

# Introduction to metagenomic Next Generation Sequencing (mNGS) in Global Health

UChicago Center in Paris

Paris, France

January 2025

# Goals for this lecture

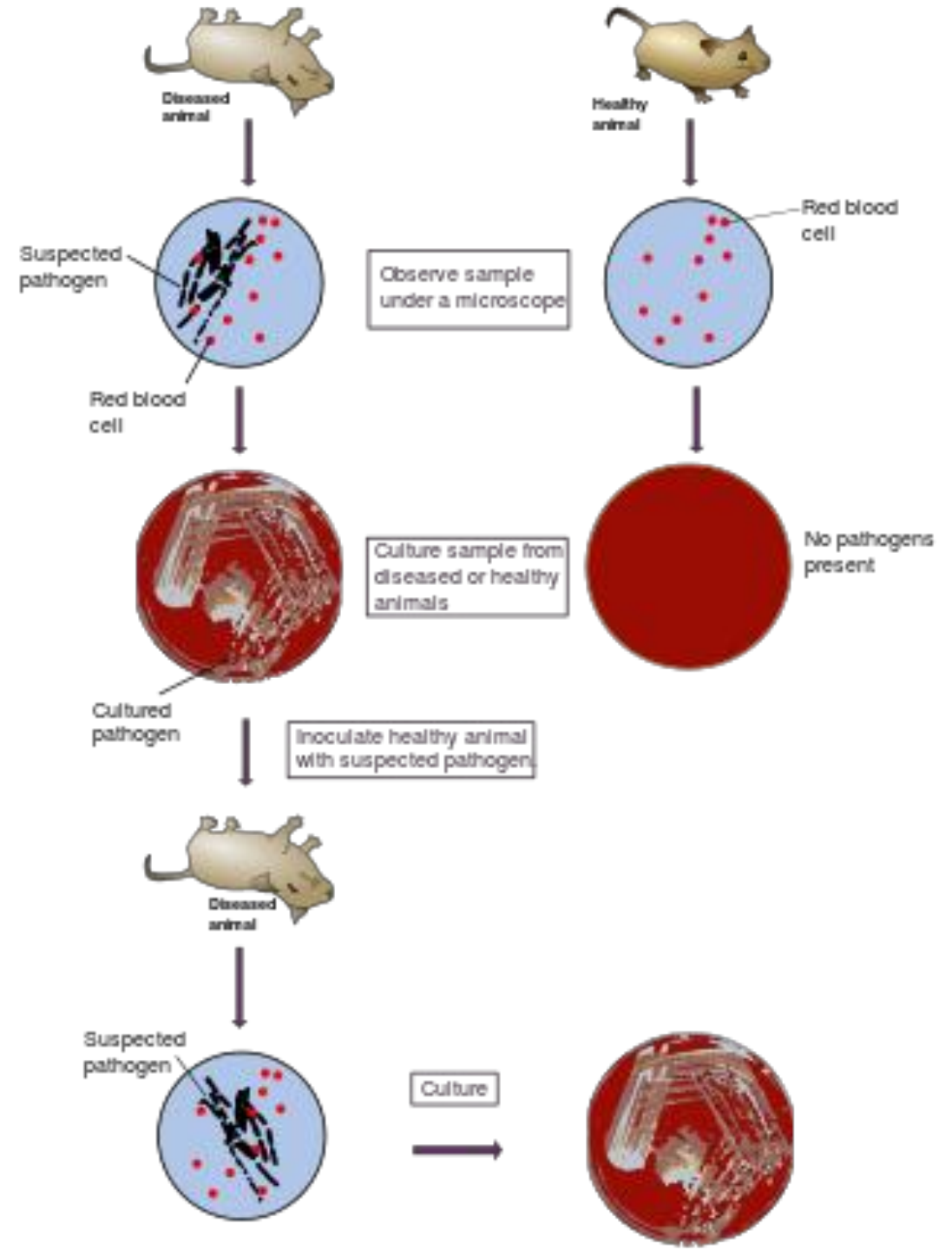
- To introduce mNGS in Global Health
- To introduce and interpret Bohl et al. 2022

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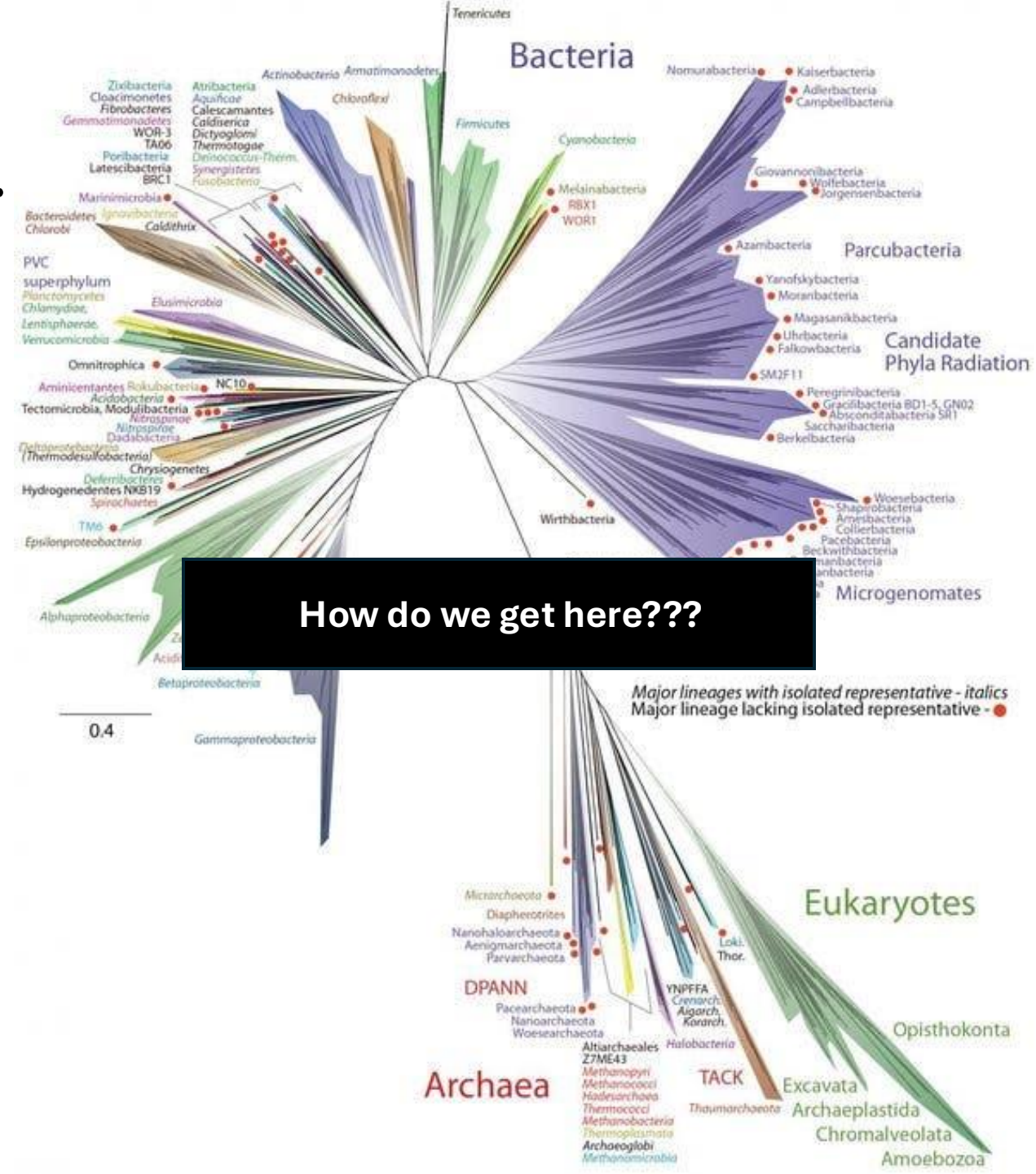
# Remember Koch's postulates....

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# How do we know *what* pathogen causes *which* disease?

