

Title: Challenges and approaches to establishing multi-pathogen serosurveillance:
Findings from the 2023 Serosurveillance Summit

Running title: 2023 multi-pathogen serosurveillance summit

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Abstract

Multiplex-based serological surveillance is a valuable but underutilized tool to understand gaps in population-level exposure, susceptibility, and immunity to infectious diseases. Assays for which blood samples can be tested for antibodies against several pathogens simultaneously, such as multiplex bead immunoassays, can more efficiently integrate public health surveillance in low- and middle-income countries. From March 7-8, 2023, a group of experts representing research institutions, multilateral organizations, private industry, and country partners met to discuss experiences, identify challenges and solutions, and create a community of practice for integrated, multi-pathogen serosurveillance using multiplex bead assay technologies. Participants were divided into six working groups: (1) supply chain; (2) laboratory assays; (3) seroepidemiology; (4) data analytics; (5) sustainable implementation; and (6) use case scenarios. These working groups discussed experiences, challenges, solutions, and research needs to facilitate integrated, multi-pathogen serosurveillance for public health. Several solutions were proposed to address challenges that cut across working groups.

Key words: serological surveillance; multiplex bead immunoassay; integrated surveillance; infectious diseases; serology

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Introduction

85 The World Health Organization (WHO) recently introduced collaborative
86 surveillance as one of five interconnected components of health emergency
87 preparedness, response, and resilience.^{1,2} A core objective of collaborative
88 surveillance is to break down siloed disease surveillance systems and replace them
89 with a collaborative and integrated system across diseases, public and private
90 sectors, and administrative levels.

91

92 Serological surveillance, or serosurveillance, complements traditional public health
93 surveillance for infectious diseases through the collection and analysis of
94 specimens (e.g., serum, blood, or oral fluid) to measure antibodies to pathogens
95 and estimate population-level exposure, susceptibility, and immunity to infectious
96 diseases.³ This information can guide public health policies and programs for the
97 control and elimination of several communicable diseases, including vaccine-
98 preventable diseases (VPDs), neglected tropical diseases (NTDs), and emerging
99 infectious diseases (EIDs), among others. While serosurveillance has been used for
100 decades, the COVID-19 pandemic amplified interest in serology.⁴

101 The development of technologies like multiplex bead immunoassays (MBIAs), which
102 allow for the simultaneous detection of antibodies to more than one pathogen in a
103 single assay, rapidly advanced the ability to efficiently conduct integrated, multi-
104 pathogen serosurveillance.^{3,5} These technologies enable health systems to monitor
105 exposure, susceptibility, and immunity to multiple pathogens with limited
106 additional resources compared to using single-pathogen assays.⁶

107 MBIAs have been developed for detecting antibodies against a range of pathogens
108 including VPDs⁷⁻⁹ respiratory pathogens;¹⁰ NTDs;¹¹⁻¹⁵ malaria;^{16,17} sexually
109 transmitted infections;¹⁸ EIDs;¹⁹ arboviruses;²⁰ and SARS-CoV-2.²¹ Integrating

110 serosurveillance across multiple pathogens could efficiently leverage financial
111 resources and personnel as well as metadata obtained from questionnaires.
112 Integration with other surveillance programs (e.g., diagnostic, syndromic, and
113 wastewater surveillance)³ could further improve the efficiency of surveillance
114 systems to control the spread of disease.

115 Despite the MBIA being a powerful tool for public health surveillance, several
116 barriers have prevented the widespread adoption of these technologies,
117 particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), where they might be
118 especially useful.²² Through partnerships with academic and government research
119 institutions, multi-pathogen serosurveillance has been conducted in sub-Saharan
120 Africa,^{23,24} Asia,^{3,25,26} and the Americas.^{22,27,28} CDC and the Pan American Health
121 Organization developed guidance for program managers to design and conduct
122 integrated multi-pathogen serosurveillance.²⁸

123 To discuss the opportunities and complexities with establishing integrated, multi-
124 pathogen serosurveillance, experts from the Collaboration on Integrated
125 Biomarkers Surveillance (CIBS) met in 2018 to catalog pathogens for inclusion in
126 multiplex serological assays, lay out objectives for an integrated platform, identify
127 potential use cases, and discuss advocacy.²⁹ Building on this work, in March 2023,
128 the International Vaccine Access Center at the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of
129 Public Health, with support from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (BMGF) and
130 collaborators at the Center for Global Health at the University of Colorado Anschutz
131 Medical Campus, convened a serosurveillance summit that further explored topics
132 related to the use of MBIA for multi-pathogen serosurveillance.

