PROFILING OF BACTERIA IN BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS INFECTION AMONG PRETERM BIRTHS IN KISUMU COUNTY

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PART FULFILLMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF SCIENCE IN MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.

October 2019

By

Jelioth Muthoni

Masters Student

Department of Medical Microbiology

University Of Nairobi

Email: jeliothmuthoni@gmail.com

SUPERVISORS

This dissertation has been submitted with my approval as a supervisor

Prof. Julius Oyugi MSC, PhD Professor Department of Medical Microbiology University of Nairobi P.O Box 19676-00202 Nairobi, Kenya

SIGNATURE:	DATE:
DIGITITI OILL.	

Ms. Susan Odera BSc, Msc Department of Medical Microbiology University of Nairobi P.O Box 19676-00202 Nairobi, Kenya

SIGNATURE:_____DATE:_____

Prof. Walter Jaoko MB;ChB, MtropMed, PhD Professor Department of Medical Microbiology University of Nairobi P.O Box 19676-00202 Nairobi, Kenya

DECLARATION

I hereby declare this dissertation is my original work under the guidance of the supervisors listed above and has not been presented before any institution for the purpose of research and knowledge acquisition.

I comprehensively understand what plagiarism is and the University of Nairobi policy on this matter. The work submitted herein has undergone a plagiarism check.

In this document, all references made to previous works have been duly recognized and acknowledged as required.

SIGNATURE:	DATE:
STOL TO THE	

Jelioth Muthoni (BSc Microbiology and Biotechnology) Masters of Science in Medical Microbiology student H56/81187/2015 University of Nairobi

DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this work to all preterm babies, the unborn, my loving mum Florence Gichohi, all mothers and mothers to be. To God be all the Glory

ACKNOWELEDGEMENT

To God be all the glory for the gift of health (spiritually, mentally and emotionally) and provision throughout the study period and my mum and family for their endless support. I acknowledge my supervisors Prof. Oyugi, Prof. Jaoko and Madam Odera for their patience and great support. The Department of Medical Microbiology, University of Nairobi for giving me a platform to specialize and be more competent in the field of Medical Microbiology. University of Nairobi Institute for Tropical and Infectious Diseases, specifically Wendy, Nyakio, Irungu, Peter, Dr. Kimani, Mr. Stephen (SWOOP clinic Majengo) and Mr. Ngochi (KEMRI) who comprehensively equipped me in the field of bacterial vaginosis. Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI) in collaboration with University of Nairobi financially supported the project. Kisumu County hospital in particular, laboratory and maternity department who tirelessly and joyfully supported me during data collection. I acknowledge each and every study participant who participated in the study; they are the backbone of the study. Through the samples collected from them we were in a position to draw conclusions in relation to the studies objectives.

ACRONYMS

BV	-Bacterial Vaginosis
ERC	-Ethics Research Committee
H ₂ O ₂	- Hydrogen peroxide
IL-β	-Interleukin beta
IL-4	-Interleukin 4
IL-6	-Interleukin 6
IL-7	-Interleukin 7
INF-γ	-Interferon gamma
JOOTRH	-Jaramogi Oginga Odinga Teaching Referral Hospital
КСН	-Kisumu County Hospital
KNH	-Kenyatta National Hospital
LMP	-Last Menstruation Period
MMPs	- Matrix Metalloproteinase
МОН	-Ministry of Health
PGs	-Prostaglandins
PID	-Pelvic inflammatory disease
PIN	-Participants Identification Number
PPROM	-Pre-term Premature Rupture of Membranes
РТВ	-Pre-term Birth
ΤΝα	-Tumor Necrotic alpha
Ultra-S	-Ultra sound
UoN	-University of Nairobi
WHO	-World Health Organization

LIST OF DEFINITIONS

Preterm births- births below 37th week of gestation Term births - births from 37th week of gestation and above. Cervicitis- inflammation of the cervix Endometritis- inflammation of the endometrium Singleton pregnancy- a pregnancy with one fetus Multiple gestation- a pregnancy with more than one fetus Neonatal- newborn child Sepsis-blood infection Chorioammnionitis- inflammation of amnio and chrorio (outer membrane) Periventricular leukomalacia – a form of white-matter brain injury