- microscopy
- culture with microscopy
- antibody tests (e.g. ELISAs)
- nucleic acid tests (e.g. PCR)
- sequencing



*Only sequencing gives us a unique “name” for each pathogen.*

***‘Library prep’** is the preparation of a sample for sequencing.*

# What is sequencing?

- Sequencing determines the order of the four nucleotide bases (A, T, G and C) that make up DNA
- The first DNA sequences were obtained in the early 1970s. Since then, technology has advanced significantly
- Human Genome Project: October 1990 – April 2003
  - \$2.7 billion
  - Mostly Sanger sequencing
- Today, human genomes are sequenced rapidly and cheaply (\$100s) and much less for smaller organisms (e.g. viruses)
  - Often using 'Next Generation Sequencing' (NGS) techniques

# What is sequencing?

Sanger



Illumina  
(short-read)



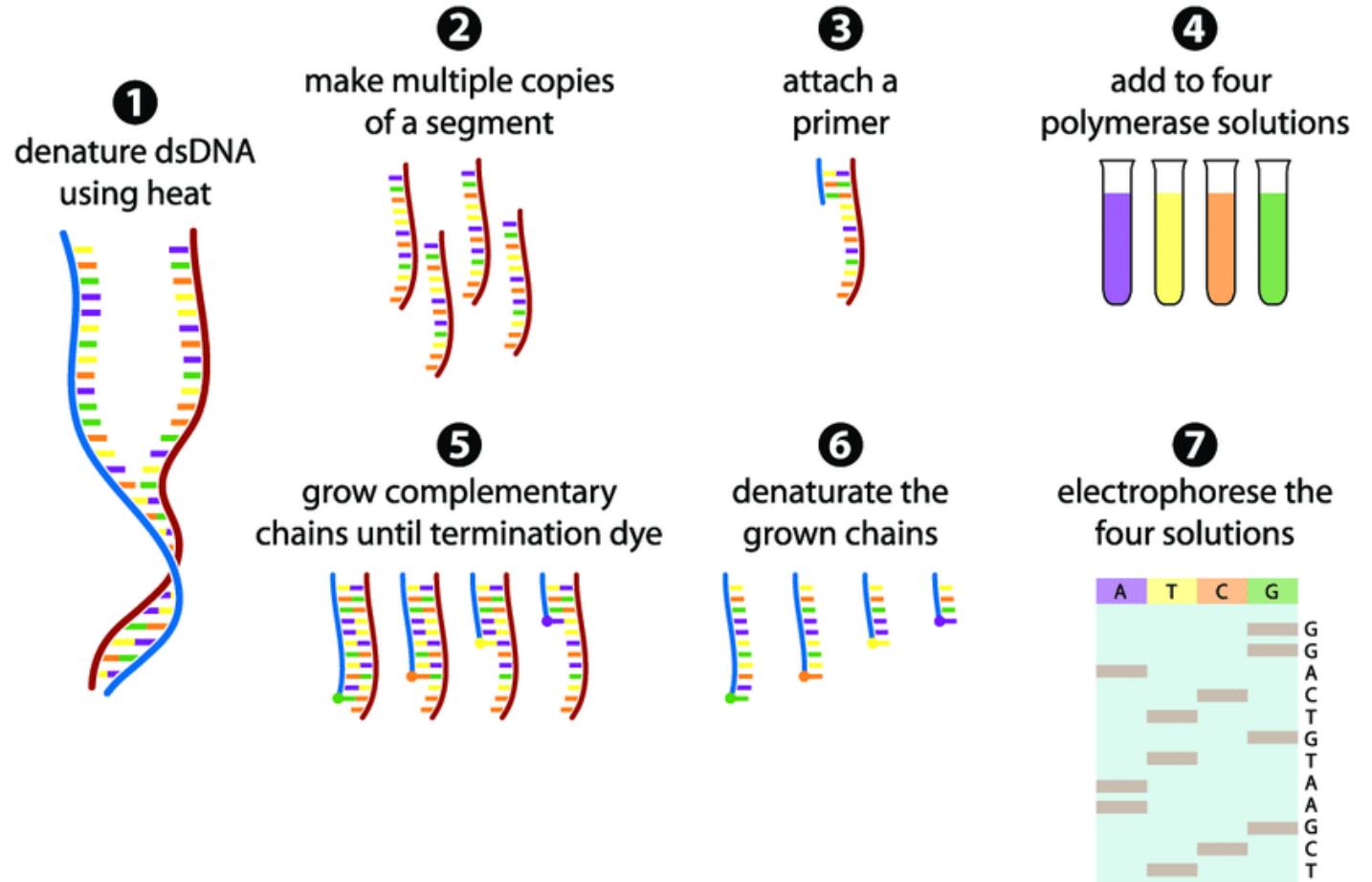
Nanopore  
(long-read)





# Sanger Sequencing

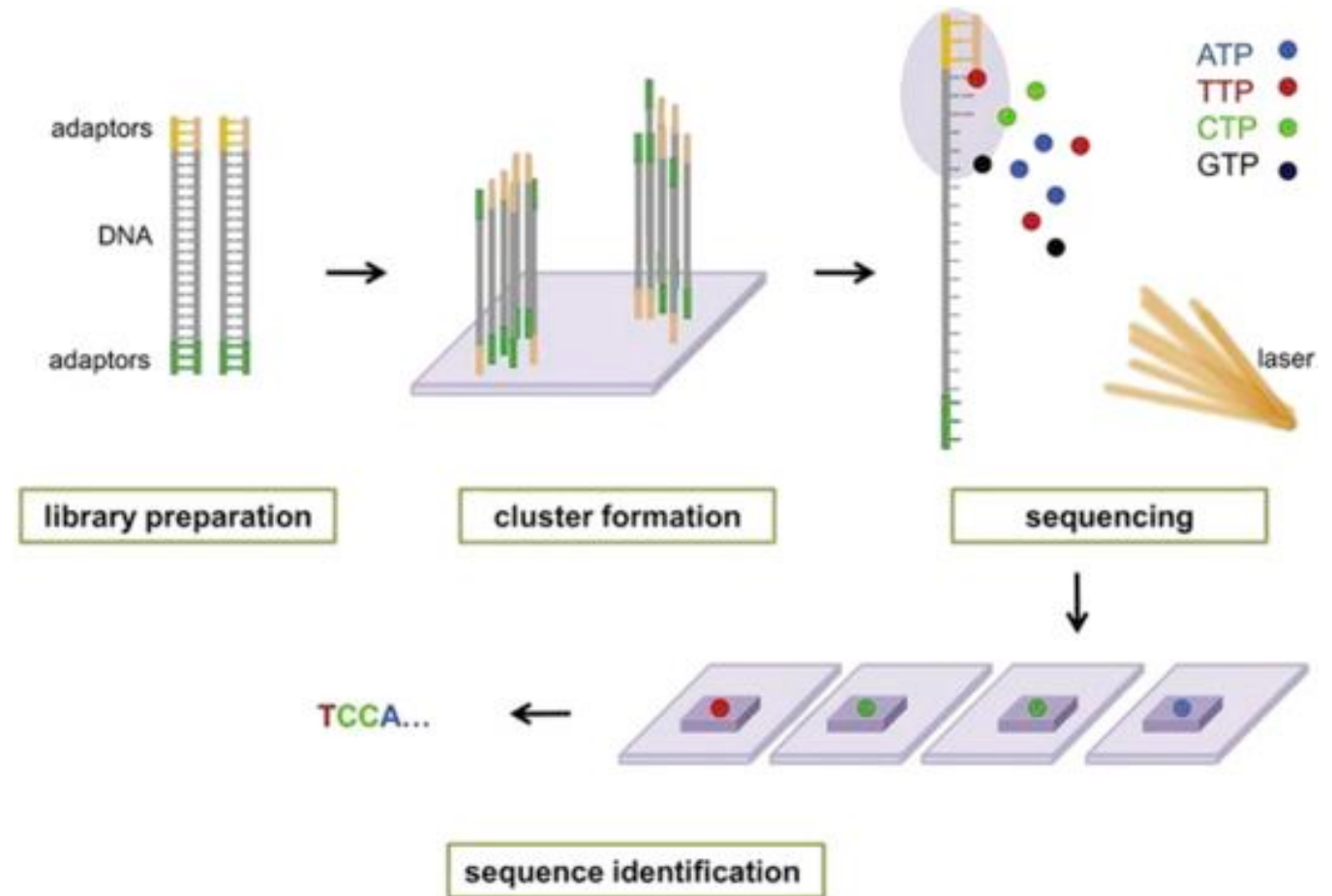
- The DNA sample is divided into four separate reactions, containing all four of the standard deoxynucleotides (dATP, dGTP, dCTP and dTTP) and a DNA polymerase (which attached the dNTPs)
- To each reaction is added only one dideoxynucleotides (ddATP, ddGTP, ddCTP, or ddTTP)
- Four separate reactions are needed in this process to test all four ddNTPs
- The ddNTP stops the DNA polymerase when it comes to a base of that type (e.g. A, T, G, C)
- The fragments are then run on a gel. The smallest move through the gel furthest and the 'ladder' shows the sequence of the DNA



