Season of transmission of Ross River/Barmah Forest Virus and *Mycobacterium ulcerans* closely align in southeastern Australia, supporting mosquitoes as the vector of Buruli ulcer.

Authors: Andrew H. Buultjens[1], Ee Laine Tay[2], Aidan Yuen[2], N. Deborah Friedman[2], Timothy P. Stinear[1], and Paul D.R. Johnson[3]

Affiliations:

1. Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Doherty Institute, University of Melbourne

2. Communicable Diseases section, Health Protection Branch, Victorian Department of Health, Australia.

3. North Eastern Public Health Unit (NEPHU) and Infectious Diseases Department, Austin Health, Melbourne, Australia

Corresponding author:

Paul D. R. Johnson paul.johnson@austin.org.au

Abstract

Ross River Virus and Barmah Forest Virus infections (alphaviruses) have short incubation periods and are transmitted to humans by mosquitoes. *Mycobacterium ulcerans* infection (Buruli ulcer) has a much longer incubation period and its mode of transmission is contested. We studied the relationship between month of notification of alphavirus infections and Buruli ulcer in the temperate Australian state of Victoria over the six-year period, 2017-2022. Using *cross-correlation,* a signal processing technique, we found that a five-month temporal shift in month of Buruli ulcer notification provided optimal alignment with month of alphavirus notification over the six-year years. This closely matches the previously determined 5-month Buruli ulcer incubation period. Inferred transmission of both conditions showed coordinated maxima in summer and autumn and coordinated minima in winter and spring. The close alignment in season of transmission of alphavirus infection and Buruli ulcer in Victoria supports mosquitoes as the primary local vector of *M. ulcerans*.

Introduction

Buruli ulcer (Buruli) is a geographically restricted, environmentally acquired infection caused by *Mycobacterium ulcerans* (1)*.* Listed by WHO as a Neglected Tropical Disease, Buruli occurs in 33 countries but characteristically only in specific locations. Buruli can cause extensive tissue destruction if not diagnosed and managed effectively but recent advances in treatment with antibiotics have improved the outlook for sufferers in Buruli-endemic zones (2-7). The most active of these zones currently are west and sub-Saharan Africa (8), tropical Northern Australia (9) and coastal and urban zones of temperate southeastern Australia, particularly the state of Victoria (10).

In Victoria, an unprecedented outbreak of Buruli (figure 1) is ongoing with the disease now being transmitted in the inner suburbs of the state's two largest cities of Melbourne and Geelong (11). The epidemiology of Buruli in Victoria has been shown to be zoonotic, centered on native possums with humans as accidental spillover hosts (12-14). The first evidence that mosquitoes may transmit *M. ulcerans* from possums to humans was published in this journal in 2007 (15, 16). This model of Buruli epidemiology is unusual and may be unique. Differences from the more familiar epidemiology in sub-Saharan Africa include Victoria's coastal and urban endemic areas compared with inland rural riverine locations, our temperate climate compared with a tropical climate, a confirmed role for a small animal reservoir and a sustained rise in incidence compared with stabilization or decline in African endemic areas (17).

Public health messaging in Victoria so far has been limited to health warnings to facilitate early diagnosis of Buruli and case mapping to inform local populations and primary care providers of the changing risk (18). To date there have not been coordinated programs aimed at Buruli prevention as the mode of transmission is contested.

Two reports published in this Journal in April 2009 (19) and December 2021 (20) considered the correlation between annual notification of alphavirus infections (Ross River virus

and Barmah Forest virus) and Buruli in Victoria. These studies investigated the hypothesis that if the usual mode of Buruli transmission in Victoria is via mosquitoes, correlation with other conditions that are known to be mosquito-vectored would be expected. The first study identified a partial correlation between annual notifications of vector-borne diseases (alphavirus infections) and Buruli in the calendar years 2002-2008 [18]. However, in a subsequent report, Linke et al reported no ongoing statistical association since 2008 and concluded that factors other than mosquitoes were likely behind the change in Buruli incidence [20].

As the annual Buruli incidence in Victoria is now twenty times higher than it was when evidence for mosquito transmission was first published in 2007, we have revisited the correlation controversy using monthly rather than annual notification data and a novel statistical approach (cross-correlation). We hypothesized that a new analysis during a period of much higher Buruli incidence and a non-linear statistical approach could help resolve the transmission controversy with the hope that consensus can be reached.

Figure 1

Figure 1: Notified cases of Buruli in Victoria by year.

