

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Treponema pallidum is the causative agent of syphilis, the most common sexually transmitted disease (Parij, 2012). Syphilis is transmitted primarily by sexual intercourse (venereal syphilis) including genital, oral and /or anal contact with or without penetration or during pregnancy from mother to fetus, the spirochete is able to pass through intact mucous membrane or compromised skin (Kent and Eomanelli 2008, Stamm 2010). The disease can also be transmitted in vitro (via placenta) blood transfusion accidental inoculation from infectious materials.

Since the syphilis is almost always transmitted by sexual intercourse, it is thus classified as one of the Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STDs) (Abdelbagi *et al.*, 2008). Syphilis has acquired a higher potential of morbidity and mortality with the increasing prevalence of HIV infection. If syphilis is rare in developed countries, it is much more common in developing countries where prevalence can reach 25% amongst blood donor, (Tagny *et al.*, 2009; Tagny *et al.*, 2010). Syphilis is believed to have infected 12 million people in 1999, with greater than 90% of cases in the developing world. It affects between 700,000 and 1.6 million pregnant women a year, resulting in spontaneous abortions, stillbirths and congenital syphilis. In Sub-Saharan Africa, syphilis contributes to approximately 20% of prenatal deaths. Rates are proportionally higher among intravenous drug users, those who are infected with HIV and men who have sex with men. In the United States, rates of syphilis in 2007 were six times greater in men than women, while they were nearly equal in 1997. 2 African Americans accounted for almost half of all cases in 2010, (Tagny *et al.*, 2010).

Approximately 10.6 million new cases reported in 2005 and 2008, according to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2012). Primary, secondary, early latent syphilis: benzathine penicillin is first-line and oral azithromycin single dose is second-line (British Association for Sexual Health and HIV, 2008). Azithromycin has been shown to be as effective as benzathine penicillin in treating early syphilis. In case of late latent syphilis: benzathine penicillin is first-line, and in neurosyphilis: procaine penicillin with oral probenecid (Hook *et al.*, 2010).

1.2. Rationale

Many previous studies of syphilis were done in Sudan, the prevalence of syphilis obtained in study among pregnant women in Tricapital Khartoum state in Sudan was 9% reported by Abdelbagi et al (2008) and 2.4% according to WHO(1999).

It is important to screen for syphilis among pregnant women in first trimester, because primary syphilis may be asymptomatic. Because primary syphilis may be asymptomatic; the disease may pass unnoticed. Moreover, there is a risk of disease transmission from mother to her unborn child. Screening and treating mothers for syphilis during pregnancy can prevent adverse pregnancy outcomes associated with maternal infection. This study sought to determine the prevalence of syphilis among pregnant women in Berber Teaching Hospital.

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1. General Objectives:

To detect the anti-*Treponemal* antibodies among pregnant women in Berber Teaching Hospital.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives:

-To detect the anti-*Treponemal* antibodies using Rapid Plasma Reagin test as screening test.

-To confirm the result of rapid syphilis test by using Enzyme Linked Immune Sorbent Assay (ELISA).

-To compare between Enzyme Linked Immune Sorbent Assay (ELISA) and Rapid Plasma Reagin (RPR) in the diagnosis of syphilis among pregnant women.

-To determine risk factors associated with syphilis among pregnant women.

CHAPTER TWO

2.Literature Review

2.1 History of syphilis

In 1831 Ricord has designed a larger study on syphilis and gonorrhoea and succeeded to show that the latter occurs only after contact with gonorrhoea patients, whilst the former only after contact with syphilis patients (Tampa *et al*; 2014). It was not earlier than 1905 that Schaudinn (1871-1906) and Hoffman (1868- 1959) have discovered the etiologic agent of syphilis, whom they have named *Spirochaeta pallid*, on various syphilis lesions, proving its existence in both fresh and Giemsa coloured specimens. It was them who changed the name of the bacterium subsequently to *Treponema pallidum*. (Tampa *et al*; 2014) In 1906 Landsteiner introduced the use of the dark-field microscopy method for the detection of the spirochete of syphilis. In 1910 the German bacteriologist August Wasserman (1866-1925) came with the first serologic test for syphilis and in 1949 Nelson and Mayer have conceived *Treponema pallidum* immobilization test (TPI) the first specific test for *T.pallidum* (Tampa *et al*; 2014).

2.2 *Treponema pallidum*

2.2.1 Structure and Biology *Treponema pallidum*

The Spirochaetae are large group of spiral, motile bacteria. One family (Spirochaetaceae) of the order Spirochaetales consist of three genera of free-living, large spiral organism. The other family (Treponemataceae) include three genera whose members are human pathogen, *Treponema*, *Borrelia* and *Leptospira* (Pope *et al*; 2007).

The spirochaetae have many structural characteristics, they are long, slender, helically, coiled, and spiral or corkscrew shaped, Gram negative bacilli. *T.pallidum* has an outer sheath or glycosaminoglycan coating inside the sheath is the outer membrane, which contain peptidoglycan and maintain the structural integrity of the organism. End flagella (axial filaments) are the flagella –like organelles in the periplasmic space encased by outer membrane. The end flagella begin at each end of the organisms and wind around it, extending to and overlapping at the midpoint .Inside the endo flagella the inner membrane (cytoplasmic membrane) that provide osmotic stability and covers the

protoplasmic cylinder. A series of cytoplasmic tubules (body fibrils) are inside the cell near the inner membrane. Treponemes reproduced by transverse fission. (Popeetal; 2007).

