

SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

Open Access



Epidemiology of gonorrhoea in countries of the Middle East and North Africa: systematic review, meta analyses, and meta regressions

Hiam Chemaitelly^{1,2,3†}, Manale Harfouche^{1,2†}, Alex Smolak¹, Rwedah Ageeb^{1,2}, Yousra A. Mohamoud¹, Ahmed S. Alaama⁴, Joumana G. Hermez⁴ and Laith J. Abu-Raddad^{1,2,3,5,6*}

Abstract

Background The epidemiology of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (NG) infection in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region remains poorly understood, despite the global recognition of its disease burden and the growing concern regarding antimicrobial resistance. This study aimed to systematically review the evidence on NG prevalence in MENA, estimate the pooled mean prevalence across different populations, and explore population-level associations with prevalence as well as sources of between-study heterogeneity.

Methods The study conducted a systematic review, risk of bias assessment, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions, utilizing both published and unpublished evidence sourced from international, regional, and national databases, in adherence to PRISMA guidelines. Random-effects meta-analyses and meta-regressions were employed to analyze the data.

Results The study identified 341 NG prevalence measures from 21 countries in MENA. The pooled mean prevalence of current urogenital infection was 1.9% (95% confidence interval (CI) 1.1–2.8%) in the general population, with a higher pooled prevalence in studies with sample sizes < 200 (3.1%; 95% CI 1.5–5.0%) compared to those with sample sizes ≥ 200 (1.1%; 95% CI 0.5–1.9%). Among specific populations, the pooled prevalence was 6.5% (95% CI 4.4–9.0%) in female sex workers, 7.5% (95% CI 2.8–14.0%) in attendees of infertility clinics, 3.0% (95% CI 0.4–7.0%) in women with miscarriage or ectopic pregnancy, 3.9% (95% CI 2.7–5.3%) in symptomatic women, and 41.4% (95% CI 34.9–48.1%) in symptomatic men. For male sex workers and men who have sex with men, the pooled prevalence of current urogenital infection was 1.6% (95% CI 0.4–3.4%), while the prevalence of current anorectal infection was 10.4% (95% CI 4.6–18.0%). Through multivariable meta-regressions, 64% of the prevalence variation was explained, revealing a hierarchical pattern in prevalence by population type and sex, and a prevalence decline at a rate of 1% per year.

[†]Hiam Chemaitelly and Manale Harfouche are joint first authors in this study.

*Correspondence:

Laith J. Abu-Raddad

lja2002@qatar-med.cornell.edu

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



Conclusions NG prevalence in MENA is comparable to the global prevalence, underscoring a neglected and under-recognized disease burden, with social and economic consequences. Persistent transmission of NG among key populations and other populations at risk increases the potential for the emergence of new drug-resistant strains. MENA is far from achieving the World Health Organization's target of reducing NG incidence by 90% by 2030.

Keywords *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, Gonorrhoea, Sexually transmitted infection, Prevalence, Infertility, Middle East and North Africa

Background

Gonorrhoea, caused by the bacterium *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (NG), is a common sexually transmitted infection (STI) [1–3]. NG infects urogenital, anorectal, or oropharyngeal mucosa [1, 2, 4]. The infection is often asymptomatic, leading to underdiagnosis and undertreatment, particularly in women [1, 2, 4]. Untreated NG can result in complications such as vaginal discharge, bleeding, urethritis, cervicitis, pelvic inflammatory disease, ectopic pregnancy, and infertility [1, 2, 5, 6]. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated 86.9 million new infections worldwide in 2016 [7], with recent data showing increasing incidence in specific population groups across several countries [8–10].

The global health concern associated with gonorrhoea has escalated due to widespread gonococcal antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and the emergence of extensively drug-resistant NG strains [11–14]. This includes strains resistant to extended-spectrum cephalosporins, which are currently the last line of defense against this infection [2, 11, 12, 15]. These treatment challenges have further complicated gonorrhoea control efforts. Recognizing the urgency, the WHO declared gonococcal AMR a global high priority [16] and launched a global action plan to control NG transmission [17].

The WHO's "Global Health Sector Strategy on STIs" addresses STIs as a critical public health concern [18]. It aims to reduce NG incidence worldwide by 90% by 2030 through evidence-based interventions and improved access to quality services [18]. As stated in the strategy, the first strategic direction emphasizes "the need to understand the STI epidemic as a basis for advocacy, political commitment, national planning, resource mobilization, and allocation, implementation, and programme improvement" [19]. Preventing and controlling gonorrhoea spread and gonococcal AMR is a global health priority, requiring a comprehensive understanding of its epidemiology. The potential availability of vaccination as an intervention [20–23] also emphasizes the importance of understanding NG epidemiology across various population groups. This

knowledge is essential in guiding the targeted deployment of the vaccine once it becomes available in the coming years.

Despite the urgency, the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region, which accounts for 10% of the world's population [24], faces significant challenges with weak STI surveillance systems, scarce sexual health programs, and a lack of understanding of NG infection rates and disease burden [25–31]. In light of this, this study aims to analyze and quantify the epidemiology of NG in MENA by (1) systematically reviewing and synthesizing all available published and unpublished records on NG prevalence, (2) estimating the pooled mean prevalence among different populations, and (3) identifying population-level associations with prevalence and sources of between-study heterogeneity.

Both overall (i.e., encompassing the entire sample) and stratified measures were extracted from the relevant studies included in this review. The objective was to investigate the natural heterogeneity in NG epidemiology by stratifying the measures based on epidemiological factors that influence the infection's epidemiology [7, 32–35]. Meta-regression analyses were conducted on these stratified measures to evaluate the effects of these epidemiological factors on NG prevalence, explore temporal trends, and identify sources of between-study heterogeneity. This analytical approach enables the generation of insights into the infection's epidemiology by explaining the underlying variations in available measures [36].

Methods

Data sources and search strategy

A systematic review of epidemiological evidence on NG prevalence in MENA was conducted, following the Cochrane Collaboration's methods for guidance [37]. The findings were reported in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [38, 39], utilizing the checklist provided in Additional file 1: Table S1. The literature search was comprehensive and encompassed international databases (PubMed and Embase),

regional databases (WHO Index Medicus for the Eastern Mediterranean Region, the Iraqi Academic Scientific Journals' database, the Scientific Information Database of Iran, and the PakMediNet of Pakistan), as well as country-level and international organizations' reports and records accessible through the MENA HIV/AIDS Epidemiology Synthesis Project archive [26, 29]. The search covered records up to February 28, 2023.

The search criteria utilized in this study were deliberately broad, aiming to cast a wide and inclusive net. Index terms were expanded to cover all subheadings, and free text terms were incorporated (Additional file 1: Table S2). No restrictions were applied regarding language or year. The list of countries included in MENA can be found in Additional file 1: Box S1. The definition of MENA follows earlier conventions adopted in infectious disease research [28, 29, 40–42], and is based on the definitions provided by the WHO's Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean and the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS.

Study selection process and inclusion and exclusion criteria

The search results were imported into the reference manager Endnote (Thomson Reuters, USA) for deduplication and screening purposes. Initially, titles and abstracts were screened to identify relevant and potentially relevant reports. Full texts of these reports were then retrieved and screened for relevancy. Relevant reports included those presenting primary data on NG prevalence in any of the 23 MENA countries (Additional file 1: Box S1), based on laboratory testing methods such as nucleic acid amplification test (NAAT)/polymerase chain reaction (PCR), culture, wet mount, and gram stain, irrespective of the prevalence values measured. Excluded reports encompassed NG prevalence studies relying on self-reporting, studies involving fewer than 10 individuals, and investigations focusing on testing specimens of the upper genital tracts. Case reports, case series, reviews, editorials, and reports concerning NG in foreign military personnel stationed in the region were also excluded. Bibliography screening of relevant articles and literature reviews was also conducted manually to identify any additional eligible reports.

In this article, the term “record” refers to a document such as an article or public health report that includes prevalence measures for one or more populations. On the other hand, the term “study” refers to a specific prevalence measure conducted in a particular population. Duplicate findings from studies were included only once, prioritizing the more detailed record.

Data extraction and data synthesis

HC, MH, AS, RA and YM conducted the extraction and double extraction of overall outcome measures and their stratifications from the relevant records. Stratified data extraction was performed if the sample size in each stratum was ≥ 10 . The extraction process followed a pre-piloted list, which can be found in Additional file 1: Box S2. The stratified data were extracted based on a pre-determined hierarchy informed by epidemiological relevance and prior knowledge of HIV/STI epidemiology [6, 35, 43, 44]. This hierarchy included factors such as anatomical site/mode of transmission, population type, sex, year of data collection, and age group.

Population type was classified according to risk of exposure to NG (Table 1), based on the characteristics of the population rather than the recruitment study site. For example, pregnant women attending family planning clinics (a healthcare-seeking population) were considered part of the general population because they were seeking routine care unrelated to NG infection. Any population attending a clinical setting with indications, symptoms, or exposures potentially related to NG infection or any other STIs was not considered part of the general population.

For studies reporting an overall measure for both men and women, sex classification was determined based on the predominant sex in the sample, with a threshold of over 60%. Studies reporting NG prevalence among children below 15 years old were reported but not included in the subsequent analyses.

Studies that utilized the same assay to test different biological specimens within a specific population were included only once. The selection followed a sequential order, prioritizing NG detection in endocervical swabs for women, followed by vaginal swabs and urine samples. For men, the priority order was urethral swabs, followed by urine and semen samples.

On the other hand, studies that employed different assays on the same biological specimens were extracted separately. This approach aimed to evaluate the assay effect on the heterogeneity of NG prevalence and to generate adjustment factors [45–47] for estimating NG prevalence in future mathematical modeling studies that investigate NG infection and its disease burden.

Precision and risk of bias assessments

All included studies were assessed for precision and risk of bias (ROB). The precision of each study was classified as either “low” or “high” based on the sample size (< 200 participants versus ≥ 200 participants). Informed by the Cochrane Collaboration approach [37], each study was categorized as having either “low” or “high” ROB in two quality domains: sampling methodology

Table 1 Definitions of population type classifications

1. General populations (populations at low risk): these include populations at low risk of exposure to gonorrhoea such as antenatal clinic attendees, blood donors, and pregnant women, among others.
2. Intermediate-risk populations: these include populations who presumably have frequent sexual contact with populations engaging in high sexual risk behavior, and have therefore a higher risk of exposure to gonorrhoea than the general population. These comprise prisoners, people who inject drugs, truck drivers, and migrant workers, among others.
3. Female sex workers: these include women who are engaged in sex work, that is the exchange of sex for money (sex work as a profession).
4. Male sex workers and men who have sex with men: these include men who engage in same-sex sexual activities, specifically anal sex, and men who are engaged in providing sexual services in return for payment.
5. Symptomatic women: these include women with clinical manifestations related to gonorrhoea or suspected of having gonorrhoea, such as those with vaginal discharge.
6. Symptomatic men: these include men with clinical manifestations related to gonorrhoea or suspected of having gonorrhoea, such as those with urethral discharge.
7. Symptomatic mixed sexes: these include populations with undetermined sex with clinical manifestations related to gonorrhoea or suspected of having gonorrhoea, such as those with vaginal discharge or urethral discharge.
8. Infertility clinic attendees: these were included in a separate category given the uncertainty around their risk of exposure to gonorrhoea, and the possible biological link between gonorrhoea and infertility.
9. Women with miscarriage or ectopic pregnancy: these were included in a separate category given the uncertainty around their risk of exposure to gonorrhoea, and the possible biological link between gonorrhoea and miscarriage or ectopic pregnancy.
10. STI clinic attendees: these include patients attending STI clinics.
11. Individuals living with HIV and individuals in HIV-discordant couples: these include populations who are living with HIV or are in a spousal relationship with an individual living with HIV.
12. Patients with confirmed/suspected STIs and related infections: these include populations who are diagnosed with STIs or suspected to have concomitant STIs or other related infections.
13. Other populations: these include populations not satisfying the above definitions or populations with an undetermined risk of acquiring gonorrhoea.

