

1 **Analysis of *Treponema pallidum* strains from China using improved methods for**  
2 **whole-genome sequencing from primary syphilis chancres**

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38 **ABSTRACT**

39 Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) of *Treponema pallidum* subsp. *pallidum* (TPA) has  
40 been constrained by the lack of *in vitro* cultivation methods for isolating spirochetes  
41 from patient samples. We built upon recently developed enrichment methods to  
42 sequence TPA directly from primary syphilis chancre swabs collected in Guangzhou,  
43 China. By combining parallel, pooled whole-genome amplification (ppWGA) with hybrid  
44 selection, we generated high quality genomes from four of eight chancre-swab samples  
45 and two of two rabbit-passaged isolates, all subjected to challenging storage conditions.  
46 This approach enabled the first WGS of Chinese samples without rabbit passage and  
47 provided insights into TPA genetic diversity in China.

48

49 **INTRODUCTION**

50 Efforts to address the resurgence of the sexually transmitted disease syphilis have  
51 been hampered by the limited understanding of the genetic diversity of its causative  
52 pathogen, the spirochete *Treponema pallidum* subsp. *pallidum* (TPA) [1]. A vaccine to  
53 prevent TPA infection and transmission is sorely needed. Design of an effective syphilis  
54 vaccine requires an understanding of the diversity of TPA strains circulating worldwide,  
55 particularly in countries such as China, where the incidence of disease has steadily  
56 increased by more than 30-fold since the mid-1990s but from which only nine TPA  
57 genomes have been reported to date [2-5].

58        Genomic analyses of TPA have lagged behind those of other pathogens, largely  
59        due to the lack of *in vitro* methods for isolating these spirochetes from patient samples  
60        [6]. Since publication of the first complete TPA genome in 1998, only a small number of  
61        TPA genomes have been published, and the majority of sequenced isolates required  
62        passage in rabbit testicles prior to sequencing [7]. Several strategies have been used to  
63        enrich TPA from clinical specimens. Selective enrichment of TPA DNA through  
64        hybridization with RNA oligonucleotides for pull-down of DNA fragments with homology  
65        to known target sequences has now been employed in several recent TPA genomic  
66        analyses [8-10]. Two newer techniques have also been described, one that utilizes anti-  
67        treponemal antibody binding to enrich TPA cells isolated from clinical specimens and  
68        another that employs methyl-directed enrichment using the restriction nuclease *DpnI*  
69        [11, 12]. While these methods represent advancements for the field, improved and  
70        complementary approaches for sequencing TPA in patient samples are needed,  
71        especially for samples with low TPA burdens or DNA loss during sample processing.

72        In the present study, we build upon recent advances in TPA enrichment to expand  
73        the range of samples from which whole-genome sequences can be obtained. We  
74        successfully sequenced TPA DNA extracted from both rabbit-passaged isolates and  
75        chancre swabs from Guangzhou, China. Using a combination of ppWGA and hybrid  
76        selection, we achieved more than 80% genomic coverage in a majority of samples  
77        tested, despite challenging sample processing and storage conditions. Phylogenomic

78 analyses revealed diverse TPA strains, including the first Nichols-like genome  
79 published from China to date.

80

81 **METHODS**

82 **Study population and sample processing**

83 We collected samples from chancre exudates in Guangzhou, China, from 2017 to  
84 2018. In brief, genital ulcers of patients diagnosed with primary syphilis were swabbed  
85 and processed as described in the **Supplementary Methods**. For the present study,  
86 we selected 10 samples from male patients ages 20 to 68 for sequencing  
87 (**Supplementary Table 1**). These included eight DNA samples extracted directly from  
88 chancre swabs and two samples extracted from rabbit testes after intratesticular  
89 passage. This study was approved by the ethics committee of the Dermatology Hospital  
90 of Southern Medical University (GDDHLS-20170614). The University of North Carolina  
91 at Chapel Hill (UNC) institutional review board determined that the analysis of de-  
92 identified TPA DNA samples did not constitute human subjects research (UNC study #  
93 18-1949). All patients provided written informed consent and were offered treatment as  
94 part of routine care.