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FvHRio1yyhQ&t=17>

# Illumina (short read) Sequencing

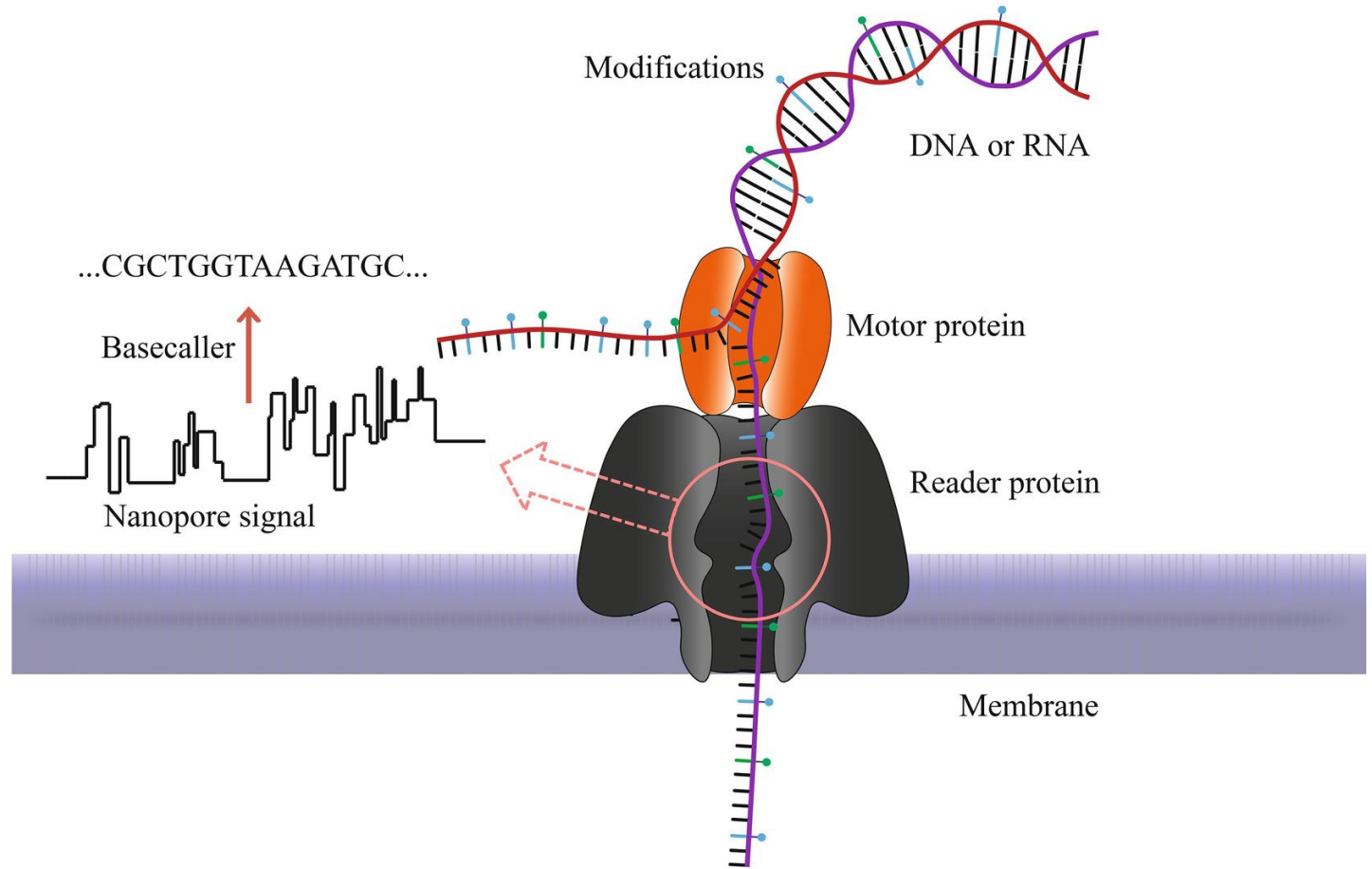
- Sequencing by synthesis
- ‘Short read’ technology – DNA is cut up into 200-600 bp chunks
- The DNA is amplified, so there are lots of copies of the chunks
- They are denatured, then fluorescent complimentary bases are attached
- These fluoresce different colours, which is recorded, and the sequence is identified



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=womKfikWlxM>

# Nanopore (long read) Sequencing

- ‘Long read’ technology
- A DNA library is prepared (proteins are added)
- Nucleic acids are passed through a protein nanopore
- As the different bases move through the nanopore, it creates a different electrical signal
- These resulting changes in the electrical signal is decoded to provide the specific DNA or RNA sequence



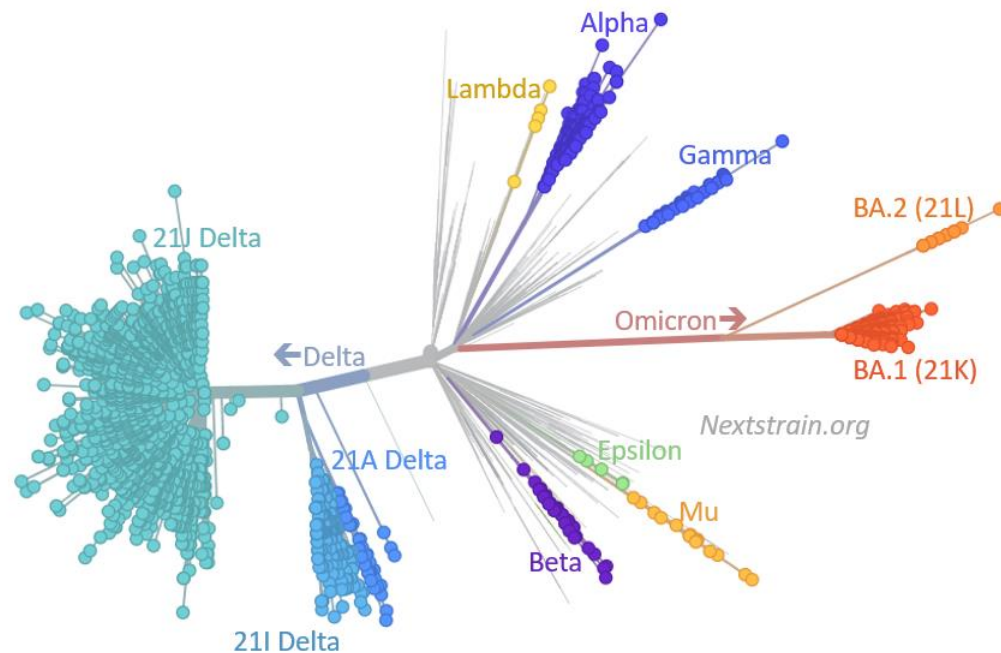
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RcP85JHLmnl&t=18s>

# Where do these sequences go once we have them?

- [Nextclade](#): genome quality and curation
- [GISAID](#): Global Initiative on Sharing All Influenza Data
- [NCBI](#): National Center for Biotechnology Information

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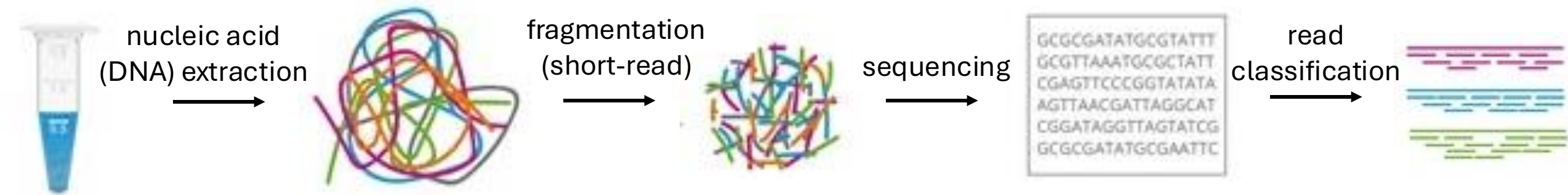
- [Nextclade](#): genome quality and curation
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*Publicly available ‘background’ sequences are critical for public health inference.*

# What is **metagenomic NGS (mNGS)**?

- mNGS is the sequencing of ALL genetic material recovered directly from environmental or clinical samples.