Abbreviations: STI Sexually transmitted infection, HIV Human immunodeficiency virus

(probability-based versus non-probability-based) and response rate ($\geq 80\%$ response rate versus $< 80\%$). If a study had missing information for a specific domain, it was classified as having “unclear” ROB for that domain. These data were also included in meta-regression analyses to examine their effect on the observed NG prevalence, following the methodology used in our previous studies [35, 41–44, 48].

Meta-analyses

Dersimonian-Laird random-effects models were employed to conduct meta-analyses [49] for NG prevalence, applying the Freeman-Tukey double arcsine transformation to stabilize the variance [50, 51]. Before applying this transformation, its appropriateness for the analysis was evaluated by examining the distribution of study sample sizes and effect sizes to ensure that these distributions were not severely skewed, which could potentially introduce bias [52]. Pooled mean prevalence estimates, along with their corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI), were calculated for each population type based on the anatomical site and assay type, provided that the stratum contained ≥ 3 measures. Pooled mean prevalence was also estimated by MENA country and by study precision for urogenital NG prevalence among general populations, considering the available number of studies for these populations and the epidemiological relevance. Forest plots were generated to visualize the results.

Heterogeneity was assessed using Cochran’s Q statistic (p value < 0.1) to confirm the existence of heterogeneity across studies, I^2 to quantify the magnitude of between-study variation that is due to true differences in prevalence across studies rather than chance, and prediction interval to estimate the distribution of true prevalence around the pooled mean [49, 53]. Meta-analyses were conducted using the statistical computing and data visualization program R version 4.1.3 [54], utilizing the “meta” package [55].

Considering the heterogeneity among the prevalence measures, the pooled means should be interpreted as average summary measures [36, 44], not definitive estimates of prevalence. The meta-regression analyses described below investigated and explained the sources of variation in prevalence measures, considering both epidemiological factors and study methods.

Meta-regressions

Univariable and multivariable random-effects meta-regression analyses were conducted on log-transformed prevalence measures to explore the factors influencing NG prevalence and explain the heterogeneity observed between studies in MENA. This approach aimed to identify potential predictors associated with higher NG prevalence within the region. The predictors were selected based on their epidemiological relevance and prior knowledge of HIV/STI epidemiology [36, 43,

44, 48], as described in Additional file 1: Box S3. Variables with a p value ≤ 0.10 in the univariable analysis were included in the multivariable analysis. Associations with a p value ≤ 0.05 in the multivariable analysis were deemed statistically significant.

Missing values for the year of data collection were imputed using the year of publication data adjusted by the median difference between the year of publication and the year of data collection for studies with complete information. Meta-regressions were conducted using the statistical analysis software Stata/SE version 16 [56], utilizing the “metareg” package [57].

Results

Search results and scope of evidence

The PRISMA study selection process is illustrated in Fig. 1. The initial search conducted in international databases (PubMed 367 and Embase 790) identified 1157 records. Regional databases yielded 268 records, with contributions from the Index Medicus for Eastern Mediterranean Region (111 records), Iraqi Academic Scientific Journals Database (25 records), Scientific Information Database of Iran (21 records), and PakMediNet of Pakistan (111 records).

After removing duplicate records and conducting title and abstract screening, as well as full-text screening, 181 records were deemed relevant. By screening the MENA HIV/AIDS Epidemiology Synthesis Project archive, 12 more relevant records were identified [58–69]. By screening bibliographies of relevant articles and reviews, an additional 24 relevant records were found [70–93]. Overall, a total of 217 records met the inclusion criteria for the study.

Among the records that met the inclusion criteria, the extracted NG prevalence measures included 294 overall urogenital measures (348 measures when stratified by different factors), 10 overall anorectal measures, 1 overall oropharyngeal measure, 28 overall measures of unspecified anatomical sites (30 stratified measures), and 8 overall serological measures.

The evidence covered data from 21 out of the 23 MENA countries. The largest volume of data was obtained from Iran, with 58 reports including 123 prevalence measures among 32,988 individuals. Iraq followed with 37 reports including 76 prevalence measures among 8379 individuals.

Gonorrhoea prevalence overview

The overall NG prevalence measures in MENA are summarized in Additional file 1: Table S3 and Table S4, categorized by anatomical site and population type. The extracted measures span a wide timeframe, with the earliest measure published in 1977. Notably, 24.9% of

the measures (85 measures) were published in 2015 and onwards.

Among 294 studies reporting urogenital NG prevalence measures, 13.3% reported zero prevalence. For the 10 anorectal NG prevalence measures, one study reported zero prevalence. Only one study reported on oropharyngeal NG prevalence, which was found to be 99.1%, raising concerns about the validity of the laboratory methods used [94]. The study had insufficient clarity in its methods making it difficult to determine the accuracy of the reported prevalence.

Tables 2, 3 and 4 summarize the ranges and medians of stratified NG prevalence measures by population type, anatomical site, and assay type. Additional file 1: Table S5 complements this information by reporting prevalence measures by MENA country and study precision (< 200 participants versus ≥ 200 participants).

Precision and risk of bias assessments

The study-specific precision and ROB assessments are summarized in Additional file 1: Table S6. Among the included studies, 189 studies (55.4%) had sample sizes of < 200 participants, indicating low precision. Meanwhile, 291 studies (85.3%) utilized non-probability-based (convenience) sampling, particularly those conducted in clinical settings (Additional file 1: Table S3 and Table S4). Remarkably, 61.5% of studies focusing on high-risk populations, including female sex workers (FSWs), male sex workers (MSWs), and men who have sex with men (MSM), employed probability-based sampling methods, often utilizing respondent-driven sampling.

The response rate was unclear in 158 studies (46.3%), and 15 studies (4.4%) were identified as having high ROB in terms of this quality domain. Only 23 studies (6.7%) demonstrated low ROB in both quality domains, while none had high ROB in both quality domains.

Pooled mean estimates of gonorrhoea prevalence

Pooled mean NG prevalence by population type, anatomical site, and assay type is summarized in Tables 2, 3 and 4. For current urogenital infection, the pooled prevalence was 1.9% (95% CI 1.1–2.8%) among general populations, 7.5% (95% CI 2.8–14.0%) among infertility clinic attendees, 6.5% (95% CI 4.4–9.0%) among FSWs, 9.0% (95% CI 2.6–18.6%) among STI clinic attendees, 3.9% (95% CI 2.7–5.3%) among symptomatic women, and 41.4% (95% CI 34.9–48.1%) among symptomatic men. Among MSWs and MSM, the pooled prevalence for current urogenital infection was 1.6% (95% CI 0.4–3.4%), and for current anorectal infection, it was 10.4% (95% CI 4.6–18.0%).

Additional file 1: Table S5 summarizes the pooled mean urogenital NG prevalence among general populations, stratified by both MENA country and study precision. The pooled prevalence exhibited variation across

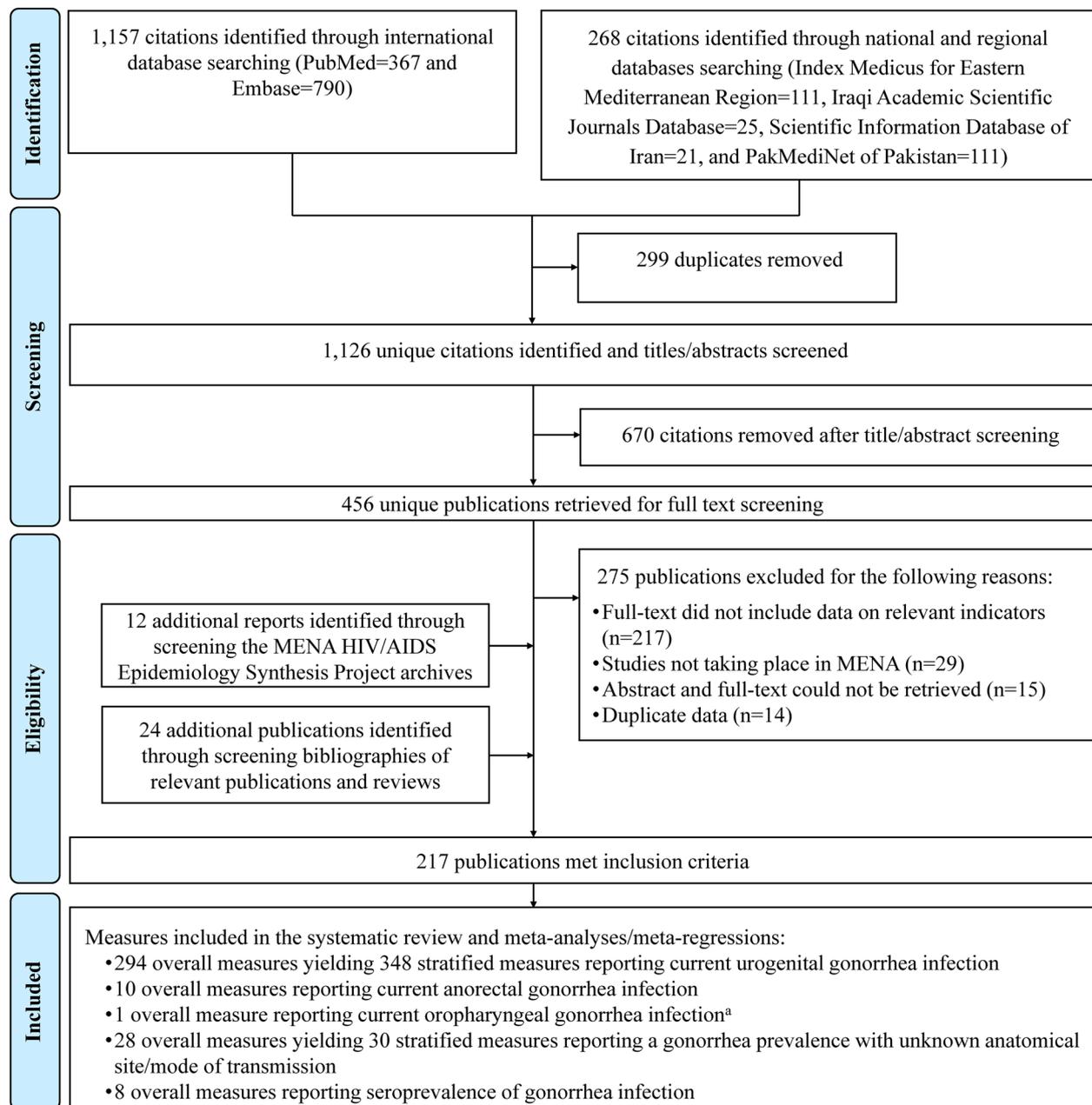


Fig. 1 Study selection flowchart for assessing *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in the Middle East and North Africa, compliant with PRISMA guidelines

Abbreviations: AIDS Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, HIV Human immunodeficiency virus, MENA Middle East and North Africa, PRISMA Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses

^aThe publication reporting this measure has insufficient clarity in its methods, making it difficult to determine the accuracy of the reported prevalence

