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1 **A Digital One Health framework to integrate data for public health decision-**
2 **making**

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14

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17

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19 **Keywords:** Digital One Health, data integration, legal, ethics, sociological, boundaries

20

21 **Abstract**

22 The current implementation of One Health primarily focuses on multi-sectoral collaboration
23 but often overlooks opportunities to integrate contextual and pathogen-related data into a
24 unified data resource. This lack of integration hampers effective, data-driven decision-making
25 in One Health activities. In this perspective, we examine the existing strategies for data sharing
26 and identify gaps and barriers to integration. To overcome these challenges, we propose the
27 Digital One Health (DOH) framework for data integration, which consolidates data sharing
28 principles within five pillars for the One Health community of practice:

- 29 a) Harmonization of standards to establish trust,
- 30 b) Automation of data capture to enhance quality and efficiency,
- 31 c) Integration of data at point of capture to limit bureaucracy,
- 32 d) Onboard data analysis to articulate utility, and
- 33 e) Archiving and governance to safeguard the One Health data resource.

34 We discuss an upcoming pilot program as a use case focusing on antimicrobial resistance
35 (AMR) surveillance to illustrate the application of this framework. Our ambition is to leverage
36 technology to create data as a shared resource using DOH not only to overcome current
37 structural barriers but also to address prevailing ethical and legal concerns. By doing so, we
38 can enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of decision-making processes in the One Health
39 community of practice, at a national, regional, and international level.

40 **Background**

41 **One Health in a global health security context**

42 A holistic One Health (OH) approach is central to the world's ability to detect and respond to
43 health challenges caused by emerging pathogens and antimicrobial resistance (AMR) [1].
44 Indeed, 60.3% of emerging infectious diseases are zoonotic, and most (54%) are caused by
45 bacteria, including drug resistant strains [2]. While OH seeks to optimise the health of
46 humans, other animals, and their shared ecosystems [3], its current implementation focuses
47 on how people collaborate, not how the data streams integrate. Understandably, such data has
48 ethical, legal, political, and social constraints, particularly regarding the balance between
49 individual privacy and collective benefits of data sharing. Differing standards for data
50 collection, reporting, and sharing result in challenges for harmonization, sharing and
51 interpretation and create boundaries between data collected in different settings across the
52 OH sphere. The social and legal thresholds for data sharing are highest in human health and
53 lowest in the environmental sector respectively and have not been updated in line with
54 evolving global circumstances such as the use of big data to address rapidly evolving global
55 health threats. Here, we challenge stakeholders to look beyond current data boundaries and
56 identify shareable variables needed for initiatives such as the WHO-hub's International
57 Pathogen Surveillance Network (IPSN) and the federated genomic pathogen surveillance
58 [4,5].

59 **Why is OH data integration important?**

60 COVID-19 has highlighted the importance of early data sharing for virus strain tracking. For
61 example, platforms such as the Global Initiative on Sharing All Influenza Data (GISAID) have
62 ensured sequence data integration and analysis to inform response strategies. Now more than
63 ever, decentralized infrastructure of this kind is needed at National Institutes of Public Health

64 (NPHIs) to allow national outbreak monitoring and preparedness strategies and anchor global
65 health preparedness. However, the assessment tools for preparedness, such as Joint External
66 Evaluation (JEE), need to reflect the OH paradigm in alignment with current global health
67 strategies. Therefore, the challenge to the OH community of practice is how to enrich the JEE
68 with quantitative data covering veterinary and environmental health indicators to create a One
69 Health Joint External Evaluation (OH-JEE) [6]. We argue that this must be informed by a
70 unified view of the risk using a shared OH data resource.

71 **Reasons to look beyond human health**

72 Even with OH research, an anthropocentric paradigm prevails; for example, AMR research
73 frequently treats animals as merely a source or reservoir of resistance. The focus is instead on
74 human clinical outcomes, discounting the intrinsic value of animal health [7]. Adequately
75 funded veterinary infrastructure and surveillance are key to addressing this and providing vital
76 data [7]. Meanwhile, environmental health is often neglected in OH research [8], hence the
77 advocacy of the quadripartite 2022-2026 One Health Joint Plan of Action (One Health JPA)
78 for the integration of environment parameters in OH surveillance [3]. The WHO's Global
79 Antimicrobial Resistance and Use Surveillance System (GLASS) project incorporates a
80 "Tricycle" approach with built-in harmonization, monitoring AMR in clinical, veterinary, and
81 environmental isolates, although implementation is in its early stages. These "cross-sectoral
82 asymmetries", with animals and the environment underserved regarding budget and
83 implementation, have been attributed to anthropocentric framings of AMR in policy documents
84 and research [7]. DOH can help redress this balance, facilitating a more profound
85 understanding of the interrelationships between aspects of the more-than-human world – both
86 in a scientific context and at a broader cultural level [9].

