This is an Accepted Manuscript for Epidemiology & Infection. Subject to change during the editing and production process.

DOI: 10.1017/S0950268825000044

1 Molecular detection and typing of pathogenic Leptospira species from livestock and small

2 mammals in Uganda

- 3 Lordrick Alinaitwe^{1,2,3,4*}, Martin Kimari Wainaina⁵, Salome Dürr², Clovice Kankya⁴, Velma Kivali¹,
- 4 James Bugeza^{1,6}, Christopher Joshua Aturinda⁴, Ashiraf Lubega⁴, Anne Mayer-Scholl⁵, Jolly
- 5 Justine Hoona⁷, Peter Bahn⁵, Jens Andre Hammerl⁵, Kristina Roesel¹, Elizabeth A. J. Cook^{1#}, and
- 6 Martin H. Richter^{5*#}
- ¹ Human and Animal Health Program, International Livestock Research Institute, Nairobi, Kenya
- 8 ²Veterinary Public Health Institute, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland
- 9 ³ Graduate School for Cellular and Biomedical Sciences, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland
- 10 ⁴ College of Veterinary Medicine, Animal Resources and Biosecurity (COVAB), Makerere
- 11 University, Kampala, Uganda
- 12 ⁵ Department of Biological Safety, German Federal Institute for Risk Assessment, Berlin,
- 13 Germany
- ⁶ Vaccinology Research Program, National Livestock Resources Research Institute, Kampala,
- 15 Uganda
- ⁷ Department of Animal Production, Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries
- 17 (MAAIF), Entebbe, Uganda
- 18 $#$ denotes equal contribution
- ^{*} Correspondence: Lordrick Alinaitwe (lordricka@gmail.com and Martin H. Richter
- 20 Martin.Richter@bfr.bund.de)

21 Abstract

This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives licence (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is unaltered and is properly cited. The written permission of Cambridge University Press must be obtained for commercial re-use or in order to create a derivative work.

22 Leptospira are bacteria that cause leptospirosis in both humans and animals. Human Leptospira 23 infections in Uganda are suspected to arise from animal-human interactions. From a 24 nationwide survey to determine Leptospira prevalence and circulating sequence types in 25 Uganda, we tested 2030 livestock kidney samples, and 117 small mammals (rodents and 26 shrews) using a real-time PCR targeting the lipL32 gene. Pathogenic Leptospira species were 27 detected in 45 livestock samples but not in the small mammals. The prevalence was 6.12% in 28 sheep, 4.25% in cattle, 2.08% in goats, and 0.46% in pigs. Sequence typing revealed that L. 29 borgpetersenii, L. kirschneri, and L. interrogans are widespread across Uganda, with 13 novel 30 sequence types identified. These findings enhance the East African MLST database and support 31 the hypothesis that domesticated animals may be a source of human leptospirosis in Uganda, 32 highlighting the need for increased awareness among those in close contact with livestock.

33 Introduction

34 Leptospira is a genus of spirochete bacteria which includes pathogenic species that cause leptospirosis in humans and animals. Leptospirosis is spread worldwide, with an estimated one 36 million cases and 58900 deaths annually [1]. The genus Leptospira comprises approximately 64 37 genomospecies and over 250 serovars [2]. Although regional endemicity of certain Leptospira serovars and host-adapted types have been reported, small mammals, such as rodents and shrews are regarded as the main reservoirs in many instances [3]. Animal reservoirs do not show symptoms but are capable of shedding leptospires in urine for prolonged periods, consequently contaminating water and soil [4]. Infection in humans and domestic animals occurs through direct contact of mucosae or damaged skin with infected urine or abortive tissues or indirectly through contaminated water and soil [2,3].

44 In Uganda, there is growing evidence of Leptospira infection among febrile patients, and domesticated animals are speculated to be the source [5–7]. In one study, seroprevalence of 35% was estimated, with those involved in the skinning of cattle having 12 times higher odds of being seropositive [6]. Follow-up surveys of cattle, goats, sheep, and pigs across the country 48 revealed Leptospira seroprevalence rates of 19.3% to 27.8% [8-11]. Although this could mean 49 endemicity and widespread Leptospira exposure among domestic animals in Uganda, the public health relevance of such exposures remains unresolved. Only animals with ongoing clinical infection or chronic carriers pose risk of infection to humans and other animals or have the potential to contaminate the environment.