95 TPA genome copy numbers and total DNA concentrations were quantified using  
96 real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) and a Qubit 4.0 fluorimeter with dsDNA HS reagents  
97 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA), respectively, prior to freeze-

98 drying and overnight shipment to UNC at ambient temperature (see **Supplementary**  
99 **Methods**). Freeze-drying was performed in order to comply with regulatory  
100 requirements and to facilitate long-distance shipment. Dehydrated samples were stored  
101 at -80 °C until resuspension in 25 µl or 100 µl of Buffer EB (QIAGEN, Venlo,  
102 Netherlands).

103

#### 104 **ppWGA, hybrid selection, and library preparation**

105 Total DNA concentrations of resuspended samples were quantified using a Qubit  
106 fluorimeter as described above. For those samples with concentrations below the  
107 fluorimeter's limit of detection (0.2 ng/ul), whole-genome amplification (WGA) using the  
108 Illustra GenomiPhi V2 Amplification kit (GE Healthcare, Chicago, Illinois, USA) was  
109 employed to increase the library input. Three µL of DNA template was used for each  
110 reaction; reactions were otherwise performed according to the manufacturer's  
111 instructions with the exception of reaction time, which was increased to 6 hours due to  
112 the low DNA concentration. Five separate WGA reactions were performed in parallel for  
113 each individual sample. The amplification products for each sample were pooled to  
114 achieve equal total DNA input per WGA reaction and purified using KAPA Pure Beads  
115 (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, Massachusetts, USA).

116 TPA DNA was enriched using the SureSelect XT HS target enrichment system  
117 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), which utilizes RNA oligonucleotide

118 probes to hybridize DNA of interest. We custom-designed probes using all TPA  
119 genomes that were publicly available at the time of construction, with increased tiling  
120 density of probes across specific regions of interest, including phylogenetically  
121 informative loci and those that encode known or putative outer membrane proteins  
122 (**Supplementary Tables 2-3**) [13]. Probe design, library construction, and hybridization  
123 were performed as described in the **Supplementary Methods**. Sequencing was  
124 performed at the UNC High-Throughput Sequencing Facility using the MiSeq platform  
125 (Illumina, San Diego, CA) with 150 bp paired-end reads.

126

### 127 **Genomic alignment, variant calling, and phylogenetic analysis**

128 For phylogenetic analysis, we included 68 publicly available (18 complete and 50  
129 draft), geographically diverse TPA genomes from three continents, in addition to the  
130 genomes generated in the present study. Sequencing alignment, variant calling, and  
131 phylogenetic analysis were performed as depicted in **Figure 1**. Putative sites of  
132 recombination and indels were removed prior to phylogenetic analysis. We assessed  
133 the validity of our variant calls and phylogenetic analysis by Sanger sequencing five  
134 targets, including three loci used in a multilocus strain typing (MLST) system recently  
135 proposed by Grillova *et al.* (*tp0136*, *tp0548* and *tp0705*) and each of TPA's two 23S  
136 rRNA operons, mutations in which have been associated with azithromycin resistance

137 (see **Supplementary Methods**) [14]. Sequences were uploaded to the Sequence Read  
138 Archive and GenBank (accession numbers pending).

139

140 **RESULTS**

141 **Whole-genome sequencing outcomes**

142 After freeze-drying and rehydration, only three samples had sufficient DNA  
143 concentrations for quantification by Qubit. Total DNA concentrations for these samples  
144 ranged from 1.3 to 10.6 ng/uL, representing a 47 to 58% decrease in total DNA  
145 compared to the original samples (**Supplementary Table 4**). The remaining seven  
146 rehydrated DNA samples had concentrations beneath the fluorometer's limit of  
147 detection and were subjected to ppWGA before hybridization (**Figure 1**). Despite  
148 evidence of DNA loss during the process of freeze-drying, shipment, and rehydration,  
149 we successfully sequenced TPA genomes from six of 10 samples (60%), including two  
150 of two rabbit-passaged isolates and four of eight chancre-swab samples that had not  
151 undergone rabbit passage. Among the six samples with sufficient coverage for  
152 phylogenomic analysis, 83.5 to 99.1% of the genomes were covered with  $\geq 3$  reads.