87 **What are the current efforts towards OH integration and data sharing?**

88 Current efforts to share data use FAIR (Findability, Accessibility, Interoperability, and Reuse
89 of digital assets) [10] as the overarching principle for data management. For example, the
90 global think-tank System for Enteric Disease Response, Investigation, and Coordination
91 (SEDRIC) focuses on effective AMR surveillance through data sharing with health workers
92 [11], while the Public Health Alliance for Genomic Epidemiology (PHA4GE) works to
93 establish consensus standards in Public Health Bioinformatics to enable reproducibility [12].

94 WHONET is an established microbiology software package for international monitoring of
95 priority pathogens principally in human health. It is supported by the WHO Collaborating
96 Centre for Surveillance of Antimicrobial Resistance and is used alongside the GLASS
97 information technology platform for data integration [13]. WHONET comes with modules
98 for harmonising and standardising data [14], including “BacLink” to facilitate automatic,
99 scheduled updating of data from the local computer. This tool was primarily designed for
100 human health priority pathogens and its extensions to animal and environmental
101 microbiology are not widely utilized [15]. The scarcity of tangible efforts for OH data
102 integration suggests that harmonization at this scale is the Achilles heel of cross-sectoral data
103 sharing. The One Health Data Alliance for Africa (OHDAA) is one of the few initiatives
104 focusing on OH data [16]. However, its primary focus on policy development and capacity
105 building leaves much room for improving data integration, as recommended by the One
106 Health JPA to improve global preparedness [3].

107 In Europe, the COHESIVE Common Information System (COHESIVE CIS), developed
108 under the One Health European Joint Program (OH EJP), represents an example of an
109 integrated system for genomic surveillance and epidemiology of foodborne infections from
110 human and veterinary sector across EU member states [1]. The system harmonizes data

111 collected in a range of languages but uses secondary rather than primary data from member
112 states [17]. Similarly, the ORION initiative [18] and BeOne [19] support the harmonisation
113 and integration of surveillance data across sectors within Europe by providing infrastructure
114 and software [20]. These projects represent important efforts towards data integration in HICs
115 with robust surveillance systems; even so, full integration is still hampered by legal issues
116 regarding data sharing [21].

117 Crucially, none of these efforts has managed to tackle data integration in the broader OH
118 context. It is here that the comparative advantage of DOH becomes evident, as it explicitly
119 addresses ethical and legal controls within its framework, recognising the unique difficulties
120 of integrating data with such disparate ethical and legal boundaries. Additionally, in
121 modernizing multi-sectoral data collection and processing, rather than integrating secondary
122 data into inventories, DOH harmonizes data at point of capture, automating the process with
123 consideration to applications in low resource settings and across the human, animal, and
124 environmental sectors.

125 **What are the bottlenecks for OH data integration?**

126 *Foci of risk*

127 Medical, veterinary, and environmental practitioners have different perspectives on risk and its
128 prioritization, influenced by their training and experiences. Clinicians, for instance, tend to
129 concentrate on the risk to the individual patient under their care, prioritizing diagnosis and
130 treatment [22]. In contrast, farm veterinarians, as well as public and environmental health
131 practitioners, often handle risk assessment at the herd and population levels. This difference in
132 frame of reference inevitably impacts the actors' respective priorities, perceived roles, trust,
133 and ultimately, the ability to share data within the OH framework [23].

134 ***Data ethics and governance***

135 There are marked differences in the stringency of ethical and legal constraints on data access
136 across the OH spectrum, with human and environmental health subject to the tightest and
137 loosest restrictions, respectively. Appropriate data integration requires significant shifts
138 towards a commonality between these two extremes. In some cases, the ethical threshold is set
139 deliberately high by institutions that fear losing data rights and the competitive advantages of
140 monopolising pathogen-specific data [24]. However, we argue that preventing data access
141 should be considered unethical where a clear public health benefit is articulated.