TABLE OF CONTENTS

II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
XII

1.0 INTRODUCTION 1	L
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW	;
2.1 Epidemiology	j
2.2 Etiology of Pre-term births	š
2.2.1 Bacterial vaginosis	Ś
2.2 2 Diagnosis of Bacteria vaginosis12)
2.3 PATHOGENESIS OF PRE-TERM BIRTH	j
2.4 TREATMENTS OF BV TO PREVENT PTB	5
2.5 Problem statement	5
2.5.1 Justification	7
2.6 Research questions	1
2.7 Hypothesis and objectives	;;
2.7.1 Hypothesis	3
2.7.2 Broad Objective	3
2.7.3 Specific Objectives	3

3.0 METHODOLOGY	
3.1 STUDY DESIGN	19
3.2 STUDY SITE	19
3.3 STUDY POPULATION	19
3.3.1 Inclusion criteria	

3.3.2 Exclusion criteria	
3.4: SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATION	
3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS	
3.5.1 Recruiting and consenting procedures	
3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES	
3.6.1 Pretesting of interview tools	
3.6.2 Administering qualitative interviews	
3.6.3 Laboratory analysis	
3.6.3.1 Sample collection	
3.6.3.2 Diagnosis	
3.7 QUALITY ASSURANCE PROCEDURES	
3.8 QUALITY CONTROL	
3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION	
3.10 DATA MANAGEMENT	
3.10.1 Data analysis	

4.0 RESULTS	28
4.1 LAST MESTRUATION PERIOD AND ULTRA SOUND AS DETERMINANTS OF PRETERM	28
4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY PARTICIPANTS	29
4.3 Association between BV and preterm birth	32
4.3.1 Profiling bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis among preterm births	32
4.3.2 Performance characteristic of Amsel against Nugent	39
4.4 Proportions of preterm deliveries among bacterial vaginosis infections	40
4.5 Association between syphilis, HIV and PTB	40
4.6. RISK FACTORS TO BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS	41
4.7 MATERNAL AND OBSTETRICS RISK FACTORS FOR PTB	44

5.0 DISCUSSION	49
5.1 STUDY STRENGTHS	52
5.2 STUDY CONCLUSION	52
5.3 STUDY LIMITATION	52

5.4 RECOMMENDATION	53
5.5 STUDY RESULTS DISSEMINATION PLAN	

6.0 REFERENCE:	
7.0 APPENDIXES	
(A) INFORMED CONSENT EXPLANATION DOCUMENT	71
(B) CONSENT FORMS	
(C) QUESTIONNAIRE	
(D) LABORATORY FORM	
(E) DUMMY TABLES	107
(F) MATERIALS	110

LIST OF FIGURES

TABLE 1: NUGENT SCORING 1	3
TABLE 2: INCLUSION CRITERIA OF BOTH TERM AND PRETERM COHORTS 2	0
TABLE 3: EXCLUSION CRITERIA OF BOTH TERM AND PRETERM COHORTS 2	0
TABLE 4: PRETERM BIRTHS BY LMP AND ULTRA-S 2	8
TABLE 5: COMPARISON BETWEEN LMP AND ULTRA-SOUND FOR DETERMINATION OF PRETERM	
BIRTHS2	8
TABLE 6: DIFFERENT SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF MOTHERS 3	0
TABLE 7: COMPARISON BETWEEN BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS AND GESTATION AT BIRTH 3	2
TABLE 8: PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTIC OF AMSEL AGAINST NUGENT	9
TABLE 9: PREVALENCE OF SYPHILISAND HIV AMONG LMP AND ULTRA-S STUDY PARTICIPANTS 4	1
TABLE 10: DIFFERENT RISK FACTORS TO BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS 4	2
TABLE 11: DIFFERENT MATERNAL AND OBSTETRIC FACTORS PREDISPOSING MOTHERS TO PRETERM	
BIRTHS	5
TABLE 12: COMPARISON OF BODY MASS INDEX BETWEEN TERM AND PRETERM UNDER LMP 4	8
TABLE 13: Comparison ofbody mass index between term and preterm under Ultra-S 4	8
TABLE 14: DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANT AGE (YEARS) 10	7
TABLE 15: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PATIENTS 10	
TABLE 16: OBSTETRIC CHARACTERISTIC OF PARTICIPANTS 10	8
TABLE 17: BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS INFECTION 10	8
TABLE 18: SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND BV STATUS	9