MENA countries. Studies with sample sizes of 200 participants or more yielded a pooled prevalence of 1.1% (95% CI: 0.5-1.9%), whereas studies with smaller sample sizes (< 200 participants) had a higher pooled prevalence of 3.1% (95% CI: 1.5-5.0%). Forest plots of the

meta-analyses can be found in Fig. 2 and in Additional file 1: Figure S1 and Figure S2. Most meta-analyses demonstrated significant heterogeneity (p value < 0.1), primarily attributed to true variation in prevalence rather than chance ($I^2 > 50\%$) (Tables 2, 3 and 4). This

Table 2 Results of meta-analyses on studies reporting *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in general populations, intermediate-risk populations, infertility clinic attendees, women with miscarriage or ectopic pregnancy, and other populations in the Middle East and North Africa

Population type ^a		Stratified prevalence measures		Sample size		NG prevalence (%)		Pooled mean NG prevalence		Heterogeneity measures		
		Total n	Total N	Range	Median	Mean (%) (95% CI)	Q ^b (p value)	I ^{2c} (%) (95% CI)	Prediction interval ^d (%)			
General populations												
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	39	25,592	0.0–30.0	1.0	1.5 (0.7–2.6)	779.8 (p < 0.001)	95.4 (94.1–96.0)	0.0–11.3			
	Culture	26	8567	0.0–20.0	0.8	1.0 (0.3–1.9)	121.6 (p < 0.001)	79.4 (70.5–85.7)	0.0–7.3			
	Gram stain	16	6266	0.0–40.0	3.4	5.7 (1.6–11.6)	231.0 (p < 0.001)	93.5 (90.9–95.3)	0.0–40.4			
	Overall	81	40,425	0.0–40.0	1.0	1.9 (1.1–2.8)	1,161.5 (p < 0.001)	93.1 (92.0–94.1)	0.0–14.5			
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	NAAT/PCR	3	1415	0.7–1.2	0.9	0.8 (0.4–1.4)	1.1 (p = 0.576)	0.0 (0.0–89.6)	0.0–6.8			
	Culture	1	150	–	–	2.0 (0.4–5.7)	–	–	–			
	Other/unclear assay ^e	6	15,028	0.4–5.0	1.0	1.3 (0.2–2.9)	20.9 (p < 0.001)	76.1 (46.3–89.3)	0.0–8.3			
	Overall	10	16,593	0.4–5.0	1.0	1.0 (0.4–1.8)	30.8 (p < 0.001)	70.7 (44.1–84.7)	0.0–3.8			
Sera	Blood tested for IgG antibodies	3	197	0.0–2.0	0.0	0.9 (0.0–3.2)	0.81 (p = 0.667)	0.0 (0.0–89.6)	0.0–30.4			
Intermediate risk populations												
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	10	3151	0.0–3.5	1.0	0.9 (0.4–1.7)	32.2 (p < 0.001)	72.1 (47.0–85.3)	0.0–4.3			
	Culture	3	877	0.0–0.0	0.0	0.0 (0.0–0.2)	0.11 (p = 0.948)	0.0 (0.0–89.6)	0.0–5.6			
	Other/unclear assay ^e	1	199	–	–	4.5 (2.1–8.4)	–	–	–			
	Overall	14	4227	0.0–4.5	0.9	0.8 (0.2–1.5)	61.3 (p < 0.001)	78.8 (65.0–87.2)	0.0–4.8			
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	NAAT/PCR	1	400	–	–	0.5 (0.1–1.8)	–	–	–			
Overall	1	400	–	–	0.5 (0.1–1.8)	–	–	–				
Infertility clinic attendees												
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	15	1740	0.0–70.0	2.0	6.0 (0.7–15.3)	255.5 (p < 0.001)	94.5 (92.4–96.0)	0.0–61.4			
	Culture	16	1768	0.0–75.0	4.1	9.2 (2.3–19.3)	211.3 (p < 0.001)	92.9 (90.0–95.0)	0.0–65.3			
	Overall	31	3508	0.0–75.0	2.3	7.5 (2.8–14.0)	467.8 (p < 0.001)	93.6 (91.9–94.9)	0.0–58.6			
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	Other/unclear assay ^e	1	373	–	–	14.2 (10.8–18.2)	–	–	–			
Overall	1	373	–	–	14.2 (10.8–18.2)	–	–	–				
Sera	Blood tested for antibodies	1	79	–	–	2.5 (0.3–8.8)	–	–	–			
Women with miscarriage or ectopic pregnancy												
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	4	339	0.0–7.6	3.4	2.8 (0.1–8.0)	14.3 (p = 0.002)	79.1 (44.1–92.2)	0.0–38.4			
	Culture	1	81	–	–	3.7 (0.8–10.4)	–	–	–			
	Overall	5	420	0.0–7.6	3.7	3.0 (0.4–7.0)	14.4 (p = 0.006)	72.3 (30.3–89.0)	0.0–21.6			
Sera	Blood tested for antibodies	2	90	0.0–13.3	6.7	4.4 (1.2–11.0) ^f	–	–	–			

Table 2 (continued)

Population type ^a		Stratified prevalence measures	Sample size	NG prevalence (%)		Pooled mean NG prevalence	Heterogeneity measures		
				Range	Median		Mean (%) (95% CI)	Q ^b (p value)	I ^{2c} (%) (95% CI)
		Total n	Total N						
Other populations ^g									
Current urogenital infection	Culture	1	72	–	–	1.4 (0.0–7.5)	–	–	–
	Gram stain	1	200	–	–	2.0 (0.5–5.0)	–	–	–
	Other/unclear assay ^e	2	4030	2.7–2.7	2.7	2.7 (2.2–3.2) ^f	–	–	–
Overall		4	4302	1.4–2.8	2.2	2.2 (1.7–2.7)	0.5 (p = 0.915)	0.0 (0.0–84.7)	1.2–3.3
Sera	Blood tested for antibodies	2	258	2.3–11.1	6.7	3.5 (1.6–6.5) ^f	–	–	–

Abbreviations: CI Confidence interval, NAAT Nucleic acid amplification test, NG *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, PCR Polymerase chain reaction

A minimum of three studies were required to conduct a meta-analysis

Bolded numbers represent overall pooled estimates

^a Population type classification can be found in Table 1

^b Q: The Cochran's Q statistic is a measure assessing the existence of heterogeneity in pooled outcome measures, here NG prevalence

^c I²: A measure that assesses the magnitude of between-study variation that is due to actual differences in NG prevalence across studies rather than chance

^d Prediction interval: A measure that estimates the distribution (95% interval) of true NG prevalence around the estimated mean

^e Other/unclear assay include enzyme immunoassay, indirect hemagglutination, or mixed/unclear testing technique

^f Two prevalence measures are not sufficient to conduct a random-effects meta-analysis. The pooled measure was calculated as the arithmetic mean of the two measures and their 95% confidence intervals

^g Other populations include populations with an undetermined risk of acquiring NG infection such as victims of sexual assault and mixed populations, among others

observation was further confirmed by wide prediction intervals, indicating considerable variability in NG prevalence across the studies.

Predictors of prevalence and sources of between-study heterogeneity

To explore potential associations and explain the observed between-study heterogeneity in urogenital NG prevalence measures, univariable and multivariable meta-regression analyses were conducted. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5. Two multivariable models were utilized: one with the year of data collection as a categorical variable and another with it as a linear term. To address collinearity issues, sensitivity analyses were performed by including the year of publication instead of the year of data collection (Additional file 1: Table S7), and by incorporating national income instead of the MENA subregion (Additional file 1: Table S8).

The main analyses and sensitivity analyses produced similar results, collectively explaining approximately 64% of the variation in prevalence across the studies. Compared to general populations, the highest prevalence levels were observed among specific groups, including symptomatic patients, individuals with confirmed/suspected STIs, individuals living with HIV and individuals

in HIV-discordant couples, attendees of infertility clinics, and FSWs (Table 5).

Prevalence of urogenital NG was higher in men compared to women and was especially higher among symptomatic men compared to symptomatic women (Table 5). Evidence suggested subregional variability, with low-income countries showing lower prevalence rates than higher-income countries (Additional file 1: Table S8). No significant differences in prevalence were observed based on age group. Prevalence declined at a rate of 1% per year.

Regarding the effects of study methods on prevalence, a higher prevalence was observed when NG was tested using Gram stain compared to NAAT or culture (Table 5). Studies with a response rate < 80% reported lower prevalence levels than those with a response rate ≥ 80%. A small-study effect was identified; studies having a sample size ≥ 200 reported approximately 60% lower prevalence. Though no statistically significant evidence was found for differences in prevalence based on the sampling method, there was a tendency for prevalence to be lower in non-probability-based samples.

Discussion

Despite the sexually conservative norms and relatively low levels of viral STIs in MENA [26, 29, 42, 95, 96], the prevalence of NG in the general population was

Table 3 Results of meta-analyses on studies reporting *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in higher-risk populations, STI clinic attendees, and individuals living with HIV and individuals in HIV-discordant couples in the Middle East and North Africa

Population type ^a		Stratified prevalence measures		Sample size		NG prevalence (%)		Pooled mean NG prevalence	Heterogeneity measures		
		Total n	Total N	Range	Median	Mean (%) (95% CI)	Q ^b (p value)	I ^{2c} (%) (95% CI)	Prediction interval ^d (%)		
Female sex workers											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	14	5976	0.8–12.3	8.4	6.0 (3.7–8.9)	243.2 (p < 0.001)	94.7 (92.5–96.2)	0.0–20.4		
	Culture	2	466	1.4–3.7	2.6	2.4 (1.2–4.2) ^e	–	–	–		
	Gram stain	6	921	0.0–16.6	11.3	11.4 (8.8–14.3)	7.3 (p = 0.202)	31.1 (0.0–72.0)	6.0–18.1		
	Overall	22	7363	0.0–16.6	8.4	6.5 (4.4–9.0)	327.7 (p < 0.001)	93.6 (91.5–95.1)	0.0–20.9		
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	Culture	1	89	–	–	11.2 (5.5–19.7)	–	–	–		
	Overall	1	89	–	–	11.2 (5.5–19.7)	–	–	–		
Male sex workers and men who have sex with men ^f											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	12	2680	0.0–8.8	2.2	1.6 (0.4–3.4)	81.8 (p < 0.001)	86.5 (78.3–91.7)	0.0–11.0		
	Overall	12	2680	0.0–8.8	2.1	1.6 (0.4–3.4)	81.8 (p < 0.001)	86.5 (78.3–91.7)	0.0–11.0		
Current anorectal infection	NAAT/PCR	9	2145	0.0–29.4	11.1	10.4 (4.6–18.0)	249.1 (p < 0.001)	96.8 (95.4–97.8)	0.0–44.5		
	Overall	9	2145	0.0–29.4	11.1	10.4 (4.6–18.0)	249.1 (p < 0.001)	96.8 (95.4–97.8)	0.0–44.5		
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	Other/unclear assay ^g	1	2531	–	–	36.1 (34.2–38.0)	–	–	–		
	Overall	1	2531	–	–	36.1 (34.2–38.0)	–	–	–		
STI clinic attendees											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	4	2313	0.2–3.4	0.5	0.8 (0.0–2.3)	18.2 (p < 0.001)	83.5 (58.2–93.5)	0.0–13.1		
	Culture	5	7912	1.7–44.1	14.9	17.5 (4.6–36.5)	996.9 (p < 0.001)	99.6 (99.5–99.7)	0.0–92.4		
	Gram stain	2	292	8.3–24.6	16.5	21.2 (16.7–26.4) ^e	–	–	–		
	Overall	11	10,517	0.2–44.1	7.1	9.0 (2.6–18.6)	1,885.2 (p < 0.001)	99.5 (99.4–99.6)	0.0–57.7		
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	Culture	3	3077	6.0–13.0	6.7	8.6 (4.3–14.2)	45.3 (p < 0.001)	95.6 (90.3–98.0)	0.0–95.0		
	Other/unclear assay ^g	4	2626	2.1–45.1	25.2	21.7 (5.9–43.9)	255.8 (p < 0.001)	98.8 (98.2–99.2)	0.0–100		
	Overall	7	5703	2.1–45.1	13.0	15.5 (6.2–28.0)	546.0 (p < 0.001)	98.9 (98.5–99.2)	0.0–67.3		
Individuals living with HIV and individuals in HIV-discordant couples											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	4	71	0.0–18.0	4.5	4.4 (0.2–11.5)	2.5 (p = 0.474)	0.0 (0.0–84.7)	0.0–22.8		
	Culture	2	41	0.0–23.3	11.7	17.0 (7.1–32.1) ^e	–	–	–		
	Overall	6	112	0.0–23.0	4.5	6.7 (0.9–15.7)	9.4 (p = 0.094)	46.8 (0.0–78.9)	0.0–36.6		
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	Culture	2	806	1.2–6.3	3.8	4.8 (3.5–6.6) ^e	–	–	–		
	Overall	2	806	1.2–6.3	3.8	4.8 (3.5–6.6)^e	–	–	–		

