A transmission chain linking *Mycobacterium ulcerans* with *Aedes notoscriptus*

mosquitoes, possums and human Buruli ulcer cases in southeastern Australia

Peter T. Mee[1,*,§], Andrew H. Buultjens[2,§], Jane Oliver[3,§], Karen Brown[1], Jodie C. Crowder[1], Jessica L. Porter[2],

Emma C. Hobbs[3], Louise M. Judd[2], George Taiaroa[3], Natsuda Puttharak[1], Deborah A. Williamson[3,4], Kim R.

Blasdell[5], Ee Laine Tay[6], Rebecca Feldman[6], Mutizwa Odwell Muzari[7], Chris Sanders[2], Stuart Larsen[2], Simon

R. Crouch[8], Paul D. R. Johnson[9], John R. Wallace[10], David J. Price[3,11], Ary A. Hoffmann[12,^], Katherine B.

Gibney[3,^], Timothy P. Stinear[2,13,^,*]and Stacey E. Lynch[1&,^]

[1]Agriculture Victoria, AgriBio, Centre for AgriBioscience, Bundoora, Victoria, Australia.

[2] Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Doherty Institute for Infection and Immunity, University of
Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.

[3] Department of Infectious Diseases, University of Melbourne, Doherty Institute for Infection and Immunity, Victoria,
3000, Australia

[4] Victorian Infectious Diseases Reference Laboratory, Melbourne Health, Doherty Institute for Infection and Immunity,
Victoria, Australia

[5] Australian Centre for Disease Preparedness, CSIRO, Geelong, Victoria, Australia.

[6] Department of Health, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.

[7] Medical Entomology, Tropical Public Health Services Cairns, Cairns and Hinterland Hospital & Health Services, Cairns,
Queensland, Australia.

[8] South East Public Health Unit, Monash Health, Clayton, Victoria, Australia.

[9] North East Public Health Unit, Austin Health, Heidelberg, Victoria, Australia.

[10] Department of Biology, Millersville University, Millersville, PA, USA.

[11] Centre for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Melbourne School of Population and Global Health, University of
Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia.

[12] Pest and Environmental Adaptation Research Group, School of BioSciences, Bio21 Institute, University of
Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia.

[13] WHO Collaborating Centre for *Mycobacterium ulcerans*, Doherty Institute for Infection and Immunity, Melbourne,
Victoria, Australia

Corresponding authors: *peter.mee@agriculture.vic.gov.au; tstinear@unimelb.edu.au

§Contributed equally

^Joint senior authors

& Current affiliations Australian Centre for Disease Preparedness, CSIRO, Geelong, Victoria, Australia

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Abstract

In temperate southeastern Australia over the past two decades there has been a marked progressive increase

in human cases of Buruli ulcer, an infection of subcutaneous tissue caused by *Mycobacterium ulcerans*. Native

possums are the major local environmental reservoir of *M. ulcerans* as they not only develop Buruli lesions

but they also shed *M. ulcerans* in their excreta. However the way humans acquire *M. ulcerans* from possums

has not been determined. Previous case-control studies, insect field surveys and vector competence studies

have suggested a role for mosquitoes in *M. ulcerans* transmission between possums and humans. To explore

these links we conducted an extensive, 4-month structured mosquito field survey and four *ad hoc* field

surveys across an area of 350km^2 on the Mornington Peninsula, an area endemic for Buruli ulcer to the south

of the major metropolitan city of Melbourne. We then compared spatial and temporal patterns of *M.*

ulcerans-positive mosquito occurrence with *M. ulcerans*-positive possums (established by previous possum

excreta surveys) and human Buruli ulcer cases across the region. We used metabarcoding to assess mosquito

blood-feeding host preference and to reconstruct *M. ulcerans* genomes from positive mosquitoes to test

epidemiological inferences. We collected 66,325 mosquitoes spanning 26 different species from 180

repeatedly sampled traps over a 4-month period. *Culex molestus* and *Aedes notoscriptus* were the dominant

species (42% and 35% of trapped mosquitoes, respectively). PCR screening 25% of trapped mosquitoes

revealed a significant association between *M. ulcerans* and *Ae. notoscriptus* (p<0.0001) with a maximum

likelihood estimate (MLE) of 5.88 *M. ulcerans* positive mosquitoes per 1,000 tested. Using spatial scanning

statistics, we also observed significant overlap between clusters of *M. ulcerans*-positive *Ae. notoscriptus*, *M.*

ulcerans-positive possum excreta and human Buruli ulcer cases. Metabarcoding analyses of blood-fed *Ae.*

notoscriptus showed individual mosquitoes had fed both on humans and native possums. Enrichment

genome sequencing from PCR-positive mosquitoes confirmed shared *M. ulcerans* genome single-nucleotide

polymorphism (SNP) profiles between mosquitoes, possum excreta and clinical human isolates within the

same regions. These findings indicate that *Ae. notoscriptus* likely transmit *M. ulcerans* in southeastern

Australia and highlight mosquito control as a plausible means to control the Buruli ulcer epidemic in our

region.

Nature Microbiology

62 Introduction

Mycobacterium ulcerans is the causative agent of a neglected tropical skin disease called Buruli ulcer, a

necrotising infection of skin and subcutaneous tissue [1]. Buruli ulcer is rarely a fatal condition but can cause

severe tissue destruction if not diagnosed and managed effectively [2]. Buruli ulcer has been described in more

than 32 countries worldwide [3] and is an ongoing public health issue in west and central Africa [4]. Buruli ulcer

has also been unexpectedly surging in temperate southeastern Australia (Figure 1) and encroaching on the

major metropolitan centres of Melbourne (population 5.1 million) and Geelong (population 274,000), with

>250 cases routinely notified each year since 2017 to the Victorian State Government Department of Health

[5].

Figure 1. Location of the Mornington Peninsula and the Bellarine Peninsula of Victoria, Australia. Population

density is represented on the map from low to high (white to red) based on the human population per square

kilometre. The study area is shown within an elipse (inset).

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How humans contract Buruli ulcer is a central question that has confounded public health control efforts and

intrigued scientists since the discovery of *M. ulcerans* from patients in the Bairnsdale region of Australia in

the 1930s and across Africa shortly after [1,6,7]. Buruli ulcer epidemiology can be unpredictable with a

4-5 month median incubation period and outbreaks emerging in specific geographical areas and then

disappearing over a number of years.   It is also very challenging to isolate the bacterium in pure culture from

the environment, presumably due to its very slow growth, although it can be isolated from human skin

lesions. These factors combined have made it incredibly challenging to establish how *M. ulcerans* is spread

to humans, despite global efforts to investigate this over more than 80 years [8].

The discovery that Buruli ulcer is a zoonosis and that Australian native possums are a major wildlife

source of *M. ulcerans* that is intimately linked with disease transmission has addressed one key component

of the transmission enigma [9-14]. The first indications that mosquitoes might be vectors of *M. ulcerans* from

possums to humans in Australia came from a series of entomological field surveys in the southeast of the

country in response to an increase in Buruli ulcer cases in the seaside township of Point Lonsdale, located on

the Bellarine Peninsula [15]. Among the 12 species identified from a trapping effort that collected 11,500

mosquitoes, five different species were IS2404 PCR positive for *M. ulcerans,* including *Ae. camptorhynchus*,

Ae. notoscriptus, *Coquillettidia linealis*, *Culex australicus*, and *Anopheles annulipes* (maximum likelihood

estimate (MLE) was 4.11/1000 mosquitoes) [15]. IS2404 is a *M. ulcerans*-specific insertion sequence and

molecular target for the gold-standard diagnostic PCR for Buruli ulcer [16].

A concurrent case control study performed in the same geographic area identified only two factors

associated with the odds of being diagnosed with Buruli ulcer: insect repellent use reduced risk (OR 0.37,

95% CI 0.19–0.69) and being bitten by mosquitoes on the lower legs increased risk (OR 2.60, 95% CI 1.22–

5.53). A variety of outdoor activities were also surveyed but were not independently predictive suggesting

that mosquito exposure specifically rather than environmental exposure generally might be the main mode

of MU transmission to humans [17]. In Africa, two case control studies conducted in Cameroon both found use

of bed nets as a protective factor against Buruli ulcer; (OR 0.4, 95% CI 0.2-0.9, p=0.04) [18] and (OR 0.1, 95% CI

0.03-0.3, p<0.001) [19].

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However, case control studies and entomological surveys alone are insufficient to indict biological

agents as vectors of pathogens. There are formal frameworks used in biomedicine, such as the Barnett

criteria [3] that build hierarchies of evidence to implicate a candidate disease vector. Here, we build on this

aforementioned research to formally address the Barnett criteria, and test the hypothesis that mosquitoes

vector *M. ulcerans* to humans [20-22]. A summary of our findings is shown in Table 1, including the new data

presented in this study that specifically address criteria 1-3.