Methods

In collaboration with the Victorian Department of Health we accessed confirmed and probable notifications by month and year for Buruli and the two alphavirus infections – Ross River virus and Barmah Forest virus infections combined, over a 6-year period from 2017 to 2022.

Cases were defined according to national surveillance definitions for the two alphavirus infections (21, 22). Buruli was made notifiable in the state of Victoria from January 2004 due to local concerns about rising incidence. The surveillance definition for Buruli in Victoria has been recently published (23).

Month of notification for both Buruli and alphavirus infection was assumed to be the same as month of diagnosis.

Incubation periods for Buruli in Victoria have been calculated on two previous occasions by interviewing cases with only short exposures to known endemic areas but who lived and presented to doctors outside these areas. The median incubation period in Victoria was calculated to be between 4.5 (24) and 5 months (25). To calculate month of inferred transmission from month of notification for Buruli, the incubation period plus time to diagnosis/notification was assumed to be 5 months.

Incubation period for the two alphavirus infections is similar and has been reported as 3 days to 3 weeks, usually 1-2 weeks (26, 27). To calculate month of inferred transmission from month of notification, the incubation period plus time to diagnosis/notification for alphavirus infection was assumed to be 1 month.

Victoria has a temperate southern hemisphere climate with distinct seasons. Summer is defined as the months of December-February, autumn (fall) as March-May, winter as July-August and spring as September-November.

In addition to graphical representation, we examined the data with a signal processing technique called *Cross-correlation* to measure the relationship between the two epidemic curves (signals), as they are shifted in time. This avoids any bias or assumptions made in adjusting the data to obtain inferred transmission as it is based solely on the notification series itself. It also avoids assumptions about endemic and non-endemic area exposure which was the basis for estimations of the incubation period in previous work (24, 25).

To apply the method, incubation period adjusted alphavirus series (month of inferred transmission) and the raw Buruli ulcer notifications were used, so that the adjusted alphavirus

signal may act as a temporal benchmark against which to align the Buruli ulcer notification series.

In the alphavirus time series, the first 3 months of 2017 were identified as outliers using z-scores (a statistical measure quantifying how many standard deviations a data point is from the mean), these timepoints were excluded from both datasets. The *correlate* function in the *numpy* python library (28) was used to identify the time shift factor in months that optimized the correlation between the two signals.

Data were displayed and analyzed using Graphpad Prism 10.0 (graphpad.com) or R (29).

Ethics statement

Separate ethics approval is not required as data in this study were collected and used under the legislative authority of the Public and Wellbeing Act 2008 and only aggregated, de-identified data were used in this study. In addition, data by year and LGA are publicly available from the Department of Health (30). Data were summated by month and accessed with permission and assistance from senior epidemiologists at the Victorian department of Health.

Financial Disclosure

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship, and publication of this article.

Results

Over the 6-year study period there were 3,839 alphavirus cases notified. Cases were strongly clustered by month and season and varied markedly from year to year (figure 2A). Notifications

were much more likely in summer-autumn (3,503 notifications) compared with 336 in winter-spring,

ratio 10.4:1. For Buruli there were 1,761 notifications and less variation across the 6 calendar years

(figure 2A). In marked contrast to alphavirus notifications, Buruli cases were 2.9 times more likely to

be notified in winter-spring (1,307) than summer-autumn (454) (Table S1).

Figure 2A

Figure 2B

Figure 2 legend

Figure 2A Month and year of notification for alphavirus infection and Buruli in Victoria. January of each year is the middle month of summer (x axis).

Figure 2B Month and year of notification manually adjusted to estimate inferred transmission. January of each year is the middle month of summer (x axis).

Signal processing *cross correlation* analysis

To further explore the overlapping periodicity of the data, we employed a signal processing technique called *cross correlation* analysis. The two datasets were first inspected to identify and manage extreme outliers through a Z-score analysis (figure 3A). The initial three timepoints of the alphavirus time series were found to deviate more than three standard deviations from the mean, leading to their exclusion from both datasets (figure 3A).

The censored data series then underwent logarithmic transformation and smoothing to amplify the cyclical signal within the data (figure 3B). The overlaid transformed series revealed an almost anti-phase relationship between the Buruli ulcer and alphavirus signals, indicating the presence of similar cyclic patterns that required temporal alignment for a better comparative analysis (figure 3B).