Abbreviations: CI Confidence interval, HIV Human immunodeficiency virus, NAAT Nucleic acid amplification test, NG *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, PCR Polymerase chain reaction, STI Sexually transmitted disease

A minimum of three studies were required to conduct a meta-analysis

Bolded numbers represent overall pooled estimates

^a Population type classification can be found in Table 1

^b Q: The Cochran's Q statistic is a measure assessing the existence of heterogeneity in pooled outcome measures, here NG prevalence

^c I²: A measure that assesses the magnitude of between-study variation that is due to actual differences in NG prevalence across studies rather than chance

^d Prediction interval: A measure that estimates the distribution (95% interval) of true NG prevalence around the estimated mean

^e Two prevalence measures are not sufficient to conduct a random-effects meta-analysis. The pooled measure was calculated as the arithmetic mean of the two measures and their 95% confidence intervals

^f The majority of studies were on male sex workers, primarily from Pakistan, while a smaller proportion of studies were on men who have sex with men

^g Other/unclear assay include enzyme immunoassay, indirect hemagglutination, or mixed/unclear testing technique

Table 4 Results of meta-analyses on studies reporting *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in symptomatic populations and patients with confirmed or suspected STIs and related infections in the Middle East and North Africa

Population type ^a		Stratified prevalence measures		Sample size		NG prevalence (%)		Pooled mean NG prevalence	Heterogeneity measures		
		Total n	Total N	Range	Median	Mean (%) (95% CI)	Q ^b (p value)	I ^{2c} (%) (95% CI)	Prediction interval ^d (%)		
Symptomatic women											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	30	8008	0.0–30.0	3.2	3.4 (2.0–5.2)	227.1 (p<0.001)	87.2 (82.9–90.5)	0.0–16.1		
	Culture	27	8633	0.0–25.0	3.8	4.3 (2.4–6.7)	466.8 (p<0.001)	94.4 (92.9–95.6)	0.0–21.6		
	Gram stain	14	2028	0.0–38.1	2.6	3.8 (0.8–8.7)	195.0 (p<0.001)	93.3 (90.4–95.3)	0.0–32.2		
	Wet mount	5	387	0.0–14.3	5.3	3.1 (0.0–10.0)	9.6 (p=0.048)	58.3 (0.0–84.5)	0.0–31.2		
	Other/unclear assay ^e	2	446	0.0–26.0	13.0	2.7 (1.4–4.6) ^f	–	–	–		
Overall		78	19,502	0.0–38.1	3.1	3.9 (2.7–5.3)	965.3 (p<0.001)	92.0 (90.7–93.2)	0.0–20.5		
Current anorectal infection	Culture	1	200	–	–	1.2 (1.1–6.4)	–	–	–		
	Overall	1	200	–	–	1.2 (1.1–6.4)	–	–	–		
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	NAAT/PCR	1	441	–	–	0.9 (0.2–2.3)	–	–	–		
	Culture	1	400	–	–	19.2 (15.5–23.5)	–	–	–		
	Other/unclear assay ^e	3	447	1.4–5.0	4.0	3.3 (1.3–6.1)	3.6 (p=0.162)	45.1 (0.0–83.7)	0.0–54.5		
Overall		5	1288	1.0–19.2	4.0	4.8 (0.8–11.7)	115.8 (p<0.001)	96.5 (94.2–98.0)	0.0–42.7		
Symptomatic men											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	7	1130	11.4–63.0	40.0	39.2 (27.1–52.1)	76.1 (p<0.001)	92.4 (86.9–95.6)	4.4–82.3		
	Culture	26	5109	2.0–94.0	41.5	41.6 (30.9–52.8)	1,648.7 (p<0.001)	98.5 (98.2–98.7)	0.6–93.1		
	Gram stain	33	11,003	3.5–96.0	46.0	44.6 (34.9–54.4)	2,286.4 (p<0.001)	98.6 (98.4–98.8)	1.7–94.1		
	Other/unclear assay ^e	3	460	0.6–28.0	26.8	14.9 (0.7–41.4)	89.6 (p<0.001)	97.8 (95.8–98.8)	0.0–100		
Overall		69	17,702	0.6–96.0	43.0	41.4 (34.9–48.1)	4,471.2 (p<0.001)	98.5 (98.3–98.6)	1.6–90.7		
Unspecified/mixed anatomical site	NAAT/PCR	1	422	–	–	41.7 (36.9–46.6)	–	–	–		
	Gram stain	1	162	–	–	67.3 (59.5–74.4)	–	–	–		
Overall		2	584	41.6–67.3	54.5	48.8 (44.7–52.9)^f	–	–	–		
Symptomatic patients (mixed sexes)											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	1	168	–	–	22.6 (16.5–29.7)	–	–	–		
	Culture	1	95	–	–	26.3 (17.8–36.3)	–	–	–		
Overall		2	263	23.0–26.3	24.7	23.9 (18.9–29.5)^f	–	–	–		
Patients with confirmed or suspected STIs and related infections											
Current urogenital infection	NAAT/PCR	4	335	3.8–96.2	12.5	29.0 (0.0–79.7)	280.5 (p<0.001)	98.9 (98.4–99.3)	0.0–100		
	Culture	7	1174	4.7–61.3	21.7	26.4 (11.1–45.4)	315.7 (p<0.001)	98.1 (97.3–98.7)	0.0–91.2		
	Gram stain	2	160	55.0–93.7	74.4	74.4 (66.9–80.9) ^f	–	–	–		
Overall		13	1669	3.8–96.3	21.7	34.8 (16.2–56.2)	835.1 (p<0.001)	98.6 (98.2–98.9)	0.0–100		

Abbreviations: CI Confidence interval, NAAT Nucleic acid amplification test, NG *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, PCR Polymerase chain reaction, STI Sexually transmitted infection

A minimum of three studies were required to conduct a meta-analysis

Bolded numbers represent overall pooled estimates

^a Population type classification can be found in Table 1

^b Q: The Cochran's Q statistic is a measure assessing the existence of heterogeneity in pooled outcome measures, here NG prevalence

^c I²: A measure that assesses the magnitude of between-study variation that is due to actual differences in NG prevalence across studies rather than chance

^d Prediction interval: A measure that estimates the distribution (95% interval) of true NG prevalence around the estimated mean

^e Other/unclear assay include enzyme immunoassay, indirect hemagglutination, or mixed/unclear testing technique

^f Two prevalence measures are not sufficient to conduct a random-effects meta-analysis. The pooled measure was calculated as the arithmetic mean of the two measures and their 95% confidence intervals

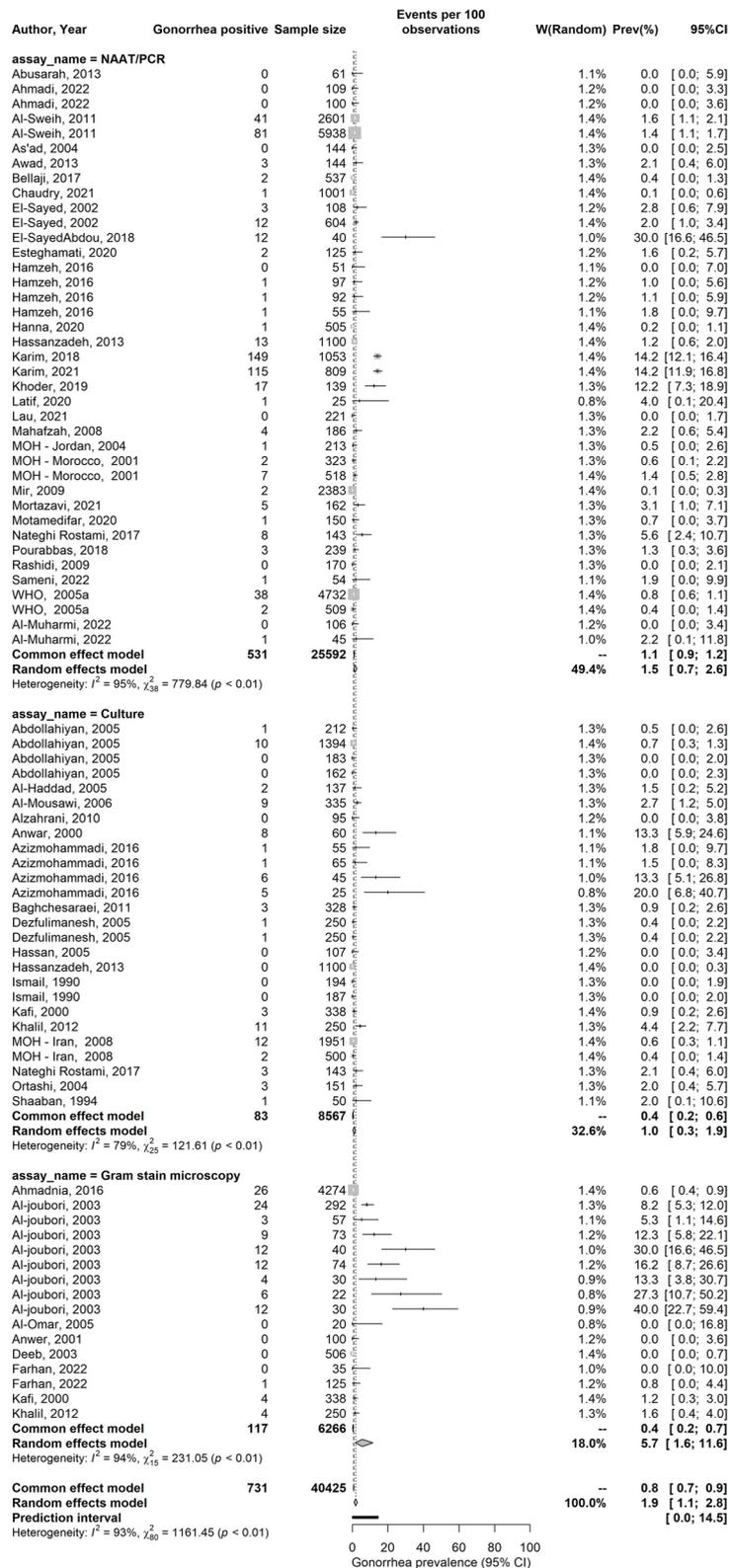


Fig. 2 Forest plot of pooled mean prevalence of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in urogenital specimens among general populations in the Middle East and North Africa

Abbreviations: NAAT Nucleic acid amplification test, PCR Polymerase chain reaction

Table 5 Univariable and multivariable meta-regression analyses for *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in urogenital specimens in the Middle East and North Africa using subregion and year of data collection variables

