DOI: 10.36346/sarjps.2019.v01i04.001

| Volume-1 | Issue-4 | Dec-2019 |

Review Article

Trichomonas Vaginalis: A Review of Its Epidemiologic, Clinical and Treatment Challenges in Nigeria

Sule B. Ugbede*, Sodangi C. Joseph, Kpur H. Gloria, Musa U. Baba, Famuyiwa Samuel O, Amina Lawal

Department of Animal Biology, Federal University of Technology Minna, Minna, Nigeria

*Corresponding Author

Sule B. Ugbede

Article History

Received: 09.12.2019 Accepted: 17.12.2019 Published: 30.12.2019

Abstract: *Trichomonas vaginalis* is a flagellated parasite that causes sexually transmitted infections mainly in women. The disease found with other sexually transmitted infections such as Chlamydia, Gonorrhea, Syphilis and Herpes simplex virus type II is a sensitive marker of highly sexual behaviour. It causes pelvic inflammatory disease and adverse pregnancy outcomes. The parasite, *T. vaginalis*, causes Trichomoniasis, a disease with significant medical, social and economic implications. The data presented in this report showed that Trichomoniasis caused by *T. vaginalis* remains the only reported sexually transmitted parasitic disease in Nigeria. The progressive abandoning of condom use relative to discomfort and linked to forgetting the risk of *Trichomonas vaginalis* and the increase of poverty may partially explain the increase in the annual number of urinogenital trichomoniasis cases in Nigeria. Metronidazole has been the treatment of choice for women for decades, and single dose has been considered the first line of therapy. However, high rate of retest positive are found among *T. vaginalis* infected person after single dose of Metronidazole treatment. Evidence from the review indicates the need for the concern stakeholders to attempt a holistic approach towards eradicating the disease in our environment.

Keywords: *Trichomonas vaginalis*, Infections, Metronidazole, Parasitic disease.

INTRODUCTION

Trichomoniasis is a very common sexually transmitted disease (STD) especially for women, caused by infection with a motile protozoan parasite called *Trichomonas vaginalis* and cause vaginal discharge for women as well as increasing of dysuria [1-3]. Humans are the only known host with the trophozoite transmitted via vaginal sexual intercourse, and rarely via fomites [4]. Infected people without symptoms can still pass the infection to others. The parasite is passed from infected persons to uninfected ones during sex. In women, the most commonly infected part of the body is the lower genital tract (vulva, vagina, or urethra), and in men, the most commonly infected body part is the inside of the penis [5]. During sex, the parasite is usually transmitted from a penis to a vagina or from a vagina to a penis [1, 6]. Transmission of *Trichomonas vaginalis* to neonates during passage through an infected birth canal is also possible [7, 8]. *Trichomonas vaginalis* in men causes itching or irritation inside the penis, burning after urination or ejaculation, or some discharge from the penis. *Trichomonas vaginalis* in women causes itching, burning, redness or soreness of the genitals, discomfort with urination, or a thin discharge with an unusual smell that can be clear, white, yellowish, or greenish [1, 3].

Based on wet mount microscopy sensitivity, the World Health Organization [3] estimated the global prevalence, ranges from 60-80 % [9]. In women, vaginal swabs have been shown to have a higher sensitivity than first catch urine but in men, either first catch urine or urethral swab is recommended [10]. Trichomoniasis can increase the risk of getting or spreading other sexually transmitted infections.

EPIDEMIOLOGY

Trichomoniasis is very rare among sexually inactive girls and virgins (usually below the age 14), but at its peak between sexually active group (20 to 40). In males the incidence is between 21 to 30 years. Infection can ranges from months, years and lifelong infection.

Copyright @ 2019: This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution license which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non commercial use (NonCommercial, or CC-BY-NC) provided the original author and source are credited.

Incidence average 10% in normal population and incidence varies with age, marital status and race. Incidence is high in overcrowded areas compared to less crowded areas. Estimates of the world wide prevalence of trichomoniasis range from 170-180 million cases annually [11].