Table 1: Summary of evidence to indict mosquitoes as vectors of *M. ulcerans*

Barnett Criterion	Evidence	Reference
1. Acquire from source reservoir	*M. ulcerans* genome sequences from possum excreta matches genomes recovered from mosquitoes in same area	This study
2. Close links with infected hosts	*M. ulcerans* genome sequences from humans matches genome recovered from mosquitoes in same area. Mosquito bloodmeal analysis confirms human-possum link.	This study
3. Repeat detections from candidate vector	*M. ulcerans* detected with mosquitoes in seven separate field surveys	[15,21], this study
4. Experimental demonstration of transmission	Mosquito-*M. ulcerans* mechanical transmission demonstrated using murine contaminated skin model	[22]

In the research presented here, based on a very substantial field survey of >65,000 mosquitoes

undertaken over four months in 2019 and 2020, and four smaller *ad hoc* surveys conducted between 2016

and 2021 along the Mornington Peninsula. The study area encompasses an area of 350 km^2 and is located

90 km south of Melbourne, the capital city of Victoria [10] (Figure 1). The area was originally covered in low-

lying coastal vegetation [10], receives an average annual rainfall of 740 mm, and sits at an average elevation of

60 metres above sea-level [24]. The Mornington Peninsula region continues to maintain among the highest

incidences of Buruli ulcer in the world [25] with a conservative local incidence estimate of 55 human

Nature Microbiology

118   cases/100,000 population in 2022 [5] [26]. Here, we employed spatial clustering analyses, bacterial enrichment

119   genome sequencing and mosquito blood meal metabarcoding to continue building a hierarchy of evidence

120   that supports mosquitoes as vectors of *M. ulcerans* from local wildlife reservoirs to humans*.*

122 Material and methods

123 Study Site

124   Insects were collected from the Mornington Peninsula suburbs of Rye (population 8,416), Blairgowrie

125   (population 2,313), Tootgarook (population 2,869) and Capel Sound (population 4,930) [23] (Figure 1).

127 Arthropod collection and identification

Mosquito trapping campaigns used Biogent Sentinal (BGS) traps (Biogent) that were baited with dry ice

pellets to provide a source of CO_2 over an intended 12-hour period. BGS traps were set out at dusk and

collected at dawn in shaded locations on the grassed edges of the roadways in the study area. GPS locations

for all traps were recorded with data collection managed using *Atlas of Medical Entomology* (Gaia Resources,

V3.4.4). Trapped mosquitoes were knocked down with CO_2 by placing the catch-bag in dry ice before being

transported back to the laboratory and kept at -20°C until processing. Mosquito species were morphologically

identified using a stereo dissecting microscope (Nikon, SMZ800N) and reference to taxonomic keys [27-29].

To assess the potential presence of *M. ulcerans* beyond mosquitoes, other arthropods were collected

using Yellow Sticky Traps (YST) and Sticky Ovitraps (SO). Two YST and SO were placed in residential properties

where householders had previously noted insect activity to the researchers [9]. The SO traps were placed on

the ground and had hay grass infusion (3 Jack Rabbit (clover/lucerne) pellets (Laucke Mills, Barossa Valley,

SA, Australia) in 500 mL water) added to them, while the YST (Bugs for Bugs, Toowoomba, QLD, Australia)

were placed on the ground with a 14 cm plant tag plastic T-support (Garden City Plastics, Dandenong, VIC,

Australia). Within three to four days of being set, residents were asked to pack up the YST and SO by covering

the sticky card with a plastic film, and return the sealed traps to the laboratory, where they were stored at -

20°C. Non-mosquito arthropods were morphologically identified to family level and, if PCR positive for *M.*

ulcerans, were DNA barcoded for species confirmation by targeting the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI)

gene [30].

DNA extraction from mosquitoes

Mosquitoes were sorted by species per trap and by sex and then pooled in 2 mL o-ring tubes, with a maximum

of 15 individuals in each pool. A subset of *Ae. notoscriptus* mosquitoes were also screened individually.

Mosquitoe(s) were homogenised with 10 x 1.0 mm zirconia-silica beads (BioSpec Products), with 597 μL of

Buffer RLT and 2.8 μL of carrier RNA. Homogenisation was performed using a TissueLyser II (Qiagen) at 30

oscillations/sec for 100 sec, repeated twice. Tubes were then centrifuged at 16,000 g for 3 mins. A 550 μL

volume of supernatant was transferred into a 96 well deep well plate, with extraction performed as is the

protocol for the BioSprint 96 One-For-All Vet Kit (Qiagen). Every eleventh of twelve wells in a 96-well plate

was a blank DNA extraction control (seven in total) and a synthetic IS2404 positive control was spiked into

one of these seven wells to act as a positive extraction control. Extraction was performed on a KingFisher™

Flex Magnetic Particle Processors (Thermo Scientific).

DNA extraction from arthropods

Arthropods other than mosquitoes collected on YST or SO were removed from the sticky cards and placed in

1.5 mL microtubes (Eppendorf). Insects were separated by family and trap location, and were pooled with a

maximum of 10 individuals from each family per 1.5 mL tube. Samples were extracted non-destructively to

allow species confirmation if positive detections occurred. DNA was extracted using the ISOLATE II Genomic

DNA Kit (Bioline). Briefly, 25 μL of Proteinase K and 180 μL of Lysis Buffer GL was added to each tube with

samples incubated overnight at 56°C. Following incubation, the insects were removed and stored to allow

for further morphological identification if required, with the DNA extraction completed on the incubation

solution as per manufacturer instructions.

Synthetic PCR positive control

A synthetic PCR positive control DNA molecule was designed to discriminate false positives due to

contamination with positive control DNA versus the authentic IS2404 amplicon. The synthetic positive control

was designed to have an amplicon size of 120 bp to easily differentiate from a true IS2404 PCR positive (59

bp) [16]. The synthetic positive was added at the DNA extraction stage on all 96-well plates, as a positive control

for this step and for the subsequent qPCR. The additional DNA sequence used to construct the synthetic

positive control was randomly selected from a DNA sequence unlikely to be in the laboratory, in this case,

Irrawaddy Dolphin (MK032252).

The synthetic positive control had the sequence: 5' –

TCCTAAAGCACCACGCAGCATCTATCGCGAGCTTAATCACCATGCCGCGTCCAACGCGATCCCCGCTCGGCAGGGATC

CCTCTTCTCGCACCGGGCCACAATCCACTGGGGTCGCTATGA – 3' and was synthesised as an ssDNA oligo (Sigma-

Aldrich). The synthesised IS2404 synthetic positive was resuspended in nuclease-free water and diluted to

0.001 pM, with 2 µL being used for extraction and positive controls. To confirm the presence of a true positive

as opposed to contamination, 5 µL of the qPCR product was added to 1 µL of DNA Gel Loading Dye 6X (Thermo

Scientific[TM]) and run on a 2 % agarose gel (TopVision Agarose Tablets, Thermo Scientific[TM]), with 1% SYBR

Safe DNA Gel Stain (Invitrogen[TM]). The size of any positive IS2404 detection was assessed against 2 µL of 100

bp DNA Ladder (Promega) and run at 50 V for 1.5 hrs before being visualised with an EZ Gel Documentation

System (Bio-Rad). Before the screening of insects commenced, the synthetic positive control for IS2404 was

successfully designed and tested. By running the amplified PCR products on an agarose gel with the synthetic

positive control and a real positive control, visual differentiation between a synthetic positive occurring at

120 bp and a true positive at 59 bp (Figure S1).

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Screening insects by qPCR for *M. ulcerans*

The qPCR screening was performed using three independent assays IS2404, IS2606 and KR [16]. All samples

were first screened with the IS2404 qPCR; if a positive was detected, additional confirmation was attempted

with IS2606 and KR qPCR assays. Reactions were performed using 7.5 μL TaqMan[TM] Fast Universal PCR Master

Mix (2X), no AmpErase[TM] UNG (Applied Biosystems[TM]), 1 μL of the primer-probe mix, 2 μL of DNA and 4.5 μL

of nuclease-free water. A final primer-probe concentration for the IS2404 assay was as follows:

250:650:450nM for the forward primer, reverse primer and probe and 800:800:220nM for the forward

primer, reverse primer and probe for the IS2606 and KR assay. A 2 μL volume of the synthetic positive control

was added for the IS2404 reactions, whereas 2 μL of *M. ulcerans* DNA was used for IS2606 and KR. All

reactions included six no-template extraction controls and were run in a 96 well plate format. Cycling

conditions were as follows: denaturation at 95°C for 2 mins followed by 45 cycles at 95°C for 10 sec and 60°C

for 30 sec, with qPCR performed on a QuantStudio[TM] 5 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems[TM]).