153 Sequencing coverage roughly correlated with the original TPA concentrations  
154 before freeze-drying (**Supplementary Table 4**). Samples that originally contained 3,320  
155 to 3,160,000 copies of *polA* per  $\mu$ L before freeze-drying achieved  $\geq 3x$  depth in  $> 80\%$  of  
156 their genomes. Sequences from samples subjected to ppWGA before hybridization

157 demonstrated evidence of significant “jackpotting” events (**Figure 2A**) –very high  
158 coverage in specific regions – some of which were unique to a given sample, while  
159 others were shared across samples. Although these jackpotting events decreased the  
160 cost efficiency of the sequencing runs, the use of ppWGA reactions nonetheless  
161 enabled salvage of low-concentration, rehydrated samples. In the two samples that  
162 were subjected to both approaches (SMUTp\_08 and SMUTp\_09), ppWGA achieved  
163 more even coverage than conventional WGA performed in singleton (**Supplementary**  
164 **Figure 1**). Together, ppWGA and hybrid selection allowed us to generate the first  
165 Chinese TPA genomes without rabbit passage.

166

### 167 **Phylogenetic diversity of Chinese TPA isolates**

168 We observed diverse TPA strains within our modest sample set (**Figure 2B**). After  
169 exclusion of 66 putative sites of recombination from whole-genome phylogenetic  
170 analysis, our sample set included 94 SNVs expected to induce coding changes  
171 (**Supplementary Tables 5-9**). We did not observe obvious clustering of rabbit-  
172 passaged TPA isolates, a finding that might be observed if passage in rabbits exerts  
173 selective pressure favoring specific variants, versus directly sequenced TPA isolates.

174 The genomes produced in the present study fell into three distinct clusters (**Figure**  
175 **2B**) and could be distinguished from the previously published Chinese Amoy genome  
176 (**Supplementary Table 10**). These clusters included one closely related to previously

177 sequenced Chinese SS14-like isolates, one distinct SS14-like cluster, and one Nichols-  
178 like genome (SMUTp\_07) [2-5, 9, 10]. MLST results confirmed the strain relationships  
179 observed during phylogenomic analysis (**Supplementary Table 11**). While past  
180 surveys using traditional molecular strain typing methods indicated low-level prevalence  
181 of Nichols-like strains in China [9, 15], this is the first Nichols-like whole-genome  
182 sequence reported from China to our knowledge. Furthermore, this finding has  
183 implications for vaccine design, due to the possibility of exchange of genetic material  
184 between co-circulating Nichols- and SS14-like strains in a population.

185 Initial whole-genome alignments of sample SMUTp\_02 suggested the presence of a  
186 strain with one wild-type (macrolide-sensitive) 23S rRNA operon. However, manual  
187 inspection of these reads revealed poor mapping and sequences with 100% homology  
188 to *Pseudomonas* species. Sanger sequencing revealed that all samples harbored  
189 mutations associated with macrolide resistance in both 23S rRNA operons  
190 (**Supplementary Table 12**).

191

## 192 **DISCUSSION**

193 The lack of an *in vitro* cultivation system for TPA and the need for rabbit passage  
194 have limited syphilis research. Recently developed sample enrichment and sequencing  
195 techniques offer new opportunities to study TPA transmission and evolution. However,  
196 they often fail when applied to clinical samples isolated directly from patients due to low

197 TPA burdens. While the number of publicly available TPA genomes has increased  
198 rapidly in the past several years, most published genomes required TPA enrichment by  
199 rabbit passage prior to WGS.