In Africa, it is estimated that 2-50% of the populations carry the infection [12]. The disease has important medical, social and economic implications, this implies that Africans or persons of African descent have higher rates of *T. vaginalis*, as evidenced by higher rates in Sub- Saharan Africa [13, 14], and among persons of African descent such as Garifunas [15] and African Americans in the US [16, 17]. In the United States, the highest prevalence of *T. vaginalis* infection in US women is seen among African-Americans with rates ranging from 13–51% [18]. African American women have rates that are ten times higher than white women, constituting a remarkable health disparity [16]. Other risk factors for *T. vaginalis* include increased age, incarceration, intravenous drug use, commercial sex work [19] and the presence of bacteria vaginosis [20]. There is a higher prevalence of trichomoniasis among pregnant women than non-pregnant women [21].

In sexually active women, the prevalence of *T. vaginalis* infection is relatively high [7]. In males, *T. vaginalis* infection is generally asymptomatic. Asymptomatic carriers can serve as vectors for the disease, making it important to treat male partners. The parasite resides in the female's lower genital tract and the male urethra and prostate. In other words, women are at greater risk of contacting the infection than their male counterparts and are mainly reservoirs while males disseminate the parasite [22].

Reports from Nigeria suggest that, trichomoniasis could be higher in urban areas than in the rural communities [23, 24]. For example, in a study carried out by Obiajuru and Ogbulie [25], a higher prevalence of *T. vaginalis* was documented for residence in urban areas (57.70%) than those living in rural communities (39.16%). Also, prevalence was highest amongst the sexually active group of age 11-45 years old [26]. Amongst pregnant women, *T. vaginalis* is generally high [7, 27]. In Zaria, pregnant women between ages 16 to 25 were reported to be *T. vaginalis* positive with prevalence of 53.57% [28]. In South-West Nigeria, *T. vaginalis* prevalence in Lagos and Abeokuta was recorded as 1.8% and 21.3% respectively for pregnant women aged 20-30 years. Meanwhile in Anambra, South-East Nigeria, non- pregnant women had higher rate of infection (17.8%) than pregnant ones (16.7%) [29]. Furthermore, a study in Maiduguri showed a high rate of 20.8% infection among non-pregnant women [30]. In relation to marital status, a prevalence of 2.9% was recorded among Lagos married women compared to 0.4% prevalence in unmarried women [28]. Amadi and Nwagbo [26] reported 19.72% for single women in Abia, South-East, Nigeria with 21.6% and 11% among Abeokuta and Maiduguri married women respectively [30, 31].

CLINICAL PRESENTATION

While *T. vaginal* is usually isolated from the vagina, *T. vaginalis* can also infect the urethra and Skene's gland. The infection, once established, may persist for long periods in women. Asymptomatic *T. vaginalis* infections are well documented; up to 25 to 50% of infected women do not show clinical signs [32]. However, women can also develop symptoms that may be cyclic and often become worse during menstruation. Among women with culture-proven *T. vaginalis* infection, only 11 to 17% present abnormal discharge, odor, pruritus, dysuria, or vaginal burning [33]. During trichomoniasis, the vaginal pH increases to 7 [34], this is favourable to parasite growth. The fact that trichomoniasis symptoms are worse during menstruation can be explained by changes in pH and hormones. It was proved that the activity of cell detaching factor is inhibited by estrogen [35]. Furthermore, menstrual blood creates a rich medium with a high concentration of iron at a higher pH. Consequently, *T. vaginalis* reproduction and attachment to the vaginal epithelium are promoted, resulting in the worsening of symptoms [36]. Even if trichomoniasis usually remains localized in the lower part of the urogenital area, it can occasionally provoke adnexitis or pyosalpinx and may potentially have serious sequelae in women, especially during pregnancy [32].

DIAGNOSIS

Diagnosis is usually by demonstrating the flagellates in virginal discharge examined under the microscope. This should be stained with Geimsa stain which shows up the organelles clearly. Sometimes microscopic examination may be negative even when there is infection, it may be necessary to carry out *invitro* cultivation of the discharge. Historically, detection of the parasite is made possible by examination of urine and High Vaginal Swab (HVS) in a drop of saline or trichomonas diluents for the characteristics wobbling and rotating motion. Amadi and Nwagbo [26] reported that either urine sample or vaginal swab is insufficient for proper diagnosis of *T.vaginalis* infection and have suggested that for better result, both urine and swab should be used.