53 In Uganda, Leptospira infection based on real-time PCR assays has only been demonstrated in cattle, dogs, and pigs, with limited sequence typing data [14–16]. In the present study, we sampled livestock and small mammals at slaughter facilities across Uganda, to determine the 56 status of Leptospira infection and circulating sequence types. Slaughter facilities offered 57 convenient access to kidney specimens for PCR testing, enabling the detection of Leptospira in large livestock populations with wide geographical coverage. These facilities can also concentrate zoonotic agents and potentially spread infections to nearby communities through environmental contamination or by attracting disease reservoirs like small mammals [15].

Materials and Methods

Research design

Between December 2021 and October 2022, we conducted a cross-sectional study in selected livestock slaughter facilities across three of the four geographical regions of Uganda (East,

65 North and Central). In each region, the district with the largest number of daily slaughters for all 66 species was selected as the study site, except in the East, where no one district slaughtered the 67 highest number of all the livestock species. Instead, two study sites were recruited. The 68 selected study sites were Lira in the North, Kampala in the Central, and Mbale and Soroti in the 69 East (Figure 1). No site was recruited in the Western region following notification by key 70 informants that a significant proportion of the livestock slaughtered in Kampala (our study site 71 in Central) came from the West, and previous studies in slaughter facilities in Kampala have

72 reported similar findings [15, 16].

- 74 Figure 1. Map of Uganda showing the regions (a) and districts selected as sites for this cross-
- 75 sectional study (b). Source of shapefiles: Uganda Subnational Administrative Boundaries -
- 76 Humanitarian Data Exchange (humdata.org) and World Administrative Boundaries Countries
- 77 and Territories Opendatasoft
- 78 Sample size

Sample sizes were calculated in Epitools-epidemiological calculators [16], to estimate the 80 overall true prevalence of Leptospira in Uganda without aiming to compare differences between the regions. The minimum sample estimates were 316 cattle (based on 7.2% 82 prevalence in Ugandan slaughter cattle [13]), 53 each for goats and sheep (based on 1.2% 83 prevalence reported in Tanzania [17]), 114 for pigs (assuming a conservative prevalence of 5%), and 99 for small mammals (based on 3.5% prevalence from an unpublished survey conducted by the first author and colleagues at a wildlife-human interface in southwestern Uganda in 86 2016). The estimates considered a lipL32 real-time PCR with a sensitivity of 93% and specificity of 98.3% [18] and an error margin of 5%. However, as many samples as could be tested for each species were considered since these samples had already been collected to match the sample 89 sizes for estimating Leptospira seroprevalence in the same population. Leptospira prevalence data for goats are based on reports from countries neighboring Uganda due to missing local reports at the time the study was designed.

Sampling of livestock

At each site, collection of samples from cattle and small ruminants (goats and sheep) was alternated daily over a 30 day-period to minimize the overrepresentation of animals with the same population characteristics. Pigs were sampled for 16 consecutive days, except in the Eastern region, where sampling was only possible for 10 days due to Easter festivals. An extra pig slaughter facility was enrolled in the East to compensate for this difference in sampling time. Consecutive collection of pig samples was considered because the daily slaughter stock turnover ranged between 80 and 100% in all sites at the time.

On each collection day, slaughtered animals were sampled opportunistically (the next animal was selected when the previous animal was completely sampled). From every animal chosen, a random piece of kidney that included the cortex and medulla and weighed at least five grams was collected aseptically into a sterile screw cap container. The sample volume was as required for the tissue homogenization methods used in this study. Age (young, adult), sex (male, female), and breed (local, exotic, or cross) were noted for each animal, and information on the district of origin was obtained from consultation with the traders or animal movement permits held at the slaughter facilities. Samples were loaded in an ice-cooled box and dispatched daily to the Central Diagnostic Laboratory at the College of Veterinary Medicine, Animal Resources and Biosecurity (COVAB), Makerere University, Uganda. Samples arrived at COVAB on the same day except during collections from the Eastern and Northern regions, where arrival was the next day.

