Network-based population analysis of 31,595 gonococcal genomes reveals phase variability, genetic diversity and mobile element dynamics drive antimicrobial resistance and phenotypic diversity

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ABSTRACT

With a highly plastic genome allowing the accumulation of antimicrobial resistance (AMR)
determinants, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (*Ngo*) is an urgent public health threat. To better
understand the spread of AMR in *Ngo* and its ability to persist in humans, we performed a
systematic analysis of its global population structure. From 31,595 publicly available genomes,
we curated a maximally diverse representative set of 485 gonococcal genomes, which were
defined into 12 distinct clades on the basis of shared patterns of single nucleotide
polymorphisms. Mapping AMR determinants and mobile elements onto these clades revealed
significant correlation with gonococcal population structure. Notably, several variants associated
with AMR were identified in genes not previously linked with resistance, suggesting roles as
new determinants of resistance or compensatory mutations in resistant strains. Analysis of phase
variable motifs, a significant mechanism driving regulation of expression in *Ngo*, identified 57
genes not previously identified as phase variable; *in vivo* and *in vitro* passaging validated our
sequence-based definition of phase variability and revealed a strong association of phase
variation of the surface proteins Opa and LgtG with improved colonization during infection.
Together these findings highlight the ability of systematic comparative genomic analyses to shed
new light on the drivers of *Ngo* population structure and identify new AMR determinants.

INTRODUCTION

The gram-negative bacterial pathogen *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (*Ngo*) is the causative agent of the sexually transmitted infection gonorrhea. The most common site of gonococcal infection is the urogenital tract, where it typically drives a highly inflammatory response with purulent discharge[1]. Without treatment, infection can result in severe morbidities such as pelvic inflammatory disease or infertility[1]. Since the advent of antimicrobials, *Ngo* has demonstrated the ability to rapidly acquire AMR mechanisms, threatening our ability to treat infections and raising the prospect of untreatable gonorrhea[2]. With rapidly rising rates of infection and widespread development of antimicrobial resistance (AMR), *Ngo* is now considered a high priority pathogen by the World Health Organization, requiring the development of novel therapeutics and additional treatment options[3].

Facilitating its ability to acquire AMR, *Ngo* is naturally competent with many DNA uptake sequences throughout genome, which enables efficient recognition, uptake and incorporation of genetic matter from gonococcal strains and other pathogenic and commensal *Neisseria* species[4,5]. Driving this "promiscuity" are mobile elements, including plasmids containing AMR encoding genes and the Gonococcal Genetic Island (GGI) which encodes a type IV secretion system, together with several proteins of unknown function[6,7]. Further, many gonococcal genes exhibit phase variability in which replication error-produced changes in the number of tandem repeat sequences can alter protein expression[8]. This genetic promiscuity, phase variability and high rates of recombination support *Ngo's* ability to rapidly adapt to novel environmental perturbations and result in a highly diverse population structure not observed in the closely related *Neisseria meningitidis*[5]. This population heterogeneity has confounded traditional efforts to define clonal lineages, requiring instead the use of alternative approaches such as multilocus sequence typing (MLST). Complementing such efforts are tools such as PopNet, which take a more agnostic view to selection of loci for determining population structure[9]. Further, PopNet's use of network graphs help reveal shared genetic elements among multiple strains that are otherwise lost in the rigid structure of more traditional bifurcating phylogenetic trees.

Using genomic data from over 30,000 *Ngo* isolates drawn from all publicly available gonococcal genomes deposited on the NCBI Sequence Read Archive, we sought to apply PopNet to

systematically define the global population structure of *Ngo*, investigate its pangenome and assess

the incidence of AMR mechanisms and the genetic elements helping support their dissemination.

Through this analysis we identify and subsequently validate novel phase variable genes and

previously unrecognized AMR associated loci.

RESULTS

A representative set of 485 genomes captures temporal and geographic diversity

To begin our analyses of the global population structure of *Ngo*, we first defined a representative

set of 485 isolates from an initial set of genome sequence reads from 31,595 gonococcal isolates

hosted by the NCBI sequence read archive annotated by year and location of isolation (September

26th 2023; **Supplementary Table S1)**. To maximize geographic diversity, we prioritized isolates

based on their continent and year of isolation (see Methods; **Figure 1A**). In brief, following

alignment of genome sequence reads to the reference genome (*Ngo* strain TUM19854),

representative isolates were selected by grouping isolates by their continent and year of isolation.

Isolates within each group were then clustered based on average nucleotide identity estimated by

the Jaccard Index, resulting in a set of 451 isolates, to which an additional 20 isolates from rare

body sites together with a set of 14 isolates representing the WHO reference collection[10,11] were

added. The resulting reference collection of 485 isolates represent 36 countries, with 38% of the

isolates recovered from Canada (72 isolates), the United States (58), and the United Kingdom (54)

(**Figure 1B; Supplementary Table S2**). The reference set captures isolates recovered between

1972-2023, with the majority (308, 63.5%) recovered between 2010-2020 (**Figure 1C;**

Supplementary Table S2). Notably, our prioritization strategy resulting in a substantially higher

proportion (148, 30.4%) of isolates from Asia, South America, and Africa compared to the initial

set of 31,595 isolates (**Figure 1D**).

PopNet defined clades show limited enrichment in specific locales

Having defined our set of representative isolates, we next defined the population structure of these

isolates based on shared patterns of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), relative to the

reference genome (*Ngo* strain TUM19854), using PopNet. This revealed 12 clades (designated A-

L; **Figure 2A**) ranging in size from 203 isolates (clade A) to 4 isolates (clades K & L). Within

these clades we found an enrichment of isolates from Africa (p = 1.77×10^{-13}, Fisher's Exact) and

Asia (p=0.00047, Fisher's Exact) in clade B (**Figure 2Ci**). Clades K and L were exclusively

comprised of isolates from Canada, while 4 of 5 isolates from clade J were isolated from Oceania.

No other significant associations between continent of isolation and PopNet clades were observed

at a significance level of $p < 0.05$. Together these findings suggest that geography has only a

limited impact on *Ngo* diversity, highlighting its ability to rapidly disseminate on a global scale

(**Figure 2Bi**).

