

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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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: <https://github.com/rileymummah/x-reactivity/>

25

26 **CDC DISCLAIMER:** 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 *Leptospira interrogans*. 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

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

55

## 56 **AUTHOR SUMMARY**

57 Serology is frequently used for disease surveillance, especially in systems that are resource constrained  
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., flaviviruses, 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  
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  
128 with species delineations. Thus, serovars and serogroups can span multiple *Leptospira* species (e.g., *L.*  
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 coyotes, 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**

188 All animals included in this study had real time polymerase chain reaction (rt-PCR) confirmed  
189 *Leptospira* DNA in urine or kidney tissue as described by Wu et al (42), and the infecting *Leptospira*  
190 serovar was confirmed as *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona using PFGE as described previously by  
191 Galloway & Levett (23) on all cultured isolates ( $N_{\text{CSL}} = 19$ ,  $N_{\text{fox}} = 11$ ,  $N_{\text{skunk}} = 1$ ).



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:  $\log_2(\text{titer}/100) + 1$ , 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**

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

236 All host species exhibited strong antibody cross-reactivity against the five *Leptospira* serovars  
237 included in the MAT panel. The serovar against which the highest antibody titer was measured differed  
238 among the three host species, despite the fact that all were infected by *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona  
239 (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).

257         Analysis of 46 fox serum samples at three different diagnostic laboratories showed that both  
258 absolute and relative titer levels against serovars Pomona and Autumnalis varied systematically among  
259 labs (Fig 4). When comparing absolute antibody titer magnitude against serovar Pomona, the median  
260 titer was lowest from Lab A and highest from Lab C, with titers detected against serovar Pomona roughly  
261 one dilution greater at Lab B than Lab A, and more than three dilutions greater at Lab C than Lab A (Fig  
262 4B). Endpoint titers against serovar Autumnalis were not run for all samples at all three laboratories so  
263 comparisons were not possible at greater than 1:6400 dilution ( $\log_2$  titer = 7). Thirty-two of the samples

264 tested at Lab C were positive at dilutions less than 1:6400 against serovar Autumnalis, but endpoint  
265 titers for the 14 samples that were still positive at the 1:6400 dilution are unknown. When assessing  
266 relative titer magnitude between labs, we found that at Lab A, antibody titers against serovar  
267 Autumnalis were generally higher than those against serovar Pomona (Figs 4A & S5), whereas at Labs B  
268 and C, antibody titers detected against serovar Autumnalis were generally equal to (Lab B) or less than  
269 (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 qualitatively and quantitatively 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  
278 frequently used to characterize *Leptospira* epidemiology or ecology, with some studies proposing that  
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.

319

### 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  $\log_2$  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  $\log_2$  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  
359 disease suggests a recent infection (52), but a modeling analysis of island fox titers estimated peak titers

360 against serovar Pomona of 6 to 9 log<sub>2</sub> titers (13), consistent with values reported here for foxes, and  
361 lower than values reported for sea lions. It is clear that there is a large degree of immunological  
362 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



384 be an opportunity to improve assessment of the infecting serovar by exploiting consistent patterns in  
385 cross-reactivity against serovars within a host species, but more research is needed to describe these  
386 patterns within and across host species. The rising availability and falling cost of genetic methods,  
387 coupled with exciting new developments in obtaining whole genome sequences of *Leptospira* without  
388 culture isolates, point to a future where genetic typing adds clarity and certainty to *Leptospira*  
389 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

### 404 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

405 This work was supported by the Strategic Environmental Research and Development Program (SERDP,  
406 RC-2635) of the U.S. Department of Defense, the U.S. National Science Foundation (DEB-1557022),  
407 USFWS American Rescue Plan Act (ARPA) Zoonotic Disease Initiative (F23AP00118-00), the National