A cross-correlation analysis was then employed on the two series across a range of 48 shift months, which identified the peak cross-correlation score at -5 months (figure 3C). To establish the robustness of this optimal -5-month shift, a randomization analysis was conducted. This entailed performing the same cross-correlation analysis on 1,000 randomly reshuffled instances of the Buruli

ulcer notification series. The resulting distribution from these iterations centered around zero, well separated from the optimal shift of -5 months (figure 3C).

When the Buruli ulcer notifications were then adjusted by this assumption-independent -5 months, a sinusoidal alignment with the alphavirus notifications was observed (figure 3D) that also very closely matched the previously established Buruli ulcer incubation period (24, 25).

Figure 3

Figure 3. **Analysis of Temporally Adjusted Buruli ulcer and alphavirus Notifications in Victoria (2017-2022)**. A) Z-score analysis of Buruli ulcer and Alphavirus Notifications. The horizontal red dashed lines represent the z-score boundaries of -3 and +3, which are equivalent to three standard deviations below and above the mean, respectively. The vertical black dashed line indicates the threshold used to exclude outlier data points falling beyond three standard deviations from the mean. B) Overlay of both time series without any temporal adjustment to the Buruli ulcer notification data. C) Cross-correlation analysis across a range of potential shift months (-12 to +12). The maximum correlation is observed with a shift of -5 months. D) Final alignment of the two

datasets after the application of a -5-month shift to the Buruli ulcer notification data, optimizing their temporal alignment.

Discussion

There were 342 cases of Buruli notified in Victoria in 2022 compared with just 17 in 2007, a 20-fold increase since the year the first ever publications linking mosquitoes to Buruli transmission appeared in this journal (15, 16). Mosquito transmission was controversial and challenging to many when first published, although we had chosen to investigate this possibility after colleagues working in Africa had detected *M. ulcerans* in aquatic water insects in Buruli endemic areas (31, 32). In a research letter published in this Journal in April 2009 (19), we reasoned that if Buruli mosquito transmission was the usual mode of transmission in Victoria, year to year variation in Buruli notifications should be statistically associated with annual notifications of other vector-borne conditions (alphaviruses). We were able to demonstrate that over a 7-year period from 2002 to 2008 that Buruli and alphavirus annual notifications were correlated, albeit imperfectly. Subsequently, Linke et al re-investigated this association and found that the previously reported correlation was no longer present after 2008 using linear methods (20). They concluded that factors other than mosquitoes were likely behind the rising rates of Buruli in Victoria and that the lack of knowledge of the mechanism of disease transmission continues to hinder the implementation of successful public health interventions to control Buruli (20).

In this study, we revisited this controversy by examining monthly rather than annual notifications of Buruli and alphavirus infections and allowed for the effect of previously published incubation periods. Additionally, we identified the optimal temporal alignment of the notification datasets, without using prior knowledge of the previously estimated incubation periods for Buruli in Victoria (24, 25). This novel approach not only allowed us to identify potential correlations between

the two conditions but also provides an independent estimate of the Buruli ulcer incubation period using only notification data without the need to interview cases or to make assumptions about which areas are endemic and which are not.

Our results show that inferred transmission of alphavirus infections and Buruli reach simultaneous maxima from December to May, and simultaneous minima from June to November every year over the 6-year study period. The accepted explanation in temperate Victoria for variation by season in alphavirus notifications is that warmer weather provides necessary climatic conditions for vectoring mosquitoes (33). Even though the animal reservoirs of alphaviruses are present throughout the year, transmission to humans falls almost to zero over the colder months.

A recently published detailed quantitative observational study showed that *M. ulcerans* in possum excreta and by inference in possum reservoirs is present in the environment throughout the year (13). Hence any hypothesis regarding Buruli transmission must account for this seasonal variation in transmission because environmental contamination remains constant despite the change in seasons. We believe that the simplest explanation is that transmission by mosquitoes is the usual way humans acquire Buruli in Victoria.

Interestingly, while we have shown a strong cyclic seasonal variation in inferred month of transmission for both Buruli and alphavirus infections, the magnitude of year-to-year variation is much greater for alphaviruses. Rainfall may partly explain the variation in alphaviruses as late 2016, and calendar years 2021 and 2022 were wetter and warmer in Victoria compared with historical averages, and 2018 and 2019 drier than historical averages (34-40). However, rainfall variation did not as strongly affect Buruli incidence. While we cannot currently explain this difference, we propose two hypotheses for future investigation. The first is that we know that for alphaviruses there is true biological vectoring by mosquitoes which brings with it exponential expansion in certain years. In contrast, while Buruli transmission is also strongly seasonally influenced, annual variation was less apparent possibly suggesting mechanical vectoring from a stable or only slowly changing

pool of infected possums. Secondly, Buruli transmission in Victoria occurs mainly in areas with suburban style housing that is connected to potable water and where gardens are tended and protected from drought. Hence the impact of dry years on local mosquito and possum habitat may be reduced in Buruli endemic areas.

