information about the relationship among serovars (i.e., MAT cross-reactivity profile) to estimate time 343 since infection and improve our understanding of when outbreaks may have occurred. 344 We know of no prior work showing host species differences in MAT profiles. These patterns may 345 be driven by different major histocompatibility complex (MHC) types and diversity (49,50), but more 346 work is needed to understand how immunogenetic differences among wildlife may impact serology. It is 347 noteworthy that the island fox population recently underwent a severe population bottleneck and 348 exhibits very low genetic diversity (and therefore MHC diversity; Robinson et al., 2016). Yet recent work 349 in coyotes in southern California revealed a similar pattern – with MAT titers against serovar Autumnalis 350 frequently exceeding those against serovar Pomona, despite known circulation of serovar Pomona in 351 coyotes – suggesting that this effect may occur more broadly among canids (37). Systematically 352 expanding surveillance across canid species and beyond could provide insights on the possible existence 353 of a host phylogenetic effect on MAT reactivity. 354 It is possible that some interspecies variation in titer magnitude was due to sampling bias. Over 355 two-thirds of sea lion samples were from animals experiencing acute leptospirosis – the disease caused 356 by Leptospira infection. By contrast, foxes and skunks were sampled during a routine trapping program 357 aimed at monitoring these sensitive populations, so sample collection was not biased by disease

358 severity. This could skew our observed antibody titers higher in the sea lions as their severe clinical

disease suggests a recent infection (52), but a modeling analysis of island fox titers estimated peak titers

against serovar Pomona of 6 to 9 log<sub>2</sub> titers (13), consistent with values reported here for foxes, and
 lower than values reported for sea lions. It is clear that there is a large degree of immunological
 variability within and between species.

363 Variability in titer magnitudes has been documented across reference laboratories (53). The 364 International Leptospirosis Society sponsors the annual International Proficiency Testing Scheme for the 365 Leptospirosis MAT, intended to provide information on the quality of MAT testing and improve MAT 366 testing performance worldwide (54). Early rounds of this program reported a wide variety of titer levels 367 for the same sample and serovar (54). Although multifactorial, variation is probably driven chiefly by two 368 main factors. First, MAT relies on live bacterial cultures, and there may be slight strain variations 369 between labs and in different batches grown within a lab. For trustworthy MAT results, within-culture 370 serovar identity must be verified regularly (40,54). Secondly, determining antibody titers by assessing 371 agglutination under dark-field microscopy is subjective and requires significant expertise; even with best 372 practices, some observer effect is inevitable. Altogether, many factors which are difficult to control can 373 contribute to the variation of MAT results, so caution is needed when comparing MAT titers across 374 laboratories.

375 Overall, overinterpretation of individual titer values can lead to misrepresentation of host 376 relationships and circulating strains. Which begs the question, why use MAT at all? Genetic methods 377 remain superior to serology for strain typing but are becoming more accessible, but serology has many 378 benefits that are distinct from culture-based methods with respect to duration of positivity and the 379 potential to learn from antibody titer kinetics (with appropriate interpretation). Despite issues with 380 serological cross-reactivity, MAT is generally more affordable than culture-based methods, does not 381 require specialized equipment, is often an easier sample to collect, and captures information on past 382 infections. Given the broad accessibility and continuing worldwide use of this diagnostic, we need to 383 interpret its results with appropriate caution, while capitalizing on all available information. There may

be an opportunity to improve assessment of the infecting serovar by exploiting consistent patterns in
cross-reactivity against serovars within a host species, but more research is needed to describe these
patterns within and across host species. The rising availability and falling cost of genetic methods,
coupled with exciting new developments in obtaining whole genome sequences of *Leptospira* without
culture isolates, point to a future where genetic typing adds clarity and certainty to *Leptospira*epidemiology and ecology.

390

### 391 Conclusions

392 Serology plays an irreplaceable role in infectious disease ecology and epidemiology, but cross-393 reactivity can lead to pitfalls in interpreting serological data to assess current and past exposure to 394 specific pathogens. For our case study, we have shown that there can be substantial and consistent 395 effects of host species that influence cross-reactivity profiles and quantitative titer levels, which could 396 lead to erroneous conclusions about infecting serovars or recency of infection if appropriate caveats are 397 not observed. This in turn can yield misleading interpretations about patterns of Leptospira circulation 398 across host communities, or sources of zoonotic cases. This is especially true when relying on titer 399 magnitude to determine infecting strain, or when samples have been analyzed at multiple laboratories. 400 These findings have implications for all pathogen for which antibodies can cross-react with other species 401 or strains, and we advise scientists and health officials using serological data for surveillance to interpret 402 the data with suitable caution.

403

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bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.03.05.583452; this version posted March 7, 2024. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. This article is a US Government work. It is not subject to copyright under 17 USC **2** Figure 1. Host-195 peer file participation for the unit of the uni 3 serovars (Pomona, Djasiman, Autumnalis, Bratislava, and Icterohaemorrhagiae) when the infecting 4 serovar is L. interrogans serovar Pomona. Each plot shows the relative antibody titer levels (antibody 5 titer against one serovar divided by the highest antibody titer detected against any serovar in the 5-6 serovar MAT panel run for that sample) for California sea lions (left; purple; n=56), island foxes (middle; 7 cyan; n=56), and spotted skunks (right; green; n=4). The shaded regions on each plot are a 8 representative subsample of overlaid polygons linking the values for an individual sample. The 9 continuous black line shows the standardized antibody titer level for each sample (sample 10 titer/maximum sample titer) averaged across all samples for each serovar for that species. The dashed 11 black lines and the percentages associated with each serovar indicate the proportion of samples for 12 which that serovar has the highest titer out of all serovars in that individual's panel, regardless of the 13 actual titer. The numbers add up to more than 100% since multiple serovars can have the highest titer for any given sample (e.g., the highest antibody titer detected in the 5-serovar panel for that individual 14 15 is both Pomona and Icterohaemorrhagiae, with titers of 1:6400).

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20 endpoint MAT titer levels (log<sub>2</sub> dilutions) for California sea lions (purple), Channel Island foxes (teal), and

- 21 spotted skunks (green), all presumed to be infected with the same strain of serovar Pomona. The colors
- 22 aggregate in a distinct pattern, showing that the serovar reactivity pattern is affected by the host species
- and that absolute titer magnitude differs among species. The black diagonal line corresponds to perfect

- 24 equivalence between different serovars. Jitter has been added to the points to aid visualization. Inset:
- 25 differences in MAT titer magnitude against each serovar among host species.

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- 30 panel shows antibody titers against *L. interrogans* serovars Pomona (black solid line) and Autumnalis
- 31 (blue dashed line) from longitudinally collected serum samples from one fox. The bottom panel indicates
- 32 the PCR test result from urine samples taken at the same time as serum collection.

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