These organisms are slender bacteria, 0.2 wide and 5–15 μm long; they feature 10–20 primary windings and move by rotating around their lengthwise axis. The organisms are actively motile, rotating steadily around their end flagella even after attaching to cells by their tapering end. The long axis of the spiral is ordinarily slight but may sometimes bend, so that organisms forms a complete circle for moments as the time, returning then to normal straight position, The spirals are so thin that they are not readily seen unless immune fluorescent stain or dark field illumination is employed (Jawetezet al ;2010).

Their small width makes it difficult to render them visible by staining. They can be observed in vivo using dark field microscopy. In-vitro culturing has not yet been achieved (Kayser, 2005).

T.pallidum subspecies pallidum has hyaluronic acid in the ground substance of tissue and presumably enhanced the invasiveness of the organism. The protein profiles of *T.pallidum* (all subspecies) are indistinguishable; more than 100 protein antigens have been noted. The end flagella are composed of three core proteins, plus an unrelated sheath protein. Cardiolipin is an important component of treponemal antigen (Jawetezet al;2010).

2.3.Transmission

Venereal syphilis is a worldwide disease of only humans; there is no animal reservoir (LaFond and Lukehart, 2006). Syphilis is acquired by direct contact, usually sexual, with active primary or secondary lesions. Studies have shown that 16 to 30% of individuals who have had sexual contact with a syphilis-infected person in the preceding 30 days become infected (Peeling *et al.*, 2004). Actual transmission rates may be much higher. Infection also occurs when organisms cross the placenta to infect the foetus in a pregnant woman causing congenital syphilis and this happens particularly during the first two years of infection (LaFond and Lukehart, 2006). *T.pallidum* may also occasionally be transmitted as a blood-borne infection (Peeling and Hook, 2006).

2.4 Epidemiology

Syphilis occurs world wide, and its incidence is increasing .It is one of the leading notifiable disease in the United States .Many cases are believed to go unreported , which limits public health efforts . There has been a marked increase in incidence of the disease in homosexual men in recent years.(Levinson, 2014). The wide spread epidemics of syphilis that occurred in Russia in 1990 and more recently in China mostly involved heterosexuals , smaller outbreaks in the United States , Canada and England predominately involved men who have sex with men (MSM)(Martin *et al* ,2009)

2.5 Pathogenesis

T.pallidum initially enters from mucosal or cutaneous lesions of an infected through skin or mucous membranes abraded during sexual activity. The organisms reach local lymph nodes within 30 minutes after skin inoculation.

Viable treponemes attach to cells, after which polymorph nuclear leukocytes accumulate in the area of infection (Musher *et al.*, 1983). Both B and T lymphocytes accumulate in the area. Activated macrophages ingest treponemes. By the time a chancre appears, most patients have evidence of antibody formation to the organism. Although both humeral and cell- mediated immunity to *T.pallidum* have been demonstrated. The treponemes may actually suppress host immunity to facilitate their own survival (Lukehart *etal.*, 1980; Soltain *et al.*, 1978).

2.6 Signs and symptoms

Syphilis can present in one of four different stages: primary, secondary, latent, and tertiary and may also occur congenitally (Stamm, 2010).

2.6.1. Primary syphilis

Primary syphilis is typically acquired by direct sexual contact with the infectious lesions of another person. Approximately 3 to 90 days after the initial exposure (average 21 days) a skin lesion, called a chancre, appears at the point of contact (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008). This is classically (40% of the time) a single, firm, painless, non-itchy skin ulceration with a clean base and sharp borders between 0.3 and 3.0 cm in size. The lesion, however, may take on almost any form (Eccleston *et al.*, 2008). In the classic form, it evolves from a macule to a papule and finally to an erosion or ulcer (Eccleston *et al.*, 2008). Occasionally, multiple lesions may be present (~40%) with multiple lesions more common when coinfecting with HIV. Lesions may be painful or tender (30%), and they may occur outside of the genitals (2– 7%). The most common location in women is the cervix (44%), the penis in heterosexual men (99%), and anally and rectally relatively commonly in men who have sex with men (34%) (Eccleston *et al.*, 2008), Lymph node enlargement frequently (80%) occurs around the area of infection, Occurring seven to 10 days after 10 chancre formation (Eccleston *et al.*, 2008). The lesion may persist for three to six weeks without treatment (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008).

2.6.2. Secondary Syphilis

Typical presentation of secondary syphilis with a rash on the palms of the hands Reddish papules and nodules over much of the body due to secondary syphilis. Secondary syphilis occurs approximately four to ten weeks after the primary infection (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008). While secondary disease is known for the many different ways it can manifest, symptoms most commonly involve the skin, mucous membranes, and lymph nodes. (Mullooly and Higgins, 2010). There may be a symmetrical, reddish-pink, nonitchy rash on the trunk and extremities, including the palms and soles (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008; Dylewski and Duong, 2007). The rash may become maculopapular or pustular. It may form flat, broad, whitish, wart-like lesions known as condyloma latum on mucous membranes. All of these lesions harbor bacteria and are infectious. Other symptoms may include fever, sore throat, malaise, weight loss, hair loss, and headache, (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008). Rare manifestations include hepatitis, kidney disease, arthritis, periostitis, optic neuritis, uveitis, and interstitial keratitis (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008; Bhatti, 2007). The acute symptoms usually resolve after three to six weeks, however, about 25% of

people may present with a recurrence of secondary symptoms. Many people who present with secondary syphilis (40–85% of women, 20–65% of men) do not report previously having had the classic chancre of primary syphilis (Mullooly and Higgins, 2010).