408 Science Foundation Awards (OCE-1335657), and a Cooperative Ecosystem Studies Unit (CESU)  
409 Cooperative Agreement (#W9132T1920006). The content of the information does not necessarily reflect  
410 the position or the policy of the U.S. government, and no official endorsement should be inferred. We  
411 would like to thank the volunteers, veterinarians, biologists and staff from The Marine Mammal Center  
412 (Sausalito, CA), The Marine Mammal Care Center Los Angeles, the Alaska Fisheries Science Center's  
413 Marine Mammal Laboratory, Oregon and Washington Departments of Fish and Game, at the U.S. Navy  
414 Marine Mammal Program, the Año Nuevo State Park, the University of California Santa Cruz's Año  
415 Nuevo Reserve, and the National Park Service for their logistical support and assistance with sample and  
416 data collection for this study.

417

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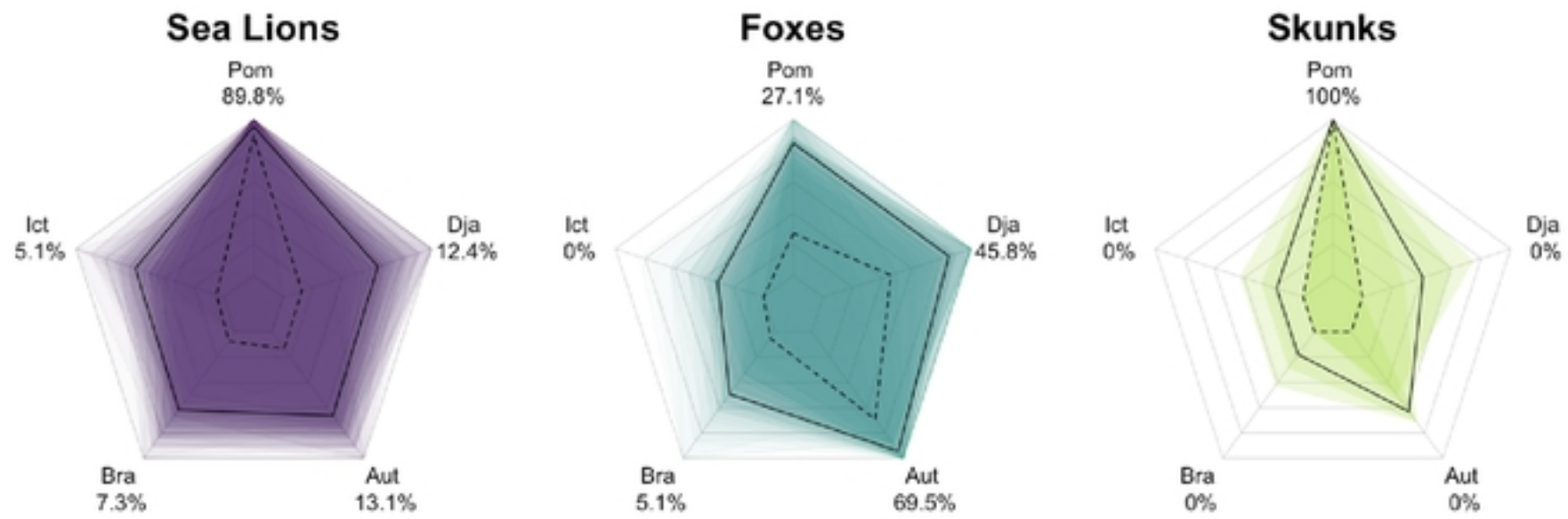
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2 **Figure 1. Host-specific patterns of relative MAT antibody titers detected against five *Leptospira***