Positives were classified as reactions that produced a cycle quantification (Cq) value less than 40. Data were

analysed using the QuantStudio[TM] Design and Analysis Software v1.4.3 with the Delta Rn threshold set at 0.04

for IS2404 and IS2606 and Delta Rn threshold of 0.1 for KR. The maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) per

1,000 mosquitoes tested (bias corrected MLE for point estimation of infection rate and a skew-corrected

score confidence intervals) was calculated from the pooled samples as described [31]. Fisher's Exact test for

assessing the significance of differences in IS2404 PCR positivity between mosquito species was calculated in

R 4.0.2 [32].

All qPCR screening was performed blind with mixed-species 96-well plates. The synthetic positive control was

added at the DNA extraction phase to one well of each plate and to qPCR plates to check that both extraction

and qPCR detections were successful. All no-template controls (extraction and qPCR stage) were checked to

ensure they remained negative, and that synthetic positive controls were detected for both the DNA

extraction and qPCR stage in each run. Positive samples were run on agarose gels to confirm they were true

positives and not contamination from the synthetic positive control.

An IS2404 qPCR standard curve was prepared using 10-fold serial dilutions of *M. ulcerans* genomic DNA, with

quadruplicate testing of each dilution. The DNA was extracted from *M. ulcerans* JKD8049 as described, and

quantified using fluorimetry (Qubit, dsDNA HS ThermoFisher Scientific) [22]. A limit-of-detection was defined

as the lowest dilution that returned a positive signal for all four replicates. Genome equivalents were

calculated based on the estimated mass of the *M. ulcerans* genome of 5.7 femtograms [22]. IS*2404* cycle

threshold (Ct) values were converted to genome equivalents (GE) to estimate bacterial load within a sample

by reference to a standard curve (r^2 = 0.9956, y = [-3.829Ln(x)+37.17]*Z, where y = Ct and x = amount of DNA

[fg] and Z = the dilution factor]) (Figure S2). An IS2404 qPCR standard curve was fitted using non-linear

regression in GraphPad Prism (v9.5.1).

Mycobacterium ulcerans genome sequencing

Whole-genome sequencing was performed directly on DNA extracted from selected PCR positive mosquito

samples and possum excreta specimens using a hybridisation capture approach, based on 120 nucleotide

RNA baits spanning the 5.8 Mbp chromosome of the the *M. ulcerans* JKD8049 reference genome

[Bioproject ID: PRJNA771185] (Datafile S1) (SureSelect Target enrichment system, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA,

USA) and the Illumina *Nextera Flex for Enrichment with RNA Probes* protocol [33]. Resulting sequence reads

were submitted to NCBI GenBank and are available under Bioproject PRJNA943595 (Table S2).

Mycobacterium ulcerans SNP calling, SNP imputation and phylogenetic analysis

236   To compare genomic variations between *M. ulcerans* clinical isolate genome sequences and sequence

237   capture enrichment datasets, we mapped the sequence reads and called nucleotide variations using *Snippy*

238   (v4.4.5) against a finished *M. ulcerans* reference chromosome, reconstructed from a Victorian clinical

239   isolate (JKD8049; GenBank accession: NZ_CP085200.1) (https://github.com/tseemann/snippy). While

Nature Microbiology

standard parameters, including a minimum coverage of 10x were used for the clinical isolates and two

possum sequence capture datasets, the mosquito sequence capture datasets had lower read coverage,

necessitating the adjustment of parameters. Thus, the minimum coverage threshold was lowered to 1x to

facilitate SNP calling for the mosquito sequence capture datasets. The resulting SNPs were combined with

117 SNPs obtained from a reference set of 36 *M. ulcerans* genomes that represented the previously defined

population structure of the pathogen in Victoria [35]. Due to the low read coverage however, the number of

core variable nucleotide positions (VNPs) mapped among the five sequence capture datasets was variable

(range: 22 - 112 VNPs).

To enable inclusion of the sequence capture datasets that had missing SNP sites we employed a

multivariate imputation approach, utilising the *IterativeImputer* function from *scikit-learn*[36].

The combined alignment of 117 core genome SNPs from the sequence capture datasets and clinical isolate

genomes served as the foundation for inferring a maximum likelihood phylogeny. This phylogeny was

established using the GTR model of nucleotide substitution and executed with FastTree (v2.1.10) [34]. The

incorporation of R packages phytools (v1.0-1) [37]and mapdata (v2.3.1) [38] allowed for the alignment of tree

tips against a base map, facilitating the visualisation of geographical origins of the samples. Further details,

including the code employed for missing SNP imputation and phylogeographic analysis, can be found in our

GitHub repository: https://github.com/abuultjens/Mosquito_possum_human_genomic_analysis.

Aedes notoscriptus typing and species confirmation sequencing

Mosquito genotyping was performed by sequence comparisons of a partial fragment of the cytochrome c

oxidase subunit I (COI) gene [30].   DNA was extracted using the above protocols. PCR was performed using 5

µL of 5x MyFi Reaction Buffer, 1 µL of MyFi DNA polymerase, 5 µL of DNA, and primer concentrations as

described [39], with reaction made up to 25 µL with nuclease-free water. Reaction conditions were as follows

for COI, initial denaturation at 95 °C for 1 min, followed by 35 cycles at 95°C for 20 sec, 46°C for 20 sec, and

72°C for 60 sec before a final extension at 72°C for 5 mins. A 5µL volume of the amplified PCR product was

Nature Microbiology

added to 1 µL of DNA Gel Loading Dye 6X (Thermo Scientific™) and run on a 1 % agarose gel (TopVision

Agarose Tablets, Thermo Scientific™), with 1% SYBR Safe DNA Gel Stain (Invitrogen™). 2 µL of 100 bp DNA

Ladder (Promega) was added to confirm amplicons size and run at 100 V for 45 mins. PCR products that

produced bands of the correct size were purified using the ISOLATE II PCR and Gel Kit (Bioline) as per

manufacturer's protocol and submitted for sequencing using an Applied Biosystems 3730xl capillary analyser

(Macrogen), with sequencing occurring on both strands. Sequences were analysed in Geneious Prime

(v2019.2.1) and trimmed to high-quality bases, aligned using ClustalW v2.1 and trimmed to a consensus

region, *Ae. notoscriptus* COI (874 bp) and for species identification COI (816-882 bp). Sequences were

analysed using blastn against the NCBI database. COI sequences generated for species identification are

available under accession numbers OQ600123-4 and COI sequences for *Ae. notoscriptus* phylogenetics under

accession numbers OQ588831-67 (Table S2).

Mosquito bloodmeal analysis

Ninety blood-fed mosquitoes were identified as having an engorged abdomen and stilling having a red

pigment (Sella score 2-3) indicating a fresh bloodmeal and were dissected with a sterile scalpel blade. Blood

from the dissected abdomen was absorbed onto a 3 x 20 mm piece of a Whatman FTA™ card (Merck) and

placed in a 2 mL tube. DNA was extracted from the FTA™ card using an ISOLATE II Genomic DNA Kit (Bioline)

with a pre-lysis in 180 µL of Lysis Buffer GL and 25 µL Proteinase K for 2 hours before completing the

extraction as per manufacturer's protocol. Extracted DNA was amplified for Cyt *b* using primers previously

described (Townzen et al. 2008), with MyTaq™ HS Red Mix (Bioline), thermocycling conditions used were as

follows: 95°C for 1 min, 30 cycles of 95°C for 15 secs, 50°C for 20 sec, 72°C for 20 sec, with a final extension

at 72°C for 2 mins. Negative extraction and negative PCR controls were included with each PCR reaction. 5

µL of the amplified products was run on a 1% agarose gel containing 0.1% SYBR Safe DNA gel stain (Invitrogen)

and visualised with a G:BOX Syngene blue light visualisation instrument. If a band was visualised at ~480 bp

the PCR product was purified using an ISOLATE II PCR and Gel Kit (Bioline).

PCR products were quantified using a Qubit (Invitrogen) Fluorometer with an HS dsDNA kit. Sequencing

libraries were prepared using 10 ng of purified PCR product with a NEXTFLEX® Rapid XP DNA-Seq Kit

(PerkinElmer) barcoded using NEXTFLEX® UDI Barcodes (PerkinElmer). As a result, 70 bloodmeal libraries

were sequenced, as well as 6 PCR negative control and 3 extraction negatives on a NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina),

with 2 Gb requested per sample.

Sequence data were analysed by identifying poor-quality reads using Rcorrector (Song & Florea, 2015) and

removed with TrimGalore v0.6.5 (Krueger 2019). De novo assembly was performed on the remaining

sequence reads using Trinity v2.8.6 (Grabherr et al., 2011). The resulting contigs were filtered to be between

400-480bp and analysed using BLASTN (Altschul et al. 1990) against the nucleotide database publicly

available on the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website. The resulting hits were

filtered to exclude those sequences which had < 97% sequence identity to the database. Contigs identified

as a host bloodmeal were confirmed by mapping raw reads using BWA-MEM v0.7.17 (Li & Durbin, 2009).