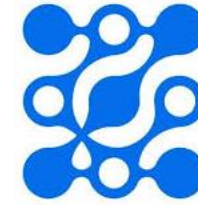


# What is **metagenomic NGS (mNGS)**?

- mNGS is the sequencing of ALL genetic material recovered directly from environmental or clinical samples.
- This is in contrast to ‘amplicon’ sequencing which uses primer targets to sequence only material of an organism (e.g. pathogen) of interest.
- mNGS requires both laboratory and bioinformatics expertise.
- mNGS is particularly useful for identifying the etiology of viral disease because there is no single gene common across all viral genomes (in contrast to bacteria and protozoa, e.g. 16S)

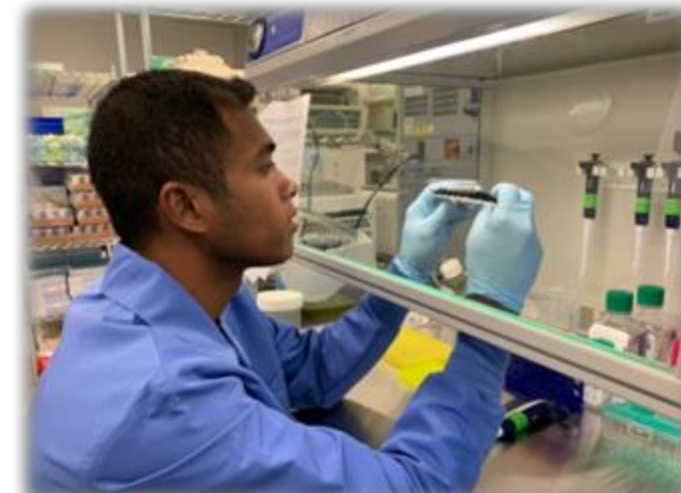


# Why mNGS for LMICs?



BILL & MELINDA  
GATES foundation

- One protocol with nearly limitless applications!
  - No need for multiple kits and reagents to be ordered and testing
  - Training pipeline is discrete and powerful
- Computational tools for accessibility are becoming more readily available (e.g. CZID).
- Still many challenges:
  - Expense!
  - Supply chain
  - Difficulty of bioinformatics analysis





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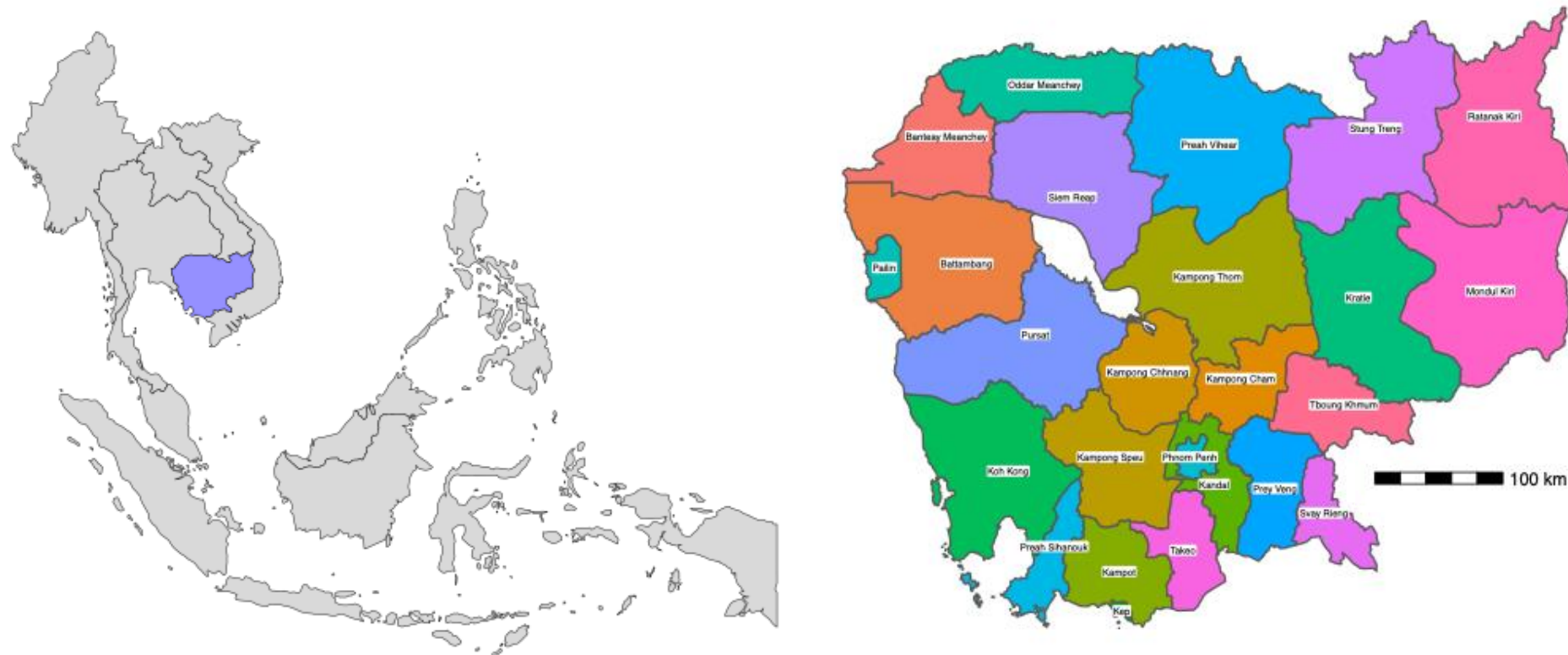
# mNGS in Global Health:

## Discovering disease-causing pathogens in resource-scarce Southeast Asia using a global metagenomic pathogen monitoring system

Jennifer A. Bohl<sup>a,b</sup>, Sreyngim Lay<sup>b,c</sup>, Sophana Chea<sup>b,c</sup>, Vida Ahyong<sup>d</sup>, Daniel M. Parker<sup>e</sup>, Shannon Gallagher<sup>f</sup>, Jonathan Fintzi<sup>f</sup>, Somnang Man<sup>b,c</sup>, Aiyana Ponce<sup>a</sup>, Sokunthea Sreng<sup>b,c</sup>, Dara Kong<sup>b,c</sup>, Fabiano Oliveira<sup>a</sup> , Katrina Kalantar<sup>g</sup>, Michelle Tan<sup>d</sup>, Liz Fahsbender<sup>g</sup>, Jonathan Sheu<sup>g</sup>, Norma Neff<sup>d</sup> , Angela M. Detweiler<sup>d</sup>, Christina Yek<sup>a</sup>, Sokna Ly<sup>b,c</sup>, Rathanak Sath<sup>b,h</sup>, Chea Huch<sup>c</sup>, Hok Kry<sup>h</sup>, Rithea Leang<sup>c</sup>, Rekol Huy<sup>c</sup>, Chanthap Lon<sup>a,b</sup>, Cristina M. Tato<sup>d</sup>, Joseph L. DeRisi<sup>d,i,1</sup>, and Jessica E. Manning<sup>a,b,1</sup>

# What did Bohl et al. do?

- Used mNGS to identify the etiology of febrile disease among patients in periurban Kampong Speu province, Cambodia



# How did Bohl et al. do it?

## Field

- Collected serum samples from febrile patients in Kampong Speu, Cambodia
  - Patients 6 months – 65 years
  - Fever  $38+^{\circ}\text{C}$
- Samples derived from two groups:
  - ‘community’ study (childhood cohort study + ‘sick visits’)
  - ‘hospital’ study
- 23 afebrile child control samples from community study

## Lab

1. Sample 5ml whole blood
2. Centrifuge to serum
3. RNA extraction
4. Library preparation
5. mNGS
  - (with host RNA deletion )
6. Clinical validation where possible

# How did Bohl et al. do it?

## **Bioinformatics**

- CZID
- Pathogen ID via Z-score criteria
- Collection of geospatial Google Earth data

## **Statistics**

- Response: infection with a vector-borne pathogen
- Predictors: Demographic attributes of the patient + geospatial features of the patient's locality

# Why did Bohl et al. perform their study?

- To identify unrecognized causes of fever in an under-resourced setting

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# What did they find?