Urogenital specimens		Stratified prevalence measures Total n	Sample size Total N	Univariable analysis		Adjusted R ²	Multivariable analyses			
Population characteristics	Population type ^a			RR (95% CI)	p value		LT test p-value	Model 1 ARR (95% CI)	Model 2 ARR (95% CI)	p value
	General populations	81	40,425	1.00	-	21.3	1.00	-	1.00	-
	Intermediate-risk populations	14	4227	0.61 (0.27–1.41)	0.250		0.46 (0.19–1.11)	0.085	0.46 (0.19–1.10)	0.082
	FSWs	22	7363	2.61 (1.48–4.61)	0.001		3.50 (2.05–5.99)	< 0.001	3.27 (1.90–5.61)	< 0.001
	MSWs and MSM ^b	12	2680	1.53 (0.63–3.71)	0.346		0.83 (0.32–2.15)	0.704	0.83 (0.33–2.14)	0.705
	Symptomatic women	78	19,502	1.65 (1.09–2.49)	0.017		1.81 (1.22–2.68)	0.003	1.79 (1.22–2.64)	0.003
	Symptomatic men	69	17,702	14.50 (9.80–21.70)	< 0.001		6.63 (3.52–12.40)	< 0.001	6.56 (3.50–12.20)	< 0.001
	Symptomatic patients (mixed sexes)	2	263	10.30 (2.23–47.50)	0.003		7.35 (1.78–30.20)	0.006	7.31 (1.79–29.80)	0.006
	Infertility clinic attendees	31	3508	3.70 (2.09–6.53)	< 0.001		2.92 (1.68–5.08)	< 0.001	2.90 (1.67–5.03)	< 0.001
	Women with miscarriage or ectopic pregnancy	5	420	1.86 (0.53–6.52)	0.331		1.72 (0.55–5.40)	0.348	1.66 (0.54–5.14)	0.376
	STI clinic attendees	11	10,517	2.37 (1.13–4.97)	0.022		2.56 (1.23–5.32)	0.012	2.70 (1.31–5.58)	0.007
	Individuals living with HIV and individuals in HIV-discordant couples	6	112	4.38 (1.20–16.00)	0.026		3.56 (1.07–11.80)	0.039	3.57 (1.08–11.80)	0.038
	Patients with confirmed or suspected STIs and related infections	13	1669	10.00 (5.12–19.50)	< 0.001		6.36 (3.19–12.70)	< 0.001	6.48 (3.26–12.80)	< 0.001
	Other populations ^c	4	4302	0.93 (0.26–3.33)	0.916		0.73 (0.20–2.63)	0.633	0.78 (0.22–2.80)	0.707

Table 5 (continued)

Urogenital specimens		Stratified prevalence measures	Sample size	Univariable analysis			Multivariable analyses			
Assay type	Total n			Total N	RR (95% CI)	p value	LT test p-value	Adjusted R ²	Model 1	Model 2
Study methodology characteristics	NAAT/PCR	144	51,503	1.00	–	< 0.001	14.4	1.00	1.00	–
	Culture	117	34,795	2.08 (1.41–3.07)	< 0.001			1.18 (0.85–1.64)	0.307	1.14 (0.82–1.58) 0.429
	Gram stain	75	21,069	4.62 (2.99–7.14)	< 0.001			2.10 (1.43–3.07)	< 0.001	1.87 (1.24–2.81) 0.003
	Wet mount	5	387	1.25 (0.26–6.01)	0.779			1.00 (0.30–3.34)	0.998	1.01 (0.31–3.35) 0.982
	Other/unclear	7	4936	2.14 (0.63–7.22)	0.221			0.92 (0.35–2.41)	0.859	0.84 (0.32–2.22) 0.730
Sample size	< 200	187	15,748	1.00	–	< 0.001	6.1	1.00	–	1.00
	≥ 200	161	96,942	0.48 (0.34–0.68)	< 0.001			0.40 (0.31–0.52)	< 0.001	0.39 (0.30–0.50) < 0.001
Sampling method	Probability based	42	22,262	1.00	–	0.004	2.8	1.00	–	1.00
	Non-probability based	306	90,428	2.30 (1.30–4.06)	0.004			0.63 (0.39–1.01)	0.057	0.62 (0.39–1.00) 0.051
Response rate	≥ 80%	170	61,786	1.00	–	< 0.001	6.1	1.00	–	1.00
	< 80%	10	4304	0.08 (0.02–0.32)	< 0.001			0.14 (0.05–0.40)	< 0.001	0.14 (0.05–0.41) < 0.001
Temporal trend	Unclear	168	46,600	0.55 (0.39–0.78)	0.001			1.28 (0.95–1.71)	0.103	1.30 (0.97–1.75) 0.075
Year of data collection	< 2000	102	26,032	1.00	–	< 0.001	11.4	1.00	–	–
Category	2000–2009	127	54,690	0.37 (0.24–0.56)	< 0.001			0.88 (0.64–1.22)	0.454	–
	≥ 2010	119	31,968	0.30 (0.20–0.46)	< 0.001			0.73 (0.50–1.08)	0.114	–
Year of data collection		348	112,690	0.96 (0.94–0.97)	< 0.001	< 0.001	14.4	–	–	0.99 (0.97–1.00) 0.033

Abbreviations: ARR Adjusted risk ratio, CI Confidence interval, FSWs Female sex workers, HIC High-income country, HIV Human immunodeficiency virus, MENA Middle East and North Africa, MSM Men who have sex with men, MSWs Male sex workers, NAAT Nucleic acid amplification test, LIC Low income country, LMIC Low-middle income country, LT test Likelihood ratio test, PCR Polymerase chain reaction, RR Risk ratio, STI Sexually transmitted infection, UMIC Upper-middle income country

Adjusted R² in the final multivariable model 1 =63.98%

Adjusted R² in the final multivariable model 2 =64.42%

^a Population type classification can be found in Table 1

^bThe majority of studies were on male sex workers, primarily from Pakistan, while a smaller proportion of studies were on men who have sex with men

^c Other populations include populations with an undetermined risk of acquiring *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* infection such as victims of sexual assault and mixed populations, among others

^d National income was not included in the multivariable model due to collinearity with MENA subregion variable

unexpectedly high at 1.9%. This prevalence level was higher than the global average at 0.8% but with overlapping 95% CIs [7]. The elevated NG prevalence aligns with the higher-than-expected prevalence of chlamydia [44], trichomoniasis [97], and syphilis [98] recently observed in the region. These findings suggest a significant but often overlooked bacterial and other curable STI disease burden in MENA, which may have substantial social and economic implications, particularly in the absence of adequate sexual health and STI programs [25–31]. Evidence suggests a decline in prevalence, albeit at a slow pace of approximately 1% per year. This rate of decline is far below what is sufficient to meet the WHO's target of reducing NG incidence by 90% by 2030.

The elevated NG prevalence suggests the presence of active transmission networks for NG and other STIs, but it may not necessarily indicate elevated levels of risky sexual behaviors. Rather, it could be attributed, in part, to inadequate access to and utilization of STI services. MENA faces limited capacity in terms of STI prevention and treatment [25–31]. Similar observations elsewhere have shown that limited bacterial STI diagnosis and specific treatment can lead to unusually high prevalence rates [99–101]. This is particularly relevant considering that NG infection is often asymptomatic, and if left untreated, can result in prolonged shedding, increasing the potential for transmission within the population.

Similar to chlamydia in MENA [44], the prevalence of NG was three times higher among attendees of infertility clinics and twice as high among women with miscarriages or ectopic pregnancies, compared to the general population. However, the latter effect size did not reach statistical significance, perhaps because of the relatively small number of studies. This contrasts with developed regions like Europe, where infection rates among infertility clinic attendees are similar to those in the general population [6, 35].

MENA has been reported to have the highest rate of primary infertility globally, a phenomenon that is not yet adequately understood [102]. In a cultural context where infertility has important socio-cultural consequences for women and their families [103, 104], it is plausible to consider NG infection as a poorly recognized cause of infertility in this region [105–108]. While the consequences of this mostly asymptomatic infection among women [4] may not be readily apparent, its impact on reproductive health outcomes could be visible, even if not explicitly linked to the underlying cause [44]. However, distinguishing the specific role of gonorrhoea from that of chlamydia or other factors in different reproductive outcomes remains challenging [6, 109, 110].

The prevalence of NG infection followed a hierarchical pattern, with higher rates observed in

higher-risk populations, such as FSWs, aligning with patterns seen in other STIs [28, 36, 42, 44, 111]. NG infection is often associated with recent risky sex [3, 32, 112], including frequent turnover in sexual partnerships and engagement in transactional sex [3, 4, 33, 34, 113, 114]. These findings suggest the existence of cores of risky sexual behaviors that are able to sustain NG transmission. This is further supported by data from MENA, which indicate the common occurrence of payment for sex among STI clinic attendees [115, 116], as well as considerable levels of sexual risk behavior among key populations [28, 43, 117, 118], where emerging and growing HIV epidemics are also observed [28, 43, 117–119]. These findings underscore the importance of understanding sexual behavior and sexual networks in both key populations and the general population in this region.

The prevalence of anorectal NG among MSWs and MSM was found to be high, at approximately 10%. This finding confirms that these populations are at a heightened risk of infection. However, only nine studies were available for this specific anatomical site within these specific populations, and they were conducted exclusively in Pakistan and Morocco. Therefore, these findings may not be representative of the broader MENA region.

As anticipated, the prevalence of NG infection was high among symptomatic individuals, especially men, and those with suspected exposure to STIs. This observation aligns with a more symptomatic course of NG infection in men [105, 120] and emphasizes the significant role of NG in causing urethritis in MENA. These findings also underscore the importance of conducting gonococcal AMR surveillance, particularly considering the limited evidence available on this global priority in this region [121–123].

This study is subject to limitations. The quality and quantity of available data varied across countries, population types, and anatomical sites. Data was not found for Qatar and Syria, and only limited data was available for Afghanistan, Algeria, Libya, and Palestine. There was a scarcity of data regarding anorectal and oropharyngeal NG infections. The majority of identified studies focused on reporting measures for urogenital NG infection among general populations, symptomatic women, and symptomatic men. Conversely, only a small proportion of studies examined key populations such as FSWs and MSM, who are most affected by NG infection.

NG exhibits a low prevalence in general populations worldwide [7, 35]. With a global prevalence estimated at only 0.8% [7], fewer than one in every 100 tests will detect a positive case. Consequently, studies with relatively small sample sizes often fail to detect any infections due

to sampling variation. Among studies reporting urogenital NG prevalence in MENA, 13.3% reported zero prevalence, often because of insufficient sample sizes to detect such a low-prevalence infection. Notably, about half of the studies included fewer than 200 participants, highlighting the critical need for large sample sizes to accurately measure NG prevalence in general populations.

However, by pooling studies through the meta-analyses in this work, the limitation of inadequate sample size is partly mitigated by leveraging the collective statistical power of a large meta-analysis sample size, which combines the sample sizes of the individual studies. Furthermore, the meta-regression analyses quantified the effect of sample size on observed prevalence and revealed a small study effect. Specifically, studies with a sample size of 200 or more reported prevalences approximately 60% lower than those of smaller studies. This finding is likely due to publication bias, where studies reporting zero or very low prevalence are less likely to be published than those reporting higher prevalence.

While this study identified a substantial volume of data, caution is warranted when interpreting the findings. Heterogeneity in prevalence was observed across the analyzed studies; however, most of this heterogeneity was subsequently explained by epidemiological factors or study methods through meta-regression analyses. Variations were observed in assay types, sampling methods, and response rates among the studies. These factors were found to be associated with the reported prevalence, indicating methodological limitations in the available studies. The use of diagnostic assays varied over time, and convenience sampling was predominantly used instead of probability-based sampling.