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1:STEPS FOR COLLECTION OF HIGH VAGINAL SWAB	23
FIGURE 2: BACTERIA IDENTIFIED AND MORPHOLOGY OF NORMAL EPITHELIUM AND A CLUE CEL	ll 33
FIGURE 3: PROFILING DIFFERENT OF BACTERIA ASSOCIATED WITH BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS WITH	
REGARD TO NORMAL DELIVERY, GESTATION AT BIRTH (LMP)-IN NEGATIVE,	
INTERMEDIATE AND POSITIVE DIAGNOSIS OF BV	34
FIGURE 4: PROFILING DIFFERENT BACTERIA ASSOCIATED WITH BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS WITH	
REGARD TO INTERMEDIATE DIAGNOSIS, GESTATION AT BIRTH (LMP)	35
FIGURE 5: PROFILING DIFFERENT BACTERIA ASSOCIATED WITH BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS WITH	
REGARD TO POSITIVE DIAGNOSIS, GESTATION AT BIRTH (LMP)	36
FIGURE 6: PROFILING DIFFERENT BACTERIA ASSOCIATED WITH BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS WITH	
REGARD TO NORMAL DELIVERY, GESTATION AT BIRTH (ULTRA-S)-IN NEGATIVE,	
INTERMEDIATE AND POSITIVE DIAGNOSIS OF BV	37
FIGURE 7: PROFILING DIFFERENT BACTERIA ASSOCIATED WITH BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS WITH	
REGARD TO INTERMEDIATE DIAGNOSIS, GESTATION AT BIRTH (ULTRA-S)	38
FIGURE 8: PROFILING DIFFERENT BACTERIA ASSOCIATED WITH BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS WITH	
REGARD TO POSITIVE DIAGNOSIS, GESTATION AT BIRTH (ULTRA-S)	39
FIGURE 4: PROPORTION OF PRETERM BIRTHS AMONG BV	40

ABSTRACT

Background: Preterm birth (PTB) is defined as a live birth (singleton or multiple) before 37 weeks of completed gestation. PTB is the topmost cause of morbidity and death of pretem babies internationally and the second foremost cause of death for children below five years globally. In spite the determinations to avoid PTB in most nations the incidence of PTB has been on the rise. Common causes of PTB include multiple fetal, infections, genetic influence and chronic diseases such diabetes and hypertension. Among the infectious agents, bacteria attribute to the largest number of microorganisms associated with preterm births. The most prevalent lower genital infection that causes pre-term births is bacterial vaginosis and several researches have shown a positive association between the two. This study therefore highlights the profile of bacteria associated with BV related with pre-term birth in Kisumu County.

Broad Objective: To profile bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis related to preterm deliveries in Kisumu County Hospital.

Methodology: This was a comparative study conducted in Kisumu County. The study population included expectant women recruited at Kisumu County hospital. A vaginal specimen was collected from the study participants. The specimen was run through Amsel and Nugent score laboratory diagnostic test to determine the BV status of the study participants. In addition identification of different bacteria was done under Nugent scoring. A pre-tested questionnaire was used to collect risk factors. Analysis was done using SPSS version 20.

Results: Of the 228 pregnant women were enrolled in the study, 181 study participants had complete data thus could be categorized if they delivered at term or preterm. Last menstruation Period (LMP) and ultra-sound (Ultra-s) were used to determine gestational age. Of the 181 who had LMP results, 64 had ultra-S. BV prevalence based on LMP was found to be 12% (22/181). *Gardenerella vaginalis/Bacteroides* were dominant among bacterial vaginosis (BV) positive with a frequency of 50% in both term and preterm under LMP. However under ultra-S a frequency of 46% and 55% was recorded among term and preterm respectively. Risk factors that were significant under ultra-S were age 31-40 (p=0.002), use of nylon panty material (p=0.045), history of PTB (p=0.049), condom use in the last sexual act (p=0.022), parity 3+0 (p=0.013), parity 4+0 (p=0.003, gravidae 1 and 2 (p=0.034 and 0.001) respectively. Under LMP hormonal and nonhormonal contraceptive (p=0.046) and parity (p=0.031) were significant.

Conclusion: The dominant bacteria were G.*vaginalis*/Bacteroides in both term and preterm deliveries, under BV positives and the frequencies were slightly higher among PTB in ultra-S. **Key words**: Bacterial vaginosis and preterm birth

1.0 INTRODUCTION

PTB is defined as all births (singleton or multiple) before 37th weeks of completed gestation (Quinn *et al.*, 2016) or less than 259 days from the time when the woman had her first day of her last menstruation and after 28 weeks gestation (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013; Quinn *et al.*, 2016). Common causes of PTB are multi-fetal (e.g. twin, triplets) infections, genetic factors and chronic diseases such diabetes and hypertension (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013)