# Results.

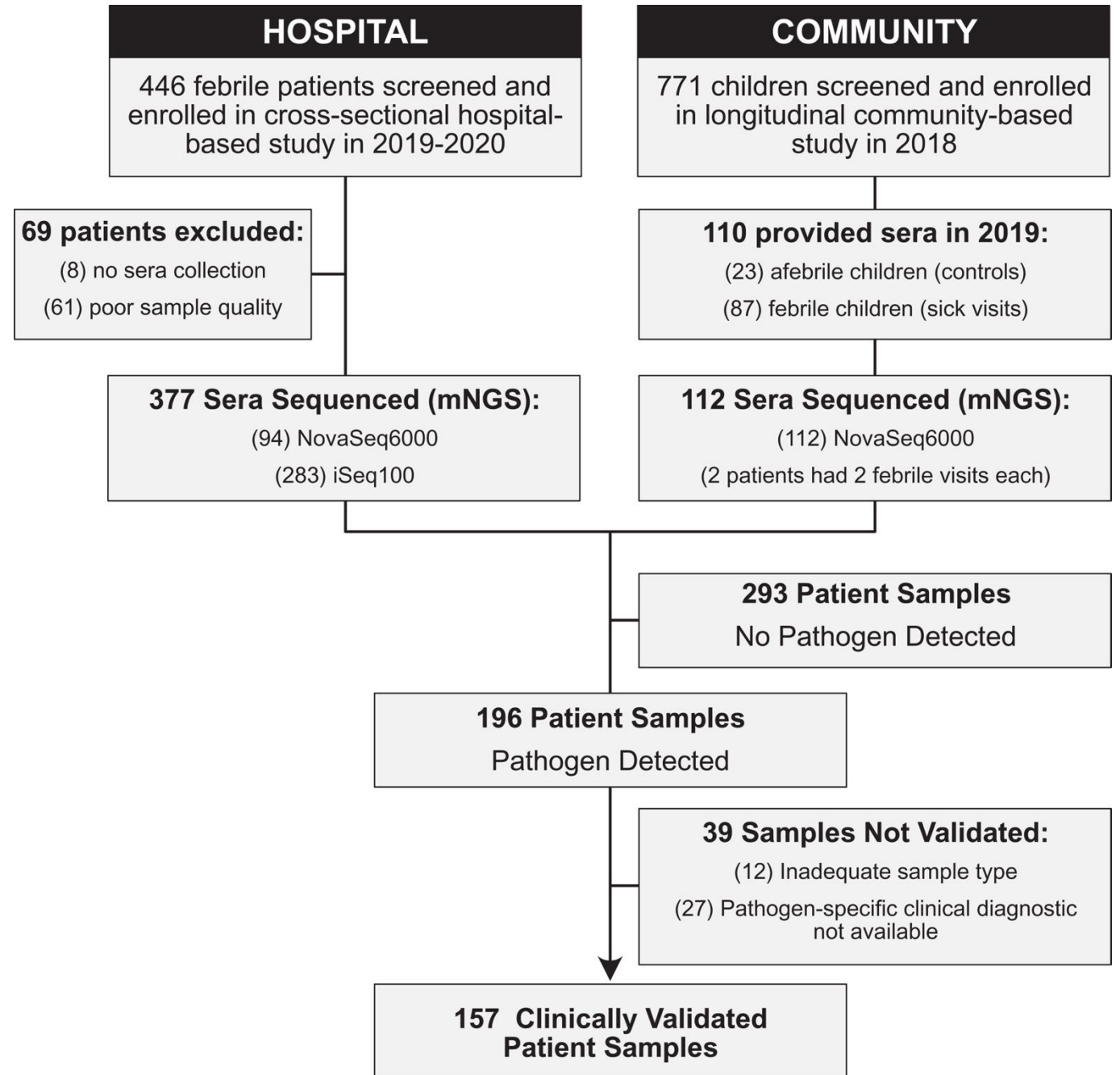


Fig. 1: study design



# Results.

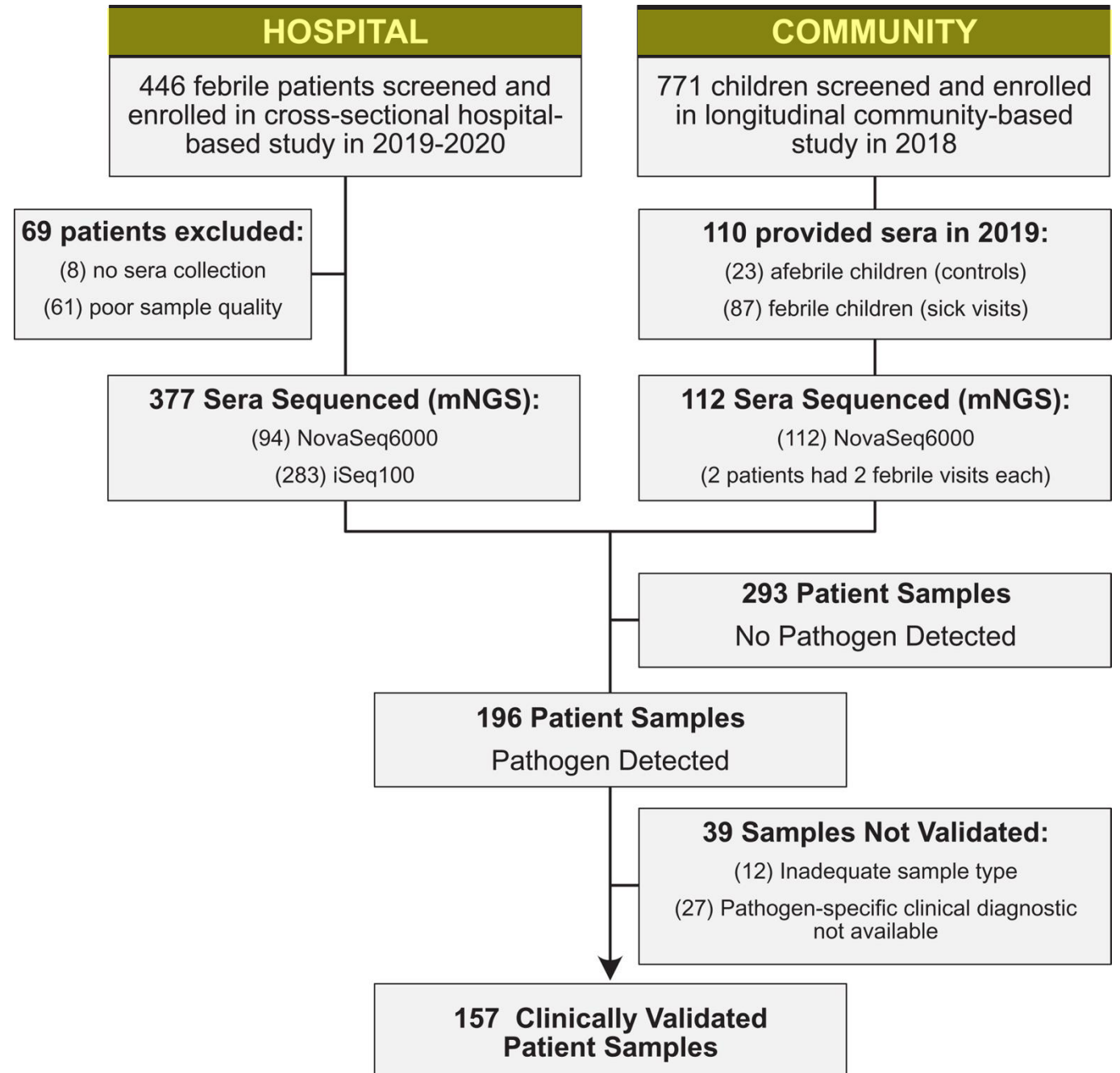


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