Comparison of PopNet clades with a maximum likelihood tree constructed using

ClonalFrameML[12] showed good concordance, with clades broadly remaining intact between the

two methods with clear exceptions (**Figure 2Bii**). Comparisons with two other population level

clustering methods, cgMLST and PopPunk[13,14], showed that many cgMLST or PopPunk clusters

with more than 5 isolates were located within a larger PopNet cluster (**Supplementary Figure**

S1). In the context of a smaller, more diverse set of genomes, the agnostic clustering approach and

2-dimensional network generated by PopNet is better suited to highlight similarities and

differences between closely related isolates.

Pangenome analysis reveals PopNet clades reflect patterns of mobile elements

To compare gene complements across the 485 isolates, we generated genome assemblies *de novo*

using unicycler v0.5.0[15]. Genomes were subsequently annotated using Prokka[16] to identify genes

and orthologs defined using Panaroo[17] (**Supplementary Table S3**). Across all genomes we

identified a total of 2,460 unique genes (i.e. orthogroups), with 1,800 "Core" genes appearing in

greater than 95% of isolates, 367 "Shell" genes appearing in between 15% and 95% of isolates and

283 "Cloud" genes appearing in less than 15% of isolates (**Figure 3A**). Accessory (non-core) genes

were clustered according to their presence or absence across genomes using the Jaccard index to

calculate similarity and MCL clustering with a granularity of 1.10 using Graphia[18] (**Figure 3C**).

Several large, distinct clusters emerged, which we found to represent mobile elements. These

mobile elements were identified through sequence similarity searches against a database of

reference sequences generated from the GGI, the *Neisseria* cryptic plasmid, the β-lactamase

plasmid, and 3 variations of the conjugative plasmid (pConj; the pEP5050 American tetM plasmid,

the pEP5233 Dutch plasmid, and the pEP5289 Dutch tetM plasmid). The GGI was identified in

315 (64.7%) isolates, the cryptic plasmid was identified in 429 (90.1%) isolates, the β-lactamase

plasmid was identified in 70 (14.5%) isolates, and the conjugative plasmid was identified in 165

(33.9%) isolates, of which 97 (19.9% of total isolates; 58.8% of pConj containing isolates) were a

tetM-containing plasmid.

Notably, clustering of isolates based on their gene complements was largely congruent with

PopNet defined clades (**Figure 3B**). This gene-based clustering appears to have been largely

driven by the presence or absence of mobile elements, specifically the GGI and the conjugative

plasmid, neither of which are present in *Ngo* TUM19854 and were therefore not included in the

PopNet analysis (**Figures 3A and 3B**). Further investigation of PopNet defined clades revealed a

spectrum of associations with different mobile elements (**Figure 2Cii**). Of note, isolates from

Africa were found to be significantly enriched in pConj-TET (34/42 isolates; $p=5.59\times10^{-19}$,

Fisher's exact) and the β-lactamase plasmid (21/42; $p=1.34\times10^{-8}$, Fisher's exact), independent of

the year of isolation and likely associated with the continued use of penicillin and tetracycline to

treat *Ngo* infections in Africa.

We used the MCL clustering tool implemented in Graphia, to identify clusters of genes based on

their shared presence or absence in our set of representative genomes[18]. While some of these

clusters lined up with the mobile elements described above, others did not. We sought to further

characterize several of these clusters that were present in <50% of our genomes and included at

least 5 genes (**Supplementary Table S4**). Of the 5 clusters meeting these criteria, one (MCL

cluster 3) represented the previously identified VirB type IV secretion system while the remaining

four represent putatively novel mobile elements (**Figure 3C**). MCL cluster 11 was composed of 5

genes which appear to represent a fully intact *Microviridae* genome present in 7 genomes. All the

cluster 11 genes are found on a single contig in all isolates where it was present, and do not appear

to be integrated into the gonococcal genome. The largest cluster (MCL cluster 5) was composed

of 17 genes present in 17 genomes. Interestingly, all 17 genomes were assigned to PopNet clade

D, which includes isolates from the United Kingdom, Japan and the United States, indicating either

dissemination within the global gonococcal population or multiple independent acquisitions. Many

of the genes present in cluster 5 are annotated as putative phage protein, however these genes do

not all appear on the same contig and instead are split between 2 contigs flanked by core genes

(**Figure 3D**). The last cluster (MCL cluster 13) was the most common (present in 217/485, 44.7%

of our representative set of genomes) and was also composed of 5 genes. Unlike the other clusters,

MCL cluster 13 does not appear to be phage related, and appears to include a membrane associated

ATP-dependent transporter.

PopNet defined clades exhibit distinct signatures of AMR mechanisms that are often

mutually exclusive

With increased concern over the propagation of AMR within *Ngo* populations, we next used the

online platform PathogenWatch[19] to predict resistance to six antimicrobials – penicillin (PEN),

tetracycline (TET), ciprofloxacin (CIP), azithromycin (AZM), cefixime (CFM) and ceftriaxone

(CRO) - for each of the 485 reference isolates (**Supplementary Figure S2**). Incidence of resistance

to the three older antimicrobials (PEN, TET & CIP) were higher than rates of resistance to the

other three and were significantly enriched in isolates derived from Africa (p=0.029, 0.00011 and

0.016 for PEN, TET & CIP respectively, Fisher's exact).

We found several PopNet clades were significantly associated with resistance to these specific

antimicrobials (**Figure 2B).** Beyond the presence/absence of resistance to certain antimicrobials,

we also observed clades associated with specific mechanisms of resistance. Clade C was enriched

in isolates resistant to TET (23/25 isolates; p=1.63×10^{-5}, Fisher's exact) despite the absence of the

pConj-TET plasmid. Instead, resistance appears a consequence of a double mutation (*mtrR*

promoter -5delA deletion & *rpsJ* V57M). This is contrasted by the high rates of TET resistance in

clade B which also carried the pConj-TET plasmid at rates. The association of AMR patterns and

mechanisms of resistance with clades suggests that AMR helps shape the global population

structure of *Ngo.*

Analysis of repeat expansion distributions identifies 57 potentially novel phase variable

genes

Previous studies have shown that many *Ngo* genes contain repeats that can result in slipped strand

mispairing or site-specific recombination altering their expression and providing a reversible

process to adapt to rapidly changing environments. Within our collection of 485 reference isolates

we searched for candidate phase variable (PV) genes using the repeat motif finding algorithm

PERF[20] to detect simple sequence repeats. From this set we identified 85 genes with repeats that

varied in length, with each repeat length appearing in at least 1% of available sequences for that

gene (**Supplementary Table S5**). These genes were compared with a previous set of 34 genes,

identified through comparisons of locus tags between the reference strains FA1090 and

NCCP11945, with 28 appearing in both sets. This overlap included 11 *opa* genes, 6 genes

characterized as *pilC2* or pilin cassettes, and other well-characterized phase variable genes such as

lgtG, *fetA* and *modA/B*, helping to validate this approach (**Supplementary Table S5**).