200 We built upon recent advances in TPA genomics by piloting a novel WGA approach  
201 (ppWGA) for enrichment of challenging clinical samples with low DNA concentrations  
202 prior to hybrid selection. Enrichment success using hybrid selection alone has  
203 previously been achieved with clinical samples with more than  $1 \times 10^4$  TPA copies/ $\mu\text{L}$   
204 [8]. However, this approach is expected to fail for many clinical samples collected  
205 directly from patients, which often harbor only  $10^1$ - $10^4$  TPA copies/ $\mu\text{L}$ . The success of  
206 our approach in samples with concentrations nearing  $10^3$  TPA copies/ $\mu\text{L}$  measured  
207 prior to demanding sample processing and shipment confirms the utility of ppWGA as  
208 an adjunct to other TPA enrichment methods. These methods have potential for use in  
209 other fields and with diverse sample types, especially when freeze-drying is required for  
210 regulatory compliance or samples have low target concentrations.

211 WGA is typically employed in singleton for non-specific pre-amplification prior to  
212 selective enrichment and/or sequencing library preparation. During pilot testing in the  
213 present study, we observed distinct, isolated regions of deep sequencing coverage  
214 (“jackpotting”) in samples subjected to a single WGA. These findings may be due to  
215 early priming by random hexamers and amplification during the WGA process. To  
216 overcome the apparent stochastic nature by which genomic locations undergo

217 jackpotting during a WGA reaction, we used WGA in parallel and pooled products

218 before proceeding with hybrid selection and library preparation.

219 Our study is limited by its small sample size and the challenges of low-

220 concentration and degraded samples. While ppWGA enabled successful enrichment of

221 a portion of these samples, the presence of *Pseudomonas* in one of the downstream

222 23S rRNA alignments confirms the need for careful attention to regions that are highly

223 conserved across bacteria during analysis. We overcame the challenge of incorrect

224 mapping of short reads by incorporating rigorous quality filters and removing reads that

225 cross-mapped to other bacteria during bioinformatic analysis. These measures are

226 especially important when non-specific amplification like ppWGA is employed during the

227 sample enrichment process.

228 We employed ppWGA and hybrid selection to gain new insights into the genetic

229 diversity of TPA strains currently circulating in China, where there is a syphilis epidemic

230 and only a small number of rabbit-passaged isolates have been published [2-5].

231 Additional studies using novel enrichment methods and in locations where little is

232 known about TPA genomic diversity, including sites outside of the United States and