133 *Serosurveillance Summit Meeting*

Experts across a range of institutions and fields participated, including researchers, multilateral organizations, country partners, private sector companies, and supply chain organizations. Participants were divided into two of six working groups: (1) supply chain, (2) laboratory assays, (3) seroepidemiology, (4) data analytics, (5) sustainable implementation, and (6) use case scenarios. The objectives of the workshop were to share experiences establishing integrated, multi-pathogen serosurveillance with a focus on MBIAs; identify key challenges, potential solutions, and research needs for integrated serosurveillance using MBIAs; and establish a community of practice of technical experts.

Figure 1: A framework depicting key steps for establishing a sustainable integrated serosurveillance system. The steps correspond with the six working groups, except for using data for program action which is part of the sustainable implementation working group.

Experiences and challenges

Participants shared their experiences with multi-pathogen serosurveillance (Annex 1). Based on these discussions, key issues that countries using multiplex serosurveillance encounter were outlined.

Public health questions and use cases

Because multi-pathogen surveillance involves multiple programs and partners, it can be challenging to generate buy-in from all stakeholders and identify potential programmatic impact early in the planning process. As more pathogens are included, additional groups working on different diseases will need to be engaged. Programmatic or research questions were framed as “use cases” for which serosurveillance is most likely to add value to existing surveillance systems. Table

162 1 presents five of the most common use cases identified and linked target
163 pathogen(s) of interest. Several groups of pathogens were considered most
164 relevant, including VPDs, emerging pathogens, NTDs, and other pathogens
165 associated with high disease burden.

166

167

168 **Table 1.** Use Cases for Multiplex Serosurveillance

Use Cases and a Representative Example	Example Pathogens
Estimating the burden and distribution of infections to complement or fill gaps in existing surveillance systems ³⁰	<p><u>NTDs</u> <i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i> (Chagas disease), chikungunya virus, <i>Taenia solium</i> (cysticercosis), <i>Strongyloides</i> spp., <i>Treponema pallidum</i> subspecies <i>pertenue</i> (yaws)</p> <p><u>Enteric pathogens</u> <i>Campylobacter</i> spp., <i>Vibrio cholerae</i>, <i>Cryptosporidium</i>, <i>Giardia</i></p> <p><u>Malaria</u> <i>Plasmodium</i> species</p> <p><u>HIV</u></p> <p><u>Respiratory viruses</u> respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), influenza virus</p>
Identifying emerging and reemerging infections ³¹	<p><u>Filoviruses</u> Ebola viruses, Marburg virus</p> <p><u>Other viruses</u> Lassa virus, mpox virus SARS-CoV-2, Zika virus</p>
Identifying vaccine program reach or gaps and geographic or demographic gaps ³²	<p><u>Childhood diseases</u> measles virus, polioviruses, rubella virus, diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis</p> <p><u>Other viruses</u> SARS-CoV-2, yellow fever virus</p>
Assessing changes in pathogen exposure due to behavioral, environmental, or (non-) pharmaceutical interventions or environmental changes ³³	<p><u>NTDs</u> chikungunya virus, dengue virus, lymphatic filariasis</p> <p><u>Bacteria</u> <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> spp., <i>Salmonella</i> serotype Typhi (Typhoid)</p> <p><u>Malaria</u> <i>Plasmodium</i> species</p>
Monitoring peri- and post-elimination	<p><u>NTDs</u> <i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> (trachoma), <i>Dracunculus medinensis</i></p>

settings for diseases with elimination goals ³⁴	(Guinea worm), <i>Leishmania</i> spp. (visceral leishmaniasis), nematodes (lymphatic filariasis), <i>Onchocerca volvulus</i> (onchocerciasis), <i>Treponema pallidum</i> subspecies <i>pertenue</i> (yaws), <i>Trypanosoma brucei</i> (human African trypanosomiasis) <u>Vaccine-preventable diseases</u> polioviruses <u>Malaria</u> <i>Plasmodium</i> spp. (sub-national levels)
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169