Sequence reads were submitted to Genbank (Table S2).

305 Mosquito phylogenetic analysis

Mosquito genotyping was performed with COI as this genetic marker has previously been used to identify

potential cryptic species within *Ae. notoscriptus* and can provide better resolution than other markers such

as ND5, CAD or EPIC (Exon-Primed Intro Crossing) markers [39]. Phylogenetic analysis was performed on

trimmed consensus regions of *Ae. notoscriptus* COI. The substitution model was selected using jModelTest2

v2.1.10, with the topology taking the best of nearest neighbour interchange, subtree pruning and regrafting

[40]. The most appropriate substitution model was selected based on the Akaike information criterion.

Maximum-likelihood trees were constructed in PhyML v3.3.2 with 1,000 bootstrap replicates; the gamma

distribution parameter was used to estimate rate variation across sites [41]. The Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano (HKY)

substitution model was selected for the COI tree.

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Geographical data acquisition and spatial cluster analysis

The population map was created in qGIS v2.18.20 [42], using a 1 km^2 population grid [43] with 2011 Victorian

mesh block data. Since 2004, Buruli ulcer has been a notifiable condition in Victoria, requiring Health

Department reporting by doctors and laboratories. De-identified case notification data of Buruli ulcer

patients who had laboratory-confirmed *M. ulcerans* infection and who lived on the Mornington Peninsula

during the years 2019-2020 were provided by the Victorian Department of Health. The cases were defined

as patients with a clinical lesion that was diagnosed using IS2404 qPCR and culture [16]. To conduct high-

resolution spatial analyses, the data were aggregated at the mesh block level, the smallest geographical

census units which typically contain 30-60 dwellings. The 2011 Victorian mesh block boundaries and the

Victorian mesh block census population counts datasets were obtained from the Australian Bureau of

Statistics (ABS) website [44]. The datasets were joined using the unique mesh block IDs using the QGIS v.3.16.7

geographic information system software [45]. The latitude and longitude (projected in GDA94) were derived

from the centroids of the mesh block polygon. The dataset was then down-sampled to include only the

Mornington Peninsula study area, specifically the Point Nepean and Rosebud-McCrae ABS level 2 Statistical

Area.

SaTScan version 10.1.0 [46] was utilised to identify spatial clusters among trapped mosquitoes positive for *M.*

ulcerans, possum excreta positive for *M. ulcerans*, and human Buruli ulcer cases. The software searches for

instances where the observed number of spatial incidences exceeds the expected number within a circular

window of varying size across a defined study area. A log likelihood ratio statistic is calculated for each

window by comparing the number of observed and expected cases inside and outside the circle against the

assumption of randomly distributed cases. In addition to the most likely cluster, there are usually secondary

clusters with almost as high likelihood that substantially overlap with the primary clusters. These secondary

clusters can be indicative of sub-clusters within the primary cluster or potentially distinct clusters that are

spatially adjacent to the primary cluster. The Mornington Peninsula surveillance data used in these analyses

consisted of trapped mosquitoes (177 traps screened for IS2404 collected: 12/11/19 to 20/03/20), *M.*

ulcerans detected in possum excreta collected during the summer (December to February) of 2019 using data

from a previous study [47] and notified human Buruli ulcer cases from the study area in the years 2019-2020.

The use of possum excreta collected during the summer was appropriate as Buruli ulcer transmission is most

likely to occur during that time of year [48,49]. For each of the three data sources (trapped mosquitoes, possum

excreta, and human cases), the null hypothesis assumes that *M. ulcerans* detections or Buruli ulcer cases are

uniformly distributed across the study area, where the alternative hypothesis suggests that there may be

certain locations with higher rates than expected if the risk was evenly distributed. Primary and secondary

clusters were accepted only if the secondary clusters did not overlap with previously reported clusters with

a higher likelihood. Given that the trapped mosquito and possum excreta IS2404 PCR results were binary

(positive or negative), a Bernoulli model was used to scan for spatial clusters, with the maximum cluster size

set to 50% of the population size. The human Buruli ulcer case data aggregated at the mesh block level varied

in number, with some mesh blocks having zero cases and others having one or more. We applied the Poisson

probability model to the notified Buruli ulcer case counts, using a background population at risk that was

derived from the 2011 population census. The maximum cluster size was limited to 14,481 individuals, 10%

of the total population at risk. To determine the likelihood of a triple-cluster overlap between the three

SaTScan analyses occurring by chance, we conducted a permutation test (https://github.com/abuultjens/BU-

3-way-SatScan). In each of 10,000 iterations, the geographical coordinates for each variable were randomly

shuffled. The number of SaTScan clusters with triple overlap was determined using the 'sf' package [50] in the

R statistical programming language [51].

Results

Mosquito surveys of the Mornington Peninsula

A primary goal of this research was to test the hypothesis that mosquitoes are associated with *M. ulcerans*

transmission, as reflected by IS2404 PCR positivity at a certain frequency in areas of the Mornington

Peninsula with human Buruli ulcer cases. A total of 73,580 mosquitoes were collected, consisting of 72,263

females (Table 2) and 1,317 males (Table S2). The majority (90%) of these insects were collected in the large

survey of 2019-2020 (Datafile S2). Across all five surveys, 26 different mosquito species were collected

covering six genera (Table 2). The most dominant species identified during the 2019-2020 survey was *Cx.*

molestus accounting for 42% of mosquitoes, followed by *Ae. notoscriptus* (35%) and *Cx. australicus* (8%).

Twenty-three other species comprised the remaining 15% of mosquitoes. The distribution of the two

dominant species across the survey area is shown in Figure 2. This mapping revealed an asymmetric

distribution of each species, with *Ae. notoscriptus* dominant to the eastern end and *Cx. molestus* dominant

towards the western end of the Peninsula (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Dominant mosquito species distribution across the Mornington Peninsula. *Map showing the*

proportional distribution of the two dominant mosquito species trapped during 2019/2020. The pie charts are

an aggregation of the 180 different trap sites. Trap groups containing mosquitoes that were PCR positive for

M. ulcerans are also indicated. Shown too, are the meshblock statistical areas, with those in red containing

at least one human Buruli ulcer *case diagnosed in 2019-2020.*

M. ulcerans *PCR positive mosquitoes were predominantly* Aedes notoscriptus

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The IS2404 qPCR assay was used to infer the presence of *M. ulcerans* in association with mosquitoes [16]. Of

the 73,580 mosquitoes trapped across all years, 18,610 (25%) were screened by IS2404 qPCR for the presence

of *M. ulcerans* (Table 2). *M. ulcerans* qPCR positives were observed in 53 pools or individuals of *Ae.*

notoscriptus, with detections occurring in each year across all survey events (Figure 2, Table 2). Only one

other mosquito species tested IS*2404* positive, which was a two-insect pool of *Ae. camptorhynchus* (Table 3).

The positive association between *M. ulcerans* and *Ae. notoscriptus* compared to other mosquitoes, in

particular the other abundant mosquito species, *Cx. molestus*, was highly significant (p<0.0001, Fisher's exact

test).

Subsets of *Ae. notoscriptus* were screened individually to better estimate the prevalence of *M. ulcerans*

positive mosquitoes in this species. Individually tested mosquitoes included all of the 2017/2018 collection

comprising 367/367 individuals with 8 positives (2.2%), 448/4,330 of the 2019/2020 collection with 3

positives (0.67%), and all 1,247 individuals of the 2021 collection with 7 positives (0.56%) (Table S3). Thus,

based on screening individual insects*,* 18/2,062 (0.87%) *Ae. notoscriptus* were IS2404 PCR positive. All other

Ae. notoscriptus and other mosquito species in this study were screened in pools (up to 15 insects per pool)

with 24/747 *Ae. notoscriptus* pools (3%), PCR positive (Table S4).

Table 2. Female mosquitoes trapped on the Mornington Peninsula and screened by IS2404 PCR.