The limitation of the current study is that while we have shown a strong aligned seasonal effect of transmission risk for both alphavirus infection and Buruli in Victoria, we acknowledge that we have demonstrated correlation, not causation. However, there is a wealth of other published research supporting a central role for mosquito transmission of Buruli in Victoria. This includes evidence that human Buruli risk closely correlates with proportion of PCR-positive mosquitoes in 7 small towns in the Bellarine peninsula endemic area (41) and a new survey of mosquitoes demonstrating that 5.1/1000 of 65,000 mosquitoes tested PCR positive for *M. ulcerans* in the Mornington peninsula endemic area (42). A key new finding is confirmation that *M. ulcerans* cells detected by PCR in mosquitoes are the human outbreak strain (42). Also, along with our 2007 study where we reported detecting *M. ulcerans* by PCR at a rate of 4.2/1000 from 11,500 mosquitoes (15) we published a second paper also in 2007 describing a case control study investigating risk factors for Buruli acquisition on the Bellarine peninsula (16). In the final multivariate analysis, there were only two statistically significant factors remaining: reporting mosquito bites (odds ratio 2.56) and use of insect repellant (odds ratio 0.37). There was no significant association with bites from midges or march flies. Multiple other outdoor activities were examined including freshwater or saltwater swimming and fishing, surfing, sailing, bushwalking, lawn bowling, golf, bird watching, cycling, and gardening. None of these activities were interpedently associated with BU, suggesting that mosquito exposure specifically and not outdoor exposure generally increased the odds of Buruli acquisition.

We have attempted to investigate alternative modes of transmission including human skin temperature variation as an explanation for the non-random pattern of Buruli lesion distribution we observe (43). Our conclusion was that while there was a small effect, this was only a weak predictor

of Buruli lesion distribution (44). We have also investigated the hypothesis that outdoor exposure in Buruli endemic areas could lead to transient skin contamination with *M. ulcerans* which could then be followed by a range of chance inoculating events including but not restricted to biting insects. We have not so far been able to find evidence to support this model (45).

In conclusion, the evidence that mosquitoes are the major vector of *Mycobacterium ulcerans* in temperate Victoria is very strong. Public health authorities responsible for Victorian Buruli endemic areas should now develop Buruli intervention programs that focus on mosquito bite prevention and mosquito control.

References

1.	Johnson PD, Stinear T, Small PL, Pluschke G, Merritt RW, Portaels F, et al. Buruli ulcer (M. ulcerans infection): new insights, new hope for disease control. PLoS medicine. 2005 Apr;2(4):e108.

2.	Friedman ND, Athan E, Walton AL, O'Brien DP. Increasing Experience with Primary Oral Medical Therapy for Mycobacterium ulcerans Disease in an Australian Cohort. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2016 May;60(5):2692-5.

3.	Phillips RO, Sarfo FS, Abass MK, Abotsi J, Wilson T, Forson M, et al. Clinical and bacteriological efficacy of rifampin-streptomycin combination for two weeks followed by rifampin and clarithromycin for six weeks for treatment of Mycobacterium ulcerans disease. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2014;58(2):1161-6.

4.	Friedman ND, Athan E, Hughes AJ, Khajehnoori M, McDonald A, Callan P, et al. Mycobacterium ulcerans disease: experience with primary oral medical therapy in an Australian cohort. PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2013;7(7):e2315.

5.	Chauty A, Ardant MF, Marsollier L, Pluschke G, Landier J, Adeye A, et al. Oral treatment for Mycobacterium ulcerans infection: results from a pilot study in Benin. Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America. 2011 Jan 1;52(1):94-6.

6.	Nienhuis WA, Stienstra Y, Thompson WA, Awuah PC, Abass KM, Tuah W, et al. Antimicrobial treatment for early, limited Mycobacterium ulcerans infection: a randomised controlled trial. Lancet (London, England). 2010 Feb 20;375(9715):664-72.