2.6.3. Latent syphilis

Latent syphilis is defined as having serologic proof of infection without symptoms of disease (Larry and Pickering, 2008). It is further described as either early (less than 1 year after secondary syphilis) or late (more than 1 year after secondary syphilis) in the United States (Bhatti, 2007). The United Kingdom uses a cut-off of two years for early and late latent syphilis (Eccleston *et al.*, 2008). Early latent syphilis may have a relapse of 11 symptoms. Late latent syphilis is asymptomatic, and not as contagious as early latent syphilis, (Bhatti, 2007).

2.6.4. Tertiary syphilis

Tertiary syphilis may occur approximately 3 to 15 years after the initial infection, without treatment, a third of infected people develop tertiary disease (Bhatti, 2007). People with tertiary syphilis are not infectious (Kent and Eomanelli, 2008).

2.6.5. Congenital Syphilis

Congenital syphilis is a rare disease in most developed countries; but it remains a severe pregnancy outcome in developing countries (Walker and Walker, 2002). *T. pallidum* can be transmitted from the bloodstream of the infected woman to her developing fetus at any time during pregnancy, although risk of fetal infection is much higher during early maternal syphilis (the first year of infection) than during later stages (Sheffield, *et al.*, 2002). Transmission of syphilis to a fetus depends largely on the duration of the disease in the mother. A long interval between infection and pregnancy results in a benign outcome in the infant (Lindstrand *et al.*, 1993). The risk of transmission is 70%–100% in women with primary or secondary syphilis, 40% with early latent syphilis and 10% in late latent cases. About 40% of pregnancies in women with infectious syphilis result in the death of the fetus (Finelli, *et al.*, 1998). Antibiotic treatment of the mother during the first two trimesters is usually sufficient to prevent negative outcomes, but later treatment or lack of treatment may result in foetal death, foetal damage, or birth of an infected infant

(Mascola, *et al.*, 1985). Destructive effects are thought to depend upon the immune response of the foetus and include spontaneous abortion, stillbirth, and premature delivery. Affected infants typically have low weight at birth, and infants with congenital syphilis may be underweight even relative to other infants of the same gestational age (Mascola, *et al.*, 1985). Pulmonary haemorrhage, secondary bacterial infection, and severe hepatitis cause death of approximately 4% of *T. pallidum*-infected neonates soon after delivery (LaFond and Lukehart, 2006).

2.7. Laboratory diagnosis

In laboratory diagnosis always there are three important approaches. Specimens can be pus or tissue fluid from lesions to look for spirochetes and blood serum for serological tests (Emerson, 2009).

2.7.1. Direct diagnostic methods include

Darkground microscopy is the traditional method for direct detection of *T. pallidum* in lesion exudates; it can provide rapid results, with identification of the organism by its characteristic morphology and motility. Immunofluorescence using fixed smears of lesion material, or tissue specimens, has several advantages and is of comparable sensitivity, neither technique differentiates between the pathogenic treponemes, the results were non-specific. More recently described monoclonal antibodies are more specific (Gillespie and Hawkey, 2006).

2.7.2. Indirect diagnosis

Is based on serological tests for the detection of antibodies.

2.7.3. Serological tests

Fall into two categories: non Treponemal tests for screening, and Treponemal tests for confirmation (Fears and Pope, 2001).

2.7.4. Non-treponemal tests

These tests involved the use of non treponemal antigens. Extracts of normal mammalian tissue (e.g. cardiolipin from beef heart) react with antibodies in serum samples from patients with syphilis. These antibodies, which are a mixture of IgG and IgM, are called reagin antibodies. These tests are positive in

most cases of primary syphilis and are almost always positive in secondary syphilis.

The titer of this nonspecific antibodies decrease with effective treatment, in contrast to the specific antibodies, which are positive for life. False positive reactions occur in infections such as leprosy, hepatitis B, and Infectious mononucleosis and in various autoimmune diseases (Edwards, 2000).

2.7.5. Treponemal tests

These tests involve the use of treponemal antigens and therefore are more specific than those described earlier. In these tests, *Treponema pallidum* reacts in immunofluorescence or hem agglutination assays (TPHA) with specific treponemal antibodies in the patient serum. These antibodies arise within 2 to 3 weeks of infection; therefore, the test results are positive in most patients with primary syphilis.

The tests remain positive for life after effective treatment and cannot be used to determine the response to treatment or reinfection. They are more expensive and more difficult to perform than the nonspecific tests and therefore are not used as screening procedure.

Treponema pallidum Particle Agglutination (TPPA) these are very valuable and simple tests using an indirect haemagglutination method with red cells or by gelatin particle together with Venereal Disease Research Laboratory (VDRL), it is probably the best combination for routine use. False positive reaction occurs in up to 2% (Wright and Jones, 2003)

2.7.6. Immunochromatographic based strips (ICT)

The simplest rapid tests for treponemal antibody commercially available. An evaluation of these assays was recently published by the WHO sexually Transmitted Diseases Diagnostics Initiative, the rapid assays are potentially suitable for non-laboratory use in the developing world, and they may also have a role as point of care tests elsewhere (Gillespie and Hawkey 2006).

2.7.7. Molecular methods

Molecular methods are not commonly used in the detection of *T.pallidum* in a clinical setting but can be considered a complimentary technique to be used in combination with conventional dark – field microscopy or serology . Some of

these molecular methods used for detection of the pathogen include the use of PCR and Real time PCR assays the application of PCR in the detection of *T.pallidum* DNA has the advantage of being a diagnostic method with the ability to characterize strains susceptible to macrolide antibiotics.

The sensitivity of PCR detection assay has been found depending on the specimen types and the stages of the disease (Morshed *et al.*, 2007).