The remaining 57 genes represent putative phase variable genes, with the 10 genes exhibiting the

greatest repeat length variation shown in **Table 1**. Among these 10, group_1317 is annotated as a

cytosine-specific methyltransferase, consistent with other gonococcal methyltransferases (e.g.

modA and *modB*) known to be phase variable. Another 2 predicted genes (*argS* and *glyS*) are

annotated as arginyl- and glycyl-tRNA synthetases, a system which was previously identified in a

computational screen for phase variable genes[21]. We identified 2 genes (group_1584 and *prn*) that

were annotated as pertactin or autotransporters, with *prn* appearing to encode a near full length

autotransporter while group_1584 represents a truncated form, with only the N-terminal domain

encoded[22]. Another autotransporter, *autA* is known to be phase variable, however the identified

repeat for *autA* is AAGC, while we identified poly-A tracts in group_1584 and *prn*[23]. While all the

genes so far described are chromosomally encoded "Core" genes, we also identified a gene (*kfrB*)

carried on the conjugative plasmid that possesses a poly-G repeat tract immediately after the start

codon; the protein this encodes plays a role in plasmid partitioning[24].

Passaging gonococci *in vivo* reveals phase variable gene selection

We aimed to evaluate the potential impact that phase variable genes would have on enabling

gonococci to adapt to and survival in a more natural environment. To accomplish this, we utilized

a lower genital tract colonization model with female FVB mice expressing human CEACAM3,

CEACAM5, and CEACAM6[25]. A schematic of the mouse passaging work is shown in Figure 4A.

For initial infection (Passage 1; P1), 12 mice were each inoculated with 10^7 bacteria of N2009

(laboratory-passaged MS11 derivative; denoted parental strain), and vaginal washes were

performed every two days to recover viable bacteria. On Day 2, only 2 of the 12 mice remained

colonized by the bacteria; these were denoted as M1 and M2 (Figure 4A). Mice infected from the

M1 lineage demonstrated progressively higher rates of colonization, 75% and 88% in Passage 2 (P2) and Passage 3 (P3), respectively (**Supplementary Figure S3**). Moreover, we also observed a significant increase in bacterial burden recovered from the P3 isolates compared to the initial inoculum (Wilcoxon ranked-sum, p= 0.0047) (**Figure 4B**). These findings suggest that gonococcal isolates passaged *in vivo* are better adapted for survival during the initial stages of infection (**Figure 4B**).

To differentiate mutations that confer a fitness advantage *in vivo* from those selected by simple subculture, we performed complimentary *in vitro* passaging using the parental strain. From this complementary screen, we identified 9 genes with signatures of phase variability including the known phase variable genes *pilC2*, pilin, *opa* (4), *fetA,*, *lgtG* and *modA* (**Figure 4C**). We observed that the predicted number of repeats in group_1283, which encodes an Opa protein, dropped from 12 to 11 in P2, P3_580 and P3_698. No shift was observed in any of the *in vitro* strains, suggesting that this shift might contribute to the improved colonization of *in vivo* passage 3 isolates. Due to the inherent population heterogeneity in *Ngo*, especially when it comes to phase variable genes, we used capillary gel electrophoresis to determine the bacterial population proportion containing 11 or 12 repeats based on peak density. We found that the parental strain and the 3 tested *in vitro* passage strains showed no variation in repeat length, remaining at 12 repeats the entire time, while the passage 2 and 3 strains were more heterogeneous, with approximately 32.5% of the recovered passage 2 isolates and 100% of P3_676 and P3_698 at 11 repeats (**Figure 4D**). We were unable to obtain sufficient genetic material from recovered P3_680 for analysis. These findings indicate that the majority of the *in vivo*-passaged population has been selected to express this Opa variant (with 11 repeats), consistent with its key role in adhesion to host CEACAMs, though a subset of the population remains Opa off in the tissues[25].

The selection within *lgtG* (group_1111) was also notable, as the parental and all the *in vitro* strains contained a 10bp-long poly-C repeat, while the P2 and all the P3 isolates shifted to an 11bp long repeat. This shift enables complete transcription of *lgtG*, resulting in the attachment of the β-chain to the gonococcal lipooligosaccharide and production of the 2C7 epitope (**Figure 4E**)[26]. Due to the challenges of differentiating single nucleotide length repeats with capillary electrophoresis, we did not perform this analysis for *lgtG*, however we did confirm the presence of the 2C7 epitope

251 exclusively in the *in vivo* passaged strains through an immunoblot assay. Together these findings

252 highlight the ability of our method to identify phase variable genes in an *in vivo* setting, and also

253 identified phase variation in 2 genes, *opa* and *lgtG*, which may play a substantial role in improving

254 *Ngo*'s ability to colonize and infect a humanized mouse model.

Analysis of sequence variants reveals that novel sites of genes involved in AMR are under
positive selection

In the previous sections our genomic surveys identified several phase variable genes that may help

Ngo adapt to environmental perturbations. Another signature of genes supporting adaptation is

whether they are under positive selection. To identify such genes we used the BUSTED algorithm

as implemented in HyPhy[27,28]. Of the 1,853 core genes, 1,724 were sufficiently variable to test for

selection. We identified 355 genes with significant evidence for positive selection (likelihood ratio

test statistic > 0, p-value < 0.05). As expected, given their direct contact with the environment,

positively selected genes were significantly enriched in outer membrane proteins (Benjamini-

Hochberg (BH) corrected p-value 0.00615) (**Figure 5A**). In addition, we also identified several

AMR-associated genes as being under positive selection, including *porB*, *penA*, *parC*, *mtrD*, and

gyrA. To identify specific sites in AMR genes under positive selection, we applied the FUBAR

algorithm as implemented in HyPhy[29]. Sites with a posterior probability of positive selection > 0.9

were considered as sites with strong evidence for selection.