142 ***Lack of evidence of direct utility***

143 The sustainability of data integration is highly dependent on the reasons for, and benefits of,
144 data sharing, which must therefore be made clear to stakeholders. While reasons for sharing
145 can easily be extrapolated from current OH and global health security frameworks, evidence
146 of direct utility for contributors is still lacking. For example, clinicians might be motivated to
147 share microbiological data from their cases if they knew this would provide them with access
148 to clinically relevant population-wide information in the form of well-trained AI models
149 drawing on a wealth of OH data to support differential diagnosis [25].

150 ***Lack of digital integration platforms for OH data***

151 Despite the recommendations of the One Health JPA [3], there is as yet no functional platform
152 that effectively integrates and processes OH data. Consequently, data pertaining to zoonotic
153 diseases and antibiotic resistance within specific niches tends to be fragmented across various
154 systems. This fragmentation limits the comprehensive understanding of the interconnections
155 and potential risks involved.

156 **Digital One Health as a solution for integration**

157 We propose DOH as a framework for leveraging technology to create a shared data resource
158 for OH decision-making. It centres on five pillars informed by the FAIR principles of data
159 sharing (**Figure 1B**). It emphasizes sustainability, quality and efficiency, interoperability and,
160 importantly, data governance structures to safeguard the use of shared data resources.
161 Performance can be evaluated using key performance indicators (KPIs), which inherently
162 enforce data protection standards. DOH embodies solutions to identified gaps and bottlenecks
163 for current OH data integration efforts (**Figure 1B**), using software tools with inbuilt ethical,
164 legal, and social thresholds as “digital filters” that triage metadata variables to create a shared
165 resource (**Figure 1A**).

166 **Pillar 1: Harmonization, standardization, as trust building activities**

167 Harmonization relies on the consistency and compatibility of systems, arguably the foundation
168 of data integration. This encourages the OH community of practice to agree on standards,
169 variables to record, and minimum required sample processing and interpretation. We will refer
170 to these simply as “standards”, and these must be developed in collaboration with statisticians
171 and data scientists to ensure that the agreed-upon standards yield a useful data product that
172 facilitates varied downstream statistical analyses. We believe negotiating common ground to
173 arrive at such standards represents the foundation for trust building between stakeholders.
174 Trust-building activities are embedded within stakeholder meetings/workshops, training, and
175 conferences to nurture co-design and shared ownership of the data integration (**Figure 1A**).

176 **Pillar 2: Automating standardization processes to ensure quality and efficiency**

177 Standards are coded into intelligent “digital filters”, which drive the automation of data triaging
178 using a traffic light system. Stakeholders agree on “green channel” variables, which can be

179 shared without violating ethical and legal boundaries, such as pathogen characteristics or
180 patient gender. “Orange channel” are variables that may be shared with privacy-preserving
181 modifications, such as locations recorded as a partial address or jittered GPS, ages transformed
182 into categories, and socioeconomic variables compounded into an index. “Red channel” are
183 variables that cannot be shared, including names, contact and financial details (**Figure 1A**).

184 **Pillar 3: Data integration at the point of capture to limit bureaucracy**

185 As applied to infectious disease, DOH aims to combine specific data variables (metadata) and
186 AMR or zoonotic disease ecology data generated from human, animal, and environmental
187 sectors to form a unified understanding of the problem. The challenges of AMR and zoonoses
188 are characterized by complex and inextricable links across and between these sectors; they
189 cannot be adequately addressed by viewing data from one of these in isolation. The integration
190 tools must intelligently capture, transform where necessary, and triage data streams to create a
191 shared resource for joint analyses and interpretation (**Figure 1B**). The DOH framework is novel
192 in that it will integrate data at capture to limit institutional bureaucracy while providing the
193 offline support necessary for adoption in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) (**Figure**
194 **1C**). This includes digital applications for data capture without internet and secure transmission
195 to Laboratory Information Systems (LIMs) and World Health Organisation's microbiology
196 database software (WHONET) when internet access is available.