2.8. Prevention and Control of Syphilis in Pregnancy

To prevent congenital syphilis, it is imperative to screen for syphilis early in pregnancy; but this remains a challenge. A study found that pregnant women who came for a first antenatal care visit had a median gestational period of 20 weeks (Saloojee, *et al.*, 2004). Promotion of earlier attendance at antenatal care is a simple prevention strategy which should be advocated (Romoren and Rahman, 2006). Another study also determined that antenatal screening and treating women during pregnancy can prevent maternal syphilis (French, 2007). Interventional program launched in Nairobi by the Nairobi City Council department of public health in early 1990s, has been subjected to monitoring and evaluation; and shows that the effort lead to the downward trend of syphilis during pregnancy from prevalence of 7.2% in 1993 to 3.4% in 1998, and also changes in health seeking behaviour and improved health care (Temmerman, *et al.*, 2000). Likewise, in Shenzhen (China) a screening and interventional program led to high increase in coverage for antenatal care clinics; which lead to a cost effective decrease in incidence of congenital cases by half from 43.3 per 100,000 to 22.0 per 100,000 pregnant woman screened in 2002 and 2003 (Cheng *et al.*, 2007).

2.9. Risk Factors for Syphilis

There are several factors that can be associated with syphilis in pregnancy. A Study in Mwanza, Tanzania has shown that the age of 15 years to 34 years is associated with high incidence of syphilis especially in women; also women who had lived away from their community during the past 2 years were significantly at higher risk of syphilis incident and that there was no association between syphilis and polygamy (Todd *et al.*, 2001). Another study in Nairobi showed that lower education, being single, having multiple sex partners, a history of STD, a history of preterm delivery, inadequate antenatal care, and HIV infection were risk factors for syphilis infection (Temmerman *et al.*, 2000).

Syphilis seropositive women were also more likely to have a history of alcohol use, to be clinically wasted, to have clinical anaemia, and pruritic dermatitis (Temmerman *et al.*, 2000). Another study in Shenzhen (China) found a significant association between unmarried status and lower education attainment as risk factors for syphilis infection (Zhou *et al.*, 2007); and also found a significant association of syphilis infection in pregnant women with the overnight travel of a sex partner during the past year (Zhou *et al.*, 2007). An interventional study in the Shenzhen (China) showed syphilis positive pregnant women to have the adverse pregnancy outcomes like miscarriages, stillbirth and perinatal death (Cheng *et al.*, 2007). A study in Nairobi (Kenya) confirmed risk factors for maternal syphilis infection at delivery and the predictable fact that syphilis positive women more often showed a risky sexual behaviour, had a lower level of education and inadequate antenatal care (Temmerman *et al.*, 2000)

2.10. Treatment

Penicillin is effective in the treatment of all stages of syphilis. A single injection of benzathine penicillin G (2.4 million units) can eradicate *T.pallidum* and cure early (primary and secondary) syphilis. Benzathine penicillin is used because the penicillin is released very slowly, from this depot preparation. *T.pallidum* grows very slowly, which required that the penicillin be present in bactericidal concentration. If the patient is allergic to penicillin; doxycycline can be used but must be given for prolonged periods to effect a cure. In neurosyphilis, high doses of aqueous penicillin G are administered because benzathine penicillin penetrates poorly into the central nervous system. No resistance to penicillin has been observed. However, strains resistant to azithromycin have emerged. Pregnant women with syphilis should be treated promptly with the type of penicillin used for the stage of their disease. (Workokowski and Berman, 2010)

CHAPTER THREE

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Study design

This is study a cross-sectional, analytical study

3.2. Study area

The study was conducted in Berber Teaching Hospital in River Nile State

3.3. Study duration

The study was conducted during the 2019, in the period from April to October.

3.4. Study Population

The study population included the pregnant women, attending Berber Teaching Hospital.

3.5. Sample size

A total 100 serum samples were collected from Berber Teaching Hospital.

3.6. Inclusion criteria

Pregnant women were included in this study.

3.7. Exclusion criteria

Nonpregnant women were excluded in this study.

3.8. Data collection

After explaining the purpose of the study, data were collected from each subject by interviewing questionnaire with informed consent. The data include the demographic information (age and trimester).

3.9. Methods

Hundred serum samples were collected from pregnancy women has different age range from 16-43 year in the department of gynecology and obstetrics of Berber Teaching Hospital to detect seroprevalence of syphilis among pregnant women. All specimens were tested by Rapid Plasma Reagin test (RPR) and then confirmed by enzyme linked immune sorbent assay (ELISA).

3.10. Ethical consideration

Approval to conduct this study was taken from the college research ethical committee and then from the Hospital Authority

3.11. Specimen collection and preparation

Using sterile disposable syringes, about 3ml of blood were withdrawn from the antecubital vein under aseptic conditions. The site of collection was disinfected using alcohol. The blood samples were collected in sterile plain containers without any additives, and left to clot at room temperature. Each blood sample was then centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 5 minutes, and each serum was separated in another sterile plain container. Samples were labeled by giving laboratory numbers. Serum samples were collected in another plain sterile container with corresponding laboratory number, and then the samples were transported in an ice bag, from the site of collection to the lab, where they were stored, for analysis. The samples were kept frozen at -20 °C without addition of preservatives, until the time of analysis (not more than 3 months).

3.12. Laboratory examination

All the specimens were tested for syphilis; Rapid Plasma Reagin Test (RPR) and enzyme immune sorbent assay (ELISA).