Sampling small mammals

Small mammals were trapped at the same slaughter facilities where livestock were sampled, and in consenting homesteads within a 500-meter radius from the slaughter facilities. The number of homesteads enrolled per region was aimed at a cumulative trap effort of 200 trap nights, except in the central region where the effort was doubled because of the reported scarcity of rodents. For every homestead, two to five small Sherman traps (HB Sherman Traps, Tallahassee, USA) were set in houses, stores, kitchens, poultry houses, or surrounding vegetation. The traps were baited with a combination of ground nuts, peanut butter, sweet bananas, tomatoes, and silver cyprinid, depending on what was commonly reported as gnawed 121 by small mammals in each homestead. Trapping was done overnight, with the baits and

successful traps replaced each morning. Captured animals were euthanized using diethyl ether

- and transported in ice-cooled boxes to the Central Diagnostic Laboratory, COVAB, Makerere
- University, where species identification was performed by an experienced zoologist based on
- phenotypic characterization and measurements of morphometric features [19]. The
- determination of sex and approximate age were based on external sexual characteristics. This
- was followed by dissection and extraction of the kidney, spleen, and part of the liver.

Preparation of tissue homogenates and DNA extraction

Three grams of livestock kidney tissue was homogenized and reconstituted in 6 mL of sterile phosphate-buffered saline (pH 7.4; Rankem–RFCL, India). For the small mammals, 50% homogenate was prepared from a pool of both kidneys, the spleen, and part of the liver. 132 Homogenization was achieved by crushing the tissues in stomacher bags (BA6040, Stomacher[®] 133 80, Seward Ltd., UK) using a ceramic pestle. DNA was extracted from 100 µl of tissue homogenate using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit for blood or tissue (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer´s guidelines. A dry spin was applied, and the DNA was eluted in buffer AE in two successive steps of 50 µl each and stored at –20 °C. For every extraction run, a 137 Leptospira-positive homogenate was included as a positive extraction control, and pyrogen-free water was used as a negative extraction control.

Isolation of Leptospira species

Kidney homogenates from 25% of the livestock samples and from all the small mammals collected each day were cultured to isolate leptospires. Three 10-fold serial dilutions of each homogenate were made in 5 mL of commercial formulations of Ellinghausen-McCulloughJohnson-Harris (EMJH) medium in which supplements of albumin, polysorbate 80 and additional growth factors have been added (BD Difco™ Leptospira Enrichment EMJH, product 279510, USA). The primary inoculates (dilution of 1/10) were discarded, and the two 146 subsequent dilutions were incubated at 29.5 °C for 2 days before checking for any signs of 147 turbidity. Subsequent subcultures with visible turbidity were then made in 5 mL of fresh EMJH in which 5'-fluorouracil had been added at a concentration of 200 mg/L and examined every 7- 14 days under a dark field microscope for visible leptospires. Cultures in which no visible turbidity or leptospires were observable after 14 weeks were autoclaved and discarded. DNA was isolated from suspected cultures and the presence of pathogenic leptospires tested using a real-time PCR as described below.

Real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

154 A TaqMan PCR assay targeting the lipL32 gene was used to detect pathogenic Leptospira in the DNA from livestock and rodent samples. The primers and probes used in this study were described previously by Villumsen et al [20] and synthesized by Eurofins Genomics, France. The 157 presence/absence of the bacteria was determined on a Quantistudio™ 5 PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) under the following conditions: pre- and post-cycling at 60 °C for 30 seconds, holding at 50 °C for 2 minutes, 95 °C for 10 minutes and 45 cycles of 95 °C for 15 seconds and 60 °C for 1 minute. The final concentrations of the mixture in a reaction volume of 161 20 ul were: 1x TaqMan[™] Fast Advanced Master Mix, 0.5x TaqMan® Exogenous Internal Positive Control mix (IPC), 0.5x IPC template (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA), 1 µM each 163 primer, 80 nM probe and 2.0 µl of DNA template. DNA from L. interrogans serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae (strain RGA) and from a positive extraction sample were included as

165 amplification controls, and 10X Block-Exp IPC® (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and pyrogen-free water were used as negative amplification controls. A positive sample was one that showed an exponential amplification curve in fewer than 41 cycles, with the fluorescence threshold set at 0.06.