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

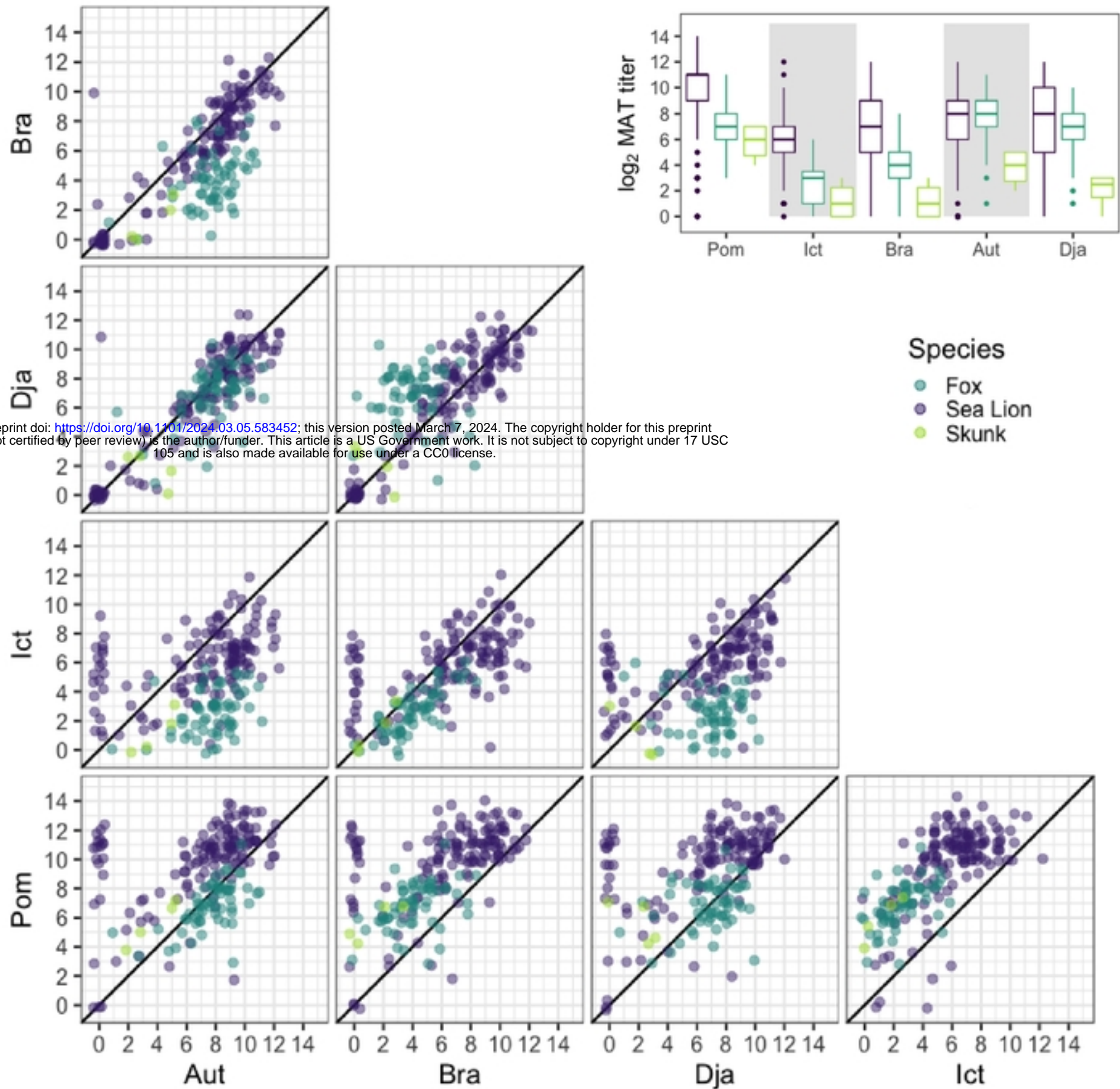
13 actual titer. The numbers add up to more than 100% since multiple serovars can have the highest titer

14 for any given sample (e.g., the highest antibody titer detected in the 5-serovar panel for that individual

15 is both Pomona and Icterohaemorrhagiae, with titers of 1:6400).