PTB can be stratified into mild preterm (32-36 weeks), very preterm (28-31 weeks) and extremely preterm (<28 weeks) (Moutquin, 2003). This is based to gestational age. PTB can also be categorized into spontaneous (idiopathic) or provider-initiated pre-term birth (Turienzo et. al, 2016). Spontaneous preterm birth (SPB) is the untimely rupture of membranes or start of labour before 37 completed gestation weeks (Bala et al., 2017). Provider initiated preterm birth as a result of stimulation of labour or noncompulsory caesarian birth before 37 completed weeks of gestation. This is for both maternal (high risk pregnancies) and fetal indications (Bala et al., 2017). Provider-initiated pre-term births are subdivided into medically indicated (iatrogenic) that attributes 25% and preterm premature rupture of membranes (PPROM) which attributes 25% (Goldenberg *et al.*, 2009). Spontaneous preterm births attributes two thirds of all preterm births (Lydon *et al.*, 2018). This study focused on spontaneous preterm births.

Spontaneous preterm birth is caused by a number of factors, leading to the uterus to change from inactive state to active or latent phase of labour and PTB. The predisposing factors to spontaneous preterm bith differ by gestation age (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013), different populations (Bala et al., 2017), communities and environs. However, 50% of the causes of PTB are not known (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013; Hernández-Díaz *et al.*, 2014)

Maternal history of preterm birth has been strongly associated with PTB. Maternal history of PTB is determined by relation with genetic, non-genetic and environmental risk factors (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013). In addition, maternal age (either under 17 or over 40), are prone to preterm deliveries (WHO, 2012). This is as a result of increase in the maternal age, there is increased incidences of cardiovascular diseases, over weight, uterine leiomyoma, multiparity, increased risk of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, gestational diabetes, caesarean delivery and maternal

mortality. In addition, heightened risk of chromosomal defects in the fetus (Bala et. al, 2017). Increased risk of spontaneous PTB has ben associated with low body mass index and a short duration of less than 18 months between conception and preceding pregnancy. (Goldenberg *et al.*, 2009).

Multiple pregnancies (twins, triplets, etc.) is another documented risk factor that carries nearly 10 fold increase risk of preterm birth in relation to singleton births (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013)

A number of life style factors that contribute to spontaneous preterm birth include pressure, standing for long hours, too much physical work (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013), caffeine intake, taking spicy food and skipping meals (Hernández-Díaz *et al.*, 2014). Peridontal diseases, too much alcohol consumption and smoking have attributed to increase risk of PTB (Barros *et al.*, 2010). In addition, late start of prenatal care or no prenatal care predisposes one to preterm delivery (Dijk et al., 2010)

Preterm birth is more likely to occur when a mother is expecting a male child, among the PTB 55% were found to be male (Barros *et al.*, 2010) and when compared with girls of the same gestation, the male were at a greater likelihood of dying (Barros *et al.*, 2010). The role of ethnicity has been extensively discussed; nevertheless indication that supporte a discrepancy in normal gestational period with ethnic cluster has been conveyed in numerous population-based studies. The variations are associated to socioeconomic and way of life factors (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013). For instance, African babies incline to be born earlier than Caucasian babies. Nevertheless, for a particular gestational age, African babies tend to have less repiratory distress, fewer neonatal deaths compared to Caucasian babies. Babies with genetic deformities are eliminated from studies recording preterm rates yet high chances the babies are born preterm (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013).

Clinical conditions that predispose mothers to preterm birth can be separated into maternal and fetal. However, some more important direct causes recognized include severe pre-eclampsia, uterine rupture, cholestasis, hormonal disruption fetal distress, fetal growth restriction with abnormal tests and placental abruption (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012; Blencowe *et al.*, 2013) Placenta abruption may present with absence or presence of vaginal bleeding. Vaginal bleeding in more than one trimester indicate higher risks of preterm birth (Ekmekci and Gencdal, 2018) Core

maternal conditions (e.g. renal disease, hypertension, obesity, and diabetes) rise the threat of maternal malaise (e.g., pre- eclampsia) and medically-indicated preterm birth. The global widespread of obesity and diabetes is, hence possibly to develop a progressively more significant contributor to universal preterm birth. In addition women with moderate to severe anemia, early in gravidity are at a greater exposure to preterm births (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).Assisted fertility treatment is predisposing factor to PTB since both maternal and fetal risk factors have identified after the treatment (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013)

Infection contribute a vital role in preterm birth, mostly attributing to extreme preterm (Moutquin, 2003). HIV, malaria, urinary tract infections, bacterial vaginosis, and syphilis have been found to be linked with predisposion to preterm birth (Barros *et al.*, 2010). Morover, other disorders have more recently been reported to be related with infection, e.g., "cervical incompetency"[cervix thins out (effaces) or opens (dilates) without contraction] leading to swelling with secondary premature cervical shortening (less than twenty five milliners) and ascending infection within the uterus (Blencowe *et al.*, 2013).