Focusing on the gyrase subunit GyrA, our analyses identified residues S91 and D95, previously

characterized as conferring resistance to ciprofloxacin[30], as being under positive selection

(**Supplementary Table S6**). Ciprofloxacin resistance is also associated with mutations in residues

D86, S87, S88, and E91 in the type IV topoisomerase subunit, ParC. In addition to sites D86, S87

and E91, which interact directly with ciprofloxacin[31,32], we also identified residues T386, G481,

and S598 as being under positive selection. Residues T386 and G481 reside in the α-helices that

connect the catalytic and dimerization domains, while residue S598 is located in the C-terminal

domain (**Figure 5B**)[33]. Independent of these, we identified 8 residues (310, 642, 742, 922, 926,

1052, 1065, 1067) with signatures indicating strong positive selection in *mtrD*, likely reflecting

the acquisition of mosaic alleles from other *Neisseria* sp. associated with azithromycin

resistance[34]. For the known penicillin resistance gene, *penA*, we identified 6 residues with strong

signatures of positive selection (**Figure 5C**). We identified residues A550, P553, K556, and V567

within the α11 helix, which also includes the P551 variant previously linked to penicillin resistance
through inhibition of acylation by β-lactamases[35]. We also identified a residue (A502) in the region
between the β3 and β4 loops that has been linked to ceftriaxone resistance[36]. The final residue
under positive selection was Y201, which is located between the α3n helix and β6n loop in the N-
terminal domain of PenA, which to date has not been linked to AMR[35]. Cumulatively, these finding
reveal signatures of strong positive selection in individual residues of AMR-associated genes,
which may represent new or complementary sites contributing to resistance. This reflects prior
work that has used signatures of positive selection to identify genes contributing to antimicrobial
resistance in *Escherichia coli*[37].

Genome wide association study identifies previously unreported sequence variants
associated with AMR
Beyond signatures of positive selection, genome wide association studies offer a powerful
approach to identify SNPs associated with specific traits such as AMR[38]. Here we used the
software tool, pyseer, with the linear mixed model mode to identify SNPs significantly associated
with predicted resistance to antimicrobials (**Supplementary Table S7)**[39]. We identified several
well-known variants together with several less characterized mutations significantly associated
with AMR. For ciprofloxacin resistance, the former includes the well studied S91F and D95A/N
mutations in GyrA, as well as an S87R mutation in ParC (**Figure 5Di).** However, we also identified
two mutations (G9S & I10V) in LrgB, a cytoplasmic membrane-associated murein hydrolase
transporter, as being associated with ciprofloxacin resistance. We found multiple known and
uncharacterized variants with *penA* associated with resistance to penicillin, ceftriaxone and
cefixime (**Supplementary Figure 4A, 4Ci & 4Cii).** For tetracycline resistance, our analysis
identified a variant in the known resistance gene, RpsJ (M57V), as well as multiple mutations in
rsmB which encodes a methylase that interacts with the target of tetracycline, the 16S portion of
the small ribosomal subunit (**Supplementary Figure 4B**). Finally, we identified multiple
significantly associated variants associated with azithromycin resistance in genes associated with
the MTR multi-drug efflux pump (*mtrC, mtrD, & mtrE*) (**Figure 5Dii**). Interestingly, we also
identified multiple variants in *mqo*, a malate-quinone oxidoreductase involved in the TCA cycle
to be significantly associated with azithromycin resistance. Azithromycin is not known to target
mqo or the TCA cycle, and pairwise structural alignments from AlphaFold predicted structures

using TM-align show *mqo* shares minimal similarity with *rplV* (TM-score 0.11, 7% identity) or

rplD (TM-score 0.17, 6% identity), known ribosomal targets of azithromycin, indicating if a direct

interaction exists it must be unique[40–43] (**Figure 5E**). Together these findings reveal the potential

of genetic analyses to reveal novel AMR determinants within and beyond known AMR-associated

genes.

DISCUSSION

Neisseria gonorrhoeae are not generally considered to be a clonal species based upon classical

phylogenetic analyses[5]. Here, we have used PopNet to analyse the population structure based upon

localized patterns of SNPs to consider whether temporal, geographic, or clinical metadata related

to diversity. We also sought to determine whether AMR or other genetic determinants have a

previously unrecognized distribution. Our set of 485 representative genomes successfully captured

the genetic diversity of the larger set of 31,595 isolates, increasing the relative contribution of

isolates collected from outside North America and Europe. Ensuring representation across the

globe is critical if we are to understand the impact of global public health programs regarding

surveillance and treatment options, factors that are acutely elevated for a pathogen that is restricted

to a single host[2]. Applying the population genomics tool PopNet, we define 12 clades, which, with

the exceptions of clades B, K and L, contain isolates that are globally dispersed, suggesting other,

non-geographical, factors drive gonococcal population structure. While different, we did observe

a high degree of overlap between clades defined by other tools (cgMLST & PopPunk)[13,14],

supporting the utility of PopNet to define genetically distinct sub-populations.

Given the lack of overlap between the geographical location of isolation and clade membership,

we investigated how global population structure may be influenced by other factors. Most

identified clades were not significantly associated with other available metadata, including sex of

patient, site of isolation, year of isolation and country or continent of isolation. We then

investigated other factors not captured in isolate metadata: AMR and the presence of mobile

genetic elements. In keeping with previous findings, we observed PopNet-defined clades correlate

with a strong connection between the presence of specific mobile elements and AMR

determinants[44,45]. The association with mobile elements is particularly striking as PopNet

clustering only accounts for genetic variation in core chromosomal genes, revealing an association

between lineages and specific mobile elements. From these findings, it appears that AMR and mobile elements are the primary drivers of the gonococcal population structure as opposed to traditional metadata like geographic location or site of isolation. Clade B appears to be an exception, as it is significantly associated with isolates recovered from Africa and Asia. Hoewver, this association can be explained by the elevated presence of the β-lactamase plasmid and the TET-containing conjugative plasmid in group B. This is in line with previous studies that have suggested that isolates from lower and middle income countries are more likely to carry plasmids encoding resistance to penicillin or tetracycline[46].