Identification of infecting Leptospira species

170 Leptospira-positive samples with cycle threshold (Ct) ≤36 cycles were typed using nested single-171 locus sequence typing (SLST) of the secY gene as described previously [21], and sequences of 245 bp fragments were searched against the BLASTn database for species identification (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) was performed on 174 the secY-positive samples using Scheme 1, which targets seven housekeeping genes, namely, 175 glmU, pntA, sucA, tpiA, pfkB, mreA, and caiB [22]. The sequences were submitted to the PubMLST Leptospira database (http://pubmlst.org/leptospira, accessed in November 2023) to determine the allele and allelic profiles for sequence type identification. The sequences were analyzed using Bionumerics software 7.6.3 (Applied Maths, Belgium). SecY sequences and concatenated sequences from the MLST were imported to R 4.1.1 [23] using the Biostrings and msa packages, where multiple sequence alignments were generated using the clustal omega method, and distance matrixes were computed. Phylogenetic trees were constructed using the 182 neighbor-joining method.

Data analysis

184 The data were entered into Microsoft Excel® and analyzed in R version 4.1.1 [23]. Descriptive analysis of population demographics by animal species, breed, age, sex, and region of origin

- 186 was performed, and the true Leptospira prevalence was calculated using the epi. prev function
- 187 of the EpiR package, based on the Rogan-Gladen estimator. The input sensitivity and specificity
- of the PCR were 86% and 100%, respectively [20], with the method set to "blaker".
- Ethical considerations
- This study was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of the
- International Livestock Research Institute (Approval Number ILRI-IACUC2022-17), the School of
- Biosecurity, Biotechnical and Laboratory Sciences, College of Veterinary Medicine, Animal
- Resources and Biosecurity (COVAB), Makerere University (Approval number
- SBLS/HDRC/20/012) and the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (Approval
- Number HS1563ES).

Results

- Population characteristics of the sampled livestock and small mammals
- Of the 2030 livestock sampled, 820 cattle, 335 goats, 114 sheep, and 761 pigs were included.
- Up to 78.47% (n=1593) of the animals were adults. There were more female animals sampled,
- except for cattle, where 57.56% (472/820) were males (Table 1). Cattle, goats, and sheep were
- predominantly local breeds, while 65.70% (500/761) of the pigs were crossbred. The origin of
- 3.94% (n = 80) of the animals sampled could not be determined due to lack of access to
- accompanying documentation.
- With a total of 877 trap nights, 117 small mammals were captured from the three regions,
- yielding an overall trap success rate of 13.34%. Most of the captures were from the Eastern

the Central region, only 26 small mammals were captured (4.81% success with 457 trap nights). There were more male (70.09%, n = 82) and adult (92.31%, n = 108) small mammals captured. 209 The house rat (Rattus rattus) was the most common (65.81%, $n = 77$). The African pygmy mouse 210 (Mus minutoides; 18.80%, $n = 22$), the house mouse (Mus musculus; 4.27%, $n = 5$), the African 211 grass rat (Arvicanthis niloticus; 2.56%, n = 3) and the African giant shrew (Crocidura olivieri; 8.55%, n = 10) were also captured. Prevalence of Leptospira infection in livestock and small mammals based on the lipL32 PCR Leptospira infection was detected in 45 of 2030 livestock samples by PCR. Most of the infected livestock were adult (91.1%, 41/45), or from the Northern region (57.8%, 26/45) (Table 2). The estimated true prevalence of infection was highest in sheep (6.12%; 95% CI = 2.69–12.89), followed by cattle (4.25%; 95% CI = 2.91–5.98), goats (2.08%; CI = 0.91–4.38) and pigs (0.46%; CI = 0.12–1.31). Further statistical analysis of the association between Leptospira infection and age, sex or region of origin was not performed due to the low number of positives observed (Table 2). None of the 117 small mammals were infected (0%; CI = 0.00–3.55). Culturing yielded 221 four presumptive Leptospira isolates from two cattle, one goat and one house rat. However, 222 the lipL32 PCR analysis of DNA from these isolates was negative, implying that they may have 223 been nonpathogenic Leptospira species, and thus were not followed further.