Moreover, pregnancies with oligohydramnios are at higher exposure to PTB (Bala et al., 2017)

Bacterial vaginosis (BV) has been consistently linked to PTB (Bahram et al., 2009). A study done in 2012 at Kenyatta National Hospital documented the prevalence of BV to be 26% among mothers with new born (Martha, 2012) while a research done in western Kenya documented a BV prevalence of 18% among adolescent schoolgirls. BV topped the list of infections seconded by *Candida albicans* at 9%, *Chlamydia trachomatis* and *Trichomonas vaginalis*, both at 3% and *Neisseria gonorrhea* at 1% (Kerubo *et al.*, 2016). Another study done the same year, same region among 18 years and above documented the prevalence of BV to be 39% (Okuku *et al.*, 2015).

BV is defined as the imbalance of the vaginal microbiome, characterized by a shift from dominant Lactobacillus to a polymicrobial flora (Aldunate *et al.*, 2015; Onderdonk et al., 2016). A balanced microbiome constitutes a ratio of anaerobe to aerobe to be 2:1 and 5:1. In a normal vaginal ecosystem estradiol stimulates glycogen from the vaginal epithelium. The glycogen undergoes hydrolysis into glucose. The glucose is then broken down into lactic acid by lactobacilli, generating hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2). H_2O_2 is a bacteriacin and an antibacterial (Ranjit et al., 2018)

(Lactobacillus accounts for 95% of the normal flora). However, when BV is present, the quality and quantity of (H_2O_2) producing lactobacilli decreases, vaginal pH increases to more than 4.5. This is followed by a modification in the ratio of anaerobe to aerobe (100:1 and 1000:1) (Guaschino et al., 2006; Wein, 2011; Bitew et al., 2017). Metabolic by-products of the anaerobic bacteria, which include amines increase the vagina pH resulting to exfoliation of epithelial cells in the vaginal (clue cells) (Tebes et al., 2003). H_2O_2 produced by lactobacilli may have a critical role in preventing fetal membrane degradation, prostaglandin release and ascending infection (Donders et al., 2000; Kelly et al., 2003). BV is linked to severe hostile upshots, such as pre-term births, neonatal mortality, infection on the upper part of the genital tract, pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), inflammation on the endometrium, low birth weight, increase in the frequency of abnormal Papanicolaou (Pap) smears, cervicitis, salpingitis, post-operative infections, oophoritis with or without tubo-ovarian abscess, obstetric complications, such as premature rapture of membranes, and increase in the acquisition of sexually spread diseases (e.g. Herpes simplex virus-2 and human papillomavirus, Neisseria gonorrhoea and Chlamydia trachomatis) (Hebb et al., 2004; Koumans et al., 2007; Rodrigo, 2013; Baljinder Kaur, 2015). Vaginal cuff cellulitis can also occur if invasive gynecological procedures or surgeries are performed when a patient has BV(Easmon et al., 1992). In addition BV has been shown to have a wide array of medical, psychological and social consequences on patients (Hebb et al., 2004).

Therefore, in this study we identified the most common bacteria among those that cause BV and the risk factors associated with BV linked PTB.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Epidemiology

Pre-term birth is the principal cause of perinatal mortality and morbidity globally (WHO, 2012). In spite of inputs to avoid PTB in several nations, the projected figures of PTBs have intensified. In 1990, 2.0 million incidences of PTB were reported 2.2 million PTB incidences were reported in 2010 (Howson *et al.*, 2013) with BV being steadily associated with pre-term delivery. Among the reproductive age, BV is the most prevalent vaginal infection (Bahram et al, 2009). BV prevelence ranges from 8-75% dependent on the geographical, race and medical characteristics of the study population (Bitew *et al.*, 2017). Interestingly, variations on BV prevalence have been captured within similar population groups (Bitew *et al.*, 2017). Despite BV prevalence being elevated in parts of Africa and lowest Europe, some regions in Africa have very low BV prevalence while in Europe have very high rates (Nejad and Shafaie, 2008) However, population approximates for BV is blurred since 50-75% of the infections are asymptomatic, hence many women with BV do not pursue clinical care and thus many are not included in the clinical population estimates (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2014).