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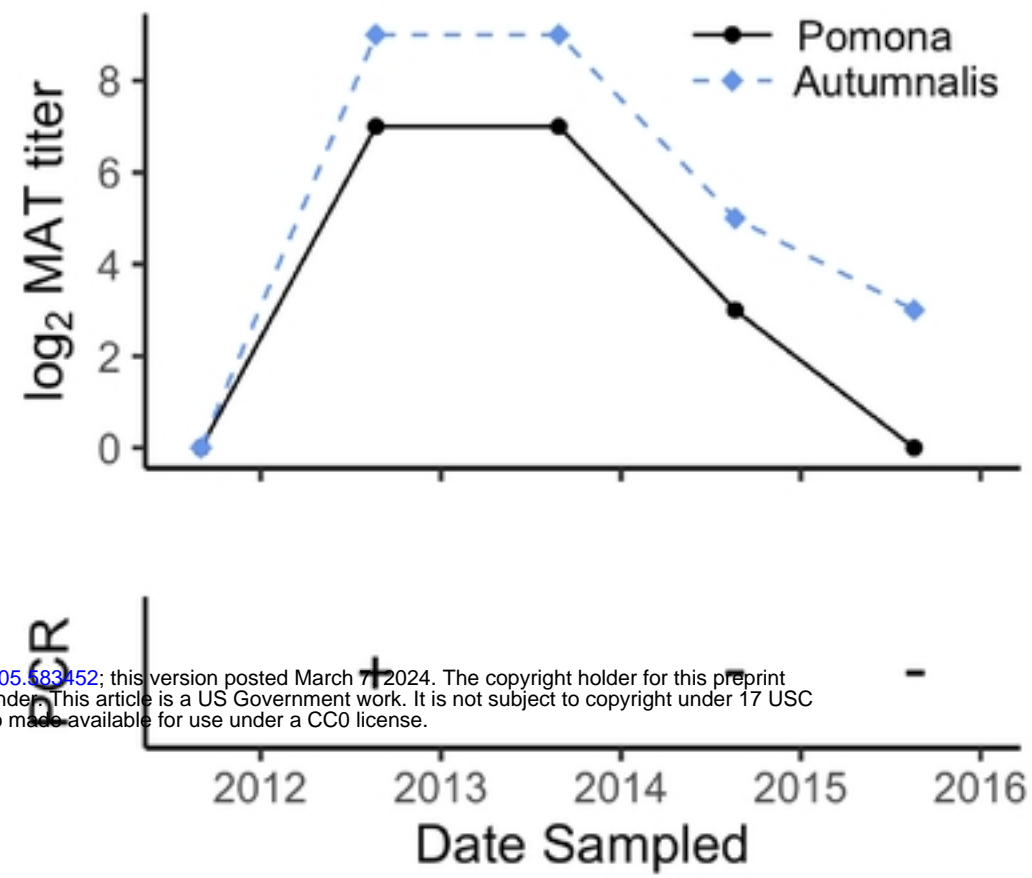


17  
18 **Figure 2. Pairwise antibody titer levels against *Leptospira interrogans* serovars Pomona, Djasiman,**  
19 **Autumnalis, Bratislava, and Icterohaemorrhagiae in three host species.** Each plot shows the pairwise  
20 endpoint MAT titer levels ( $\log_2$  dilutions) for California sea lions (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  
23 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.
- 26