According to Hobbs and Sena [37], new molecular diagnostics tests with improved sensitivity have been developed in response to the increasing recognition by stakeholders of importance of the wide-spread of trichomoniasis. This detection of *T. vaginalis*, including rapid antigen detection and nucleic acid amplification tests, has significantly improved the quality of diagnostics for trichomoniasis, particularly in women.

PREVENTION AND CONTROL

Trichomoniasis majorly transmitted through sexual intercourse, prevention and control in the spread of the disease can be checked by reduction in sexual promiscuity. Control and elimination depend largely on proper sex education, especially for adolescent and youth [26, 30]. Both sex partners should be treated same time to prevent reoccurrence. Partners status should be known, the cost of treatment should not be high in other for infected persons to avail themselves for treatment. Since trichomoniasis can also be transmitted due to sharing of towels, toilet (W.C); proper hygiene should be maintained.

TREATMENT

Oral treatment with Metronidazole (Flagyl) gives almost 100% cure rates within a short period, and there is little or no side effect. Metronidazole belongs to the 5-nitroimidazole drug family, and it and related compounds such as tinidazole (TNZ) and secnidazole are reported to have about a 95% success rate in curing *T.vaginalis* [38].

TREATMENT CHALLENGES IN NIGERIA

Treatment among Pregnant/ Lactating Women

Metronidazole being a class Bdrug and with meta-analyses is been found to be safe in pregnant women at every stage of pregnancy [39, 40]. Tinidazole have not yet been evaluated in pregnant women. World Health Organization (WHO) does not recommend treatment in the first trimester unless it is indicated for prevention of untoward birth outcomes. Both Centre for Disease Control and suggest 2g dose [5, 41].

Allergies to Metronidazole and Tinidazole

Persistent *T.vaginalis* is usually treated with multi-dose metronidazole and tinidazole. This multi-dose is accompanied with reactions like urticaria and facial edema. Others include flushing, fever and anaphylactic shock from immediate-type hypersensitivity. More so, multi-dose is recommended for the treatment of HIV-infected women and is found that antiretroviral therapy may interfere with the efficacy of metronidazole among HIV-infected women [42, 43].

Non-Treatment of sex partner

For treatment to be effective and sound, both partners should be treated. But in the situation where one is treated and the other not treated brings about re-infection and this is same as not treating at all.

CONCLUSION

The progressive abandoning of condom use relative to discomfort and linked to forgetting the risk of *T. vaginalis* and the increase of poverty in Nigeria may partially explain the increase in the annual number of urogenital trichomoniasis cases. In addition, drug resistance emergence and intolerance to nitroimidazoles contribute to making trichomoniasis treatment a societal challenge to be addressed. Because of this, chemotherapy and vaccines are the best ways to control the expansion of this cosmopolitan disease. Besides *in vitro* screening of new compounds, all strategies that attempt to improve the biodistribution of anti-*Trichomonas* compounds provide real added value to the fight against this disease. In particular, approaches consisting of the prevention of side effects linked to parenteral treatments need to be prioritized. Thus, any investigation with the aim of developing local treatments is promising.

REFERENCES

- 1. Robert LS, Janovy YJ. Foundations of parasitology, 5th ed., WCB. Brown Publishers. 1996:623.
- 2. Buve A, Weiss HA, Laga M, Van Dyck E, Musonda R, Zekeng L, Kahindo M, Anagonou S, Morison L, Robinson NJ, Hayes RJ. The epidemiology of trichomoniasis in women in four African cities. Aids. 2001 Aug 1;15:S89-96.
- 3. WHO. Global prevalence and incidence of selected curable sexually transmitted infections: overviews and estimates. 2001.
- 4. Wilkerson RG. Trichomoniasis in emergency medicine. 2011. [Online]. Available from: http://emedicine.edscape.com/article/787722- overview.
- 5. Centre for Disease Control and Prevention. Sexually Transmitted Disease Treatment Guidelines. MMWR, 64(RR-3); 2015.
- 6. Marquardt WC, Demaree RS, Grieve RB. Rasitology and vector biology. 2nd ed. Harcourt academic press. 2003;73-87.
- 7. Jatau ED, Olonitola OS, Olayinka AT. Prevalence of Trichomonas infection among women attending antenatal clinics in Zaria, Nigeria. Annals of African medicine. 2006 Oct 1;5(4):178-181.
- 8. Uneke CJ, Ugwuoru CD, Ali E, Ali M. Trichomonas Vaginalis infection among pregnant women in south-eastern Nigeria: the public health significance. The Inter J Gynecol Obstet. 2006.
- 9. Van Der Pol B. Trichomonas vaginalis infection: the most prevalent nonviral sexually transmitted infection receives the least public health attention. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2007 Jan 1;44(1):23-25.
- 10. Johnston VJ, Mabey DC. Global epidemiology and control of Trichomonas vaginalis. Current opinion in infectious diseases. 2008 Feb 1;21(1):56-64.
- 11. World Health Organization. International health regulations (2005). World Health Organization; 2008.