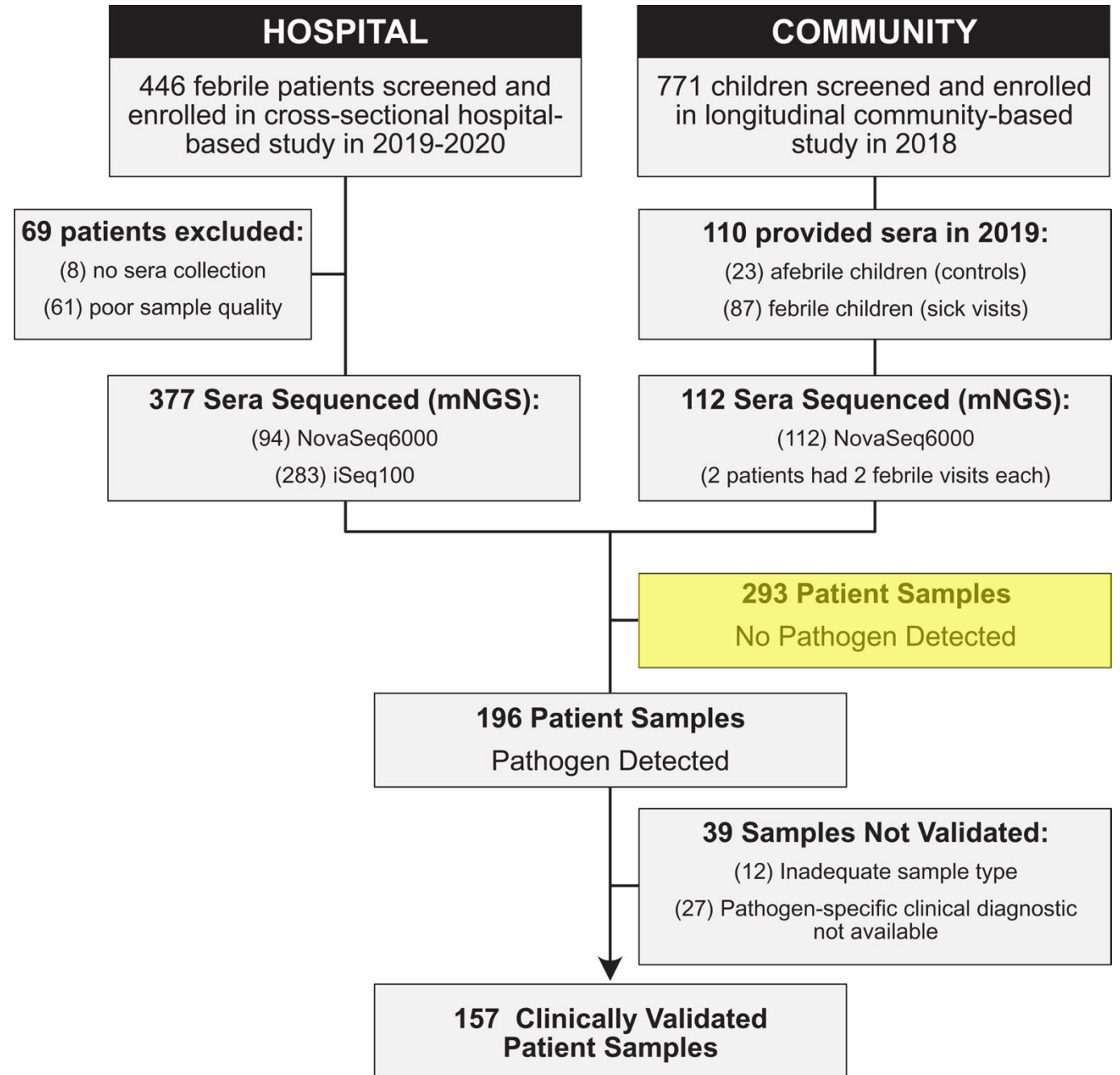


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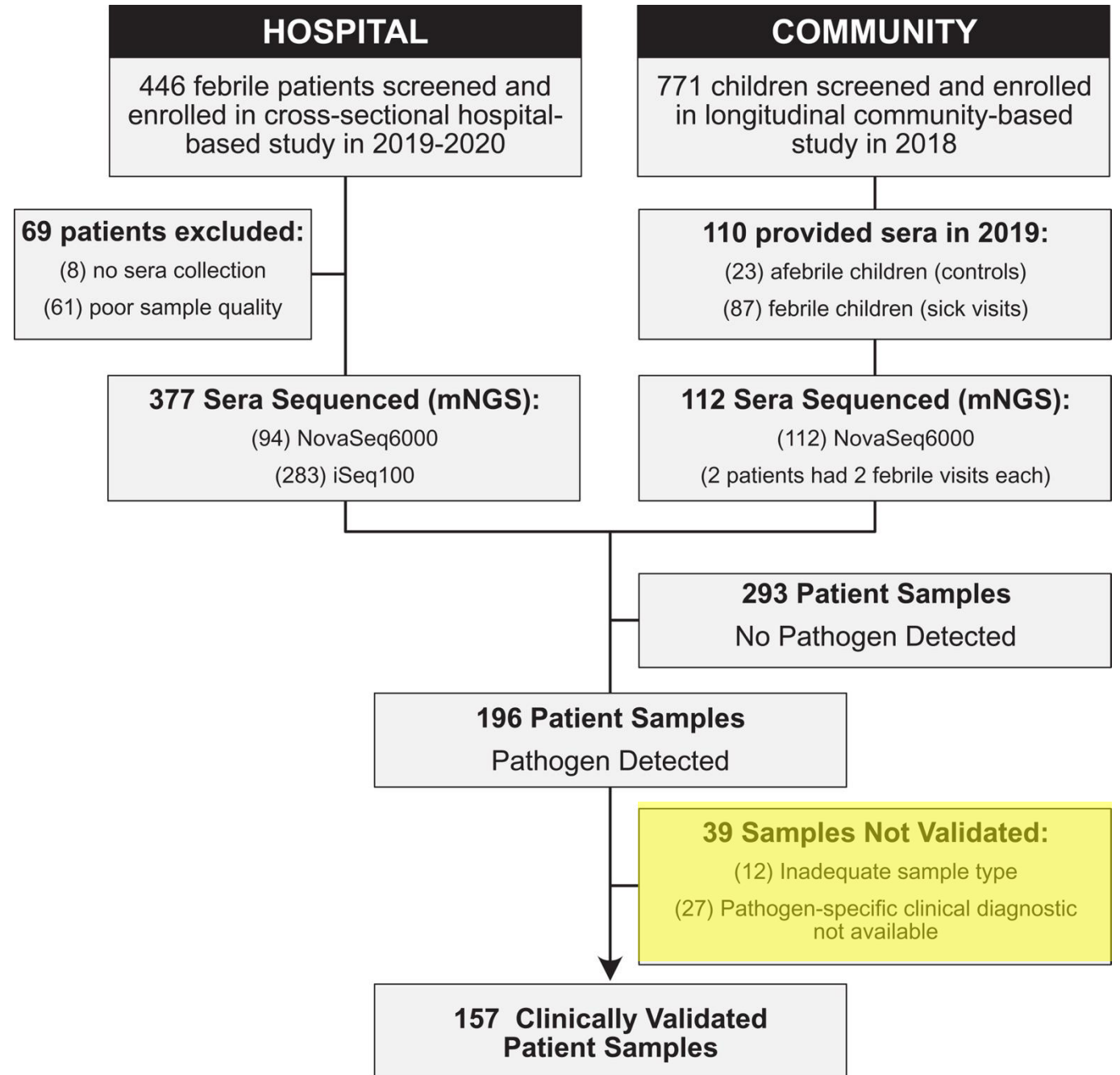