7.	Phillips RO, Robert J, Abass KM, Thompson W, Sarfo FS, Wilson T, et al. Rifampicin and clarithromycin (extended release) versus rifampicin and streptomycin for limited Buruli ulcer lesions: a randomised, open-label, non-inferiority phase 3 trial. Lancet (London, England). 2020 Apr 18;395(10232):1259-67.

8.	Omansen TF, Erbowor-Becksen A, Yotsu R, van der Werf TS, Tiendrebeogo A, Grout L, et al. Global Epidemiology of Buruli Ulcer, 2010-2017, and Analysis of 2014 WHO Programmatic Targets. Emerging infectious diseases. 2019 Dec;25(12):2183-90.

9.	Steffen CM, Freeborn H. Mycobacterium ulcerans in the Daintree 2009-2015 and the mini-epidemic of 2011. ANZ journal of surgery. 2018 Apr;88(4):E289-e93.

10.	Loftus MJ, Tay EL, Globan M, Lavender CJ, Crouch SR, Johnson PDR, et al. Epidemiology of Buruli Ulcer Infections, Victoria, Australia, 2011-2016. Emerging infectious diseases. 2018 Nov;24(11):1988-97.

11.	Buruli ulcer is spreading. Associate Professor Deborah Friedman, Deputy Chief Health Officer (Communicable Disease) 2022 [cited; Available from: https://www.health.vic.gov.au/health-advisories/buruli-ulcer-is-spreading

12.	Fyfe JA, Lavender CJ, Handasyde KA, Legione AR, O'Brien CR, Stinear TP, et al. A major role for mammals in the ecology of Mycobacterium ulcerans. PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2010 Aug 10;4(8):e791.

13.   Vandelannoote K, Buultjens AH, Porter JL, Velink A, Wallace JR, Blasdell KR, et al. Statistical modeling based on structured surveys of Australian native possum excreta harboring Mycobacterium ulcerans predicts Buruli ulcer occurrence in humans. eLife. 2023 Apr 14;12.

14.   Carson C, Lavender CJ, Handasyde KA, O'Brien CR, Hewitt N, Johnson PD, et al. Potential wildlife sentinels for monitoring the endemic spread of human buruli ulcer in South-East australia. PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2014;8(1):e2668.

15.   Johnson PD, Azuolas J, Lavender CJ, Wishart E, Stinear TP, Hayman JA, et al. Mycobacterium ulcerans in mosquitoes captured during outbreak of Buruli ulcer, southeastern Australia. Emerging infectious diseases. 2007 Nov;13(11):1653-60.

16.   Quek TY, Athan E, Henry MJ, Pasco JA, Redden-Hoare J, Hughes A, et al. Risk factors for Mycobacterium ulcerans infection, southeastern Australia. Emerging infectious diseases. 2007 Nov;13(11):1661-6.

17.   World Health Organization. Buruli ulcer (Mycobacterium ulcerans infection). 2023 [cited 19th July];   Available   from: https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/buruli-ulcer-(mycobacterium-ulcerans-infection)

18.   Buruli ulcer warning for GPs: MJA Insight. 2016 [cited 19th July; Available from: https://www.ama.com.au/gp-network-news/buruli-ulcer-warning-gps-mja-insight

19.   Johnson PD, Lavender CJ. Correlation between Buruli ulcer and vector-borne notifiable diseases, Victoria, Australia. Emerging infectious diseases. 2009 Apr;15(4):614-5.

20.   Linke JA, Athan E, Friedman ND. Correlation between Buruli Ulcer Incidence and Vector borne Diseases, Southeastern Australia, 2000-2020. Emerging infectious diseases. 2021 Dec;27(12):3191-2.

21.   Government of Australia. Ross River virus infection – Surveillance case definition. 2023 [cited 16th July 2023]; Available from: https://www.health.gov.au/resources/publications/barmah-forest-virus-infection-surveillance-case-definition?language=en

22.   Government of Australia. Barmah Forest virus infection – Surveillance case definition. 2023 [cited 16th July]; Available from: https://www.health.gov.au/resources/publications/barmah-forest-virus-infection-surveillance-case-definition?language=en

23.   Betts JM, Tay EL, Johnson PDR, Lavender CJ, Gibney KB, O'Brien DP, et al. Buruli ulcer: a new case definition for Victoria. Commun Dis Intell (2018). 2020 Nov 21;44.