206 $(40.17\%$, n = 47) and Northern regions (37.61%, n = 44). Despite doubling the trapping effort in

Categor y	Levels	number of sampled animals (%)				
		Cattle	Goats	Sheep	Pigs	Total
Sex	Female	348 (42.44)	178 (53.13)	63 (55.26)	444 (58.34)	1033
						(50.89)
	Male	472 (57.56)	157 (46.87)	51 (44.74)	317 (41.66)	997
						(49.11)
Age	Adult*	737 (89.88)	289 (86.27)	102 (89.47)	465 (61.10)	1593
	Juvenile	83 (10.12)	46 (13.73)	12 (10.53)	296 (38.90)	(78.47) 437
						(21.53)
Breed	Cross	130 (15.85)	61 (18.21)	2(1.75)	500 (65.70)	693
						(34.14)
	Exotic	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	(0.00)	2(0.26)	$\overline{2}$
						(0.01)
	Local	690 (84.15)	274 (81.79)	112 (98.25)	259 (34.03)	1335
						(65.76)
Region of origin	Central	153 (18.66)	28 (8.35)	7(6.14)	421 (55.32)	609
	Eastern	107 (13.05)	39 (11.64)	5(4.38)	119 (15.64)	(30.00) 270
						(13.30)
	Northern	454 (55.37)	191 (57.01)	70 (61.40)	210 (27.59)	925
						(45.57)
	Western	43 (5.24)	65 (19.40)	25 (21.93)	1(0.13)	134
						(6.60)
	Across	12(1.46)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	
	Tanzania					12
	border					(0.59)
	Undetermined	51(6.22)	12(3.58)	7(6.14)	10(1.31)	80 (3.94)
Total		820 (100)	335 (100)	114 (100)	761 (100)	2030
						(100)

226 Table 1: Population characteristics of the livestock (n= 2030) sampled during a cross-sectional 227 study in slaughter facilities in Uganda

230 Table 2: Proportion of Leptospira-infected livestock by species, sex, breed, age, and region of 231 origin

232 *Adult cattle were defined as ≥1.5 years, a goat as one ≥7 months and a pig ≥6 months

233 Leptospira species and sequence types

243 sequenced via MLST, leading to the identification of new alleles for these housekeeping genes

244 and, consequently, 13 novel STs that were registered in the PubMLST database (Figure 2).

245 These comprise ST 357, ST 359, ST 360, ST 364, ST 365, ST 368, ST 369, ST 371, ST 374, ST 377,

246 ST 379, ST 380, and ST 381.

247

248

250 Figure 2. The phylogenetic relationship of leptospires detected in various slaughter animals by 251 (a) single locus and multilocus sequence typing, with the region, source of samples, and the 252 sequence types (ST) identified (b). MLST alignment utilized concatenated sequences of the 253 seven scheme 1 genes, and novel sequence types are denoted by an asterisk (*). The sequence 254 type could not be identified for SK0358 and CK0777 due to failure in the amplification of the 255 caiB and tpiA genes, respectively.

256 Discussion

257 We detected infection with pathogenic Leptospira of the species L. borgpetersenii, L. kirschneri 258 and L. interrogans among apparently healthy cattle, goats, sheep, and pigs, suggesting their 259 role as Leptospira carriers in Uganda. This finding has important implications for public health 260 and animal health, as it highlights the potential risk of transmission through contact with these 261 animals. Leptospira infection in livestock results in reproduction and production losses, such as 262 milk yield reduction, stunting, abortions, and deaths. This could have far-reaching economic 263 effects since cattle, goats, sheep, and pigs are the most common livestock kept in Uganda, and 264 are a source of livelihood for up to 70% of households [24]. Infected livestock may also carry 265 and shed leptospires in urine for weeks to years, consequently contaminating soil and water 266 sources, and posing risk of infection for humans $[4]$.

267 From a systematic review of leptospirosis in Africa, livestock particularly cattle appear to be 268 important hosts of several Leptospira serogroups, though few data are available to allow 269 comparison of Leptospira infection in linked human and animal populations [25]. In East Africa, 270 Leptospira exposures have been reported among febrile patients, slaughterhouse workers, and 271 sugarcane plantation workers [26-28]. In Uganda, human Leptospira exposures have earlier 272 been speculated to result from animal contact [5–7]. Findings from the current study indirectly 273 build onto this speculation, especially that Leptospira sequence types identified in the current 274 study belong to L. borgpetersenii, L. kirschneri and L. interrogans, the same Leptospira species 275 previously reported in febrile patients in Uganda [6], and elsewhere in East Africa [6,26,29,30].