Studies with lower-quality methods tended to report higher NG prevalence, while studies of higher-quality methods reported lower prevalence. Some studies reported unusually high values even in populations presumed to have a low risk of infection, suggesting the presence of unreported bias in sample recruitment or potential unidentified issues in laboratory methods. Inadequate descriptions of factors such as response rate, sampling method, or laboratory methods were observed among the studies. These limitations indicate that the findings may not fully capture the true prevalence and distribution of NG infections across MENA, and the reported pooled measures may overestimate the true NG prevalence.

These limitations highlight the need for improved study methods in investigating gonorrhoea and other STIs in MENA. Implementing high-quality, population-based studies that employ probability-based sampling techniques, standardized protocols, and sensitive and specific diagnostic assays is critical to overcoming these

limitations. Such improvements are essential to obtain a more representative picture of NG epidemiology in MENA.

Despite the limitations, the study identified a substantial volume of data, including published and unpublished sources, providing a detailed investigation of NG epidemiology in MENA for the first time. The study's diverse results and analytics shed light on NG epidemiology in various populations and settings. The findings inform the development and expansion of STI and sexual health programs, inform gonococcal AMR surveillance, and identify priority populations for NG vaccination in MENA.

Conclusions

In conclusion, NG prevalence in MENA is comparable to the global average prevalence, highlighting a neglected and underrecognized disease burden with potential social and economic implications. Urgent action is needed to address NG transmission and disease burden in MENA, as the current response falls far short of the WHO's Global Health Sector Strategy on STIs. Lingering STI stigma, along with political and socio-cultural sensitivities, hampers progress in establishing an inclusive public health agenda and supportive environment for sexual health. To confront the STI burden effectively, targeted, culturally sensitive, and gender-specific programs must be developed. Integrating STIs with established HIV surveillance programs for key populations in the region [124, 125] is a practical approach that merits consideration [126–128]. The urgency of accelerating NG vaccine development is underscored by the findings, as the vaccine may provide a fundamental solution to address this infection and its drug resistance in MENA and beyond.

Abbreviations

AMR	Antimicrobial resistance
CI	Confidence interval
FSW	Female sex workers
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MSM	Men who have sex with men
MSW	Male sex workers
NG	<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>
PRISMA	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses
ROB	Risk of bias
STI	Sexually transmitted infection
WHO	World Health Organization

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s44263-024-00088-9>.

Additional file 1: Contains supplementary data and analyses as follows: Table S1. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) checklist. Table S2. Data sources and search strategies for systematically reviewing *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* epidemiology in the Middle East and North Africa. Box S1. Countries included in the Middle

East and North Africa definition and their subregional classification. Box S2. Variables extracted from relevant records meeting the inclusion criteria. Box S3. Factors (variables) selected a priori and included in the univariable and multivariable meta-regression analyses. Table S3. Studies reporting *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in urogenital specimens in the Middle East and North Africa. Table S4. Studies reporting *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in anorectal, oropharyngeal, unspecified, or mixed anatomical sites, or serological specimens in the Middle East and North Africa. Table S5. Results of meta-analyses on studies reporting urogenital *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in general populations by MENA country, and study precision. Table S6. Summary of precision assessment and risk of bias assessment for studies reporting *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in the Middle East and North Africa. Figure S1. Forest plots presenting outcomes of the pooled mean *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in urogenital specimens among different populations in the Middle East and North Africa. Figure S2. Forest plots presenting outcomes of the pooled mean *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* prevalence in anorectal, oropharyngeal, unspecified or mixed anatomical sites, or serological specimens among different populations in the Middle East and North Africa.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Ms. Adona Canlas for administrative support. The authors are also grateful for infrastructure support provided by the Biostatistics, Epidemiology, and Biomathematics Research Core at Weill Cornell Medicine in Qatar.

Authors' contributions

HC, MH, and AS conducted the systematic search. HC, MH, AS, RA, and YM conducted data extraction. HC and MH conducted data analysis. HC, MH, AS, and LJA wrote the first draft of the manuscript. LJA conceived the study and led the data extraction, analyses, and interpretation of the results. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This study was supported by the Qatar Research, Development, and Innovation Council (sponsor award ID: ARG01-0522-230273) and the Biomedical Research Program at Weill Cornell Medicine in Qatar. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the Qatar Research, Development, and Innovation Council. The funders of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the article.

Availability of data and materials

The dataset supporting the conclusions of this article is included within the article and its Supplementary Material.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹Infectious Disease Epidemiology Group, Weill Cornell Medicine-Qatar, Cornell University, Qatar Foundation-Education City, Doha, Qatar. ²World Health Organization Collaborating Centre for Disease Epidemiology Analytics on HIV/AIDS, Sexually Transmitted Infections, and Viral Hepatitis, Weill Cornell Medicine-Qatar, Cornell University, Qatar Foundation-Education City, Doha, Qatar. ³Department of Population Health Sciences, Weill Cornell Medicine, Cornell University, New York, NY, USA. ⁴Department of Communicable Diseases, HIV/Hepatitis/STIs Unit, World Health Organization Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean, Cairo, Egypt. ⁵Department of Public Health, College of Health

Sciences, QU Health, Qatar University, Doha, Qatar. ⁶College of Health and Life Sciences, Hamad bin Khalifa University, Doha, Qatar.

Received: 4 February 2024 Accepted: 1 August 2024

Published online: 19 August 2024

References

- Kirkcaldy RD, Weston E, Segurado AC, Hughes G. Epidemiology of gonorrhoea: a global perspective. *Sexual health*. 2019;16(5):401–11.
- Unemo M, Seifert HS, Hook EW 3rd, Hawkes S, Ndowa F, Dillon JR. *Gonorrhoea Nat Rev Dis Primers*. 2019;5(1):79.
- Omori R, Chemaitelly H, Abu-Raddad LJ. Understanding dynamics and overlapping epidemiologies of HIV, HSV-2, chlamydia, gonorrhoea, and syphilis in sexual networks of men who have sex with men. *Front Public Health*. 2024;12:1335693.
- Neslon KE, Williams CM. *Infectious disease epidemiology: theory and practice*. Second Edition. Sudbury, Massachusetts: Jones and Bartlett Publishers; 2007.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC): Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs): Gonorrhoea - CDC Fact Sheet. 2022. Available from: <http://www.cdc.gov/std/gonorrhoea/stdfact-gonorrhoea.htm>. Accessed on 30 March 2023. In.
- Chemaitelly H, Majed A, Abu-Hijleh F, Blondeel K, Matsaseng TC, Kiarie J, Toskin I, Abu-Raddad LJ. Global epidemiology of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in infertile populations: systematic review, meta-analysis and meta-regression. *Sex Transm Infect*. 2021;97(2):157–69.
- Rowley J, Vander Hoorn S, Korenromp E, Low N, Unemo M, Abu-Raddad LJ, Chico RM, Smolak A, Newman L, Gottlieb S, et al. Chlamydia, gonorrhoea, trichomoniasis and syphilis: global prevalence and incidence estimates, 2016. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2019;97(8):548–562P.
- Fu L, Sun Y, Han M, Wang B, Xiao F, Zhou Y, Gao Y, Fitzpatrick T, Yuan T, Li P, et al. Incidence trends of five common sexually transmitted infections excluding HIV from 1990 to 2019 at the global, regional, and national levels: results from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. *Front Med (Lausanne)*. 2022;9:851635.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Sexually transmitted disease surveillance, 2019. Atlanta, GA: Department of Health and Human Services. 2021. Available from: <https://www.cdc.gov/std/statistics/2019/std-surveillance-2019.pdf>. Accessed on 30 March 2023. In.
- Gonorrhoea European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control: Annual epidemiological report 2018. Stockholm: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Available from: <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/all-topics-zgonorrhoeasurveillance-and-disease-data/annual-epidemiological-reports-gonorrhoea>. Accessed on 30 March 2023. In.
- Wi T, Lahra MM, Ndowa F, Bala M, Dillon JR, Ramon-Pardo P, Eremin SR, Bolan G, Unemo M. Antimicrobial resistance in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*: global surveillance and a call for international collaborative action. *PLoS Med*. 2017;14(7):e1002344.
- Lewis DA. Global resistance of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*: when theory becomes reality. *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2014;27(1):62–7.
- Bolan GA, Sparling PF, Wasserheit JN. The emerging threat of untreatable gonococcal infection. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366(6):485–7.
- Kirkcaldy RD, Harvey A, Papp JR, Del Rio C, Soge OO, Holmes KK, Hook EW 3rd, Kubin G, Riedel S, Zenilman J, et al. *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* antimicrobial susceptibility surveillance - The Gonococcal Isolate Surveillance Project, 27 Sites, United States, 2014. *MMWR Surveill Summ*. 2016;65(7):1–19.
- Unemo M, Lahra MM, Cole M, Galarza P, Ndowa F, Martin I, Dillon JR, Ramon-Pardo P, Bolan G, Wi T. World Health Organization Global Gonococcal Antimicrobial Surveillance Program (WHO GASP): review of new data and evidence to inform international collaborative actions and research efforts. *Sex Health*. 2019;16(5):412–25.
- World Health Organization: Global priority list of antibiotic-resistant bacteria to guide research, discovery, and development of new antibiotics. 2017. Available from: <http://remed.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/global-priority-list-of-antibiotic-resistant-bacteria-2017.pdf>. Accessed on 19 Jan 2023. In.
- World Health Organization: Global action plan to control the spread and impact of antimicrobial resistance in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*. 2012.