170 *Study design*

171 A key issue is identifying the appropriate target population for the question of
 172 interest. Because pathogens affect individuals across different demographic
 173 characteristics (e.g., age), selecting a target population to cover all pathogens of
 174 interest is challenging. Other challenges include defining population sampling
 175 strategies and sample sizes to answer multiple questions simultaneously and
 176 determining the optimal survey frequency to measure temporal trends across
 177 pathogens and address programmatic needs. One viable option includes nesting
 178 specimen collection within existing surveys that sample large populations across
 179 multiple characteristics (e.g., Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator
 180 Cluster Surveys). Less resource-intensive sampling strategies like using residual
 181 blood specimens (e.g., from health facility laboratories or routine screening of
 182 pregnant women) can reduce costs while still capturing a range of populations and
 183 time points. Additionally, specimen type (e.g. dried blood spots, venous blood and
 184 oral fluid) must balance feasibility of collection and assay validity across all
 185 pathogens.

186

187 *Supplies*

188 One of the biggest challenges raised by multiple groups was related to the supply
189 chain for assay reagents and equipment. Challenges included procuring,
190 maintaining, and repairing platform technology, such as Luminex instruments.
191 Procuring quality-assured beads and assay reagents in a space with few small-
192 scale producers of conjugated beads is also an issue. Other challenges with supply
193 chain sustainability involve understanding and addressing country-specific
194 limitations to importation, maintaining the cold chain, and establishing
195 procurement procedures and processes for reagents and supplies.

196

197 *Laboratory assays*

198 For multi-pathogen serosurveillance, several issues related to assay development,
199 antigen discovery and validation, identification of proper controls, and assay
200 performance must be addressed. Many research groups have developed standard
201 operating procedures (SOPs) for equipment maintenance, assay techniques, assay
202 development, quality control, and other key multiplex serology operations.
203 However, resources such as positive and negative controls are not always available
204 and require continuous support to laboratories for appropriate use. Furthermore,
205 quality controls to validate assay runs and track assay performance over time are
206 needed. Standardization holds the promise to make serosurveillance results more
207 comparable between laboratories, but this is currently hampered by the limited
208 availability of reference standards. Available reference reagents are typically
209 calibrated for a specific pathogen, not for a broad range of them. Consequently, to
210 report international units, standards need to be calibrated against each other or an
211 in-house standard must be built and calibrated against multiple standards.

212

213 Developing assays requires knowledge of the immunogenicity of antigens, kinetics
214 of antibody responses, and relevance for assessing disease burden or protective
215 immunity (i.e., correlates of immune protection). Because assay development can
216 be technically challenging and requires thorough validation, the number of
217 laboratories that currently undertake assay development is limited. High demand
218 and inadequate capacity limit the availability of antigen-coupled beads, which are
219 currently produced by a small number of research groups, although technology
220 transfer initiatives are ongoing. For countries considering implementing multiplex
221 serosurveillance but unable to develop assays, commercial options are also limited.

222

223 *Data analysis and interpretation*

224 There are currently no standardized approaches to cleaning raw laboratory data
225 and establishing seropositivity thresholds, as this varies by antigen, the availability
226 of controls, and population. This first stage of analysis includes performing quality
227 control checks, evaluating serial dilution standard curves, and ensuring steps to
228 normalize data are appropriately applied. Translating cleaned data into useful
229 epidemiologic inference requires analytical approaches that model the normalized
230 quantitative values or the establishment of reasonable cut-points for seropositivity
231 that are relevant for the specific use case. Additionally, the interpretation of
232 pathogen-specific age patterns and geographic distributions of seroprevalence
233 requires supplementing laboratory data with demographic characteristics and
234 contextualized epidemiologic understanding of the specific pathogens. The use of
235 serological data for computing age seroprevalence curves and estimating
236 epidemiological parameters, such as forces of infection, is established for well-
237 characterized antigens. A key remaining challenge is selecting and implementing

238 appropriate analytical approaches (and metadata) to answer questions of interest
239 for less-well-characterized antigens as well as across multiple antigens or
240 pathogens simultaneously. Further, there is a need for data analytic pipelines to
241 facilitate the interpretation of data by balancing detail and complexity and
242 producing user-friendly data visualizations such as spatial maps.