Species	No. of mosquitoes/No. mono-species pools screened for *M.ulcerans* (No. pools positive for *M. ulcerans*, IS*2404**)					
	Dec 2016 - Apr 2017	Nov 2017- May 2018	Dec 2018- May 2019	Nov 2019- Mar 2020	Feb 2021- Mar 2021	Total
Ae. alboannulatus	9/9	4/4	3/3	183/96	21/21	220/133
Ae. australis	0	0	0	1/0	0	1/0
Ae. bancroftianus	0	0	0	3/2	0	3/2
Ae. camptorhynchus	258/258	5/5	0	121/64 **(1)**	8/8	392/335 **(1)**
Ae. clelandi	0	0	0	41/32	0	41/32
Ae. flavifrons	1/1	0	0	31/26	13/13	45/40

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Ae. imperfectus	0	0	0	266/226	0	226/226
Ae. notoscriptus	174/174 **(2)**	367/367 **(8)**	1,793/1,779 **(15)**	23,360/4,330 **(14)**	1,247/1,247 **(7)**	26,941/7,897 **(46)**
Ae. rubrithorax	9/9	27/27	230/230	1,402/335	45/45	1,713/646
Ae. sagax	0	0	0	2/2	0	2/2
Ae. theobaldi	0	0	0	1/1	0	1/1
Ae. vigilax	0	0	0	2/0	0	2/0
Ae. vittiger	0	0	0	2/0	0	2/0
An. annulipes	1/1	24/24	4/4	751/376	1/1	781/406
An. atratipes	0	0	0	2/0	0	2/0
Cq. linealis	89/89	142/142	2/2	1,254/258	11/11	1,498/502
Cu. inconspicua	0	0	0	2/2	3/3	5/5
Cx. annulirostris	0	3/3	0	42/1	0	45/4
Cx. australicus	3/3	198/198	17/17	4,910/534	33/33	5,161/785
Cx. cylindricus	0	0	2/2	160/81	0	162/83
Cx. globocoxitus	0	24/24	0	3,207/854	9/9	3,240/887
Cx. molestus	61/61	29/29	384/377	28,107/3,308	1,465/1,465	30,046/5,240
Cx. orbostiensis	0	0	0	131/69	0	131/69
Cx. quinquefasciatus	3/3	257/257	37/37	1,098/401	163/163	1,558/861
Tp. atripes	0	0	0	18/0	12/12	30/12
Tp. tasmaniensis	0	0	0	15/13	0	15/13
Total	**608/608 (2)**	**1,080/1,080 (8)**	**2,512/2,451 (15)**	**65,112/11,011 (15)**	**3,031/3,031 (7)**	**72,263/18,181 (47)**

* pool size ranged from 1 individual up to 15 individuals

Of the 46 *Ae. notoscriptus* that tested positive for IS2404, 26 (56%) were confirmed positive for IS2606 and

31 (67%) for KR, with 24 (52%) pools positive by all three qPCR assays (Table S3). Of the 46 IS2404 positive

Ae. notoscriptus, eight (17%) pools were not tested using the IS2606 assay and one (2%) pool using the KR

assay due to limited template DNA available. The average Ct value for IS2404 positive *Ae. notoscriptus* was

36.00 (range 29.74-39.65). The average Ct value for IS2606 was 37.73 (range 32.49-45.00), and the average

Ct value for KR was 34.19 (range 28.52-39.26). With reference to an IS2404 qPCR standard curve (Figure S2),

we estimated the *M. ulcerans* burden per mosquito. The mean bacterial genome equivalents (GE) per insect

was 294 GE (range: 11 – 4200) (Table S3). The MLE of estimated infection rate for all *Ae. notoscriptus* was

5.88 based on the IS2404 *M. ulcerans* qPCR-positive mosquitoes per 1,000 tested (95% CI 4.37-7.76) for all

Ae. notoscriptus tested over the years and 2.96 for *Ae. camptorhynchus* (95% CI 0.17-14.19) (Table 3).

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IS2404 PCR positive Ae. notoscriptus and possum excreta yield M. ulcerans genomic SNP profiles that match human patient isolates

Genomic epidemiological studies have shown there are characteristic SNP signatures associated with *M.*

ulcerans clinical isolates from specific endemic areas in southeastern Australia [35]. To test if the *M. ulcerans*

genotypes present in mosquitoes from our study area matched that found in possum excreta and human

Buruli ulcer cases in the same region, we conducted genome sequence enrichment. This method facilitates

whole genome sequence analysis of target pathogen genomes directly from complex microbial samples,

when competing background DNA precludes sequencing the target pathogen genome directly. As reported

in other sequence enrichment studies, we observed decreasing genome sequence recovery with decreasing

pathogen load, as indicated by increasing IS2404 Ct values (Figure 3A) [52]. Nevertheless, DNA sequence reads

were obtained from five IS2404 positive mosquitoes and two IS2404 positive possum excreta specimens, the

latter specimens collected as part of a large field survey of *M. ulcerans* in Australian native possum excreta

in the region [53]. While DNA sequence reads were obtained across the length of the 5.6Mbp *M. ulcerans*

reference chromosome, for all five mosquitoes and the two possum excreta specimens, only the excreta

specimens (IS2404 Ct values <23) and three of the five mosquito DNA extracts (ID: 5675, Ct 32.62; ID: 226, Ct

33.47; ID: 819, Ct 31.20) yielded sufficient *M. ulcerans* reads for SNP-calling (Figure 3B).

To assess the relatedness of *M. ulcerans* genomes from mosquito and excreta to human *M. ulcerans* isolates,

we inferred a phylogeny using a 5.6Mbp local *M. ulcerans* reference chromosome and sequence reads from

36 published clinical *M. ulcerans* genomes from southeastern Australia [35], based on a core genome alignment

with 117 SNP positions. These 36 genomes were selected because they spanned our previously reported

population structure of *M. ulcerans* in this locale (Table S1) [35]. Alignment of the five mosquito and two excreta

sequence capture datasets revealed reads mapping across the length of the *M.ulcerans* chromosome -

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confirming the presence of the pathogen on (or in) *Ae. notoscriptus* and in the possum faecal material (Figure

3B).

Despite chromosome-wide read mapping for the seven sequence capture datasets, the relatively low and

incomplete coverage meant that these datasets didn't have reads spanning all 117 variable loci (range: 22-

112 sites) (Figure 3B). Thus, to enable the inclusion of the sequence capture datasets into a phylogenomic

analysis of 117 core SNPs, a multivariate statistical approach using an imputation model was employed

(Figure S3A). The model was trained on the 117 SNPs from the core genome alignment of all 36 clinical

isolates to predict with high confidence (impute) the missing SNP alleles of the sequence capture datasets

(see methods). To validate the model, we initially masked 95 random SNP sites as missing data for a random

set of five of the 36 clinical isolates, leaving 22 SNPs. Using the multivariate imputation model trained on the

full 117 sites of the remaining 31 clinical isolate genomes, we predicted the missing alleles of the five masked

clinical isolates (Figure S3A). This approach yielded a mean accuracy of 97% in correctly predicting missing

alleles, given the 22 available SNPs. To ensure the model was robust, we randomly selected five *M. ulcerans*

clinical isolate genomes and then varied the number of masked chromosome SNP sites to simulate missing

data and replicated this process 100x*.* This analysis showed the high performance of the imputation model,

with a mean accuracy of 94% when 100/117 SNP sites were randomly masked and then imputed (Figure S3B).

Using the validated imputation model to predict the missing alleles for the five sequence capture datasets

and create a sequence alignment (Dataset S3), a maximum likelihood tree was inferred using all 117 variable

sites with location of tree tips aligned with geographic origin. This phylogeny showed possum excreta and

mosquito *M. ulcerans* genotypes co-clustered with each other and with human *M. ulcerans* isolates from the

Mornington Peninsula, with 0-5 SNP differences between any pairwise comparison (Figure 3C). This pattern

is consistent with a shared transmission cycle between possums, mosquitoes and humans. Individual

phylogenies inferred with and without SNP allele imputation showed that imputation did not create

artifactual tree topologies (Figure S4).

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Figure 3. Comparison of M. ulcerans genome from human Buruli ulcer cases compared with sequences recovered from possum excreta and mosquitoes on the Mornington Peninsula. (A) Summary of IS2404 qPCR screening of primary samples and the sequence capture libraries pre- and post-enrichment. Note that possum excreta were enriched as barcoded sequence library pools so share the same pre- and post-enrichment Ct values; (B) Artemis coverage plots depicting sequence capture reads mapped to the M. ulcerans JKD8409 chromosome from possum excreta samples and three qPCR positive mosquitoes (labels are: numbers of

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mapped reads|percentage of total chromosome bases mapped|number of core Variable Nucleotide Positions

[VNPs] covered). Grey horizontal bar above the above the chromosome map depicts the sites of 117 core SNPs

(black inverted triangles); (C) Maximum-likelihood phylogeny inferred from an alignment of 117 core-genome

SNPs using reads mapped to the JKD8049 reference chromosome, and with tips aligned with environmental

sample origin or patient origin. Dataset includes reads from the five environmental samples listed in panel

with >21 VNPs (A), and a reference collection of 36 M. ulcerans genomes representing the genomic diversity

of the M. ulcerans population in southeastern Australia [35]. The shortest vertical branch length represents a

single SNP difference, as per the scale bar.