Phase variability is a key mechanism used by *Ngo* to evade the immune system by independently switching on or off (or up-/down-regulating) protein expression of a variety of different genes[22]. While extensive work has been done to characterize these genes in reference strains, and/or by identifying homologs in the closely related species, *N. meningitidis*, recent evidence has suggested that the phase variable repertoire of *Ngo* could be much larger than previously thought[21,22]. In our analysis, we identified 57 genes containing tandem repeats of varying lengths which represent putative phase variable genes. To complement our population-based approaches, we performed an *in vitro* and *in vivo* passaging experiment in an attempt to drive the emergence of phase variability in the reference gonococcal strain MS11. Passaging of gonococci *in vitro* has previously been used to identify phase variable genes[10,27], however this strategy likely selects for expression of factors required for tissue colonization to phase "off". Our *in vivo* passaging in the lower genital tract of CEACAM-humanized mice aimed to identify phase variable genes that help support *Ngo*'s ability to infect and propagate within this mucosal niche. During the passaging experiment, we observed improved colonization of gonococcal isolates with each successive passage, indicating adaptation to the mouse host. Through this tandem approach, we observed several previously characterized phase variable genes (*pilC*, *opa, modA, lgtG & fetA*) to phase vary during passaging, of which two (group_1283, *opa* & group_1111, *lgtG*) varied in repeat number only in the *in vivo* passaged isolates. We confirmed the change in repeat number within the Opa protein encoded by group_1283 of *in vivo* passaged 2 and 3 isolates; since this turns on the expression of this adhesin, it likely contributes to the observed improvement in colonization[47]. We also observed a shift in the number of repeats in all *in vivo* passage 2 and 3 isolates, resulting in transcription of *lgtG*, with no shift observed in the *in vitro* passaged strains. Expression of LgtG leads to the production of the

2C7 epitope, which is present in a high proportion of clinical isolates, indicative of a role in

gonococcal pathogenesis and colonization[48]. The selection for LgtG expression exclusively in all

in vivo-passaged isolates supports this conclusion, and demonstrates the utility of passaging and

sequencing for identifying genomic variation linked to improved gonococcal pathogenicity.

Given the genomic plasticity of *Ngo* and selection constraints imposed by the host immune system,

we hypothesized many *Ngo* genes may be subject to positive, diversifying selective pressure. We

identified 355 of 1,853 core genes to be under positive selection. This number dramatically

expands on the previous estimate of only 10 *Ngo* genes under positive selection, likely reflecting

differences in methodology as well as the larger number of genetically diverse isolates used here[49].

We found no functional enrichment for the positively selected genes, though we did observe a

significant enrichment in predicted outer membrane proteins. Beyond identification of novel genes

responding to host pressure, we also identified several novel sites within known AMR genes

subject to positive selection. These novel sites may represent complimentary variants, emerging

resistance-conferring variants or adaptive responses to the primary mutations and require further

exploration.

We also considered whether variants were associated with the carriage of mobile elements or AMR

through a genome-wide association analysis. We successfully identified known variants in

multiple AMR-associated genes, including *gyrA* and *parC* for ciprofloxacin, *penA* for penicillin,

ceftriaxone, and cefixime, *rpsJ* for tetracycline, and multiple *mtr* genes for azithromycin,

validating our approach. Enticingly, we additionally identified several highly significant variants

associated with AMR in genes with no known links to AMR. These include a variant in *lrgB*

associated with ciprofloxacin resistance; this protein has previously been indirectly linked to

ciprofloxacin resistance in *Ngo* and may play a role in the oxidative stress response[50]. Notably, we

also found multiple significant variants in *mqo*, a malate-quinone oxidoreductase associated with

azithromycin resistance. Despite appearing to have minimal interaction with known azithromycin

targets, studies testing the efficacy of azithromycin against the protozoan parasite *Plasmodium*

falciparum found reduced levels of TCA-associated metabolites, including malate, upon

administration of the drug[51]. It is possible that azithromycin exerts a similar effect in gonococci,

impacting its growth and that mutations in *mqo* may serve to alleviate this effect. Additional work

has been conducted in *P. falciparum* to validate *mqo* as a target for drug development efforts, and

our finding suggest similar efforts in *Ngo* may be pursuing[52].

In this study we curated a representative set of 485 genetically and globally diverse gonococcal

genomes from the 52,874 deposited gonococcal sequences on the NCBI SRA. Using PopNet, we

assessed the population structure of our representative set, and uncovered significant relationships

between population structure, geography, mobile elements, and AMR. This analysis suggests

global gonococcal genetic diversity is driven by the pressure applied by antimicrobials and links

the carriage of mobile elements with chromosomal variants. We used our representative set of

genomes to identify putative novel phase variable genes and were able to identify phase variation

of *opa* and *lgtG* potentially contributing to improved survival in the context of infection. Using a

combined approach of GWAS and tests for selective pressure, we identified new sites and variants

potentially associated with AMR in *Ngo*, demonstrating the utility of these large-scale analyses for

studying AMR in pathogen populations.

<u>MATERIALS & METHODS</u>

Selection of sequences

An initial set of 52,874 accessions of sequencing runs were obtained from the NCBI Sequence

Read Archive on September 26th, 2023 based on a keyword search for "*Neisseria gonorrhoeae*".

This set was reduced to 31,595 by keeping only those accessions containing paired-end Illumina

sequences with associated metadata for the country and year of isolation. Additional metadata

recorded when available included the site of isolation, associated BioProject, and sex of the patient.

All sequence data was obtained using the SRA Toolkit v3.0.0 using the default options for the

prefetch and fasterq-dump commands. Further metadata, such as minimum inhibitory

concentration values were obtained from pubMLST or publications associated with the relevant

BioProjects[53]. Kraken2 v2.1.3 was run to identify erroneously annotated or contaminated

sequences[54]. Any sequence datasets with less than 75% of its reads annotated by Kraken as being

derived from *Ngo* were discarded. Any sequences with between 75 and 85% gonococcal reads

were kept if over 95% of the reads were assigned to the genus *Neisseria.*

Variant discovery for raw sequence data

The reduced set of 31,595 isolates were aligned to the chromosomal genome of *Ngo* strain
TUM19854, the current recommended reference genome for gonococci from the NCBI (obtained
on October 13th, 2023). Alignment was performed using the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK)
v4.2.5.0[55]. Quality control and trimming was performed using fastp v0.23.4 with minimum
qualified phred quality of 20, a 40 percent limit on unqualified bases, a mean quality requirement
of 20, a cut window size of 5, both front and tail cutting, and with correction enabled[56]. Trimmed
reads were then passed to GATK for alignment using bwa v0.7.17 with default settings. The GATK
Haplotype caller was then run with default settings to identify variants. Dependencies for GATK
included samtools v1.17 and picard v2.26.3. Variants were then filtered using bcftools v1.11 and
htslib v1.11 with the following parameters: allelic depth 8, allelic depth forward/reverse 3,
minimum base quality 50, minimum mapping quality score 20 and percent of reads containing
variant 80[57].