3.12.1. Rapid Plasma Reagin test (RPR)

The Rapid plasma Reagin (RPR) test is a macroscopic, nontreponemal flocculation card test used to screen for syphilis. The kits used were manufactured by Spin React (Spain). Rapid: Its rapid test that can be done within few minutes. Plasma: The sample is plasma (or serum), Reagin:

The term “reagin” means that this test does not look for antibodies against the actual bacterium, but rather for antibodies against substances released by cells when they are damaged by *Treponema pallidum*.

Principle of the method

The RPR-carbon is non-treponemal slide agglutination test for the qualitative and semiquantitative detection of plasma regains in human serum. Carbon particles coated with a lipid complex are agglutinated when mixed with samples containing regains of the patients affected by syphilis.

Reagents

Antigen used in RPR Test: RPR Antigen contains cardiolipin, lecithin, cholesterol, 10% choline chloride, EDTA, charcoal etc in Buffer. The antigen is prepared from a modified Venereal Disease Research Laboratory (VDRL) antigen suspension containing choline chloride to eliminate the need to heat inactivate serum, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) to enhance the stability of the suspension, and finely divided charcoal particles as a visualizing agent. Positive Control: Prepared from human serum samples containing antibodies to *Treponema pallidum*(regain). Serum is ready to use(artificial). Bring to room temp before use. (titer more or equal 1/4). Control negative: Animal serum preservative. Basic Test

Procedure

The Rapid plasma Reagin (RPR) antigen is mixed with unheated or heated (to inactivate complement) serum or with unheated plasma on a plastic-coated card. If antibodies are present, they combine with the lipid particles of the antigen, causing them to agglutinate. The charcoal particles coagglutinate with the antibodies and show up as black clumps against the white card (macroscopically visible flocculation-type precipitation if the patient's sera contain reagin). Preparation for the RPR assay: Rapid plasma Reagin Antigen Suspension, Positive Control, Negative control and samples were left at room temperature (20–30oC) before use to worm. The reagents were gently mixed before used.

1. The Rapid plasma Reagin card was labeled according to sample number, being careful not to interfere with the test areas of the card.
2. Disposable serum dispensers or droppers was used, one free-falling drop (0.05 ml) of serum sample was dispensing onto a circle on the test card.
3. One free-falling drop of positive control and negative control were also dispensing in situ, new dispenser for each sample were used.
4. The sample was smoothly across the circle area using the paddle side of the dispenser as shown by instructor, the same for positive and negative control.
5. After mixing the antigen solution by swirling, one drop of the antigen suspension was added to each sample / control testing area.

6. The card was placed on an automatic rotator and then covered to maintain humidity, then rotated at 100 ± 5 rpm for 8 minutes (7 minutes 50 seconds to 8 minutes 30 seconds). Following rotation, a brief hand rotation and tilting of the card (3–4 times) was performed to aid in differentiating nonreactive from minimally reactive results.

7. Results were immediately read macroscopically in the “wet” state under a high intensity light source.

Interpretation of RPR Test

1. Non-reactive (NR) – smooth suspension, no clumping or slight roughness
2. Reactive (R) – any degree of clumping

3.12.2. Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay ELISA

Determination of ELISA

The reagent was supplied by Biorex, united kingdom, ELISA gen, fourth generation ELISA for in vitro determination of specific antibodies to syphilis in human plasma and serum. Fortress Syphilis ELISA is an in vitro diagnostic kit for the detection of antibodies to *T.pallidum* in human serum or plasma.

Principle of the Assay

The detection of *anti-TP* antibodies is achieved by antigen sandwich enzyme linked immune sorbent assay, where the micro wells are coated with recombinant *Treponema pallidum* antigens expressed in *E. coli*. The sample is incubated in the micro wells together with recombinant TP antigens conjugated to HRP. The pre-coated antigens express the same epitopes as hosts. In case of presence of anti-TP in the sample, during incubation the pre-coated and conjugated antigens will be bound to the two variable domains of the antibody and the specific antigen-antibody immune complex is captured on the solid phase. After washing to remove sample and unbound conjugates, chromogen solution containing TMB and urea peroxidase are added into the wells. In presence of the antigen-antibody sandwich complex, the colorless chromogen hydrolyzed by the bound HRP conjugate to a blue colored product, which turn yellow upon addition of the stop solution. This color is then read photometrically and is directly proportional to the amount of the antibody in the sample. Wells containing samples negative for anti-TP remain colorless.

Procedure

Control

3x negative control and 2x positive controls included with each batch of samples to be tested .and the controls were treated as though they are patient samples.

Conjugate and samples incubation

Twenty microliter of negative control (x3) and positive control (x2) and sample were added into their respective wells. Fifty microliter of conjugate HRP was added to each well. Then Incubated (covered) at 37°C for 60 minutes.

Wash The plate was washed 6 times with diluted washing buffer, soaked for about 30 seconds between each cycle. Excess liquid was tapped out.

Substrate incubation

Fifty microliter of the TMB chromogen solution was added to each well then mixed by tapping the plate gently and incubated at 37 for 15 minutes avoiding light. In the presence of positive sample, the color turned to blue in positive control and anti-TP positive sample wells, due to enzymatic reaction between the chromogen solution and the HRP-conjugate.

Stop color development

Fifty microliter stop solution (H₂SO₄-0.5M) were added to each well, mixed gently blue color changed to yellow in positive control and anti-TP positive sample wells.

Reading:

The plate bottom was carefully wiped and OD was read at 450nm using a plate reader within 5 minutes after stopping the reaction.

Calculation and Interpretation of results

Assay validation

The OD value of the positive control must be equal to or greater than 0.0800 at 450nm. The OD value of the negative control must be less than 0.100 at 450nm.