Genetic characterisation of Ae. notoscriptus *collected on the Mornington Peninsula*

To assess if *M. ulcerans* presence was associated with a particular clade of *Ae. notoscriptus* on the Mornington Peninsula we compared COI gene sequences for 18 *M. ulcerans* positive (confirmed by all IS2404, IS2606 and KR qPCR assays) *Ae. notoscriptus* and 19 *M. ulcerans* negative *Ae. notoscriptus* (Figure 2). Based on the COI phylogenetic tree, *Ae. notoscriptus* from the Mornington Peninsula spanned the three previously identified clades and there was no association between *M. ulcerans* and a particular mosquito lineage (Figure S5) [39].

Table 3. The number *of M. ulcerans* positive pools tested by insertion sequence IS2404 qPCR and Maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of *M. ulcerans* per 1,000 mosquitoes trapped in the Mornington Peninsula.

Species	No. mosquitoes	No. positive/No. pools tested	MLE‡	95% Confidence interval
Ae. alboannulatus	133	0/97	0	0-27.71
Ae. bancroftianus	2	0/2	0	0-657.62
Ae. camptorhynchus	335	1/85	2.96	0.17-14.19
Ae. clelandi	32	0/3	0	0-67.97

Ae. flavifrons	40	0/16	0	0-78.10
Ae. imperfectus	226	0/27	0	0-14.96
Ae. notoscriptus	7897	46/2937	5.88	4.37-7.76
Ae. rubithorax	646	0/220	0	0-5.84
Ae. sagax	2	0/1	0	0-545.52
Ae. theobaldi	1	0/1	0	0-793.45
An. annulipes	406	0/148	0	0-9.16
Cq. linealis	502	0/139	0	0-7.43
Cu. Inconspicua	5	0/4	0	0-408.11
Cx. annulirostris	4	0/3	0	0-450.75
Cx. australicus	785	0/150	0	0-4.76
Cx. cylindricus	83	0/38	0	0-41.60
Cx. globocoxitus	887	0/150	0	0-4.22
Cx. molestus	5240	0/609	0	0-0.73
Cx. orbostiensis	69	0/9	0	0-42.95
Cx. quinquefasciatus	861	0/237	0	0-4.39
Tp. atripes	12	0/9	0	0-230.35
Tp. tasmaniensis	13	0/10	0	0-215.26

491 ‡MLE bias was corrected when ≥ 1 pool was positive.

IS2404 PCR screening of arthropods other than mosquitoes

We also investigated the association of *M. ulcerans* with arthropods other than mosquitoes in the region

using yellow sticky traps (YST) and sticky ovitraps (SO). A total of 21,000 specimens were collected and sorted

from 278 YST and 33 SO traps. We were able to classify 2,696 as insects that may bite or pierce human skin

(Table 4). Flies were the largest group collected on the sticky traps. YSTs collected more insects than the SOs,

but this was proportional to the number of traps set (Table 4). Of the 2,696 insects screened by PCR, only

two flies tested positive for *M. ulcerans* (Table S3). Both flies had high Ct values for IS2404 (Ct 35.92 and

37.54) and each sample was only confirmed for either IS2606 or KR assay (Table S3), but not with all three

assays. Both insects were blowflies (*Calliphora hilli* Patton) based on morphology and sequencing of the COI

region with sequences having >99.86 nt identity to *C. hilli* (Table S1).

Table 4. Number of arthropods collected on Yellow Sticky Traps (YST) and Sticky Ovitraps (SO) on the

Mornington Peninsula that might bite or pierce human skin.

Trap	Ants	Biting midges	Flies	Mosquitoes	Spiders	Ticks	Wasps	Total
YST	28	58	1,562	10	76	21	562	2,317
SO	70	1	144	11	141	4	8	379
Total	98	59	1,706	21	217	25	570	2,696

Mosquito bloodmeal analysis

Of the mosquitoes collected, a proportion of individuals identified as being engorged (bloodfed) were PCR

screened and the resulting amplicon sequenced for Cytochrome B (CytB) to identify host bloodmeal sources.

A total of 90 individual engorged mosquitoes were extracted, with 70 DNA preparations producing high

quality amplicons that were of sufficient concentration to permit Illumina amplicon sequencing. After quality

filtering, 36 individuals were identified as having had a recent bloodmeal: 14 *Cx. molestus*, 13 *Ae.*

notoscriptus, 2 *Ae. rubrithorax*, 2 *Cx. globocoxitus*, 2 *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, 2 *Cq. linealis* and 1 *Cx. australicus*.

Of the bloodmeals detected, common ringtail possum was the most commonly identified with 20 detections

across the 36 samples, followed by 17 blackbirds, 13 humans, 11 red wattle birds, and 5 little wattle birds; a

further 16 bloodmeals identified 10 minor host species (Figure 4, Figure S6). Dual bloodmeals were

commonly identified, with 55% (20/36) of individuals having more than one bloodmeal identified.

Additionally, two mosquitoes had evidence of three different bloodmeal sources within an individual insect.

Three individuals (2 x *Ae. notoscriptus* and 1 x *Ae. rubrithorax*) were also identified as having dual bloodmeals

from ringtail possum and human origins (Figure 4).

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Figure 4. Mosquito blood meal analysis. Summary of cytochrome B (Cytb) gene sequences from the 36

bloodfed mosquitoes to identify host bloodmeal sources . A blue circle indicates positive for host blood

source; the larger the circle, the more individual mosquitoes with an identical bloodmeal profile. Red boxes

indicate individual mosquitoes which have dual bloodmeals for both humans and ringtail possum sources.

Spatial clustering links M. ulcerans *positive mosquitoes with positive*

possum excreta and human Buruli ulcer cases

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In our previous research, we demonstrated a spatial association between possum excreta containing *M.*

ulcerans, as detected by structured surveys, and clusters of human Buruli ulcer cases [53]. To expand on this

finding, we investigated whether further spatial clustering associations could be detected by analysing

qualitative qPCR (IS2404) data of trapped mosquitoes using SaTScan. Here, three separate analyses were

conducted: (i) human Buruli ulcer case data from individuals reported to have acquired the disease in the

study area during 2019-2020, (ii) qPCR data from possum excreta collected in a previous investigation (2018-

2019), and (iii) qPCR data from trapped mosquitoes (2019-2020). These analyses identified a single mosquito

cluster, four possum clusters and six human Buruli ulcer clusters (Figure 5A-B). Notably, one human Buruli

ulcer cluster and two possum excreta clusters had higher numbers of observed Buruli ulcer cases or *M.*

ulcerans detections, respectively, than expected if uniformly distributed (p-value <0.05) (Figure 5B).

Importantly, the analyses revealed an instance of triple cluster overlap (mosquito/possum excreta/human)

in the Mornington Peninsula suburb of Rye, where all three SaTScan analyses had an overlapping cluster

(Figure 5A).

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	CLUSTER	P_VALUE	OBSERVED	EXPECTED	LLR
(mosquito)	M1	0.915	2	0.26	4.16
	M2	0.472	3	0.52	4.17
(humans)	H1	2.06E-05*	31	9.35	17.75
	H2	0.148	13	3.56	7.80
	H3	0.265	15	4.95	7.03
	H4	0.702	4	0.42	5.53
	H5	0.820	4	0.46	5.14
	H6	0.999	2	0.12	3.74
(possum)	P1	9.21E-05*	41	17.54	17.05
	P2	0.002*	9	1.350	13.58
	P3	0.804	4	0.562	6.42
	P4	0.997	3	0.450	4.46

Figure 5. *SaTScan analyses of trapped mosquitoes, possum excreta, and human* Buruli ulcer *cases on the Mornington Peninsula, revealing spatial clustering. A) Map illustrating the clusters identified by the three separate SaTScan analyses: (I) trapped mosquitoes (177 traps screened for IS2404 collected: 12.11.19 to 20.03.20), (ii) M. ulcerans detected in possum excreta collected during the summer of 2019 (Dec 2018 – Feb 2019) using data from a previous study, and (iii) notified human* Buruli ulcer *cases from the study area in*

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the years 2019-2020. The zoomed insert highlights an instance where all three analyses had overlapping

clusters in the suburb of Rye. B) Table summarising the SaTScan results for all identified clusters. Log

likelihood ratio is abbreviated as "LLR." Clusters with p-values <0.05 are marked with asterisks.

The results of our permutation test to explore the probability of these three categories (mosquitoes, possums

and humans) overlapping showed that a triple-cluster overlap occurred with randomly rearranged location

labels at a low frequency of 8.9%. This analysis adds support to a causal relationship between the presence

of *M. ulcerans* in possums and mosquitoes and humans contracting Buruli ulcer in the Mornington Peninsula

suburb of Rye.