Generation of a representative set of sequences
Isolates were grouped by their country of isolation and year of isolation and the Jaccard statistic
was calculated for each pair of sequences using the bedtools v2.31.0 jaccard function with default
settings[58]. An initial clustering step was performed using the k-medoids fastPAM algorithm
implemented in the R packages cluster v2.1.5 and factoextra v1.0.7[59–61]. For each group, a value
for k was determined using the silhouette method, with the maximum value of k capped at 15. The
identified medoids of the clusters were selected as representative isolates. This resulted in an initial
set of 1,307 isolates. Isolates from this set were then grouped by their continent and year of
isolation, and k-medoids clustering was performed as before without a cap on the value of k.
Strains identified as disseminated or ocular as well as the WHO global reference collection were
added to the final set, bringing the total number of isolates to 485[10,11].

PopNet analysis and phylogenetic tree construction
PopNet was used to cluster the reference set of genomes using the variants identified from the
previous analysis[9]. A variant table was generated using the GATK VariantsToTable function from
a merged vcf file of identified variants. The parameters used for the PopNet analysis were
section_length= 5000, S1_iVal = 8, S1_piVal = 19, S2_iVal= 4.5, and S2_piVal= 2.5. These
parameters were determined using the silhouette index readout provided by the tool. Initial

phylogenetic tree reconstruction was performed with IQTree v2.2.2.7 from a sequence alignment

created from the previously identified variants[62]. To begin, Model Finder Plus was run which

identified TPM2u+F+I+R7 as the best substitution model[63]. IQTree was then run using this model

with 1000 ultrafast bootstrap replicates[64]. All other parameters were left as default. This initial tree

was used as a basis for ClonalFrameML v 1.12, which was run with the standard model with 100

pseudo-bootstrap replicates[12]. Assembled genomes were uploaded to pubMLST and automatically

assigned to a cgMLST Ng_300 clade.

Pangenome analysis

Trimmed reads were assembled *de novo* using unicycler v0.5.0 with default settings[15,65]. Gene

prediction and initial annotation was performed using Prokka v1.14.5 with recommended settings

and an added protein database containing annotated proteins from *Ngo* strains MS11, FA19,

FA1090 obtained from the NCBI on March 7th, 2022[16]. The pangenome was calculated using

panaroo v1.3.4 on the strict setting with otherwise default options[17]. Representative gene

sequences from panaroo were supplied to eggNOG-mapper v2.19 with no restrictions on orthology

identification and permitting electronic GO term annotation[66]. AMR genes were predicted from

sequences uploaded to PathogenWatch on January 22nd, 2024[19]. The degree of resistance (resistant,

intermediate, susceptible) was classified based on the EUCAST clinical breakpoints v9.0[67].

Mobile elements were predicted by BLAST+ v2.0.13 against reference sequences AY803022.1,

NC_001377, NC_002098, GU479464.1, GU479465, and GU479466 which were obtained from

the NCBI on December 16th, 2023[68]. Accessory genes were assigned to mobile elements based on

a nucleotide BLAST[68] search against this database with a minimum sequence identity of 85% and

an e-value less than 1×10^{-6}. The Graphia v5.0 MCL clustering tool was used to cluster accessory

genes based on shared presence or absence in our representative collection with a granularity of

1.5[18]. Structures were predicted based on consensus protein sequences using AlphaFold4, and

structural homology searches were performed with FoldSeek release 10[69,70]. Predicted structures

were visualized with UCSF ChimeraX v1.9[71].

Prediction of phase variable genes

Simple sequence repeats were identified from the *de novo* assemblies and the GFF files generated

by Prokka using PERF v0.4.6[20]. Genes with repeats that varied in the number of tandem repeats in

more than 2 isolates where each repeat length was present in at least 5% of genomes were

considered as potentially phase variable. Mutations classified as intergenic were manually verified

to ensure they impacted the associated gene.

Lower genital tract colonization for in vivo passaging

<u>Bacterial growth conditions:</u> *Ngo* MS11, parental strain, was grown on GC agar (Becton,

Dickinson and Company, Sparks, USA) plates supplemented with 1% Isovitalex (ISO, Becton,

Dickinson and Company, Sparks, USA) at 37˚C with 5% CO_2 for 16-20 hours. For *Ngo* isolates

used for in vivo passaging, agar plates included a vancomycin, colistin, nystatin, and

trimethoprim antibiotic mix (VCNT, Becton, Dickinson and Company, Sparks, USA) for *Ngo*

selection.

<u>Mouse strains:</u> 6-8 week old female FVB mice containing a human chromosome-derived BAC

expressing CEACAM3, -5 and -6, were used for all infection experiments[25]. Animals were housed

in cages with sterile rodent chow, sterile water, enrichment material, and 12-hour light-dark cycles.

<u>Gonococcal *in vivo* passaging:</u> Mice were staged by cytological vaginal smears observed under

light microscopy. Those in the diestrus stage of the estrous cycle were started on an antibiotic and

hormone regimen to control impact of commensal microflora on infection. Antibiotics consisted

of 0.6 mg vancomycin hydrochloride (Bioshop, Burlington, ON, Canada) and 2.4 mg streptomycin

sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, Canada) resuspended in 200 µL of PBS administered by

intraperitoneal injection daily from 2 days pre-infection (-2) to 5 days post infection (+5), where

an dose was provided on Day -1. Trimethoprim (Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, Canada) was dissolved

in the drinking water at 40 mg/mL for ad libitum consumption. Water soluble β-estradiol

(SigmaAldrich, Oakville, Canada) was constituted in PBS (0.5 mg/200 µL), filter-sterilized and

administered via subcutaneous injection on Days -2, 0 and +2.

On Day 0, bacteria were resuspended in Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS) with

calcium and magnesium (PBS++ , Life Technologies, Burlington, Canada)and mice were

inoculated with 10^7 bacteria in 2.5 µL Vaginal lavages were performed every two days by washing

the genital tract with 10 µL of PBS++ and plated for bacterial recovery and enumeration. After

~20 hrs bacterial isolates were frozen in 50% brain heart infusion (BHI, Becton, Dickinson and
Company, Sparks, USA) and 25% glycerol (EMD Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) and stored at
-80˚C. Clearance of infection was characterized by 2 consecutive vaginal lavages that tested
negative for *Ngo*.