Fig. 1: study design

# Results.

Table 1: cohort characteristics

Table 1. Baseline demographic and clinical characteristics

Characteristic	Hospital	Community	Total
<i>n</i>	377	110	487
Male	207 (55)	56 (51)	263 (54)
Age, y (median, IQR)	10, 12	6, 4	8, 10
Year of fever			
2019	196 (52)	110 (100)	306 (63)
Attends school	146 (39)	64 (58)	210 (43)
Attends work	75 (20)	0 (0)	75 (15)
Socioeconomic status			
Very poor	16 (4)	0, 0.0	16 (3)
Lower	178 (47)	22 (20)	200 (41)
Middle	181 (48)	88 (80)	269 (55)
Upper	1 (0.3)	0 (0)	1 (0.2)
Risk factors			
Coil use	22 (60)	70 (64)	295 (61)
Insecticide use	191 (51)	60 (54.5)	251 (52)
Larvicide use	28 (7)	27 (24.5)	55 (11)
Insecticide-treated bed net use	313 (83)	99 (90)	412 (85)
Self-reported animal contact	275 (73)	N/A	275 (73)
Self-reported insect contact*	211 (56)	N/A	211 (56)

Symptoms <sup>†</sup>			
Aching	131 (35)	N/A	131 (35)
Chills	167 (44)	N/A	167 (44)
Cough	175 (46),	N/A	175 (46)
Headache	236, (63)	20 (18)	256 (52)
Joint pain	N/A	1 (1)	1 (1)
Mouth sores	88 (23)	N/A	88 (23)
Muscle pain	N/A	4 (4)	4 (1)
Runny nose	66 (17.5)	N/A	66 (18)
Heart palpitations	120 (32)	N/A	120 (32)
Rash	81 (21.5)	0, 0.0	81 (17)
Clinical laboratory data <sup>‡</sup>			
<i>n</i>	240	47	287
White blood cell count			
Low (<6 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	90 (37.5)	19 (40.4)	109 (38)
Normal (6–16 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	137 (57.1)	27 (57.4)	164 (57)
High (>16 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	13 (5.4)	1 (2.1)	14 (5)
Lymphocyte			
Low (<3.5 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	199 (83)	43 (91.5)	242 (84)
Normal (3.5–11 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	39 (16)	4(8.5)	43 (15)
High (>11 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	2 (1)	0 (0)	2 (1)
Neutrophil			
Low (< 1 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	12 (5)	2 (4)	14 (5)
Normal (1–7 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	167 (70)	35 (75)	200 (70)
High (>7 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	61 (25)	10 (21)	73 (25)
Platelets			
Low (<200 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	106 (44.2)	13 (28)	119 (41.5)
Medium (200–550 10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	133 (55.4)	32 (72)	167 (58)
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# Results.

Fig. 2: pathogens identified

- 203 pathogens detected in 489 sera samples (41.5%)
- 7 participants coinfectd (1.4%)
- ‘vector-borne disease’, then ‘systemic viral disease’ were the most prevalent clinical categories

## Bacteria

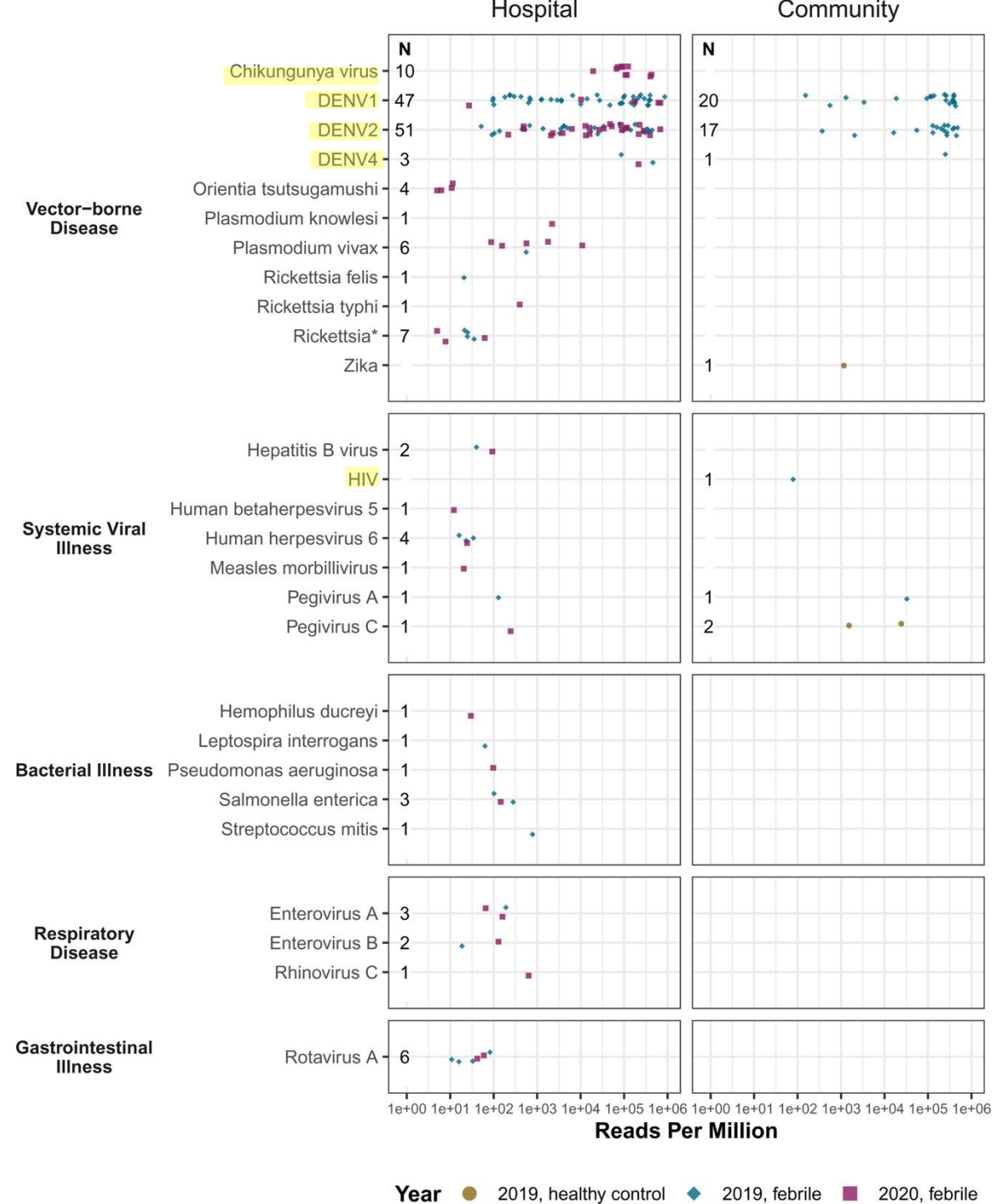
- **Rickettsia**: 4 *Orientia tsutsugamushi*+ cases and 1 *Rickettsia felis*+ case
- **Leptospira**: 1 *L. interrogans*+ case

## Protozoa

- **Malaria**: 6 low parasitemia *Plasmodium vivax*+ cases and 1 *P. knowlesi*+ case