276 The MLST results revealed the circulation of the same Leptospira sequence types within 277 livestock species from different regions of Uganda, implying widespread Leptospira infection. 278 This could be explained by animal movements and trade across regions within Uganda [31] and 279 the neighboring countries [32]. Twelve cattle sampled in our study were reportedly sourced 280 from across the Tanzanian border, and one was Leptospira positive but did not qualify for 281 sequencing (had a Ct of 38). Leptospira sequence type (ST) 152, one of the most detected STs in 282 our study, was also detected in isolates from cattle in Tanzania [17]. Furthermore, the sharing 283 of ST 152 between goats and cattle in the current study may imply interspecies transmission or 284 a common source of infection, since cattle and goats are usually kept together in Uganda[33]. 285 The identification of several other new STs within L. borgpetersenii and L. kirschneri in the 286 current study may mean that the Leptospira strains circulating in Uganda are both novel and 287 genetically diverse. While we also intended to characterize the local strains further by next-288 generation sequencing, we failed at isolating pathogenic leptospires in the present study. 289 Future studies should consider isolation from clinical cases; target multiple sample types, 290 including urine, blood, or kidney tissue; and employ a prescreening test, such as PCR.

291 Comparable levels of Leptospira infection as found in livestock in the current study, have been 292 reported elsewhere in East Africa. For example, in a cross-sectional study of livestock sampled 293 from slaughterhouses in Tanzania [17], pathogenic Leptospira infection was detected in 7.1% 294 cattle (n = 452), 1.2% goats (n = 167) and 1.1% sheep (n = 89). Earlier studies in Uganda 295 revealed Leptospira prevalence of 8.8% (n=500) in slaughter cattle [13], and 10.5% (n= 649) in 296 slaughter pigs [14], compared to 4.3%; and 0.5% respectively reported in the current study. This 297 could be because the other studies employed a more comprehensive sampling approach, which

included kidneys, urine, and reproductive tissue, despite being based in slaughter facilities from only one region of Uganda and studying one livestock species each. In the current study, 300 Leptospira prevalence in pigs was still comparably lower than in the other livestock species possibly due to the limited exposure risk associated with the semi-intensive systems under which most pigs in Uganda are kept. Further statistical analysis of the association between 303 Leptospira infection and region of origin or age and sex was not performed due to the low number of positive samples detected.

305 The absence of PCR-positive results in the 117 rodents or shrews captured near slaughter 306 facilities in Uganda suggests that small mammals have a limited role in the community spread 307 of Leptospira. This could also indicate that slaughter facilities in Uganda do not significantly 308 contribute to Leptospira concentration. However, these conclusions may be undermined by the 309 fact that slaughtered livestock originate from various locations and spend minimal time at these 310 facilities. The predominance of the Rattus rattus species, known for staying close to human 311 settlements with minimal habitat sharing with other rodents, may also have influenced the 312 findings. The prevalence of Leptospira infection among Rattus rattus species is generally low 313 even in environments where a high Leptospira prevalence is reported [34, 35].

314 Despite reports of Leptospira infection in rodents in some parts of Africa [36, 37], their role as 315 Leptospira reservoirs in East Africa seems limited. A two-year cross-sectional survey conducted 316 at 12 randomly selected sites in Tanzania revealed no Leptospira infection in any of the 384 317 rodents captured [17]. The first author of the present study has earlier participated in two 318 independent captures of small mammals conducted in a rural agricultural environment and at a 319 wildlife-human interface in Uganda and found Leptospira infection in 2.6% (n = 234), and 3.5%

(n = 198) respectively (unpublished). Despite this, small mammals or wildlife reservoirs may still contaminate environmental sources such as water, and soil in grazing fields from which domesticated animals are indirectly infected. Given their close interaction with humans and larger urine volumes, livestock are likely the more important carriers and sources of human Leptospira infection in Uganda, compared to small mammals.

Our study documents the livestock reservoirs of pathogenic leptospires in Uganda and the 326 circulating Leptospira species and sequence types among these reservoirs, with the long-term 327 goal of informing prevention and control measures for leptospirosis in Uganda. The Leptospira sequence types identified in the present study, including the novel ones, contribute to the MLST database for East Africa and offer a basis for further research to isolate and identify the serogroups and serovars to which these novel sequence types could belong. Our findings also build onto the existing hypothesis that domesticated animals could be a source of human 332 Leptospira infection in Uganda, emphasizing the importance of raising awareness among individuals in regular contact with livestock, such as farmers, slaughterhouse workers, and veterinarians.