2.2 Etiology of Pre-term births

Despite of several factors related with PTB, infections are the leading causes of PTB. Microbes comprising bacteria, parasites, viruses and fungal have been associated as the causal agents for spontaneous PTB (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012). The infection can either be intrauterine or extrauterine. Intaruetrauterine infections initiated by bacteria, are echoed to be the main cause of infection linked to preterm labor (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012). A study done by Golden *et al* (2000) indicated bacterial infection, in the amniotic fluid accounts to 80% of women who delivered < 30 gestation weeks. This was compared to 30% less than or equal to 37 gestational week (Friese, 2003) Researches that have used standard microbiological procedures propose that chorioamnionitis with bacteria contributes up to 45% of spontaneous PTB (Zhou *et al.*, 2010) However, putting in place molecular techniques, bacteria detection level raises up to 60% of preterm delivering women (Mendz et al., 2013; Romero *et al.*, 2016)

BV is the utmost prevalent lower genital infection that causes pre-term births, neonatal mortality and low birth weight (Okuku *et al.*, 2015) BV is linked with a double increase probability of PTB with the greatest risk when BV is present 16 weeks earlier of gestation (Hebb *et al.*, 2004; Margolis

and Fredricks, 2014) Among pregnant women, BV is linked with the occurrence of fibronectin, which relates with a 16-fold rise in clinical chorioamnionitis, 6 fold rise in neonatal sepsis, 1.8 and 1.9-fold increase in acquisition of *Neisseria gonorrhea* and *Chlamydia trachomatis* respectively (Bautista *et al.*, 2016) and also associated with intra-amniotic infection. Chorio-amnionitis is associated with neonatal sepsis in both term and preterm infants (Kaur, 2015). Women with BV at 23-26 weeks of their gestation have an association with intra-amniotic fluid infection at term (Easmon et al., 1992) and a 6 times increased threat of neonatal death, when a woman has BV between 14-24 week (Kaur, 2015). Neonates born to mothers with BV suffer long term neurological consequences such as hyperactivity, academic difficulties in school, severe handicaps such as cerebral palsy, periventricular leukomalacia, low Apgar score, damage in the dopaminenergic and brain injury due the toxins produced by *G.vaginalis* crossing the placenta (Kaur, 2015)

2.2.1 Bacterial vaginosis

Bacterial vaginosis (BV) is vaginal discharge, common among childbearing women, caused by non-specific bacteria. BV occurs as a result of the reduction of the normal flora (lactobacillus), resulting in an alkaline pH and rise in BV causing bacteria, mostly anaerobic gram-negative rods (Holst et al., 1994) Major bacteria detected are *Gardenerella vaginalis (G. vaginalis), Streptococcus viridans (S. viridans), Atopobium vaginae (A. vaginae), Porphyromonas asaccharolytica (P. asaccharolytica), Prevotella* species and anaerobic including *Bacteroides, Fusobacteria, Peptostreptococcus, Mobiluncus* species, *Veillonella* and *Eubacteria* (Money, 2005).

Gardenerella vaginalis was formerly called *Corynebacterium vaginale* (due to its variable gram stain reaction) or *Haemophilus vaginalis* (due to its requirement for haemin and NAD) (Margolis and Fredricks, 2014) *Gardenerella vaginalis* is of the family bifidobacteriaceae, genus Gardenerella and species *G. vaginalis* (Esbroeck *et al.*, 1996) *G. vaginalis* is nonspore-forming, gram-variable staining facultative anaerobe, nonmotile-forming, coccobacilli and survives at pH of 5-11 (Esbroeck *et al.*, 1996) However, under an electron microscope appears as gram-positive, although the peptidoglycan layer can be thinner than many gram positive organisms, resulting in negative gram staining (Harwich *et al.*, 2010). *G. vaginalis* are found in the urinary tract,