233 Europe, are needed to inform syphilis vaccine design.

234 **NOTES**

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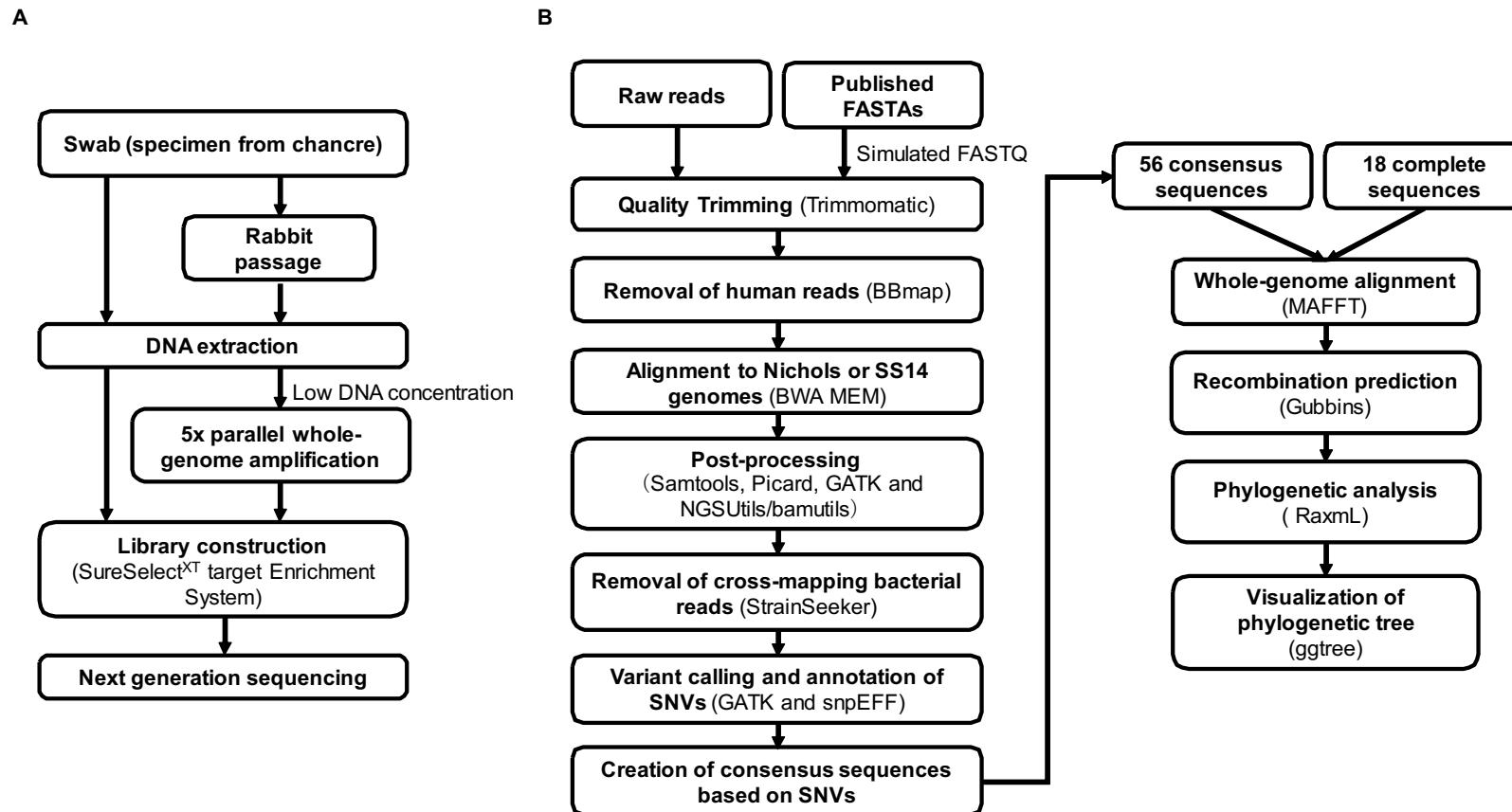
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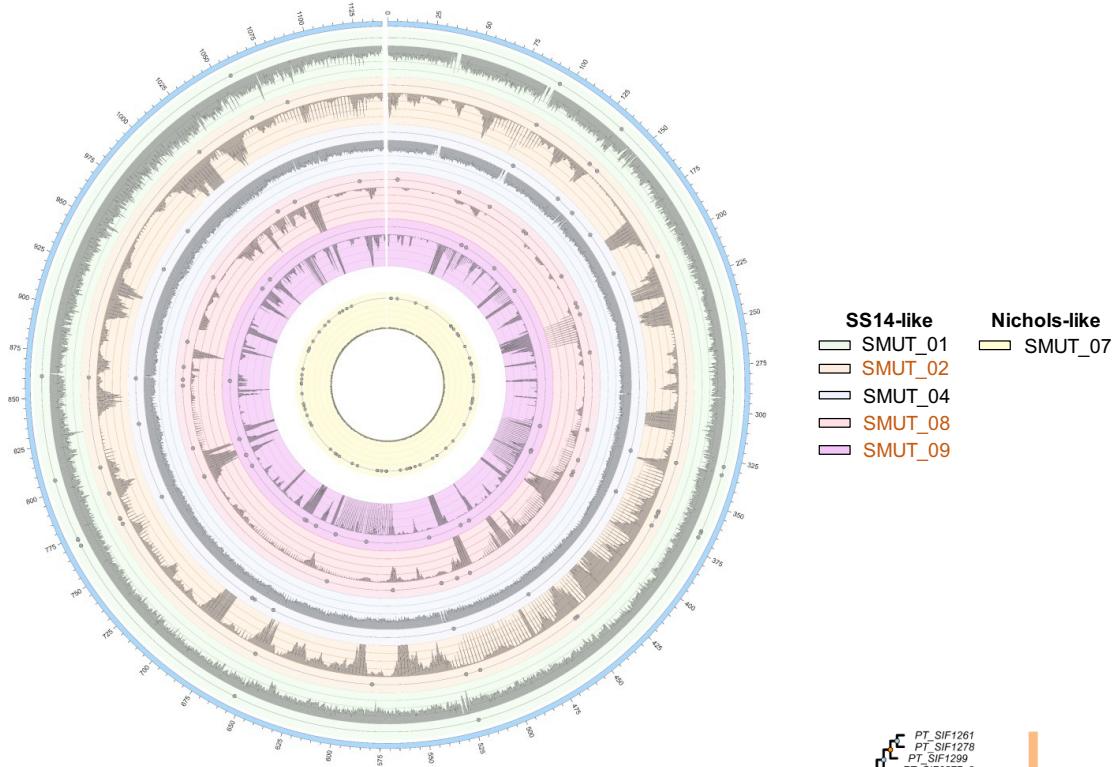
249 **Potential conflicts of interest.** All authors report no conflicts.