197 **Pillar 4: Integrated data processing with onboard analytics and visualization to** 198 **articulate the value of data**

199 Stakeholders are motivated to share data when the value and benefit are well articulated.
200 Therefore, embedding analytics and interpretation of output improves data utility and its
201 immediate value, so the shared metadata resource is directly used to develop insights from OH
202 data. Guided by PH4GE pipeline and visualization protocols, the fourth pillar aims to optimize

203 the portability of analytical and computational pipelines to ensure their utility on regular
204 computers. This can be achieved by assigning heavy computation to cluster computing at hubs
205 such as NPHIs, and national veterinary or environmental institutes while the spokes (local
206 surveillance sites) implement basic analysis that summarizes trends.

207 **Pillar 5: Sharing and archiving data**

208 The fifth pillar of DOH focuses on ensuring that the OH data gathered is accessible to all
209 stakeholders, from a local to global scale (**Figure 1C**), within legal and ethical frameworks.

210 This pillar incorporates both governance and more practical concerns. In order to facilitate
211 future re-use of the harmonized data, the expertise of library scientists is needed to develop
212 suitable archiving methods. The availability of the data to those making clinical, public
213 health, veterinary and environmental health decisions is a vital outcome of DOH.

214 Historically, data have been concentrated in the global North; we consider it crucial for data
215 to be accessible equitably.

216 **Integrated OH data as a shared resource for decision-making**

217 Our proposed guidelines represent an operational management and governance structure for
218 how this shared resource could be utilized to achieve the following:

219 *Encourage structured decision-making for OH*

220 A shared data resource represents unified evidence about the dynamics underpinning global
221 health challenges, inherently laying the foundation for structured decision-making [26]. The
222 pillars of DOH become incentives for structuring evidence for decision-making a) by clearly
223 defining objectives for integration, b) with motivations informed by a unified view of evidence,
224 and c) data sources structured to encourage us to reflect on the uncertainty, d) producing an
225 output that allows for transparent communication of risk to societies.

226 *Support capacity building, ethics, and data governance*

227 A shared data resource can also be mined for novel hypotheses to drive capacity building and
228 innovation for OH. Capacity building is critical to the sustainability of OH activities, not only
229 to improve awareness but as a key element for trust building. Tailored capacity building also
230 ensures that supervision structures of the workforce maintain the critical control points for data
231 integration such as ethical, legal and data governance. This also opens opportunities for public-
232 private collaborations to maximise use and reuse of data, however, this must be done with
233 ethical considerations in mind.

234 *Nurture shared decision-making for OH*

235 Shared decision-making is a well-established practice in healthcare [27], with utility in
236 healthcare professionals working with patients to arrive at a decision based on available clinical
237 and epidemiological evidence. Here, OH professionals should use the shared data resource as
238 a catalyst to arrive at shared decisions using the available unified evidence. This is crucial in
239 empowering stakeholders, defining roles, and building and maintaining trust.

240 **An example of a DOH framework for AMR surveillance**

241 In an upcoming pilot we aim to test the DOH framework in a platform that integrates metadata
242 and sample collection, analysis, and output visualization. This will be done with AMR
243 surveillance laboratories as the OH community of practice in Uganda, with the following
244 specific objectives: a) Organise data harmonization workshops for OH microbiologists as our
245 selected community of practice, b) Test the utility of a mobile phone application to automate
246 the triage and integration of metadata linked to AMR samples, c) Pilot the use of sequencing
247 on routinely cultured pathogens, d) Develop a portable and integrated data workflow to feed
248 into our prototype data sharing and analysis web portal and finally, e) Support local capacity

249 building through training seminars on long-read sequencing and data analysis (**Figure S1**). It
250 aims to streamline local data streams (**Figure 1C**) to feed initiatives such as WHO IPSN [4,28].

251 **Conclusions**

252 A unified view of emerging zoonotic and AMR risks is vital for effective preparedness. This
253 requires bringing together epidemiological data as they are collected and rapidly making
254 insights available, so that surveillance and research outputs generate tangible benefits rather
255 than languishing in a fragmented data landscape. In LMICs, this is particularly crucial: with
256 limited resources available for data collection and analysis, it is vital to make the most of the
257 collected data and ensure equitable access to outputs. The DOH framework is structured to
258 improve OH outcomes globally, streamlining processes and explicitly accounting for unequal
259 distribution of resources such as computing power and internet access. The global health risk
260 landscape requires coordinated rapid responses, therefore DOH is designed to anchor and guide
261 activities that leverage technology to create OH shared data resources that supports decision-
262 making while addressing ethical and legal complexities.