endometrium, fetal membranes and newborn infants as a result of maternal infections, neonatal infections and suppurative lesions. G. vaginalis can also be transmitted sexually (Catlin, 1992). G. vaginalis attaches well to urogenital squamous epithelial cells due to the exopolysaccharide layer and pili. G. vaginalis forms biofilms that are resistant to H_2O_2 and antibiotic treatment. The biofilm provides a platform for other pathogenic bacteria to cling to (Bagnall and Rizzolo, 2017) G. vaginalis also stimulate inflammatory processes thus displace indigenous lactobacilli from its habitat (Catlin, 1992). G. vaginalis secretes 60-kDa and vaginolysin, a potential virulence factor that, lyses neutrophils, only human erythrocytes (dependent on the presence of CD59, a complementary regulatory molecule) and endothelial cells (Jarosik et al., 1998). G. vaginalis alters the microbial environment as a result of erythrocyte lysis freeing iron metabolites. These toxins induce interleukin-8 production from human epithelial cells (Margolis and Fredricks, 2014). G.vaginalis has been associated with cervical cancer, vertebral osteomyelitis, infertility, retinal vasculitis and acute hip arthritis (Yeoman et al., 2010; Jayaprakash et al., 2012). Other virulent factors include sialidase, prolidase, phospholipase C and protease (Moncla and Pryke, 2009; Margolis and Fredricks, 2014). Phospholipase C degrades placental tissues by breaking down phospholipids to arachidonic acid. This results in production of prostaglandin triggering the onset of premature labor. Protease breaks down tissue proteins, resulting in the release of amine that support the growth of G. vaginalis and other bacteria in the vagina (Dennise F, Mandell, 2015). Nevertheless, little is well-known regarding how G. vaginalis cause diseases (Moncla and Pryke, 2009). Sialidase plays a role in impairing the turgidity and elasticity of the fetal membrane leading to PTB (Briselden et al., 1992).

Streptococcus viridans is of the family streptococcacea, genus streptococcus and species S. viridans. S.viridans mostly gives an alpha or gamma hemolytic in blood agar and rarely beta hemolysis. S.viridan is resistant to optochin test. Other characteristics include, non-motile, aerobic to facultative anaerobe, non-capsulated and no solubility in bile (Hardie and Whiley, 1997) S. viridians are commensals of low virulence with binding to platelets, binding to fibrin, exopolysaccharide production and binding to fibronectin identified as virulence factors (Tunkel and Sepkowitz, 2002). S viridans commonly causes of native valve endocarditis and late onset prosthetic valve endocarditis, severe pyogenic infections, bacteremia in neutropenic patients, neonatal sepsis and septicemia/shock syndrome also known as " α strep shock syndrome" (Dhotre

et al., 2016). *S. viridian* has been isolated from amniotic fluid among women with clinical amniotitis (Rabe et al., 1988; Mazor *et al.*, 1994). To date there has been no documentation on how *S.viridans* causes PTB.

Atopobium vaginae are of the kingdom bacteria, phylum actinobacteria, class actinobacteria, order coriobacteriales, family coriobacteriaceace, genus atopobium and species. *A. vaginae* are a grampositive, facultative anaerobes, rod shaped or coccobacilli. *A. vaginae* give grey-white colonies after forty-eight hours culture in anaerobic conditions. *A. vaginae* are gram-positive, short chains, in pairs or singly (Rodriguez Jovita *et al.*, 1999; De Backer *et al.*, 2007) *A. vaginae* give positive reaction in acid phosphates, arginine dihydrolase, arginine arylamidase, histidine arylamidase, leucine arylamidase, proline arylamidase, glycine arylamidase and serine arylamidase. Negative reactions are recorded in alanine arylamidase, B-Galactosidase, pyroglutamic acid arylamidase and thyroxine arylamidase (Polatti, 2012). *A.vaginae* has been shown to cause tuboovarian abscess after transvaginal oocyte recovert, salpingitis and endometritis (Mazor *et al.*, 1994). Just like *G. vaginalis, A. vaginae* forms biofilms that are resistant to H_2O_2 and antibiotic treatment thus supporting the growth of other anaerobic bacteria (Ferris *et al.*, 2007). A. vaginae is suggested to be pathogenic that can lead to maternal bacteremia and fetal death (Mazor *et al.*, 1994).

Porphyromonas asaccharolytica is of the kingdom bacteria, phylum bacteroidetes, class bacteroidetes, order bacteroidales, family porphyromonadaceae, and genus porphyromonas and species *P. asaccharolytica* (Ng *et al.*, 1994). *P. asaccharolytica* is gram-negative, obligate anaerobe, non-spore forming, non-motile rods or coccobacilli and catalase negative (Ng *et al.*, 1994). Proteinase is produced by *P. asaccharolytica*, which enables hydrolyzation of gelatin, casein, coagulated protein, plasma protein, azacol and collagen. Protease by-products weaken the collagen structure in the gestational sac thus leading to premature rapture of membranes (Friese, 2003).