Calculation of cut-off value

Cut-off value (C.O.) = $MNC + 0.18$. The mean absorbance value for three negative controls + 0.18

Interpretation:

(S = the individual absorbance (OD) of each specimens).

Negative Results (S/C.O. ≤ 1)

samples giving on absorbance greater than or equal to the cut-off value are considered initially reactive, which indicates that anti-TP antibodies have been detected with this anti-TP ELISA kit and there are no serological indications for past infection with TP.

Positive Results (S/C.O. ≥ 1)

samples giving on absorbance greater than or equal to the cut-off value are considered initially reactive, which indicates that anti-TP antibodies have been detected with this anti-TP ELISA kit.

Borderline (S/C. O = 0.9-1.1)

Samples with absorbance to cut-off ratio between 0.9 and 1.10 are considered borderline samples and retesting is recommended.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS

Hundred serum blood samples were collected from pregnant women have different age in the department of gynecology and obstetrics of Berber Teaching hospital to detect seroprevalence of syphilis among pregnant women. All specimens were tested by two different methods first by Rapid Plasma Reagin test (RPR) and then confirmed by Enzyme Linked Immune Sorbent Assay (ELISA). The result 9% of positive cases with syphilis was detected by ELISA where 10% was detected by RPR.

The age of the patients range: 16-43 with a mean of almost of participant, were in the age group 23-36 (table 1):-

Table 1: Distribution of the population according to the age group (n=100)

Age	Frequency	Percent%
16-22	15	15%
23-29	41	41%
30-36	33	34%
37-43	11	10%
Total	100	100%

The majority of the patient, were in the third trimester (Table 2)

Table 2: show distribution of population according to trimester:

Trimester	Number	Percent (%)
First	12	12%
Second	26	26%
Third	62	62%

Ten out of hundred women were positive for syphilis when tested by RPR (Table 3)

Table 3: Detection of anti-*Treponema pallidum* antibodies using RPR.

RPR	Frequency	Percent (%)
Positive	10	10%
Negative	90	90%
Total	100	100%

Nine out of hundred patients were positive for syphilis when using ELISA (Table 4)

Table 4: Detection of anti-*Treponema pallidum* antibodies using ELISA.

ELISA	Frequency	Percent (%)
Positive	9	9%
Negative	91	91%
Total	100	100%

Syphilis was detected in all age group with exception of age 37-43 (Table 5) when using ELISA

Table 5: Positive syphilis cases detected by ELISA in different age group (n=100)

Age	Positive	Negative	Total	(%)
16-22	3	12	15	15
23-29	4	37	41	41
30-36	2	31	33	33
37-43	0	11	11	11
Total	9	91	100	100

The disease was found in all age when tested by RPR(table6)

Table 6: Positive syphilis cases detected by RPR in different age group (n=100).

Age	Positive	Negative	Total	(%)
16-22	3	12	15	15
23-29	4	37	41	41
30-36	2	31	33	33
37-43	1	10	11	11
Total	10	90	100	100

The pregnant woman in third trimester showed the higher frequency of syphilis(5/9)

Table 7: Detection of anti-*Treponema pallidum* antibodies in pregnant women according to trimester

Trimester	Positive	Negative	Total	(%)
First	1	11	12	1/12
Second	3	23	26	3/26
Third	5	57	62	5/62
Total	9	91	100	9

Show no significant difference between the two techniques

Table (8): Comparison between detection of u anti-*Treponema pallidum* sings RPR and ELISA

Technique	Positive	Negative	Total
RPR	10/100	90/100	100%
ELISA	9/10	91/100	100%

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Discussion

This study was conducted to detect the frequency of syphilis among pregnant women in Berber Teaching Hospital of River Nile State in Sudan from April to October 2019. Hundred samples were tested for syphilis; the age range was 16 to 43. The seroprevalence of syphilis obtained in this study among pregnant woman in Berber Teaching Hospital was (9%) by ELISA which was the gold standard method in this study compare to other study we can find different results. This results, high in comparison to the previous reports by the WHO (1.6%) (WHO, 1999) however, this prevalence was considered nearly similar to the result reported by Kadiga who reported seroprevalence of syphilis among pregnant women in Khartoum Teaching Hospital (7%) (Kadiga, 2012). Percentage of syphilis with in age group 23-29 years (4%) and 16-22 years (3%) respectively was higher more than those in the other ages. These findings were similar to result reported by, (Abdelbagi *et al.*; 2008). By employing the two serological techniques in this study, (10%) was positive by (RPR) test, (9%) was positive when confirmed by enzyme linked immunosorbant Assay, (1%) positive by (RPR) test and negative when confirmed by ELISA. Showed no significant difference between the two techniques.

The RPR result in this study show specificity 98.8%, one of the negative samples by ELISA show positive by RPR and this may be due to different causes. The false positive result by the RPR is related to anti-cardiolipin antibodies produced in other infections eg, narcotic drug abuse, chickenpox, acute malaria and HIV (Cheesbrough, 2003).

Syphilis prevalence data from the rest of Africa has been reported to range from a low of 2.5% in Burkina Faso, 13.7% in North West Ethiopia (Azize *et al.*, 1995), 17.4% in Cameroon (WHO, 1999) and a high of 42% in Mozambique (Folgosá *et al.*, 1996). It is nearly similar to study done in Khartoum the capital of Sudan by Abdel-bagi *et al.*, (2008), reported maternal syphilis to be 9% among the antenatal care attendees.