263 **Author contributions**

264 CRW: original draft; writing, review & editing

265 KL: writing – original draft; writing – review & editing

266 AM: conceptualised the idea and framed the question and structure of perspective,
267 participated in the writing on the original draft and its review

268 VQ: section writing, review & editing

269 TNL: section writing, review and editing

270 BW: section writing, review and editing

271 GM: section writing, review and editing and context

272 **Declaration of interests**

273 The authors declare no conflicts of interest

274 **Role of the funding source**

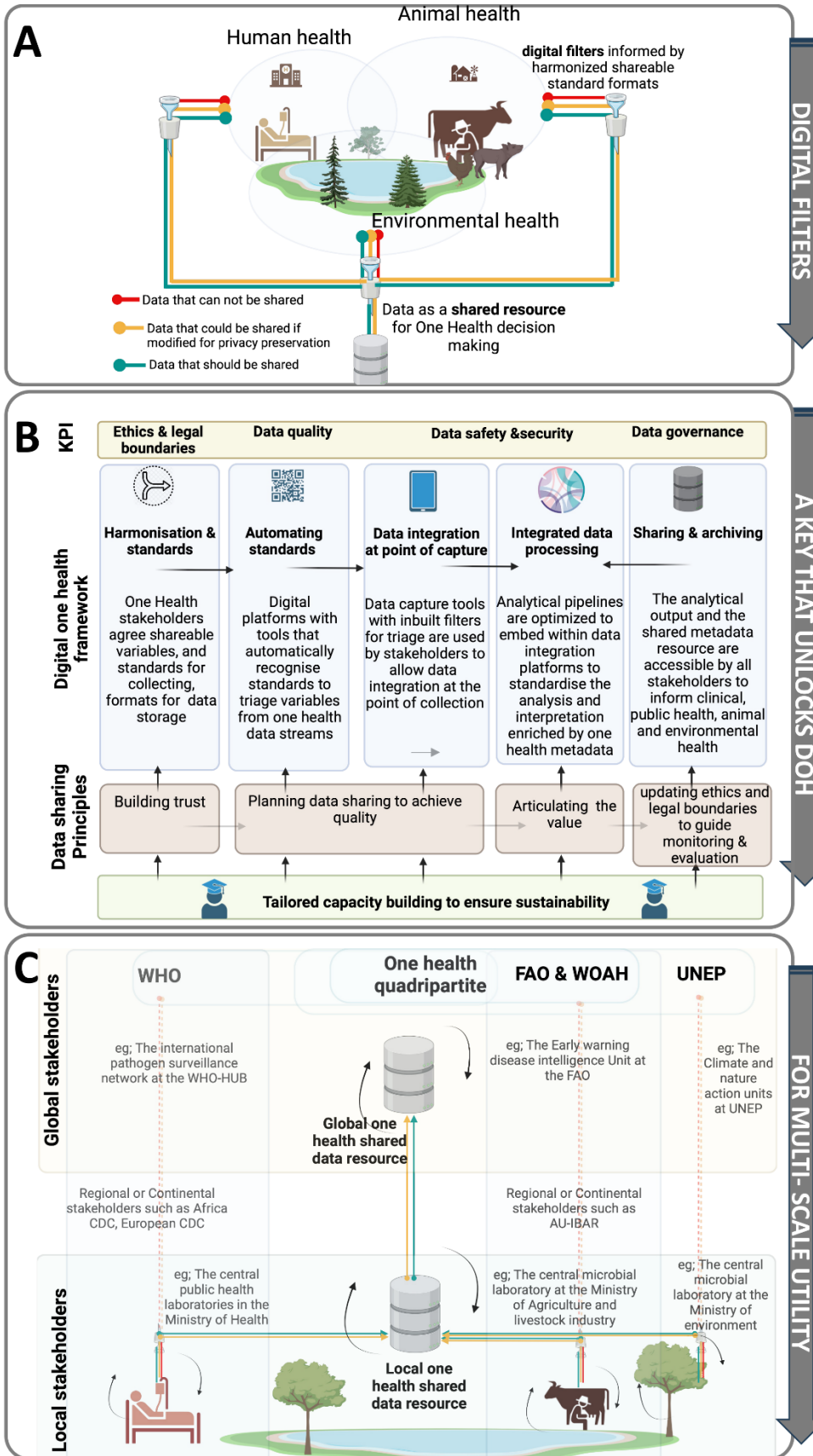
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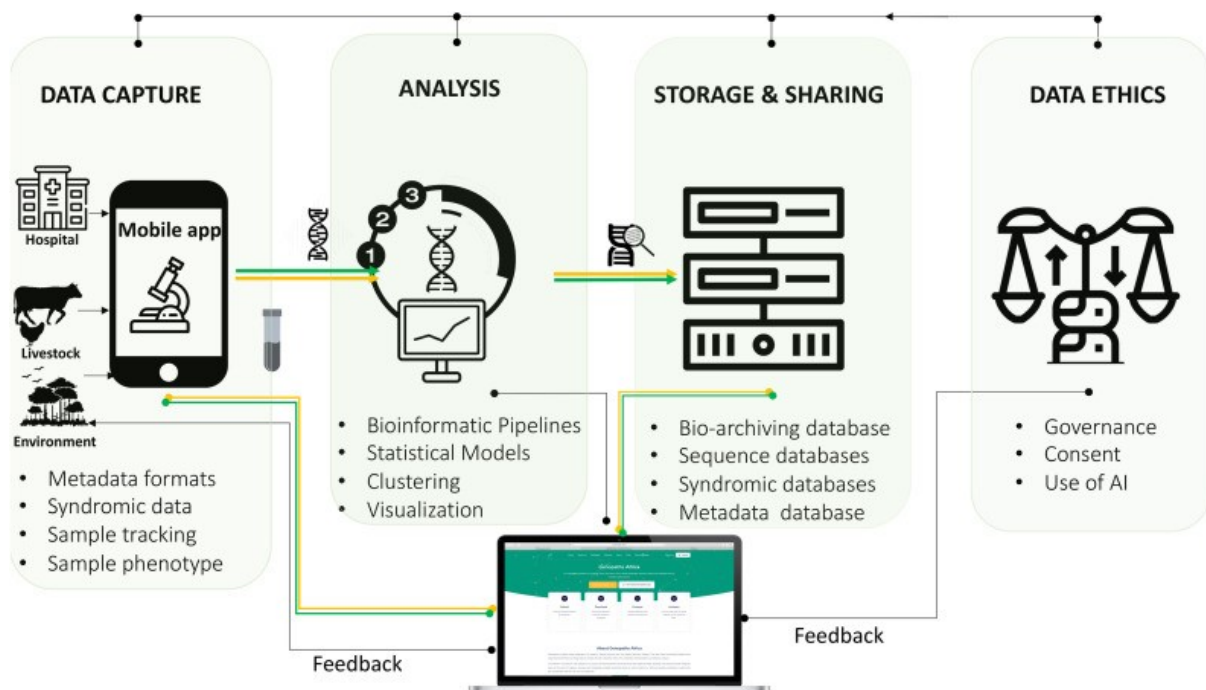