243

244 *Data for program action*

245 Given the complexities of analyzing multiple pathogens simultaneously, it can be
246 challenging to generate interpretable and easily visualized results for target
247 audiences such as policy makers and program managers. The time from
248 serosurvey data collection to dissemination of results is often long (months), which
249 makes it challenging to use results for decision making. Serosurvey data should be
250 triangulated with other data sources for interpretation of the epidemiological
251 findings for each disease. When serosurveillance for several pathogens are
252 simultaneously analyzed and presented, it can be challenging to contextualize all
253 findings in a succinct, clear manner.

254

255 *Cross-cutting challenges*

256 Training needs included supply chain logistics and procurement so laboratories can
257 place their supply orders and anticipate shortages. Similarly, training on instrument
258 use and routine maintenance are needed to sustain high instrument performance
259 and minimize downtime and costly repairs. There were also challenges with
260 technology transfer, including training on the MBIA, bead coupling and validation,
261 and quality control procedures. Additionally, there is a strong need for training in
262 data analytics, as multi-pathogen serosurveillance data are complex and most

263 useful when combined with complementary data such as vaccination coverage or
264 case-based disease surveillance data.

265

266 Table 2 summarizes challenges identified in each working group. Additional details
267 are available in the full meeting report.³⁵

268

269

Table 2. Key challenges identified by the working groups

Working Group	Key Challenges
Supply Chain	Procuring and maintaining appropriate platform technology, producing and procuring quality-assured beads and assays, commercializing kits, maintaining the cold chain, understanding and addressing country-specific limitations to importation, and limited human and technological capacity to anticipate and avoid supply chain issues
Seroepidemiology	Selecting sample populations and sample sizes, establishing the frequency of sampling, identifying and validating less resource-intensive sampling strategies, defining sampling approaches that answer multiple questions, determining core individual- and household-level data to collect, and linking serosurvey antigens to study design for programmatic impact
Laboratory Assays	Supporting technology transfer and training, sharing best practices and protocols, standardizing antigen use across countries, defining quality control standards, developing reference reagents
Data Analytics	Standardizing and cleaning raw laboratory data, translating cleaned data into useful epidemiologic inference by selecting appropriate analytical approaches to answer questions of interest, and developing user friendly analytical and visualization pipelines
Sustainable implementation	Demonstrating added value for initial engagement, generating buy-in across national health systems, ensuring adequate laboratory capacity and procurement, and interpreting data and integrating results for decision making

Proposed Solutions Across Working Groups

Creation of an electronic platform to share resources and expertise

There is a strong need for information sharing platforms. New tools and resources needed to support multiplex serosurveillance include a planning tool that would

278 allow users to prepare for resources needed and estimate cost; a supply chain
279 “playbook” that details cold chain and labeling requirements and substitutable
280 reagents; protocols that enable adaptive sampling strategies; and ethical
281 considerations for additional testing in serosurveillance studies. Furthermore, case
282 studies demonstrating how countries have used serosurveillance to guide public
283 health actions would help underscore the value of serosurveillance. Additionally,
284 the platform could aid in standardizing pre-processing pipelines between studies
285 and harmonizing data.

286

287 A unified platform could host these tools and other resources such as a central
288 repository for antigens and standards, protocols, data packages and scripts,
289 sample size calculation tools, best practices, training resources, and plain-language
290 policy briefs and technical documents. Critically, this platform should also allow
291 users to communicate with one another to troubleshoot problems and share
292 experiences. Creating a single platform to address these needs could help develop
293 and sustain a culture of collaboration while facilitating harmonization efforts where
294 practical.