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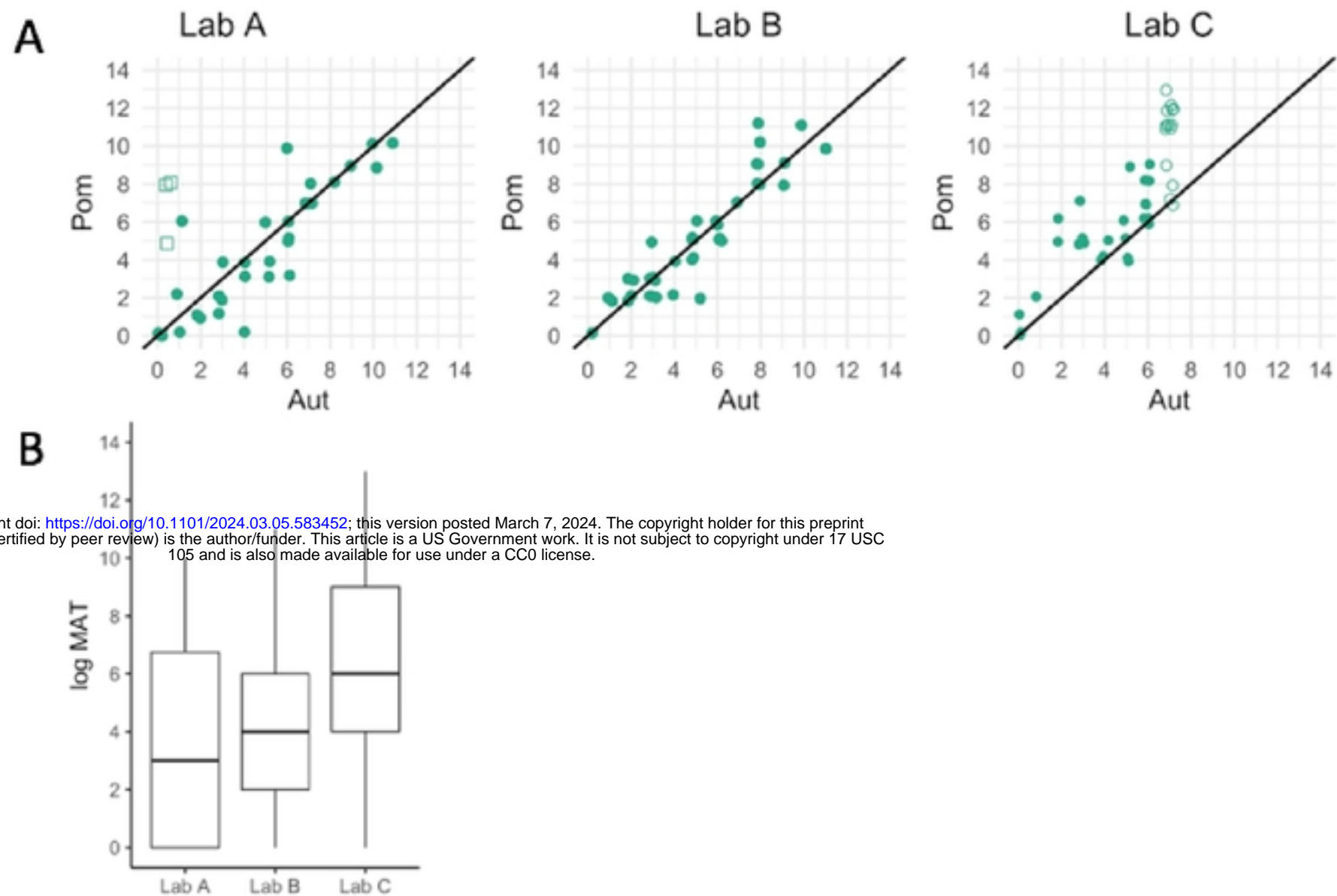
29 **Figure 3. Selected example of longitudinal antibody titer dynamics in a Channel Island fox.** The top

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.

33



34

35 **Figure 4. Comparison of antibody titer results for fox serum samples evaluated at three testing labs.**

36 Island fox serum samples (n=46) were tested in three different certified testing laboratories. The MAT  
 37 antibody titers ( $\log_2$  dilutions) for serovars Pomona and Autumnalis are shown. All Pomona titers were  
 38 run to endpoint dilution. In Panel A, open circles indicate non-endpoint Autumnalis titers at 1:6400 (log  
 39 MAT titer 7) whereas open squares denote samples that were positive against serovar Autumnalis at  
 40 1:100, but no dilutions were performed. Jitter has been added to the points to aid visualization. Panel B  
 41 represents the difference in antibody titer magnitude for a subset (n=32) of samples that were run to  
 42 endpoint for serovars Autumnalis and Pomona at all three labs.