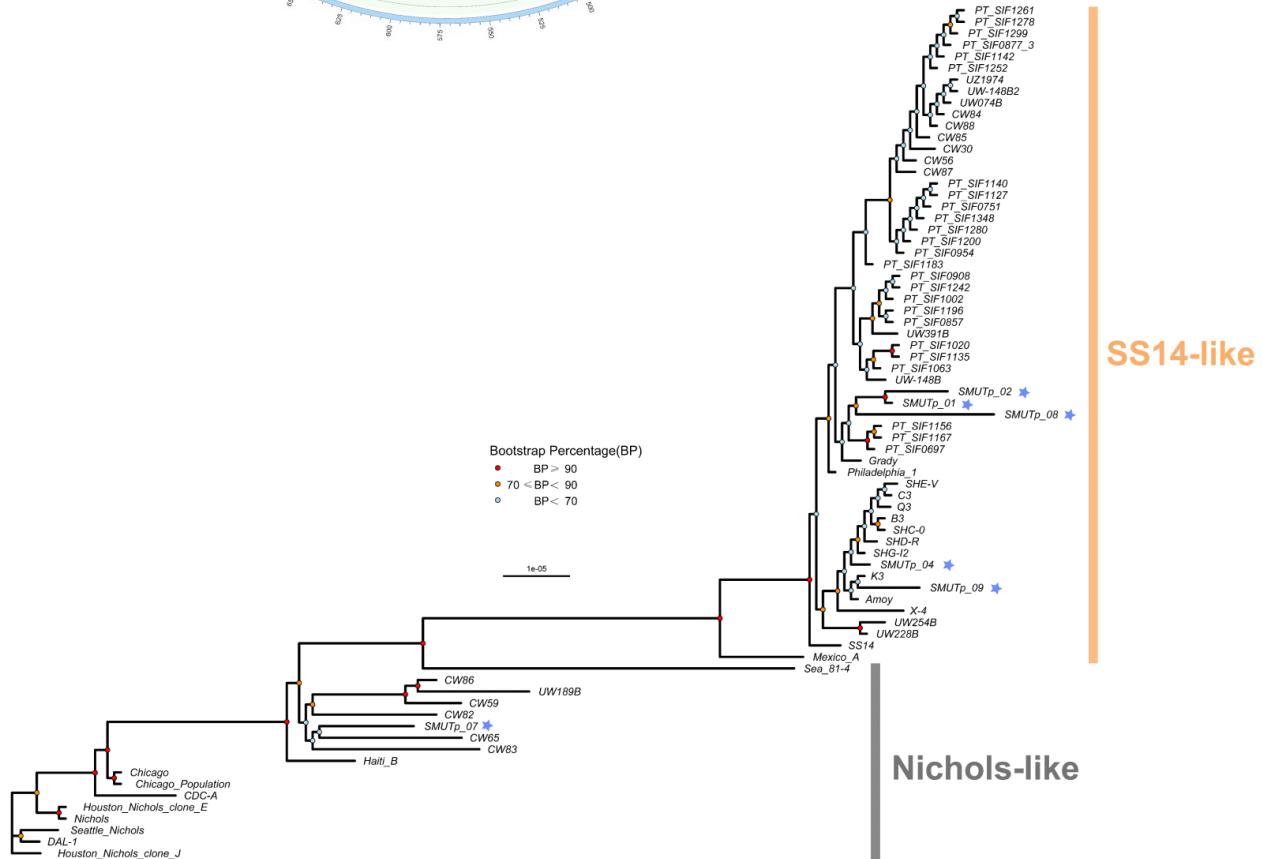
250 **Figure 1. (A) Sample enrichment, sequencing library preparation, and (B) bioinformatic processing.** DNA was  
 251 enriched for TPA prior to sequencing using rabbit passage; five individual, parallel WGA reactions that were then pooled  
 252 (ppWGA); and/or hybrid selection with RNA baits. (B) Sequences were aligned to the Nichols or SS14 reference genomes  
 253 prior to variant calling and phylogenomic analysis.