- Available from: https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/44863/9789241503501_eng.pdf?sequence=1. Accessed on 6 Apr 2021. In.
18. World Health Organization: Global health sector strategies on, respectively, HIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmitted infections for the period 2022–2030. 2022. Available from: <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240053779>. Accessed on 19 Jan 2023. In.
 19. World Health Organization: Draft global health sector strategies: sexually transmitted infections, 2016–2021. 2015. Available from: https://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf_files/WHA69/A69_33-en.pdf. Accessed on 19 Jan 2023. In.; 2017.
 20. Petousis-Harris H, Paynter J, Morgan J, Saxton P, McArdle B, Goodyear-Smith F, Black S. Effectiveness of a group B outer membrane vesicle meningococcal vaccine against gonorrhoea in New Zealand: a retrospective case-control study. *Lancet*. 2017;390(10102):1603–10.
 21. Edwards JL, Jennings MP, Seib KL. Neisseria gonorrhoeae vaccine development: hope on the horizon? *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2018;31(3):246–50.
 22. CROI 2023: Vaccine and doxycycline PEP both cut gonorrhoea rates, Tuesday 21 February 2023. Available from: <https://www.aidsmap.com/bulletin/conference-news/croi-2023/21-february-2023>. Accessed on 26 May 2023. In.
 23. Craig AP, Gray RT, Edwards JL, Apicella MA, Jennings MP, Wilson DP, Seib KL. The potential impact of vaccination on the prevalence of gonorrhoea. *Vaccine*. 2015;33(36):4520–5.
 24. World Population prospects, 2022 [<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/>].
 25. Abu-Raddad LJ, Ghanem KG, Feizzadeh A, Setayesh H, Calleja JMG, Riedner G. HIV and other sexually transmitted infection research in the Middle East and North Africa: promising progress? *Sex Transm Infect*. 2013;89:iii1–4.
 26. Abu-Raddad LJ, Hilmi N, Mumtaz G, Benkirane M, Akala FA, Riedner G, Tawil O, Wilson D. Epidemiology of HIV infection in the Middle East and North Africa. *Aids*. 2010;24(Suppl 2):S5–23.
 27. Hankins CA, Friedman SR, Zafar T, Strathdee SA. Transmission and prevention of HIV and sexually transmitted infections in war settings: implications for current and future armed conflicts. *AIDS*. 2002;16(17):2245–52.
 28. Mumtaz GR, Chemaitelly H, AlMukdad S, Osman A, Fahme S, Rizk NA, El Feki S, Abu-Raddad LJ. Status of the HIV epidemic in key populations in the Middle East and north Africa: knowns and unknowns. *Lancet HIV*. 2022;9(7):e506–16.
 29. Abu-Raddad LJ, Akala FA, Semini I, Riedner G, Wilson D, Tawil O. Characterizing the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the Middle East and North Africa: time for strategic action. Middle East and North Africa HIV/AIDS Epidemiology Synthesis Project. World Bank/UNAIDS/WHO Publication. Washington DC: The World Bank Press; 2010.
 30. Land JA, Ambrosino E. Prevalence of Chlamydia trachomatis infections in the Middle East and north Africa, what next? *Lancet Global Health*. 2019;7(9):e1152–3.
 31. Abu-Raddad LJ, Akala FA, Semini I, Riedner G, Wilson D, Tawil O. Policy Notes. Characterizing the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the Middle East and North Africa: time for strategic action. Middle East and North Africa HIV/AIDS Epidemiology Synthesis Project. World Bank/UNAIDS/WHO Publication. Washington D: The World Bank Press; 2010.
 32. Brunham RC, Plummer FA. A general model of sexually transmitted disease epidemiology and its implications for control. *Med Clin North Am*. 1990;74(6):1339–52.
 33. Rogers SM, Miller HG, Miller WC, Zenilman JM, Turner CF. NAAT-identified and self-reported gonorrhoea and chlamydial infections: different at-risk population subgroups? *Sex Transm Dis*. 2002;29(10):588–96.
 34. Turner CF, Rogers SM, Miller HG, Miller WC, Gribble JN, Chromy JR, Leone PA, Cooley PC, Quinn TC, Zenilman JM. Untreated gonococcal and chlamydial infection in a probability sample of adults. *JAMA*. 2002;287(6):726–33.
 35. Chidiac O, AlMukdad S, Harfouche M, Harding-Esch E, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of gonorrhoea: systematic review, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions, World Health Organization European Region, 1949 to 2021. *Euro Surveill*. 2024;29(9):2300226.
 36. Alareeki A, Osman AMM, Khandakji MN, Looker KJ, Harfouche M, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of herpes simplex virus type 2 in Europe: systematic review, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions. *Lancet Reg Health Eur*. 2023;25:100558.
 37. Higgins JPT, Green S. Cochrane Collaboration.: Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions. Chichester, England ; Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell; 2008.
 38. Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, Group P. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *PLoS Med*. 2009;6(7): e1000097.
 39. Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, Shamseer L, Tetzlaff JM, Akl EA, Brennan SE, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ*. 2021;372:n71.
 40. Mahmud S, Al-Kanaani Z, Chemaitelly H, Chaabna K, Kouyoumjian SP, Abu-Raddad LJ. Hepatitis C virus genotypes in the Middle East and North Africa: distribution, diversity, and patterns. *J Med Virol*. 2017;90(1):131–41.
 41. Chaabane S, Harfouche M, Chemaitelly H, Schwarzer G, Abu-Raddad LJ. Herpes simplex virus type 1 epidemiology in the Middle East and North Africa: systematic review, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9(1):1136.
 42. Harfouche M, Alareeki A, Osman AMM, Alaama AS, Hermez JG, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of herpes simplex virus type 2 in the Middle East and North Africa: Systematic review, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions. *J Med Virol*. 2023;95(3):e28603.
 43. Chemaitelly H, Weiss HA, Calvert C, Harfouche M, Abu-Raddad LJ. HIV epidemiology among female sex workers and their clients in the Middle East and North Africa: systematic review, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions. *BMC Med*. 2019;17(1):119.
 44. Smolak A, Chemaitelly H, Hermez JG, Low N, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of Chlamydia trachomatis in the Middle East and north Africa: a systematic review, meta-analysis, and meta-regression. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2019;7(9):e1197–225.
 45. El-Kettani A, Mahiané G, Bennani A, Abu-Raddad L, Smolak A, Rowley J, Nagelkerke N, El-Rhilani H, Alami K, Hançali A. Trends in adult Chlamydia and Gonorrhoea prevalence, incidence and urethral discharge case reporting in Morocco over 1995–2015—Estimates using the spectrum-sexually transmitted infection model. *Sexually transmitted diseases*. 2017;44(9):557.
 46. Korenromp EL, Mahiané G, Rowley J, Nagelkerke N, Abu-Raddad L, Ndowa F, El-Kettani A, El-Rhilani H, Mayaud P, Chico RM. Estimating prevalence trends in adult gonorrhoea and syphilis in low-and middle-income countries with the Spectrum-STI model: results for Zimbabwe and Morocco from 1995 to 2016. *Sex Transm Infect*. 2017;93(8):599–606.
 47. Smolak A, Rowley J, Nagelkerke N, Kassebaum NJ, Chico RM, Korenromp EL, Abu-Raddad LJ. Trends and predictors of syphilis prevalence in the general population: global pooled analyses of 1103 prevalence measures including 136 million syphilis tests. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2018;66(8):1184–91.
 48. Chemaitelly H, Weiss HA, Smolak A, Majed E, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of *Treponema pallidum*, Chlamydia trachomatis, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Trichomonas vaginalis, and herpes simplex virus type 2 among female sex workers in the Middle East and North Africa: systematic review and meta-analyses. *J Glob Health*. 2019;9(2): 020408.
 49. Borenstein M, Hedges LV, Higgins JP, Rothstein HR: Introduction to meta-analysis: John Wiley & Sons; 2009.
 50. Freeman MF, Tukey JW. Transformations related to the angular and the square root. *Ann Math Statist*. 1950;21(4):607–11.
 51. Miller JJ. The Inverse of the Freeman – Tukey Double Arcsine Transformation. *Am Stat*. 1978;32(4):138–138.
 52. Schwarzer G, Chemaitelly H, Abu-Raddad LJ, Rücker G. Seriously misleading results using inverse of Freeman-Tukey double arcsine transformation in meta-analysis of single proportions. *Res Synth Methods*. 2019;10(3):476–83.
 53. Higgins JP, Thompson SG. Quantifying heterogeneity in a meta-analysis. *Stat Med*. 2002;21(11):1539–58.
 54. RStudio Team: RStudio: Integrated Development for R. RStudio, Inc., Boston, MA URL <http://www.rstudio.com/>. 2016.
 55. Schwarzer G. meta: An R package for meta-analysis. *R news*. 2007;7(3):40–5.
 56. StataCorp. Stata Statistical Software: Release 16. College Station: Stata-Corp LLC; 2019.
 57. Harbord RM, Higgins JPT. Meta-regression in Stata. *Stata J*. 2008;8(4):493–519.