295

296 *Building local capacity and training*

297 Expanding the capacity for MBIAs in low-resourced settings will help generate data
298 where it is most needed. Enhanced capacity could also create a more favorable
299 environment for commercialization, enable greater collaboration and country
300 ownership, promote harmonization, and address key bottlenecks. Several areas
301 were identified as priorities for capacity building including the development of
302 regional hubs and use of multiple training approaches such as on-site training,

303 online training, and train-the-trainer initiatives. These approaches could enable
304 users to perform MBIAs, service and troubleshoot bead-based multiplex platforms,
305 and produce or procure antigen-coupled beads. While discussion of capacity
306 building focused on LMICs, many areas were relevant for users in all countries.

307

308 *Developing quality control and standardized approaches*

309 Exploring ways to standardize approaches would allow for comparison of results
310 across countries. However, harmonization can be challenging. Targets for
311 standardization include standardizing approaches to conducting serosurveys;
312 creating or procuring quality assay materials; and best practices for cleaning,
313 analyzing, and presenting data. Developing and validating positive and negative
314 reference controls by antigen (e.g., through the United Kingdom's National Institute
315 for Biological Standards and Control [NIBSC] or using validated recombinant
316 antibodies) would lead to results that are more interpretable across assays,
317 populations, and time-points. Developing a common panel with the most frequently
318 used antigens across regions could also facilitate cross-country comparisons,
319 though customization would still be needed to address country-specific priorities.

320

321 *Establishing a laboratory network and building partnerships*

322 A laboratory support network would facilitate knowledge sharing and
323 troubleshooting at country, regional, and global levels, helping to connect
324 laboratory groups. Partnering with private companies would support
325 commercialization of panels and sharing of know-how regarding supply chain
326 constraints. Partnering with supply chain experts would enable procurement and
327 packaging of common reagents and materials to streamline ordering processes and

328 avoid delays caused by stockouts. Regional networks could also allow groups to
329 share limited resources—including access to instruments and materials like
330 antigen-coupled beads—and to pool demand for these resources. Regional hubs
331 could be characterized by function (e.g., coupling antigens to beads and providing
332 quality control) to help meet the needs of different groups, further building a
333 collaborative network.

334

335 *Generating political buy-in for multiplex serosurveillance*

336 Participants viewed the establishment of buy-in from governments, funders, and
337 regulatory agencies as essential for the introduction and scale-up of multi-
338 pathogen serosurveillance. Approaches to achieving support and fostering greater
339 participation from these entities include exploring standardized approval processes
340 for the importation of products necessary for multi-pathogen serosurveillance,
341 developing a taxonomy of pathogen-specific antigens paired to scientific and
342 policy-relevant use cases, involving governmental agencies in training initiatives,
343 and developing analytical and visualization pipelines to aid understanding.
344 Garnering high level regional and international support to develop guidance and
345 recommendations for the implementation and use of integrated serosurveillance
346 was considered a priority. Organizations like PAHO and the US CDC have developed
347 documents that were discussed as starting points.²⁸ This goal could be supported
348 through conversations with decision makers to demonstrate how integrated, multi-
349 pathogen serosurveillance can complement existing disease surveillance systems
350 and by providing successful case studies. Generating community buy-in through
351 communication of the benefits and limitations of serosurveillance is also critical as
352 exploring the value of integrated serosurveillance hinges on their participation.

353

354 **Discussion**

355 Serosurveillance provides valuable information to guide public health programs,
356 especially when triangulated with data from other surveillance systems. In
357 isolation, serosurveillance systems are costly to establish and sustain.^{28,36}

358 Serosurveillance data is underutilized due to the heterogeneity of assays and the
359 delay in disseminating results to health authorities for meaningful program
360 impact.^{37,38} Ideally, integration of serosurveillance with routine public health
361 activities can reduce costs and make it more sustainable but requires sufficient
362 buy-in and funding.^{6,14,23,39} The lessons learned from experiences establishing
363 serosurveillance across multiple countries should be shared to promote further
364 investment in this technology.

365

366 For serosurveillance to have programmatic impact, data must be available in a
367 timely fashion. Several bottlenecks cause delays: planning epidemiologically
368 relevant serosurveys; procuring materials and equipment; and cleaning, analyzing,
369 and interpreting data.²⁹ Some approaches, such as developing standard operating
370 procedures, addressing supply chain issues, optimizing data analysis pipelines,
371 training local health researchers, and sharing preliminary results with decision
372 makers can shorten the time for data to be used for action.²² Timely
373 serosurveillance data provides insights into disease transmission patterns and
374 population vulnerability to outbreaks to guide control and elimination strategies.