5.2. Conclusion

The results of this study conclude that:

1. The seroprevalence of syphilis obtained in this study among pregnant women in BerberTeaching Hospital was (9%) by ELISA and (10%) by RPR.
2. For diagnosis of syphilis all results must be confirmed by more specific and sensitive methods like PCR.
3. ELISA is better than RPR in diagnosis of syphilis.
4. Large sample size using advance Technique.

5.3. Recommendations:

1. All pregnant women should be screened to detect syphilis during pregnancy.
2. All the cases should be treated to prevent further complication in mother and transmission of these diseases to new born infants.
3. Health education in rural area is necessary for women in all ages.
4. Provision of many centers for voluntary screening for sexual transmitted disease to detect sexually transmitted diseases before marriage for both male and female.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1



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96 TESTS

STORE AT 2-8°C

FOR IN-VITRO DIAGNOSTICS USE ONLY

Syphilis Treponema pallidum Antibody Elisa

Format: Syphilis Elisa is an in vitro diagnostic kit for the detection of antibodies to *Treponema pallidum* in human serum or plasma.

Intended Use:
1. For screening of blood donors.
2. For serology of syphilis.

Principle of the Assay:
The detection of anti-treponemal antibodies is achieved by antigen-antibody reaction. The detection of antibodies to *Treponema pallidum* is achieved by enzyme immunoassay (EIA). The sample is incubated in the presence of a fixed amount of antigen. If the sample contains specific antibodies, they will bind to the antigen. The antigen-antibody complex is then detected by the enzyme immunoassay (EIA) method. The enzyme immunoassay (EIA) method is a sensitive and specific method for the detection of antibodies to *Treponema pallidum* in human serum or plasma.

After washing to remove unbound antigen and unbound enzyme, the enzyme immunoassay (EIA) method is performed. The enzyme immunoassay (EIA) method is a sensitive and specific method for the detection of antibodies to *Treponema pallidum* in human serum or plasma.

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Kit Contents

Kit Contents	Volume
Mit Content	1 plate (12x12 well strip per plate)
Microwell Plate 33 Tests	1x6.5ml
Negative Control	1x6.5ml
Positive Control	1x6.5ml
HRP - Conjugate	1x13 ml
Colloidal Reagent	1x6.5ml (Dilute 1 to 20 with distilled water before use. Once diluted, stable for two weeks at 2-8°C)
Stop Wash Buffer	1x6.5ml (Ready to use and once open, stable for one month at 2-8°C)
Chromogen Solution A	1x7ml (Ready to use and once open, stable for one month at 2-8°C)
Chromogen Solution B	1x7ml
Stop Solution	1x7ml
Plastic Sealable Bag	1 Unit
Plastic Sealable Bag	1 Sheet
Insert	1 Copy

Additional Addressed Ant Instruments Required for Kit

1. Tissue grinder or douncer
2. Disposable gloves
3. Acetone or 70% ethanol
4. Disposable pipette tips
5. Disposable gloves
6. Disposable gloves
7. Disposable gloves
8. Disposable gloves
9. Disposable gloves
10. Disposable gloves

Precaution and Safety

1. Do not exchange reagents from different kits, or use reagents from other commercially available kits. The components of the kit are precisely matched at the factory and use of reagents from other sources may affect the results of the assay.
2. Do not use reagents from other sources.
3. Do not use reagents from other sources.
4. Do not use reagents from other sources.
5. Do not use reagents from other sources.

Storage and Stability

1. The component of the kit will remain stable through the expiration date indicated on the label and package when stored between 2-8°C, do not freeze. To obtain maximum performance of the kit, the kit should be stored at 2-8°C. Do not use reagents from other sources.
2. The component of the kit will remain stable through the expiration date indicated on the label and package when stored between 2-8°C, do not freeze. To obtain maximum performance of the kit, the kit should be stored at 2-8°C. Do not use reagents from other sources.
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value is the Cut-off value (C.O.) of the plate. If the Cut-off reading is based on single filter data reader, the result should be confirmed by subtracting the blank well OD value from the per filter values of samples and controls. In case the reader is based on color plate reader, do not subtract the blank well OD from the per filter values of samples and controls.

1. Calculation of Cut-off value

Cut-off value (C.O.) = $\bar{X} - 3 \times S.D.$

* \bar{X} = 1st mean absorbance value for three negative controls.
 If one of the negative control values does not meet the quality control range specifications, it should be discarded and the mean absorbance value should be calculated using two values. If more than one negative control OD value does not meet the Quality control range specifications, the test is invalid and must be retested.

2. Quality control range

The test results are valid if the Quality Control criteria are met. It is recommended that each laboratory must establish appropriate quality control system with quality control material similar to or identical with the patient sample being tested.
 1. The OD value of the Blank well, which contains only Chromogen and Stop solution, is less than 0.000 or 0.000.
 2. The OD value of the Positive control must be equal to or greater than 0.200 at 430/630nm, or at 450nm after blanking.
 3. The OD value of the negative control must be less than 0.100 or 400/630nm or 0.400 after blanking.

3. Interpretation of the result

(i.e. this is the absorbance (OD) of each specimen)
Negative result (S.C.O. < C.O.) samples giving an absorbance less than the Cut-off value are considered negative, which indicates that no anti-rf antibodies have been detected with the anti-rf ELISA kit, and there are no serological indications for post-infection with TP.

Positive results (C.O. > C.O.) samples giving an absorbance greater than or equal to the Cut-off value are considered positive. It is recommended that the positive results be retested with the anti-rf ELISA kit. All positive samples should be retested in duplicates. Reciprocity reading samples could be considered positive for antibodies to anti-rf antibodies. There are serological indications for current or past infection with TP. Any blood unit containing antibodies to response protein should be immediately discarded.
Serotype (TP-0.0.1.1): Samples with absorbance to Cut-off ratio between 0.5 and 1.0 are considered borderline samples and retesting is recommended. Separately positive samples can be considered positive for anti-rf antibodies.