58. Ministère de la Santé de la Population et de la Réforme Hospitalière Algérienne, ONS, Ligue des Etats arabes: Enquête algérienne sur la santé de la famille 2002: séminaire national. 2004.
59. Alwazer I, editor. Sexually transmitted diseases and reproductive health of women in Sana'a, Yemen. WHO - EMRO: Cairo, Egypt; 2004.
60. Jordan University Hospital, Jordanian Association for Family Planning and Protection. Jordan Sexually Transmitted Infections Prevalence Study 2004. 2004.
61. El-Sayed N, Abdallah M, Abdel Mobdy A, Abdel Sattar A, Aoun E, Beths F, et al. Evaluation of selected reproductive health infections in various Egyptian population groups in greater Cairo. Cairo: Egypt Ministry of Health and Population; 2002.
62. Family Health Group (Jordan), Family Health International, MedLabs Consultancy Group, Ministry of Health (Jordan), University of Jordan. Prevalence of Reproductive Tract Infections in Women Attending Selected Urban OB/GYN Clinics 2003.
63. Ministère de la Santé au Maroc. STI Prevalence Study Among Women Consultants of Mother and Child Health and Family Planning Services 2003.
64. Ministère de la Santé au Maroc and Programme National de lutte contre les IST/SIDA. Etudes de prévalence des IST chez les femmes qui consultent pour pertes vaginales et/ou douleurs du bas ventre. Rabat; 2008.
65. Global Fund to Fight Aids Tuberculosis and Malaria, Joint United Nations Program on HIV/AIDS, Ministry of Health (Morocco), National AIDS Control Program (Morocco), National Institute for Hygiene (Morocco). Morocco HIV Integrated Behavioral and Biological Surveillance Survey 2011-2012.
66. Johnston G. Integrated behavioral and biological surveillance survey among men who have sex with men (MSM) in Agadir and Marrakech, Morocco. Rabat: Kingdom of Morocco Ministry of Health and National STI/AIDS Programme, Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, and Global Fund Unit; 2011.
67. Farhoudi B, Kamali K, Rajabpoor Z. Situation analysis of sexually transmitted infections in the Islamic Republic of Iran. Tehran: Ministry of Health and Medical Education; 2008. p. 54–7.
68. World Health Organization. The 2004 First National Second Generation HIV/AIDS/ STI Sentinel Surveillance Survey, Central South, Somalia, A Technical Report. 2004.
69. World Health Organization. The 2004 First National Second Generation HIV/AIDS/ STI Sentinel Surveillance Survey, Puntland, Somalia, A Technical Report. 2004.
70. Akhi MT, E E, Amjadi M. The role of ureaplasma urealyticum in male non-gonococcal urethritis in Tabriz. *Rawal Med J*. 2009;34(1):65–7.
71. Al Yazachi M, Al Mufti AW, Al Deliamy F. Epidemiology of sexually transmitted diseases in Baghdad city/Iraq. *J Comm Med*. 1994;7(1):13–21.
72. Al-Janabi A, Jubair A, Pemmaraju S, Pruthi P, Pruthi V. The role of bacterial infections on male infertility in Al-Anbar province of Iraq. *Int J Med Sci Public Health*. 2014;3(2):177–80.
73. Al-Muqdadi SF, Mhaisen FT, Al-Tae AA. Distribution of the Infection with *Trichomonas vaginalis* and Associated Microorganisms in Women Attending Two Hospitals in Al-Sader City, Baghdad. *Ibn Al-Haitham J Pure App Sci*. 2010;23(1):19–25.
74. Baghchesaraei H, Amini B, Hossaini M. Prevalence of infection with *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* and *Chlamydia trachomatis* in women visitors of gynecology and obstetrics clinics in Zanjan Province of Iran. *Afr J Microbiol*. 2011;5:2447–50.
75. Deeb ME, Awwad J, Yeretzian JS, Kaspar HG. Prevalence of reproductive tract infections, genital prolapse, and obesity in a rural community in Lebanon. *Bull World Health Org*. 2003;81(9):639–45.
76. Elkayal NM, Mahmoud NF, Abdalla S. Detection of *Chlamydia trachomatis* and *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in Egyptian women suffering from infertility. *Adv Microbiol*. 2015;5(12):769–79.
77. Gdoura R, Kchaou N, Znazen A, Chakroun N, Fourati M, Ammar-Keskes L, Hammami A. Screening for bacterial pathogens in semen samples from infertile men with and without leukocytospermia. *Andrologia*. 2008;40(4):209–18.
78. Ghalib AK. Chlamydia trachomatis infection in antenatal and gynecological patients in Kirkuk city. *Med J Tikrit University*. 2013;19(1):1–9.
79. Ghanbarzadeh N, Nadjafi-Semnani M. A Study of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections among female prisoners in Birjand. *J Birjand University Med Sci*. 2006;13(3):9–15.
80. Gouya MM, Nabai S. Prevalence of some sexually transmitted infections in a family planning service. *Razi J Med Sci*. 2007;14(54):143–50.
81. Hashemi-Shahri SM, Sharifi-Mood B, Kouhpayeh HR, Moazen J, Farrokhi M, Salehi M. Sexually transmitted infections among hospitalized patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) in Zahedan, Southeastern Iran. *Int J High Risk Behav Addict*. 2016;5(3):e28028.
82. Hassan MK, Al-Shaheen H, Al-Mukh JM. Bacterial Vaginosis and Preterm Labour. *Med J Basrah University*. 2005;23(1):42–6.
83. Jaafar NK, Kadhum TJ, Ismael I. Study of causative agents of cervicitis in women attending gynecologic outpatient department in Najaf City. *Kufa Med J*. 2008;11(1):166–74.
84. Kareem HK, Hamad MM, Hasan MA. Abd alsammed MA: Study on *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection in women with type-2 diabetes mellitus and vaginal discharge in Thi-Qar Government. *Eu J Mol Clin Med*. 2020;7(8):4471–8.
85. Khalil HI, Al-Kuraishi AH, Al-Naimi UAM, Al-Naimi SA. Trichomoniasis vaginalis in women attending family planning unit in AL-Liqa'a Hospital. *Iraqi J Sci*. 2012;53(4):746–653.
86. Luni Y, Munim S, Qureshi R, Tareen AL. Frequency and diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis. *J Coll Physicians Surg Pak*. 2005;15(5):270–2.
87. Mohammed MY, Al-Mashhadani S, Al-Waiz MM. The frequency of chlamydial urethritis among a group of Iraqi male patients. *Iraqi J Comm Med*. 2007;20(2):354–9.
88. Mozher HM. عزل وتشخيص بعض انواع الاحياء المجهرية المسببة لالتهابات المهبل المرافقة لاصابات القناة التناسلية الانثوية ودراسة تأثير بعض العوامل على انتشارها. *J Educ Pure Sci*. 2011;1(4):147–57.
89. Pareek SS, Chowdhury MNH. Sexually transmitted diseases in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. A study of patients attending a teaching hospital clinic. *Brit J Venereal Dis*. 1981;57(5):343–5.
90. Sadiq AM, Yousif MG. Vaginal leucocyte counts as indicator for cervical infections in women with bacterial vaginosis in Najaf Iraq. *Kufa Med J*. 2008;11(1):110–20.
91. Tabasi Z, Khourshidi A, Ali Naghipour M, Sadat Z, Akbari H. Prevalence of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in cervicitis and evaluation of drug resistance of *N.gonorrhoeae* in Kashan. *Fez*. 2002;6(22):70–4.
92. Valadkhan Z, Shahcheraghi F, Shafiei M, Hassan N, Aghighi Z, Kazemi F. Detection of *Trichomonas vaginalis* and *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* from vaginal discharge of women attended in gynecology clinics. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2010;14:583.
93. Yaseen SAS. Study about the causative agents of cervical infections and cytopathological changes in Iraqi women. *Iraqi J Sci*. 2020;61(2):246–53.
94. Soleimani Rahbar AA, Niakan M, Fayaz F, Taheri S, Mahmoudian J, Nejad-moghaddam MR, Kolahi AA. Crystal violet in culture media for diagnosis of *Neisseria* species. *Res Med*. 2008;32(3):201–6.
95. Vaccarella S, Bruni L, Seoud M. Burden of human papillomavirus infections and related diseases in the extended Middle East and North Africa region. *Vaccine*. 2013;31(Suppl 6):G32–44.
96. Dargham SR, Nasrallah GK, Al-Absi ES, Mohammed LI, Al-Disi RS, Nofal MY, Abu-Raddad LJ. Herpes simplex virus type 2 seroprevalence among different national populations of Middle East and North African Men. *Sex Transm Dis*. 2018;45(7):482–7.
97. Harfouche M, Gherbi WS, Alareeki A, Alaama AS, Hermez JG, Smolak A, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of *Trichomonas vaginalis* infection in the Middle East and North Africa: systematic review, meta-analyses, and meta-regressions. *EBioMedicine*. 2024;106:105250.
98. El-Jamal M, Annan B, Tawil AA, Hamati M, Almkaddad S, Fakhri I, Dabdoub F, Sharara E, Jamil MS, Alaama AS et al: Syphilis Infection Prevalence in the Middle East and North Africa: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *EClinicalMedicine* 2024, in press.
99. Toomey KE, Rafferty MP, Stamm WE. Unrecognized high prevalence of *Chlamydia trachomatis* cervical infection in an isolated Alaskan Eskimo population. *JAMA*. 1987;258(1):53–6.
100. Walsh MS, Hope E, Isaia L, Righarts A, Niupulusu T, Temese SV, Iosefa-Siitia L, Auvaa L, Tapelu SA, Motu MF, et al. Prevalence of *Chlamydia trachomatis* infection in Samoan women aged 18 to 29 and assessment of possible risk factors: a community-based study. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 2015;109(4):245–51.

101. Stamm WE: Chlamydia trachomatis infections of the adult. In: *Sexually transmitted diseases*. 4th edn. Edited by Holmes KK, Sparling FP, Stamm WE, Piot P, Wasserheit JN, Corey L, Cohen M, Watts DH. New York, USA: McGraw Hill Medical; 2008: 575-593.
102. Mascarenhas MN, Flaxman SR, Boerma T, Vanderpoel S, Stevens GA. National, regional, and global trends in infertility prevalence since 1990: a systematic analysis of 277 health surveys. *PLoS Med*. 2012;9(12):e1001356.
103. Inhorn MC. *Quest for conception: Gender, infertility and Egyptian medical traditions*. University of Pennsylvania Press; 1994. Illustrated edition (Aug. 1 1994).
104. Zurayk H, Sholkamy H, Younis N, Khattab H. Women's health problems in the Arab World: a holistic policy perspective. *Int J Gynecol Obstet*. 1997;58(1):13-21.
105. Gonorrhea- CDC Fact Sheet (Detailed version) [<https://www.cdc.gov/std/gonorrhea/stdfact-gonorrhea-detailed.htm>]
106. Ness RB, Markovic N, Carlson CL, Coughlin MT. Do men become infertile after having sexually transmitted urethritis? An epidemiologic examination. *Fertil Steril*. 1997;68(2):205-13.
107. Ochsendorf FR. Sexually transmitted infections: impact on male fertility. *Andrologia*. 2008;40(2):72-5.
108. Vincent LR, Jerse AE. Biological feasibility and importance of a gonorrhea vaccine for global public health. *Vaccine*. 2019;37(50):7419-26.
109. Reekie J, Donovan B, Guy R, Hocking JS, Kaldor JM, Mak DB, Pearson S, Preen D, Stewart L, Ward J, et al. Risk of pelvic inflammatory disease in relation to chlamydia and gonorrhea testing, repeat testing, and positivity: a population-based cohort study. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2018;66(3):437-43.
110. Walker CK, Sweet RL. Gonorrhea infection in women: prevalence, effects, screening, and management. *Int J Womens Health*. 2011;3:197-206.
111. Low N, Broutet N, Adu-Sarkodie Y, Barton P, Hossain M, Hawkes S. Global control of sexually transmitted infections. *Lancet*. 2006;368(9551):2001-16.
112. Glasier A, Gulmezoglu AM, Schmid GP, Moreno CG, Van Look PF. Sexual and reproductive health: a matter of life and death. *Lancet*. 2006;368(9547):1595-607.
113. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Increases in unsafe sex and rectal gonorrhea among men who have sex with men--San Francisco, California, 1994-1997. *JAMA*. 1999;281(8):696-7.
114. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *Sexually Transmitted Disease Surveillance 2009*. Atlanta: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; 2010.
115. Al-Mutairi N, Joshi A, Nour-Eldin O, Sharma AK, El-Adawy I, Rijhwani M. Clinical patterns of sexually transmitted diseases, associated sociodemographic characteristics, and sexual practices in the Farwaniya region of Kuwait. *Int J Dermatol*. 2007;46(6):594-9.
116. Ismail SO, Ahmed HJ, Grillner L, Hederstedt Issa BA, Bygdeman S. Sexually transmitted diseases in men in Mogadishu, Somalia. *Int J STD AIDS*. 1990;1(2):102-6.
117. Mumtaz GR, Weiss HA, Thomas SL, Riome S, Setayesh H, Riedner G, Semini I, Tawil O, Akala FA, Wilson D, et al. HIV among people who inject drugs in the Middle East and North Africa: systematic review and data synthesis. *PLoS Med*. 2014;11(6):e1001663.
118. Mumtaz G, Hilmi N, McFarland W, Kaplan RL, Akala FA, Semini I, Riedner G, Tawil O, Wilson D, Abu-Raddad LJ. Are HIV epidemics among men who have sex with men emerging in the Middle East and North Africa?: a systematic review and data synthesis. *PLoS Med*. 2010;8(8):e1000444.
119. Chemaitelly H, Ayoub HH, Omori R, El Feki S, Hermez JG, Weiss HA, Abu-Raddad LJ. HIV incidence and impact of interventions among female sex workers and their clients in the Middle East and north Africa: a modelling study. *Lancet HIV*. 2022;9(7):e496-505.
120. Handsfield HH, Lipman TO, Harnisch JP, Tronca E, Holmes KK. Asymptomatic gonorrhea in men. Diagnosis, natural course, prevalence and significance. *N Engl J Med*. 1974;290(3):117-23.
121. Al-Maslamani M, Elmagboul EBI, Puthiyotttil A, Chemaitelly H, Varghese MK, Al Romaihi HE, Al-Thani MH, Al Khal A, Unemo M, Abu-Raddad LJ. First characterisation of antimicrobial susceptibility and resistance of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* isolates in Qatar, 2017-2020. *PLoS one*. 2022;17(3):e0264737.
122. Jabeen K, Nizamuddin S, Irfan S, Khan E, Malik F, Zafar A. Increasing trend of resistance to penicillin, tetracycline, and fluoroquinolone resistance in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* from Pakistan (1992-2009). *J Tropical Med*. 2011;2011:960501.
123. Ferjani A, Marzouk M, Saghrrouni F, Hadj Ali M, Boukadida J. Antimicrobial susceptibility and genotypic distribution of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*: a 2-year study in Tunisia. *Medecine et Maladies Infectieuses*. 2013;43(5):211-2.
124. Bozicevic I, Riedner G, Calleja JM. HIV surveillance in MENA: recent developments and results. *Sex Transm Infect*. 2013;89(Suppl 3):iii1-16.
125. Ayoub HH, Awad SF, Abu-Raddad LJ. Use of routine HIV testing data for early detection of emerging HIV epidemics in high-risk subpopulations: a concept demonstration study. *Infect Dis Model*. 2018;3:373-84.
126. Reintjes R, Wiessing L. 2nd-generation HIV surveillance and injecting drug use: uncovering the epidemiological ice-berg. *Int J Public Health*. 2013;43(3):166-72.
127. UNAIDS/WHO Working Group on Global HIV/AIDS STI Surveillance. *Strategies and laboratory methods for strengthening surveillance of sexually transmitted infections 2012*. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2012. Available from: <http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/rtis/9789241504478/en/>.
128. Abu-Raddad LJ, Schiffer JT, Ashley R, Mumtaz G, Alsallaq RA, Akala FA, Semini I, Riedner G, Wilson D. HSV-2 serology can be predictive of HIV epidemic potential and hidden sexual risk behavior in the Middle East and North Africa. *Epidemics*. 2010;2(4):173-82.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.