Gonococcal *in vitro* passaging: Five culture tubes containing 5 mL of BHI supplemented with 1%
ISO was inoculated with the parental strain with a starting optical density at 550 nm (OD550) of
0.05. Bacterial cultures were placed in a 37˚C shaker at 180 rpm. Every 12 hrs, bacterial stocks
were generated and sub-cultured for 5 consecutive days.

Ngo whole genome sequencing: *Ngo* isolates were resuspended in 200 µL of PBS++ and genomic
DNA was extracted by a QIAGEN DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany)
following manufacturer instructions. DNA quality and quantity was checked by NanoDrop ND-
1000 Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA) and Quant-iT^{TM}
PicoGreen® dsDNA Assay Kit (Life Technologies, Oregon, USA) was used to quantify amount
of dsDNA.Genomic DNA was prepared for whole genome sequencing by a Nextera XT library
preparation kit (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Libraries were run on a 1% agarose gel to ensure
libraries were of the correct length prior to poolingand submission to the Donnelly Sequencing
Centre, University of Toronto for sequencing using the Illumina MiSeq platform.

Capillary electrophoresis for confirmation of *opa* repeat lengths
Capillary electrophoresis was performed as described previously for *Neisseria meningitidis*[72].
Briefly, strains were cultured overnight on GC agar as described above, and 3 distinct colonies
per plate were selected and added to 20µl of Lucigen QuickExtract buffer (Mandel, Canada).
Suspended colonies were then heated at 66°C for 6 minutes, then 98°C for 2 minutes to complete
the extraction. Extracted DNA was amplified with PCR using the primers in **Table 2** listed
below, with the forward primer conjugated to a 6-FAM dye. Samples were then diluted to
approximately 1-2ng/µl before being sent for capillary electrophoresis. The results were
analyzed with the ThermoFisher MicroSatellite Analysis tool.

Identification of genes under positive selection

Aligned gene sequences from panaroo for core genes with 5 or more unique sequences were used
as input for selection analyses after removing identical sequences and sequences containing
premature stop codons using Hyphy rmv[27]. First, a tree for each gene was built using IQTree
v2.2.2.7 with 1000 ultrafast bootstraps and otherwise default settings[62]. The BUSTED algorithm
was then run as implemented in HyPhy with default settings for each gene using the generated tree
and panaroo alignment[28]. Genes identified as being under positive selection were then analyzed
with FUBAR as implemented in HyPhy with default settings using the same inputs to identify
specific sites under positive selection[29]. To assess the location of predicted residues under positive
selection, structural models were generated with AlphaFold3 using the AlphaFold server based on
the consensus gene sequences from panaroo[17,69]. Predicted structures were visualized with UCSF
ChimeraX v1.9[71].

Genome wide association study
The genome wide association study was performed using pyseer with the linear mixed model
setting using the VCF file generated as described above[39]. The distance matrix was calculated
using the ClonalFrameML generated tree described above. All other pyseer settings were kept at
default. The count_patterns script was used to establish a significance threshold for each tested
phenotype. The impact of each variant was predicted with SnpEff using the *Ngo* TUM19854
reference genome obtained as previously described[73]. Structural alignments and comparisons
were performed using TM-align with default settings[40].

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ETHICS STATEMENT

All animal procedures conducted in this study were approved by the Local Animal Care

Committee (LACC) at the University of Toronto (Protocol #20011775), which is in compliance

with ethical and legal requirements under Ontario's Animals for Research Act and the federal

Canadian Council on Animal Care.

DATA & CODE AVAILABILITY

The data sets generated in this study are provided in the Supplementary Information and Source

Data files. Codes for analysis and data are available on Github

[https://github.com/ParkinsonLab/Neisseria_work.git].

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.P. and S.D.G conceived the idea of the research and supervised it. D.C and E.J. performed the

computational and data analysis. D.C. and J.M. conducted the mouse passaging and phase

variation experiments and analyzed the data. D.C. wrote the manuscript with contributions from

J.P., S.G.D. & J.L.

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 TABLES

 Table 1: Predicted new phase variable genes.

Gene	Repeat	No. of repeats	Annotation	NGK locus	NGO locus
group_1584	A	33	Pertactin	NGK_2016	NGO_1158
group_280	AACGC	24	Hypothetical protein	-	NGO_0366
argS	AAGC	18	Arginyl-tRNA synthetase	NGK_0832	NGO_0963
group_1317	AACGC	17	C-5 cytosine-specific DNA methylase	NGK_0522	NGO_0365
group_1449	AT	11	Spermidine synthase	NGK_2156	NGO_1752
group_1206	C	11	ISXO2-like transposase domain	NGK_1147	NGO_1157
kfrB	C	10	-	-	-
glyS	C	9	Glycyl-tRNA synthetase beta	NGK_2629	NGO_2154
prn	A	8	Autotransporter	NGK_1206	NGO_0694
yigL	C	7	Hydrolase	NGK_1967	-

798   **Table 2: Primers used for capillary electrophoresis.**

Primer	Modification	Sequence
Opa-For	5' 6-FAM	CAACATCAGTGAAAATCGTTCTTTT
Opa-Rev	None	TCGTGGGTAATGTGTTCGTAG

800 **Figure 1: Overview of representative set of 485 *N. gonorrhoeae* genomes.**

801 **a** Schematic of selection of representative genomes. **b** Geographic locations of isolates in the

802 representative set. **c** Geographic and temporal distribution of isolates in the representative set. **d**

803 Comparison of the geographic distribution of isolates between the initial set of 52,784 SRA runs

804 and the representative set of 485.