254

A



B



255 **Figure 2. (A) Genomic coverage and SNVs of new Chinese TPA isolates**, using  
256 coordinates from the SS14 or Nichols reference genome. From the outer ring to center,  
257 the circles represent six Chinese isolates: SMUTp\_01, SMUTp\_02, SMUTp\_04,  
258 SMUTp\_08, SMUTp\_09, and SMUTp\_07, respectively. The grey histogram depicts the  
259 depth of sequencing coverage and highlights jackpotting events in samples subjected to  
260 ppWGA (labelled in orange, SMUTp\_02, SMUTp\_08, and SMUTp\_09). SNVs are  
261 represented by small circles beneath the coverage histogram, filtered for  $\geq 3x$  depth of  
262 coverage. **(B) Phylogenomic diversity of new and published TPA strains.** Maximum  
263 likelihood phylogenies were generated from a whole genome alignment of 56 draft and  
264 18 complete TPA genomes, excluding recombinant loci. New Chinese genomes  
265 generated in the present study are starred (\*).  
266

267 **SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES**

268 All Supplementary Tables are provided in a single, attached file for convenience and  
269 ease of viewing.

270

271 **Supplementary Table 1. Clinical information for Chinese samples included in**  
272 **this study.** See attached file.

273

274 **Supplementary Table 2. Genomes used during the design of RNA**  
275 **oligonucleotide “baits” for hybrid selection.** The SS14 and Nichols genomes  
276 were covered with 1x tiling density (one bait per locus) with the exception of loci  
277 provided in Supplementary Table 3. See attached file.

278

279 **Supplementary Table 3. Genomic regions of increased bait tiling density (5x).**  
280 Phylogenetically informative loci and those encoding known or putative outer  
281 membrane proteins were covered with at least 5x tiling density (five baits per locus).  
282 See attached file.

283

284 **Supplementary Table 4. Sample details and sequencing results.** See attached  
285 file.

286

287 **Supplementary Table 5. Putative regions of recombination identified by**  
288 **Gubbins and excluded from phylogenetic analysis.** See attached file.

289

290 **Supplementary Table 6. Called variants among the five Chinese SS14-like TPA**

291 **isolates described in the present study**, annotated using *SnpEff*, prior to removal  
292 of putative sites of recombination and paralogous genes. See attached file.

293

294 **Supplementary Table 7. Called variants for the single Chinese Nichols-like**

295 **TPA isolate described in the present study**, annotated using *SnpEff*, prior to  
296 removal of putative sites of recombination and paralogous genes. See attached file.

297

298 **Supplementary Table 8. Called variants expected to induce coding changes**

299 **(amino acid changes) among the six Chinese TPA isolates described in the**  
300 **present study**. See attached file.

301

302 **Supplementary Table 9. Mutations in penicillin-associated genes**. See attached  
303 file.

304

305 **Supplementary Table 10. Comparison of SNVs between the new Chinese**  
306 **SS14-like strains (present study) and the Amoy strain**. See attached file.

307

308 **Supplementary Table 11. MLST allelic profiles of Chinese TPA strains**. See  
309 attached file.

310

311 **Supplementary Table 12. Genetic markers of macrolide (azithromycin)**

312 **resistance.** See attached file.

313

314 **Supplementary table 13. Sequences used during phylogenetic tree**

315 **construction.** See attached file.

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