Data availability

- All necessary data have been presented in the manuscript, and further specific requests can be through the corresponding authors.
- Author Contributions

Conceptualization: LA, SD, CK, JJH, AMS, KR, MHR and EAJC; Funding acquisition: MHR, AMS, EAJC and KR; Investigation: LA, JB, VK, CK, CJA, MW, PB, JAH and MHR; Methodology: LA, SD, CK, AL, CJA, AMS, EAJC, MW, JAH, PB and KR; Formal analysis: LA, MW and SD; Supervision: SD, CK, AMS, EAJC and KR; Visualization: LA, MW, JAH and SD; Writing original draft: LA, CK and SD; Review and editing: All authors.

Financial support

This study was funded by the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ 001), with additional support from the CGIAR Research Programs on Livestock (CRP001); Agriculture for Nutrition and Health (CRP003); and the CGIAR Initiative on One Health (CGL003).

- Competing interest
- The authors declare none.
-

References

- [1] Costa F, Hagan JE, Calcagno J, Kane M, Torgerson P, Martinez-Silveira MS, et al. Global morbidity and mortality of leptospirosis: a systematic review. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2015;9:e0003898.
- [2] Vincent AT, Schiettekatte O, Goarant C, Neela VK, Bernet E, Thibeaux R, et al. Revisiting the taxonomy and evolution of pathogenicity of the genus Leptospira through the prism of genomics. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2019;13:e0007270.

- [10] Millán J, Chirife AD, Kalema-Zikusoka G, Cabezón O, Muro J, Marco I, et al. Serosurvey of dogs for human, livestock, and wildlife pathogens, Uganda. Emerging Infectious Diseases 2013;19:680.
- [11] Alinaitwe L, Aturinda CJ, Lubega A, Kivali V, Bugeza J, Wainaina M, et al. Cross-sectional serosurvey of Leptospira species among slaughter pigs, goats, and sheep in Uganda. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2024;18:e0012055.
- [12] Alinaitwe L, Kakooza S, Eneku W, Dreyfus A, Campos SR. Case of clinical canine
- leptospirosis in Uganda 2017:1–4. https://doi.org/10.1136/vetreccr-2017-000484.
- [13] Alinaitwe L, Kankya C, Allan KJ, Rodriguez-Campos S, Torgerson P, Dreyfus A. Bovine
- leptospirosis in abattoirs in Uganda: Molecular detection and risk of exposure among
- workers. Zoonoses and Public Health 2019;66. https://doi.org/10.1111/zph.12616.
- [14] Atherstone C, Mgode GF, Dhand NK, Alonso S, Grace D, Ward MP, et al. Selected
- endemic zoonoses in pigs presenting for slaughter in Kampala, Uganda. The American
- Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 2020;103:2552.
- [15] García-Díez J, Saraiva S, Moura D, Grispoldi L, Cenci-Goga BT, Saraiva C. The Importance of the Slaughterhouse in Surveilling Animal and Public Health: A Systematic Review. Veterinary Sciences 2023;10:167.
- [16] Sergeant ESG. Epitools epidemiological calculators 2018.
- [17] Allan KJ, Halliday JEB, Moseley M, Carter RW, Ahmed A, Goris MGA, et al. Assessment of animal hosts of pathogenic Leptospira in northern Tanzania. PLoS Neglected Tropical

Diseases 2018;12:e0006444.