559   **Discussion**

Using insect field surveys augmented with genomics we have addressed *Barnett Criteria* 1 – 3 (Table 1) to

add to a hierarchy of evidence indicting mosquitoes as principal vectors in the spread of *M. ulcerans* from

the environment to humans [3,15,17,21,22]. Our survey area was the Mornington Peninsula, where human Buruli

ulcer cases have increased progressively over the past 20 years [12]. Our key findings were that *M. ulcerans*

was almost exclusively associated with one mosquito species in this region, *Ae. notoscriptus*, a mammalian

host feeder, at a frequency of 0.87%. The estimated pathogen burden in each insect (Table S3) was consistent

with the reported low infectious dose for *M. ulcerans* [22,54]. Pathogen genomics provided support for a linked

transmission chain between mosquitoes, native possums and humans in this region. The metabarcoding

bloodmeal analysis of trapped mosquitoes revealed dual feeding by individual mosquitoes on both possums

and humans, providing an example of a potential transmission pathway between infected possums and

humans. Finally, spatial clustering analysis showed a striking overlap between clusters of possums shedding

M. ulcerans, mosquitoes harbouring *M. ulcerans* and human Buruli ulcer cases, reinforcing the importance

of possums and mosquitoes in the spread of *M. ulcerans* to humans.

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Indications that invertebrates might be playing a role in the spread of Buruli ulcer first came from field surveys

in West Africa in the late 1990s, where surveys in Benin identified water bugs in the genera *Naucoris* and

Diplonychus as IS2404 PCR positive for *M. ulcerans* [15,16,55]. Subsequent culture isolation of *M. ulcerans* from

an aquatic insect in Benin (*Gerris* sp.) and potentially from *Naucoris* sp. in neighbouring Cote d'Ivoire further

suggested a role for water bugs in disease transmission, at least in west Africa [56,57]. A role for mosquitoes in

the transmission of *M. ulcerans* anywhere was first revealed from entomological surveys in the mid-2000s

on the Bellarine Peninsula and then more recently in Far North Queensland [15,21,58]. Other observations that

supported a role for mosquitoes in transmission included an analysis of the Buruli ulcer lesion location on the

human body, which included more than 600 human Buruli ulcer cases, and showed a preponderance of

lesions on ankles, elbows and backs of legs. These areas are frequently exposed and insects may

preferentially bloodfeed there [59]. Laboratory studies under one transmission scenario have also shown the

competence of *Ae. notoscriptus* as mechanical vectors of *M. ulcerans* (Barnett criteria No. 4, Table 1) [22].

Of the ~18,600 mosquitoes tested by IS2404 PCR from five different survey periods in the present study, *Ae.*

notoscriptus was consistently positively associated with *M. ulcerans*. Where and how *M. ulcerans* is

contaminating (or infecting) these mosquitoes remains to be determined. However, we made the somewhat

unexpected observation that the most abundant mosquito species trapped on the Mornington Peninsula, *Cx.*

molestus, which predominately feeds on avian species [60] was consistently IS2404 PCR negative. This

observation might be explained by a difference in the ecology of these two mosquito species, such as how

(or where) they are encountering *M. ulcerans.* The apparent *Ae. notoscriptus*/*M. ulcerans* tropism might also

indicate a specific biological interaction between this insect and the mycobacterium, or alternatively, a *Cx.*

molestus antagonism to mycobacterial carriage.

MLE is a parameter used in vector ecology to estimate the proportion of infected mosquitoes that are

pathogen positive, based on a pooling-based screening assay, where the proportion is the parameter of a

binomial distribution [61] . The MLE of *Ae. notoscriptus* over all 5 years of our surveys was 5.88 *M. ulcerans*

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positive mosquitoes/1,000 tested (95% CI 4.37-7.76). The MLE for the only other positive mosquito species,

Ae. camptorhynchus (consisting of two insects that tested positive for *M. ulcerans*), was 2.96/1,000 tested

(95% CI 0.17-14.19). These estimates are consistent with those previously reported for *Ae. camptorhynchus*

(10,558 mosquitoes tested, MLE 3.98 per 1,000) and *Ae. notoscriptus* (221 mosquitoes tested, MLE of 4.47

per 1,000) during the Bellarine Peninsula survey of that Buruli ulcer endemic area [15]. Interestingly, these

values are significantly higher than the MLE values from an *M. ulcerans* mosquito survey conducted in tropical

far north Queensland, Australia which reported an MLE value of 0.13 /1,000 (95% CI 0.01–0.61) for different

species of mosquito [58]. To note though, there were few reported cases of Buruli ulcer in this area of

Queensland during the field survey period, consistent with the suggestion that mosquito surveys for *M.*

ulcerans will be useful for predicting Buruli ulcer risk in humans.

In tropical far north Queensland, Australia, host-seeking mosquitoes that harboured *M. ulcerans* collected

through similar CO_2 light traps to those used in this study were within the genera *Verallina*, *Coquillettidia* and

Mansonia [58]. These comparisons highlight that the mosquitoes encountering *M. ulcerans* appear to be

region/environment specific, and these observations support the idea that mosquitoes are mechanical

vectors of *M. ulcerans*. The major mosquito species associated with detection of *M. ulcerans* in Victoria, *Ae.*

notoscriptus, Ae. camptorhynchus, *An. annulipes* and *Cq. linealis,* are all diverse opportunistic feeders.

To explore host sources for mosquitoes trapped in our study, we used metagenomic amplicon sequencing of

engorged mosquitoes [62-67]. Of the 90 blood-fed mosquitoes processed, 36 individual insects successfully had

their host blood source identified. The 54 bloodmeals that were unidentified were probably due to

degradation of the host DNA that occurs approximately 36 hours post-feeding [68]. As the mosquitoes analysed

in this study were collected from baited mosquito traps, the exact time post-feeding they were collected is

unknown. Of the host blood sources identified, common ringtail possum was the most commonly identified

bloodmeal, followed by birds and humans, with dual bloodmeals observed in 55% of mosquitoes (Figure 4,

Figure S4). Most notably, three insects were determined to have bloodmeals from both common ringtail

possums and humans. These insects consisted of two *Ae. notoscriptus* and one *Ae. rubrithorax*. Common

ringtail possums are major wildlife reservoirs of *M. ulcerans* [11], and in this study we identified *M. ulcerans* in

frequent association with *Ae. notoscriptus*. The identification of these dual bloodmeals provides evidence

that *Ae. notoscriptus* mosquitoes are bloodfeeding between possums and humans within a relatively short

timeframe. Dual bloodmeals may provide an opportunity for a mechanical transmission event of *M. ulcerans*

from a possum with a Buruli ulcer teeming with *M. ulcerans,* from which a mosquito bloodfeeds and then

moves to a nearby human. However, the observed positive association specifically between *Ae. notoscriptus*

and *M. ulcerans* is not explained by our bloodmeal analysis, which showed several other mosquito species

that were not *M. ulcerans* positive, such as *Cx. molestus*, *Ae. rubrithorax* and *Cq. Linealis,* also fed on possums.

An alternative source of *M. ulcerans* acquisition for *Ae. notoscriptus* might be from possum excreta

contaminating the *Ae. notoscriptus* breeding sites, as this species breeds in small artificial containers [62].

Previous studies have shown that mosquito larvae can ingest *M. ulcerans* and test positive for *M. ulcerans*

during the larval stage, but *M. ulcerans* is not detected in the pupa or adult, which is largely thought to be a

result of the larval midgut being purged [69]. However, if possum excreta, which can have a high concentration

of *M. ulcerans* [11], falls into these artificial breeding sites, then this may provide a means to contaminate the

adult *Ae. notoscriptus* during eclosion and emergence on top of the water's surface.

In common with other arthropod-borne bacterial pathogens, *M. ulcerans* also has the genomic hallmarks of

niche adaptation [70,71]. For instance, the bacterial diseases vectored by blood-feeding arthropods, such as

bubonic plague, spread to humans through the bite of fleas harbouring the bacterium *Yersinia pestis* [72], the

tick-borne infections such as Lyme disease, Rocky Mountain Spotted Fever, ehrlichiosis (among others)

caused by *Borrelia burgdorferi*, *Rickettsia rickettsii* and *Ehrlichia* sp., respectively [73], or tularemia, caused by

infection with *Francisella tularensis* spread through the bite of infected ticks (with some subspecies also

spread by mosquitoes) [74-76], are all caused by bacteria that have degenerating genomes. That is, like M.

ulcerans, their genomes bear the distinctive hallmarks of evolutionary bottlenecks and niche-adaptation

(plasmid acquisition, pseudogene accumulation, insertion sequence expansion), a genomic pattern thought

indicative of a shared trajectory towards symbiosis with the arthropod host [77]. In addition, the absence of

Nature Microbiology

653 recombination and highly clonal population structure of *M. ulcerans* is aligned with the population structure

654 of bacteria in 'closed symbiosis' with their host animal [78].