- 12. Mahdi NK, Gany ZH, Sharief M. Risk factors for vaginal trichomoniasis among women in Basra, Iraq. East. Medt Health Journal. 2001;7(6):918-924.
- 13. Gregson S, Mason PR, Garnett GP, Zhuwau T, Nyamukapa CA, Anderson RM, Chandiwana SK. A rural HIV epidemic in Zimbabwe? Findings from a population-based survey. International journal of STD & AIDS. 2001 Mar 1;12(3):189-96.
- Klinger EV, Kapiga SH, Sam NE, Aboud S, Chen CY, Ballard RC, Larsen U. A Community-based study of risk factors for Trichomonas vaginalis infection among women and their male partners in Moshi urban district, northern Tanzania. Sexually transmitted diseases. 2006 Dec 1;33(12):712-8.
- 15. Paz-Bailey G, Morales-Miranda S, Jacobson JO, Gupta SK, Sabin K, Mendoza S, Paredes M, Alvarez B, Monterroso E. High rates of STD and sexual risk behaviors among Garífunas in Honduras. JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2009 May 1;51:S26-34.
- 16. Sutton M, Sternberg M, Koumans EH, McQuillan G, Berman S, Markowitz L. The prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis infection among reproductive-age women in the United States, 2001–2004. Clinical infectious diseases. 2007 Nov 15;45(10):1319-1326.
- 17. Miller WC, Zenilman JM. Epidemiology of chlamydial infection, gonorrhea, and trichomoniasis in the United States—2005. Infectious Disease Clinics. 2005 Jun 1;19(2):281-296.
- 18. Shafir SC, Sorvillo FJ, Smith L. Current issues and considerations regarding trichomoniasis and human immunodeficiency virus in African-Americans. Clinical Microbiology Reviews. 2009 Jan 1;22(1):37-45.
- Freeman AH, Katz KA, Pandori MW, Rauch LM, Kohn RP, Liska S, Bernstein KT, Klausner JD. Prevalence and correlates of Trichomonas vaginalis among incarcerated persons assessed using a highly sensitive molecular assay. Sexually transmitted diseases. 2010 Mar 1;37(3):165-168.
- 20. Rathod SD, Krupp K, Klausner JD, Arun A, Reingold AL, Madhivanan P. Bacterial vaginosis and risk for Trichomonas vaginalis infection: a longitudinal analysis. Sexually transmitted diseases. 2011 Sep;38(9):882-886.
- 21. Hardy P, Nell EE, Spence M, Hardy J, Graham D, Rosenbaum R. Prevalence of six sexually transmitted disease agents among pregnant inner-city adolescents and pregnancy outcome. The Lancet. 1984 Aug 11;324(8398):333-7.
- 22. Ulogu IO, Obiajuru IO, Ekejindu IM. Prevalence of trichomoniasis amongst women in Nnewi, Anambra State, Nigerian Journal of parasitology. 2007;28(1):6-10.
- 23. Njoku AJ, Obiajuru IOC, Njoku CJ, Nwokoro, EA, Uwaezuoke IC, Anosike IC. Prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis infection among students of tertiary institutions in Imo state, Nigeria. Niger Journal Parasitol, 2000;21:83-94.
- 24. Obiajuru IOC. Prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis in Owerri, Imo state. M.Sc. Thesis, Imo State University, Owerri, 2000.
- 25. Obiajuru IOC, Ogbulie JN. Prevalence of sexually transmitted diseases in three zones of Imo state, Nigeria. Niger Journal Microbiol, 2007;21:1491-1498.
- 26. Amadi AN, Nwagbo AK. Trichomonas Vaginalis infection among women in Ikwuano Abia State Nigeria. Journal of Applied Sciences and Environmental Management. 2013;17(3):389-93.
- 27. Olusola O, Taiwo BO, Dina BO, Sina-Agbaje OR, Bolaji OS, Adeyeba AO. Prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis infection among pregnant women in Abeokuta, Nigeria. Sierra Leone Journal of Biomedical Research. 2010;2(2):82-86.