Notes on TP-0.0.1.1 Performance

Clinical Performance: The clinical performance of this assay have been evaluated by a panel of samples obtained from 340 healthy blood donors from 3 blood banks and by a panel of samples from 192 typhoid positive patients. The evaluation result are given below.

	Confirmed positive	Specificity	Sensitivity
	100%	100%	100%

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deterioration or instability of the reagents, immediately substitute the reagents with new ones.
 2. After mixing of the Chromogen A and B solutions into the wells, the color of the mixture turns blue within few minutes, do not continue carrying out the testing and replace the reagents with fresh ones.

Reference:

1. Fraser CM, et al. *Chlamydia genome sequence of Trachomatis*, the typhoid typhlocera. Science 1998; 281:375.
2. Harman M, Marsh P, Paul F, Spangenberg J, Wessner J, Chaplin SS. *In Situ Typhoid Detection*, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1999.

SPECIMEN	REPRODUCIBILITY		WITHIN RUN		BETWEEN RUN	
	N	MEAN	CV	MEAN S.D	CV	CV
WSTAT.+VE	10	3.35	8.4%	3.72	9.0%	9.0%
WSTAT.-VE	10	6.75	7.0%	8.40	7.2%	7.2%
STRONG	10	10.90	4.2%	10.30	4.4%	4.4%

Limitations:

1. Unretestable positive result may occur due to the general biological and technical characteristics of ELISA assays. The test is design to achieve very high performance characteristics of sensitivity and specificity. However, in very rare cases some may exhibit or antibody can remain undetectable. Antigens may be undetectable during the early stages of the disease and in some immunosuppressed individuals.
 2. If, after retesting of the initial, reactive samples, the results are negative, the patient should be retested and considered as seronegative. False positive and negative results may occur due to the use of the ELISA assay. False positive results can occur due to the serological reaction, most of which are related but not limited to inadequate washing step.
 3. Any positive result must be interpreted in conjunction with patient clinical information and other laboratory testing results.
 4. Common sources for mistakes are beyond the easy detection of the testing procedure. These include: reagents, equipment, timing, volume, sample volume, and quality.
 5. The prevalence of the marker will affect the assay's predictive values.
 6. This kit is intended ONLY for testing of individual serum or plasma samples. Do not use for testing of cerebrospinal fluid, urine or other body fluids, or pooled samples.
 7. This is a qualitative assay and the result cannot be used to measure antigen concentrations.

Indications of instability or deterioration of Reagents

1. Values of the Positive or Negative control, which are out of the indicated Quality control range, are indicator of possible deterioration of the reagent or operator or equipment errors. In such cases, the results should be confirmed at least and the samples must be retested. In case of contrary erroneous result obtained at due to

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Assay Procedure:

Step 1: Reagents preparation:

To reach room temperature (18-20°C) for at least 15-30 minutes. Check the wash buffer concentrations in the presence of salt crystals. If crystals have formed in the solution, resolubilize by warming at 37°C until crystals dissolve. Dilute the stock Wash Buffer 1 to 20 with distilled or deionized water. Use only ultra-pure water to dilute the buffer.

Step 2:

Comparing with blank (control) wells including three negative control (e.g. B1, C1, D1) and one Positive control (e.g. E1, F1) and one Blank (e.g. A1, neither samples nor reagent-conjugate should be added into the Blank well).

If the results are determined by using dual wavelength plate reader, the requirement for use of blank well could be omitted. Use only number of steps required by the IBC.

Step 3:

Adding anti-rf Conjugate: Add 100µl anti-rf Conjugate into each well. Add 20µl of Positive control, Negative control, and specimen into their respective wells.

Step 4:

Upon addition of the sample the anti-rf conjugate - sample mixture will appear blue. Use a separate dispenser tip for each specimen. Negative control and Positive control to avoid cross-contamination.

Step 5:

Including in the plate by tapping gently. Cover the plate with the plate cover and include for 40 minutes at 37°C. It is recommended to use a temperature controlled incubator for the incubation. If any indicator is used, do not open the door frequently.

Step 6:

Washing: At the end of the incubation, remove and discard the plate cover. Wash each well 4 times with diluted Wash Buffer. Wash time, allow the microwells to soak for 30-60 seconds. After the first washing cycle, turn the plate down until blotting paper or clean towel, and tap it to remove any remaining Wash Buffer.

Step 7:

Coloring: Dissolve 50µl of Chromogen A and 50µl of Chromogen B solution into each well excluding the Blank and mix by tapping the plate gently. Include the plate at 37°C for 15 minutes avoiding light. The enzymatic reaction between the Chromogen solutions and the anti-rf-conjugate produces blue color in Positive control and anti-rf positive samples wells.

Step 8:

Stopping reaction: Using a multichannel pipette or manual, add 50µl Stop solution into each well and mix gently. Ignore yellow color observed in Positive control and Negative control wells.

Step 9:

Measuring the Absorbance: Calibrate the plate reader with the Blank well and read the absorbance at 400nm if a dual filter instrument is used, set the reference wavelength at 630nm. Calculate the Cut-off value and evaluate the results (Note: read the absorbance within 8 minutes after stopping the reaction).

Interpretation of Result:

The absorbance results are considered separately when calculating the overall result of the assay. Consider the number of plates concurrently processed. The results are calculated by relating each sample's optical density (OD)

Appendix 2



A-ELISA reading



B- ELISA washer