363

364 Figure 1

365 **Figure Legend**

366 **Figure 1A** is the DOH (Digital One Health) framework for creating data as shared resources
367 for decision-making. Key performance indicators (KPIs) are based on the principles of data
368 sharing. The component of capacity-building is central to the sustainability of the framework.
369 **Figure 1B** is the key to operationalizing DOH as it shows how digital filters for triaging data
370 can be developed. **Figure 1C** illustrates how DOH feeds into the global data-sharing
371 strategies. The cyclic arrows indicate that the data are collected/collated, triaged, analysed, and
372 used on-site; dotted lines represent data flows within sectors. Abbreviations: AU-IBAR =
373 African Union Interafrican Bureau for Animal Resources, CDC = Center for Disease Control,
374 FAO = Food and Agriculture Organization, UNEP = United Nations Environment Programme,
375 WHO-HUB = World Health Organization Pandemic Hub. The figures are generated using
376 <https://www.biorender.com>.



378 Figure S1 An example of how an integrated Digital One Health (DOH) framework for
379 antimicrobial resistance (AMR) surveillance can be designed and implemented. Notably, the

380 Digital One Health Laboratory at the Roslin Institute has now received funding from The Royal
381 Society to pilot this framework in Uganda. This framework is a detailed representation of the
382 “Local stakeholders” compartment in Figure 1C.