656 Mosquitoes were not the only arthropods from which *M. ulcerans* were detected in the Mornington

657 Peninsula. With over 20,500 arthropods collected using sticky traps (YST and SO), this study screened other

658 insects that might broadly act as a mechanical vector, that is, an insect that is involved in the accidental

659 transport of a pathogen [79][22]. *M. ulcerans* was successfully identified on two of ~1,800 flies tested, identified

660 as blowflies (*Calliphora hilli*) . Previous studies have screened other species of flies, such as March flies

661 (Tabanidae), with no positive detections [58]. *C. hilli* is a native species occurring along the Australian east coast

662 and in South Australia [80]. This species is a carrion breeder occurring year-round throughout Victoria, with the

663 female laying her eggs in decaying flesh where the larvae emerge [80]. Possum carcases are readily infested by

664 *C. hilli* [81], which may explain how this fly species is becoming contaminated with *M. ulcerans*, as possums are

665 wildlife reservoirs of *M. ulcerans* [10]. The likelihood of *C. hilli* carrying *M. ulcerans* to humans is relatively low

666 due to this species rarely biting humans [82].

668 Interestingly, all species that have tested positive for *M. ulcerans* share quite different breeding

669 environments and feeding preferences, although most feed on humans. *Ae. camptorhynchus* and *Verrallina*

670 *sp.* are saltmarsh mosquitoes [83,84], while *Ae. notoscriptus* is a freshwater container breeder occurring in close

671 association to humans [85]. *Anopheles annulipes* and *Cx. australicus* are also freshwater breeding mosquitoes

672 [86], although *Cx. australicus* typically feeds on avian species and is not considered to feed on humans [87]. This

673 diversity in mosquito species, habitats, flight range from breeding sites and host-preference feeding raises

674 interesting questions about how these mosquitoes are coming into contact with *M. ulcerans* and how

675 potential vector mosquito species may change based on the study area. Additionally, the ecology of the

676 mosquito sub-species are generally poorly understood, including *Ae. Notoscriptus,* which occurs as a series

677 of genetically differentiated clades within Australia [39].

Nature Microbiology

In this study, we also deployed for the first time targeted enrichment genome capture using the Agilent RNA

bait system to demonstrate beyond reasonable doubt the presence of *M. ulcerans* in association with

mosquitoes [52]. The IS2404, IS2606 and KR PCR assays have provided robust evidence for the presence of *M.*

ulcerans in the environment, but detecting pathogen genomic DNA and using those sequences to forensically

dissect transmission chains by matching pathogen genome SNP profiles is a powerful technological advance

[52].   While the method lost sensitivity for IS2404 qPCR Ct values >32, we generated sufficient genome

coverage from one IS2404 PCR positive mosquito and from two possum excreta specimens to show that the

M. ulcerans genotypes of the captured genomes were identical to those associated with human Buruli ulcer

cases in the study area, rather than Buruli ulcer cases linked to other regions (Figure 3). These findings provide

strong support for mosquitoes and possums playing a role in the transmission of *M. ulcerans* in the

Mornington Peninsula. These results also add to the growing body of evidence demonstrating the utility of

pathogen genomics in specifically identifying the sources and transmission pathways of environmental

pathogens and suggest that continued surveillance of *M. ulcerans* genotypes in mosquitoes and possums

could be useful in guiding public health interventions that seek to control the spread of Buruli ulcer in the

region. We are now exploring the use of genome sequence enrichment to dissect the genomic epidemiology

from the perspective of environmental sources, in particular to track the spread of Buruli ulcer in Australian

native possums across the region [53].

The SaTScan clustering analyses provide compelling evidence for the spatial association between the

presence of *M. ulcerans* in possums, mosquitoes, and human Buruli ulcer cases in the study area (Figure 5).

The triple-cluster overlap observed in our SaTScan analyses suggests that the spatial distribution of these

three factors is likely to be closely linked and may be contributing to the persistence of Buruli ulcer in the

Mornington Peninsula. Our finding of a low frequency of triple-cluster overlap among 10,000 randomisations,

with only 8.9% of replicates showing this phenomenon, provides a level of confidence that our observations

have not occurred randomly. This further supports the validity of our findings and reinforces the idea that

the presence of *M. ulcerans* in possums and mosquitoes may play a crucial role in the transmission of *M.*

ulcerans to humans in the study area. Our findings highlight the importance of ongoing surveillance of

Nature Microbiology

possum and mosquito populations, which may provide critical insights into the epidemiology of Buruli ulcer

in the region and inform targeted public health interventions to control the disease.

Our research has some limitations. Although we found a spatial association between the presence of *M.*

ulcerans in possums and mosquitoes, and human Buruli ulcer cases, we cannot absolutely conclude causality

or directionality. In addition, the very specific set of circumstances that have led to the rise of Buruli ulcer in

temperate southeastern Australia restricts the generalisability of our results. One must be cautious to draw

parallels with African Buruli ulcer endemic countries for instance, where a highly susceptible mammalian

reservoir equivalent to the Australian native possum is yet to be identified and evidence for mosquitoes as

possible vectors is lacking [88]. Further investigations are needed to better understand the underlying

mechanisms that drive the association between the presence of *M. ulcerans* in these different species and

the development of human Buruli ulcer cases.

Despite these caveats, our collective research over more than 15 years makes it very clear that mosquitoes

are likely vectors and native possums are major wildlife reservoirs of *M. ulcerans* in southeastern Australia.

Mosquito surveillance with *M. ulcerans* screening coupled with mosquito control and public health

messaging to avoid mosquito bites are practical interventions that would be expected to reduce the incidence

of human Buruli ulcer.

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Nature Microbiology

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Author Contributions

741 Conceptualisation PTM, JO, RF, SRC, PDRJ, JRW, AAH, KBG, TPS, SEL; Data curation PTM, KB, JO; Formal

742 Analysis PTM, AHB, TPS; Funding acquisition SRC, PDRJ, KBG, JRW, AH, KG, TPS, SEL; Methodology PTM, AHB,

743 KB, JCC, JRW, TPS, SEL; Writing – original draft PTM, AHB, SEL, TPS; Writing – review & editing all authors.

Data availability statement

746 DNA sequences generated in this project are available under these GenBank accession numbers:

747 PRJNA943595, OQ600123-4, OQ588831-67. Custom computer code: https://github.com/abuultjens/BU-3-

748 way-SatScan; https://github.com/abuultjens/Mosquito_possum_human_genomic_analysis.

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Mosquito trapping
Mornington Peninsula
12/11/2019 - 20/03/2020
18 trap groups

Mosquito species

% *Ae. notoscriptus*

% *Cx. molestus*

M. ulcerans PCR positive

No. mosquitoes trapped

500   2000

1000

1500   2500

Human Buruli ulcer cases 21/02/2020 - 07/09/2020

mesh block with at least one case reported

mesh block no case reported

0   2.5   5 km

N

Sample ID	Origin	Initial IS2404 Ct	Post-enrich IS2404 Ct
RES21-00999	Possum excreta	22.13	18.95
RES21-00921	Possum excreta	21.62	18.95
819	*Ae. notoscriptus*	31.20	24.89
226	*Ae. notoscriptus*	33.47	26.67
5675	*Ae. notoscriptus*	32.62	31.81
4601-02	*Ae. notoscriptus*	33.54	32.26
4997	*Ae. notoscriptus*	35.82	34.32

5.6Mb *M. ulcerans* JKD8049 chromosome

Mapped reads: 1,260,616 | 98% | Core VNPs: 112

Mapped reads: 671,227 | 93% | Core VNPs: 89

Mapped reads: 1,339,945 | 38% | Core VNPs: 79

Mapped reads: 417,489 | 15% | Core VNPs: 29

Mapped reads: 28,799 | 12% | Core VNPs: 22

Mapped reads: 555 | 0.86% | Core VNPs: 0

Mapped reads: 234 | 0.27% | Core VNPs: 0

East Gippsland

Bellarine Peninsula

Mornington Peninsula (south)

Mornington Peninsula (north)

ID: 226 (88/117)

ID: 5675 (95/117)

ID: RES21-00921 (28/117)

ID: RES21-00999 (5/117)

ID: 819 (38/117)

1 SNP

100 km

A

B

	CLUSTER	P_VALUE	OBSERVED	EXPECTED	LLR
🦟	M1	0.915	2	0.26	4.16
	M2	0.472	3	0.52	4.17
🚶	H1	2.06E-05*	31	9.35	17.75
	H2	0.148	13	3.56	7.80
	H3	0.265	15	4.95	7.03
	H4	0.702	4	0.42	5.53
	H5	0.820	4	0.46	5.14
	H6	0.999	2	0.12	3.74
🐀	P1	9.21E-05*	41	17.54	17.05
	P2	0.002*	9	1.350	13.58
	P3	0.804	4	0.562	6.42
	P4	0.997	3	0.450	4.46