Figure 2: Population structure of *N. gonorrhoeae* is influenced by AMR and the presence of mobile elements.

a PopNet network view of 485 representative *Ngo* genomes. Nodes represent genomes, coloured by their assigned clades. Annuli show the chromosome painting generated for each genome, with regions sharing a colour showing overlap between genomes. A selection of genomes from clades B, E, I & K are shown to illustrate the chromosome painting visualization. **b** ClonalFrameML generate phylogenetic tree of representative *Ngo* genomes. Outer rings show the assigned PopNet clade, MDR (multi-drug-resistant) status and continent of isolation for each genome. **i**: MDR status overlaid on the PopNet network view. **ii**: Continent of isolation overlaid on the PopNet network view. AZM: azithromycin, CFM: cefixime, XDR: extreme drug resistant. **c** Association between antimicrobial resistance (left, i) or mobile elements (right, ii) and PopNet clades. Only significant associations with a p-value < 0.05 as determined by Fisher's exact test with Bonferonni multiple testing correction are shown.

a

b

Core

Shell

Cloud

Mobile Element
- Both
- GGI
- pConj
- None

Clade
- A
- B
- C
- D
- E
- F
- G
- H
- I
- J
- K
- L

c

DNA (cytosine-5-)-methyltransferase

cryptic

Cluster 13

Cluster 5

GGI

βlac

virB

pConj

Cluster 12

Cluster 11

ABC transporter ATP-binding protein homodimer

d

Microvirus capsid protein F homodimer

TUM19854
Cluster 5 contigs

Figure 3: The pangenome of *N. gonorrhoeae* is dominated by large mobile elements, which

are associated with PopNet clades determined by chromosomal variants.

a Pangenome of *Ngo* is composed of 2460 genes, with 1800 Core (present in > 95% of

genomes), 367 Shell (present in between 15% and 95% of genomes) & 283 Cloud (present in

<15% of genomes) genes. Dendrogram and ordering of genomes on the y-isolates calculated

using complete linkage from a Euclidian distance matrix generated based on shared gene content.

b Top: Network view of isolates clustered by shared gene content coloured by the presence or

absence of 2 large mobile elements: the GGI (gonococcal genetic island) and the pConj

(conjugative plasmid). Bottom: Genomes coloured by PopNet clade overlaid on the network

view of isolates clustered by shared gene content. **c** Clustering of genes based on their co-

occurrence in genomes. Clusters defined by MCL clustering as implemented in Graphia which

are present in <50% of genomes and composed of 5 or more genes are coloured. Predicted

structures from AlphaFold3. **d** Organization of genes from MCL cluster 11 associated with clade

D.

c

*Bolded genes varied between *in vitro* & *in vivo* passages

Gene	Repeat	#of repeats	Annotation
group_1059	C	3	Pilus assembly protein
group_1287	C	2	Pilus assembly protein
group_399	CCTCT	2	Opacity protein
group_579	CCTCT	2	Opacity protein
group_784	C	3	Enterobactin receptor *fetA*
group_1283	**CCTCT**	**3**	**Opacity-associated protein**
group_973	AGCC	2	Adenine specific DNA methylase
group_1471	CCTCT	2	Opacity-associated protein
group_1111	**C**	**2**	**Glycosyl transferase lgtG**

Figure 4: Passaging of *N. gonorrhoeae* improves colonization in a mouse model of infection which may be associated with phase variation of *opa*.

a Schematic overview of *in vivo* and *in vitro* passaging experiment. Coloured mice represent mice successfully colonized by *Ngo* 2 days post infection. Coloured gonococci indicate isolates sequenced by capillary electrophoresis to confirm the repeat lengths of *opa*. **b** Recovered CFU (colony-forming units) of *Ngo* recovered 2 days post infection. Black bars represent the mean CFUs recovered for each passage. **c** Predicted phase variable genes from mouse passaging experiment. **d** Ratio of *opa* repeats in each isolate sequenced by capillary electrophoresis. **e** Schematic of *Ngo* lipooligosaccharide with (bottom) and without (top) lgtG expression, resulting in the production of the 2C7 epitope. Isolates passaged *in vivo* express lgtG, while no expression is observed in isolates passaged *in vitro.* Immunoblot assay for the 2C7 isotope confirms the expression of lgtG in a passage 3 isolate, which is absent from the parental isolate. KDO: 3-Deoxy-D-manno-oct-2-ulosonic. Hep: Heptose. Glc: Glucose. Gal: Galactose. GlcNAc: N-acetylglucosamine. GalNAc: N-Acetylgalactosamine.

Figure 5: GWAS and tests for positive selection identify sites linked to AMR in *N. gonorrhoeae*.

a Boxplot of dN/dS ratio for positive selection of *Ngo* genes by predicted cellular localization. **b** Manhattan plots of variants with significant associations with ciprofloxacin (top) and azithromycin (bottom) resistance. Only variants with an LRT p-value <0.05 are shown. Red lines indicate significance thresholds determined by Bonferroni correction with the number of unique variant patterns as the number of multiple tests. **c** Predicted residues with strong signatures of positive selection in *parC*. Residues highlighted in green are under positive selection and known to contribute to ciprofloxacin resistance. Residues in blue are under positive selection with no known links to AMR. Structural prediction from AlphaFold3 visualized with USCF ChimeraX. **d** Predicted residues with strong signatures of positive selection in *penA*. Highlighted residues are under positive selection with no known links to AMR. Structural prediction from Alphafold3 visualized with USCF ChimeraX.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supplementary Figure S1: Overlap of clustering from PopNet, cgMLST & PopPunk. Tree (left) from ClonalFrameMLST overlaid with PopNet clusters, 11 largest clusters from cgMLST and PopPunk. Network view (right) generated by PopNet overlaid with 11 largest clusters from cgMLST and PopPunk.

Supplementary Figure S2: Predicted AMR from PathogenWatch. Predictions based on assembled genomes using PathogenWatch. Degree of resistance based on EUCAST clinical breakpoints v9.0.

Supplementary Figure S3: Colonization of female transgenic FVB mice by *in vivo* passaged *Ngo*. Mice were checked every 2 days after 1-day post-infection for evidence of colonization. Mice contained a human chromosome-derived BAC expressing CEACAM3, -5 and -6.

Supplementary Figure S4: Variants associated with AMR identified through GWAS. Manhattan plots of variants with significant associations with penicillin (A), tetracycline (B), ceftriaxone (Ci), and cefixime (Cii) resistance. Only variants with an LRT p-value <0.05 are shown. Red lines indicate significance thresholds determined by Bonferroni correction with the number of unique variant patterns as the number of multiple tests.

Supplementary Table S1: SRA metadata from initial set of 31,595 gonococcal genomes.

Supplementary Table S2: Isolate metadata for representative set of 485 genomes.

Supplementary Table S3: Metadata for all genes identified within the gonococcal pangenome.

Supplementary Table S4: Clusters of accessory genes determined through Graphia MCL.

Supplementary Table S5: Phase variable genes identified through genetic screening of representative genomes.

Supplementary Table S6: Evidence for signatures of positive selection at the gene and residue level.

Supplementary Table S7: Variants significantly associated with AMR identified through GWAS.