24.   Trubiano JA, Lavender CJ, Fyfe JA, Bittmann S, Johnson PD. The incubation period of Buruli ulcer (Mycobacterium ulcerans infection). PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2013;7(10):e2463.

25.   Loftus MJ, Trubiano JA, Tay EL, Lavender CJ, Globan M, Fyfe JAM, et al. The incubation period of Buruli ulcer (Mycobacterium ulcerans infection) in Victoria, Australia - Remains similar despite changing   geographic   distribution   of   disease.   PLoS   neglected   tropical   diseases.   2018 Mar;12(3):e0006323.

26.   Queensland Health. Barmah Forest Virus.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available   from: https://www.health.qld.gov.au/cdcg/index/barmah-forest-virus#:~:text=A%20self%2Dlimiting%2C%20febrile%20illness,low%20disease%20rate%20in%20children.

27.   Queensland Health. Ross River virus infection.   [cited 2023 16th July]; Available from: https://www.health.qld.gov.au/cdcg/index/ross-river-virus-infection#:~:text=Ross%20River%20virus%20disease%20is,of%20the%20palms%20and%20soles.

28.   Numpy. Python Library. [cited 2023 22nd July]; Available from: https://numpy.org/doc/stable/reference/generated/numpy.correlate.html

29.   R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing, Vienna, Austria. [cited 2023, 16th July]; Available from: https://www.R-project.org/

30.   Government of Victoria. Interactive Infectious Disease Reports.   [cited 2023 16th July]; Available from: https://www.health.vic.gov.au/infectious-diseases/interactive-infectious-disease-reports

31.   Portaels F, Elsen P, Guimaraes-Peres A, Fonteyne PA, Meyers WM. Insects in the transmission of Mycobacterium ulcerans infection. Lancet (London, England). 1999 Mar 20;353(9157):986.

32.   Marsollier L, Robert R, Aubry J, Saint Andre JP, Kouakou H, Legras P, et al. Aquatic insects as a vector for Mycobacterium ulcerans. Applied and environmental microbiology. 2002 Sep;68(9):4623-8.

33.   Government of Victoria. Protecting against mosquito-borne diseases. [cited 2023 22nd July]; Available from: https://www.vic.gov.au/early-childhood-update-february-2023/protecting-against-mosquito-borne-diseases

34.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2022.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/summary.shtml#:~:text=year%20since%201974,Rainfall%20for%202022%20was%20very%20much%20above%20average%20across%20most,and%20the%20highest%20since%201974.

35.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2021.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/archive/2021.summary.shtml#:~:text=Above%20average%20rainfall%20was%20observed,20%2D40%25%20below%20average.

36.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2020.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/archive/2020.summary.shtml

37.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2019.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/archive/2019.summary.shtml#:~:text=Victorian%20rainfall%20in%202019%20was,record%20in%20the%20far%20northwest.

38.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2018.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/archive/2018.summary.shtml

39.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2016.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/archive/2016.summary.shtml

40.   Bureau of Meteorology. Victoria in 2017.   [cited 2023 7th August]; Available from: http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/current/annual/vic/archive/2017.summary.shtml

41.   Lavender CJ, Fyfe JA, Azuolas J, Brown K, Evans RN, Ray LR, et al. Risk of Buruli ulcer and detection of Mycobacterium ulcerans in mosquitoes in southeastern Australia. PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2011 Sep;5(9):e1305.

42.   Peter TM, Andrew HB, Jane O, Karen B, Jodie CC, Jessica LP, et al. A transmission chain linking *Mycobacterium ulcerans* with *Aedes notoscriptus* mosquitoes, possums and human Buruli ulcer cases in southeastern Australia. bioRxiv. 2023:2023.05.07.539718.

43.   Yerramilli A, Tay EL, Stewardson AJ, Kelley PG, Bishop E, Jenkin GA, et al. The location of Australian Buruli ulcer lesions-Implications for unravelling disease transmission. PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2017 Aug;11(8):e0005800.

44.   Sexton-Oates NK, Stewardson AJ, Yerramilli A, Johnson PDR. Does skin surface temperature variation account for Buruli ulcer lesion distribution? PLoS neglected tropical diseases. 2020 Apr;14(4):e0007732.

45.   Anita Velink, Jessica L Porter, Timothy P Stinear, Paul D R Johnson. *Mycobacterium ulcerans* not detected by PCR on human skin in Buruli ulcer endemic areas of south eastern Australia. bioRxiv. 2023:2023.03.29.534673.