- [18] Ahmed AA, Goris MGA, Meijer MC. Development of lipL32 real-time PCR combined with
- an internal and extraction control for pathogenic Leptospira detection. PLoS ONE
- 2020;15:1–11. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0241584.
- [19] Delany MJ. The Rodents of Uganda. vol. 35. Trustees of the British Museum (Natural History); 1975.
- 405 [20] Villumsen S, Pedersen R, Borre MB, Ahrens P, Jensen JS, Krogfelt KA. Novel TaqMan® PCR
- for detection of Leptospira species in urine and blood: pit-falls of in silico validation.
- Journal of Microbiological Methods 2012;91:184–90.
- [21] Victoria B, Ahmed A, Zuerner RL, Ahmed N, Bulach DM, Quinteiro J, et al. Conservation of the S10-spc-α locus within otherwise highly plastic genomes provides phylogenetic
- insight into the genus Leptospira. PLoS One 2008;3:e2752.
- [22] Boonsilp S, Thaipadungpanit J, Amornchai P, Wuthiekanun V, Bailey MS, Holden MTG, et
- al. A single multilocus sequence typing (MLST) scheme for seven pathogenic Leptospira
- species. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2013;7.
- [23] R Core Team A, Team RC. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. 2012 2022.
- [24] Uganda Bureau of Statistics. 2019 Statistical Abstract. https://www.ubos.org/wp-
- content/uploads/publications/01_20202019_Statistical_Abstract_-Final.pdf. 2019.
- [25] Allan KJ, Biggs HM, Halliday JEB, Kazwala RR, Maro VP, Cleaveland S, et al. Epidemiology
- of Leptospirosis in Africa: A systematic review of a neglected zoonosis and a paradigm for 'One Health'in Africa. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 2015;9.
- [26] Biggs HM, Bui DM, Galloway RL, Stoddard RA, Shadomy S V, Morrissey AB, et al.
- Leptospirosis among hospitalized febrile patients in northern Tanzania. The American
- Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 2011;85:275–81.
- [27] Cook EAJ, de Glanville WA, Thomas LF, Kariuki S, de Clare Bronsvoort BM, Fèvre EM. Risk
- factors for leptospirosis seropositivity in slaughterhouse workers in western Kenya.
- Occupational and Environmental Medicine 2017;74:357–65.
- [28] Mgode GF, Japhary MM, Mhamphi GG, Kiwelu I, Athaide I, Machang'u RS. Leptospirosis
- in sugarcane plantation and fishing communities in Kagera northwestern Tanzania. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2019;13:e0007225.
- [29] Allan KJ, Maze MJ, Galloway RL, Rubach MP, Biggs HM, Halliday JEB, et al. Molecular
- detection and typing of pathogenic Leptospira in febrile patients and phylogenetic
- comparison with Leptospira detected among animals in Tanzania. The American Journal
- of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 2020;103:1427–34.
- 434 [30] Haake DA, Levett PN. Leptospirosis in humans. Leptospira and Leptospirosis, Springer; 2015, p. 65–97.
- [31] González-Gordon L, Porphyre T, Muwonge A, Nantima N, Ademun R, Ochwo S, et al.
- Identifying target areas for risk-based surveillance and control of transboundary animal
- diseases: a seasonal analysis of slaughter and live-trade cattle movements in Uganda.

Scientific Reports 2023;13:18619.

- [32] Zaal F, Siloma MO, Andiema R, Kotomei A. The geography of integration: cross-border livestock trade in East Africa. Pastoral Livestock Marketing in Eastern Africa: Research and Policy Challenges 2006:145–68.
- [33] Muwanika VB, Nsubuga D, Nampanzira DK, Kabi F, Masembe C. Sedentarization among nomadic pastoralists of Uganda: which way to feed livestock? Agroforestry Systems 2019;93:2037–46.
- [34] Halliday JEB, Knobel DL, Allan KJ, Bronsvoort BM de C, Handel I, Agwanda B, et al. Urban leptospirosis in Africa: a cross-sectional survey of Leptospira infection in rodents in the Kibera urban settlement, Nairobi, Kenya. The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 2013;89:1095.
- [35] Krairojananan P, Thaipadungpanit J, Leepitakrat S, Monkanna T, Wanja EW, Schuster AL,
- et al. Low prevalence of leptospira carriage in rodents in leptospirosis-endemic
- northeastern Thailand. Tropical Medicine and Infectious Disease 2020;5:154.
- [36] Rahelinirina S, Léon A, Harstskeerl RA, Sertour N, Ahmed A, Raharimanana C, et al. First isolation and direct evidence for the existence of large small-mammal reservoirs of Leptospira sp. in Madagascar. PloS One 2010;5:e14111.
- [37] Desvars A, Michault A, Chiroleu F. Influence of risk factors on renal leptospiral load in naturally infected wild black rats. Acta Tropica 2013;125:258–61.