375

376 Financial, technical, and political support are also needed to overcome these
377 bottlenecks. For example, the development of a commercial panel for frequently

378 tested antibodies could address supply chain constraints, but commercialization
379 restricts flexibility to modify the pathogens that can be tested. For
380 commercialization of panels, there will need to be sufficient demand. Without
381 adequate resources, serosurveillance efforts may only be pilots or ad hoc
382 endeavors. Investment in the development of country-led multi-pathogen
383 serosurveillance systems, like PAHO's,²⁸ can expand the number of countries
384 conducting multi-pathogen serosurveillance.

385

386 In addition to the use cases presented, there are additional questions of public
387 health importance that could be explored (e.g., optimizing vaccination schedules).
388 Recently, the most common use case was measuring the spread of SARS-CoV-2;
389 seroprevalence studies were conducted in 149 countries.⁴ This allowed tracking the
390 spread of the virus, identifying transmission dynamics, monitoring population
391 immunity, and evaluating vaccine program performance.^{40,41} Leveraging the
392 capacity building, networking, platforms, and expertise developed during the
393 COVID-19 pandemic, could better prepare us for the next emerging pathogen and
394 support surveillance systems for diseases that are underfunded.

395

396 The global response to the COVID-19 pandemic also demonstrated the power of
397 coordination across institutions. Monitoring seroprevalence and population
398 immunity in different settings harnessed learnings across the globe. Though
399 harmonized approaches were feasible for SARS-CoV-2 and allowed for cross-
400 country comparisons, many pathogens need additional research to allow for such
401 comparisons. Some vaccine-preventable diseases like measles and rubella already
402 have standardized international controls, agreed upon correlates of protection,

403 existing laboratory networks, and clear programmatic actions that can be informed
404 by serological data.⁴² As multiplex panels are developed for different pathogens,
405 similar standardization could enable results to be more readily compared across
406 settings. Although VPDs are an area where standardization is within reach,
407 achieving this aim across a diverse array of pathogens—especially considering the
408 unique epidemiological profiles and priorities of different countries—will require
409 more developed serosurveillance systems and international coordination.

410

411 While multi-pathogen serosurveillance has traditionally been used in high-income
412 countries (HICs),⁴³ it has also been used in LMICs, often with a high degree of
413 technical support from organizations based in HICs. Some studies include samples
414 from LMICs that were tested entirely in an HIC,⁴⁴ in both LMICs and HICs,^{21,45,45} and
415 entirely in an LMIC.^{23,46–49} To ensure the promotion of country ownership, initiatives
416 are needed to build local capacity to couple beads, perform MBIAs, and analyze
417 data that is coordinated with national governments and aligned with their
418 priorities. More recently, efforts to transfer technology and build capacity in
419 countries in the Americas^{22,28} and Africa²³ have paved the way for future endeavors
420 to scale-up multiplex serosurveillance. To move towards routine serosurveillance
421 globally, additional funding is needed to fill research gaps and advance
422 implementation in additional settings, including bolstering capacity in laboratories
423 that do not yet have the technologies used in multi-pathogen serosurveillance.

424

425 Building on the momentum from previous efforts, the 2023 Serosurveillance
426 Summit provides further impetus to advance collaboration among countries to
427 conduct multi-pathogen serosurveillance. Participants will continue serving on

428 working groups to put into practice the proposed solutions outlined above. This
429 community of practice brings together a network of scientists and practitioners to
430 facilitate knowledge sharing and develop a platform for multi-pathogen, multi-
431 country serosurveillance. These established networks and relationships could
432 facilitate rapid response efforts for future emerging pathogens. As the world moves
433 to reclaim the progress against infectious diseases that was disrupted by the
434 COVID-19 pandemic—and to enhance preparedness to prevent or mitigate the next
435 pandemic—the appetite for establishing multi-pathogen serosurveillance systems
436 has never been greater.

437

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