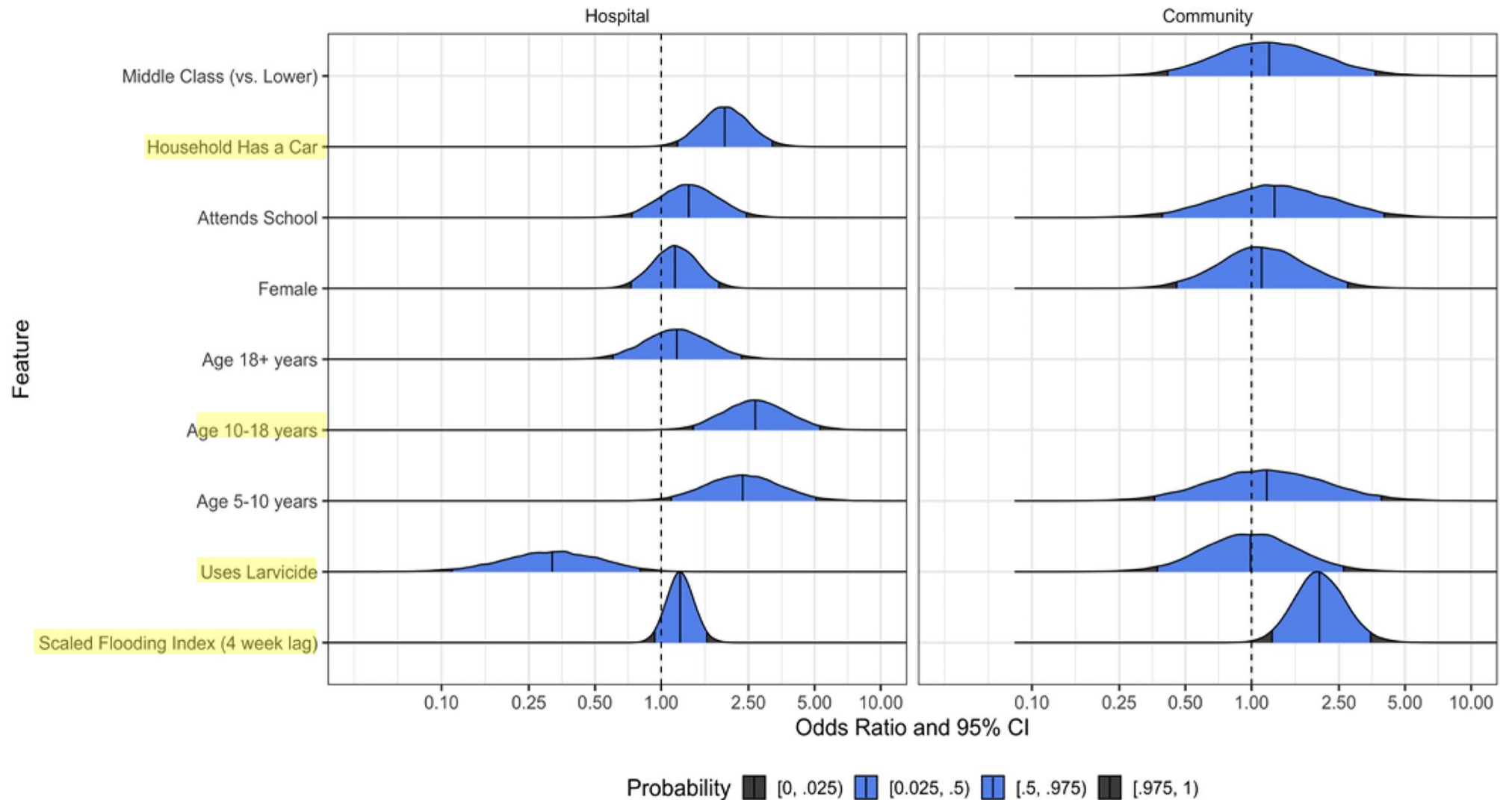
## Viruses

- 138 DENV+ cases
- 10 CHIKV+ cases → added to routine PCR testing
- 1 ZIKV+ case
- **HIV**: 1 HIV-DENV2 coninfection → linked to ART





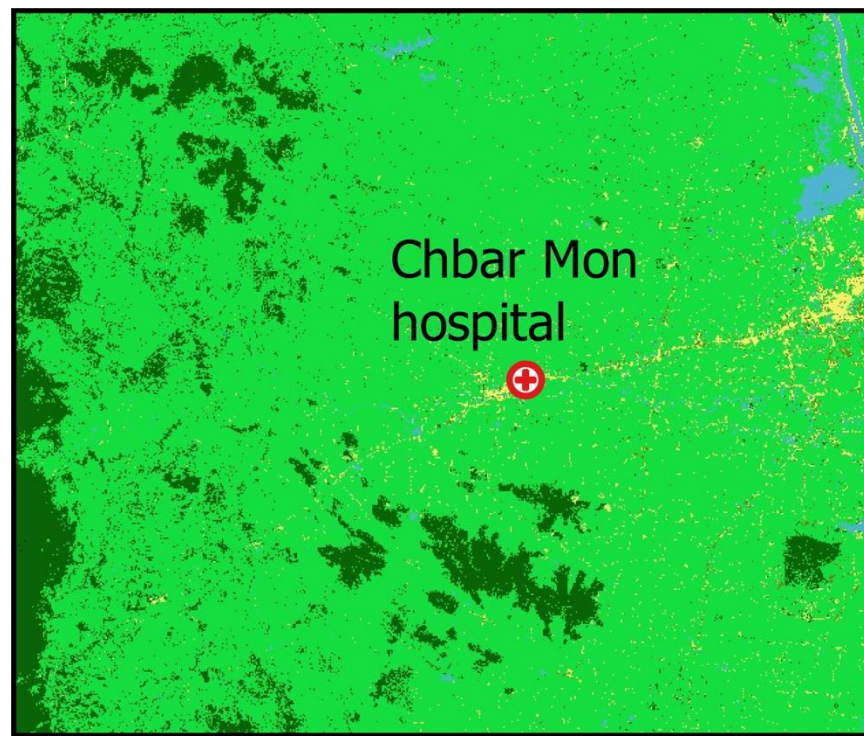
# Results. Fig. 3: correlates of VBD



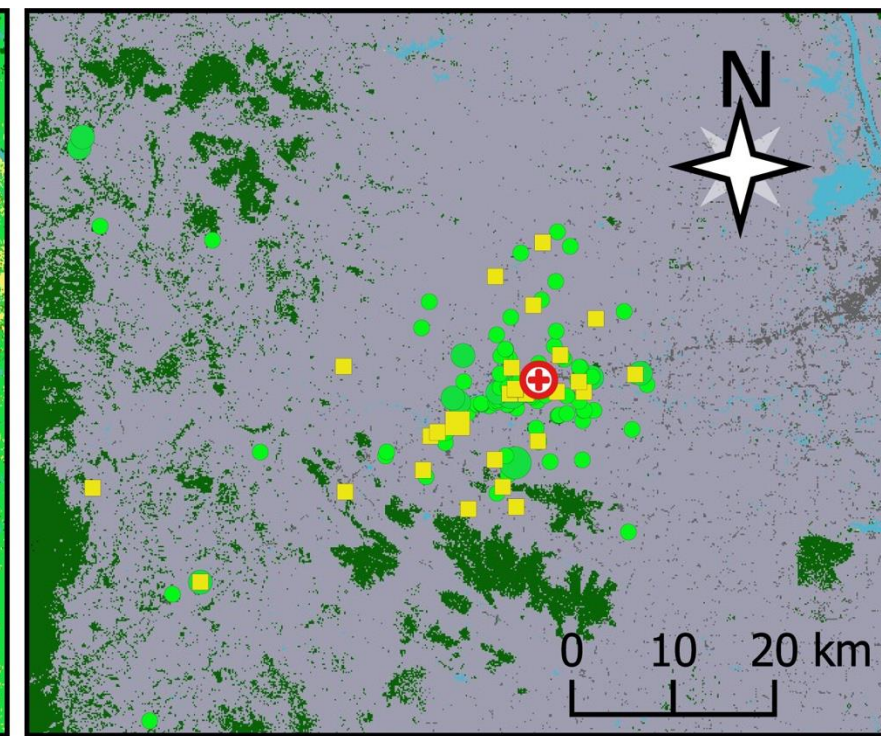
# Results.

Fig. 4: geospatial setting

- Crop land = predominant land-cover type (89%)
- Urban = 2<sup>nd</sup> most (10%)
- Urban participants more likely to have non-VBD (13%) vs. VBD (9%)
- Still urban cases of CHIK, DENV1, DENV2, ZIKV
- 92% DENV cases from crop land



landcover from: <https://landcovermapping.org/en/landcover/>



## land cover types



## non vector-borne infections



## vector-borne infections