- 28. Adeoye GO, Akande AH. Epidemiology of Trichomonas vaginalis among women in Lagos metropolis, Nigeria. Pakistan Journal Biol Sci, 2007;10:2198-2201.
- 29. Iwueze MO, Ezeanyanwu LN, Okafor FC, Nwaorgu, OC, Ukibe SC. Prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis infection among women attending hospitals/health centres in Onitsha community, Onitsha North Local Government area of Anambra State. Bioscientist, 2014;2:54-64.
- 30. Hamafyelto HS, Ikeh IE. Prevalence of Trichomonas vaginalis infection among female internally displaced persons in Maiduguri, Nigeria. International Journal trop Dis Health. 2017;27:1-7
- 31. Etuketu IM, Mogaji HO, Alabi OM, Adeniran AA, Oluwole AS, Ekpo UF. Prevalence and risk factors of Trichomonas vaginalis infection among pregnant women receiving antenatal care in Abeokuta, Nigeria. African Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2015;9(2):51-56.
- 32. AlQahtani S, Kawthar A, AlAraik A, AlShalan A. Third molar cut-off value in assessing the legal age of 18 in Saudi population. Forensic science international. 2017 Mar 1;272:64-7.
- 33. Landers DV, Wiesenfeld HC, Heine RP, Krohn MA, Hillier SL. Predictive value of the clinical diagnosis of lower genital tract infection in women. American journal of obstetrics and gynecology. 2004 Apr 1;190(4):1004-1008.
- 34. Anorlu RI, Fagbenro AB, Fagorala T, Abudu OO, Galadanci HS. Prevalence of trichomonas vaginalis in patients with vaginal discharge in Lagos, Nigeria. The Nigerian postgraduate medical journal. 2001 Dec;8(4):183-186.
- 35. Garber GE, Lemchuk-Favel LT, Rousseau GE. Effect of beta-estradiol on production of the cell-detaching factor of Trichomonas vaginalis. Journal of clinical microbiology. 1991 Sep 1;29(9):1847-1849.
- 36. Harp DF, Chowdhury I. Trichomoniasis: evaluation to execution. European Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology and Reproductive Biology. 2011 Jul 1;157(1):3-9.
- 37. Hobbs MM, Sena AC. Modern diagnosis of trichomonas vaginalis infection. Sexually transmitted infections. 2013;89:434-438.
- 38. Cudmore SL. Treatment of infections caused by metronidazole resistant Trichomons vaginalis. Clinical microbiology Rev. 2004;17(4):783-793.
- 39. Burtin P, Taddio A, Ariburnu O, Einarson TR, Koren G. Safety of metronidazole in pregnancy: a meta-analysis. American journal of obstetrics and gynecology. 1995 Feb 1;172(2):525-529.

- 40. Caro-Paton T, Carvajal A, Martin de Diego I, Martin-Arias LH, Alvarez Requejo A, Rodriquez Pinilla E. Is metronidazole teragenic?. A meta-analysis. British Journal Clin Pharmacol. 1997;44(2):179-182.
- 41. WHO. Prevalence and incidence of the global prevalence of selected sexually transmitted infections, Chlamydia trachomatis, Neisseria gonorrheae, Syphilis and Trichomonas vaginalis. 2011.
- 42. Balkus JE, Richardson BA, Mochache V, Chochan V, Chan JD, Masese L. A prospective cohort study comparing the effect of single-dose 2g metronidazole on Trichomonas vaginalis infection in HIV-seronegative versus HIV-seropositive women. Sex transm Dis, 2013;40(6);499-505.
- 43. Adamski A, Clark RA, Mena L, Henderson H, Levison, J, Schmidt N. The influence of ART on the treatment of T. vaginalis among HIV-infected women. Clin infect Dis, 2014;59(6);883-887.