Prevotella species are of the family prevotellaceae and genus prevotella. *Prevotella spp.* form circular, convex, 1-2 mm and shiny gray colonies. On Gram stain, they form short gram-negative rods which may adopt coccobacilli shape (Margolis and Fredricks, 2014). *Prevotella spp.* are gram negative, bile sensitive, catalase negative, however variations have been reported (Dorn et al., 1998) *Prevotella spp.* is in a position to form biofilm that resist host defense mechanism, resulting

to chronic infection (Yamanaka *et al.*, 2009) *Prevotella spp*. produces collagenase as a virulence factor. Collagenase facilitates raptures of the membranes leading to PTB (Doust and Mobarez, 2004). *Prevotella spp*. provide vital nutrients to G.vaginalis and Peptostreptococcus spp., their association with BV could be through expedition of growth of other causative species(Margolis and Fredricks, 2014). *Prevotella spp*. are also known to cause genital infections, bacteremia, wound infection, bite infections, abscesses and periodontitis (Zhang *et al.*, 2015).

Bacteroides species are in the family bacteroidaceae and genus bacteroides. *Bacteroides* are gram positive, obligate anaerobes, bacilli, non-endospores and some are motile while others are non-motile (Moore et al., 2016). Neuraminidase (sialidase) is a virulence factor produced by bacteroides. The enzyme changes neuraminic acid-containing glycoprotein of human plasma (Briselden *et al.*, 1992). Other virulence factors produced by bacteroides are hyluronidase, DNase, phospholipase A2 and heparinase. *Bacteroides* are known to degrade complement factors of Immunoglobulin G and M. Capsule is an important virulence factor of *Bacteroides fragilis*. Other virulence factors used in the adherence of *Bacteroides* are pili (fimbriae) and lectinlike adhesins. In addition *Bacteroides* produce butyrate and succinate, which give a cytotoxic effect. Sialidase alter the immune signals and damage host mucosal epithelial barrier thus permitting bacteria to access the uterus as well as impairing fetal membrane's strength and elasticity resulting to PTB (Briselden *et al.*, 1992).

Fusobacteria species are of the family fusobacteriaceae and genus fusobacterium (Bolstad et al., 1996) *Fusobacterium spp.* Are gram negative, spindle shaped or may have parallel sides, 5-10 μ m long, tapered ends, often seen in pairs (end to end), indole positive and fluoresce under ultraviolet light (Bennett and Eley, 1993; Avila-campos *et al.*, 2006; Margolis and Fredricks, 2014). *F. nucleatum* show hemolytic activity in human and sheep erythrocytes. Fusobacteria species has adhesion which enable them to coaggregate with the widest range to other genera tested so far, however, it does not coaggregate with other fusobacteria (Avila-campos *et al.*, 2006). High levels of phospholipase A2 produced by *Fusobacteria*, induce synthesis of prostaglandin resulting to PTB (Briselden *et al.*, 1992), early onset of neonatal sepsis (Han, 2013) and colorectal cancer (Mcguire *et al.*, 2014)

Peptostreptococcus species are of the family clostridiaceae and genus peptostreptococcus (Murdoch, 1998) *Peptostreptococcus* are gram-positive cocci, non-spore forming, obligate anaerobes and found singly, in pairs or in chains (Riggio and Lennon, 2002) Gas liquid chromatography is used in the identification of *Peptostreptococccus spp*. In addition peptone and amino acid is metabolized to isobutyric, butyric, acetic, caproic and isocaproic acid. *Peptostreptococcus spp*. is commonly associated with necrotizing soft tissue infections and commonly associated with polymicrobial infection. *Peptostreptococcus* are the second most commonly associated anaerobe in clinical infection after *Bacteroides spp*.(Riggio and Lennon, 2002). However, there is no record of how Peptostreptococcus causes PTB (Krepel *et al.*, 2018).

Eubacteria species is of the family Eubacteriacea and genus Eubacterium (Hill, Ayers and Kohan, 1987). *Eubacterium* are either gram negative or gram positive and some are non-motile while others are motile (Hill et al., 1987). Some strains of *Eubacteria* are known to produce DNase and phosphatase (Margaret et al, 1990). Phosphatase initiates prostaglandin production which stimulate to contractions leading to PTB (Friese, 2003).

Mobiluncus species are of the family actinomycetaceae and genus mobiluncus. *Mobiluncus* are gram-negative and curved in shape (Vetere *et al.*, 1987). *Mobiluncus species* are indole, catalase, hydrogen peroxide negative and metabolize succinate enzyme thus raising the vaginal pH to alkaline levels and preventing chemotaxis of cells that are immunocompetent (Mirmonsef *et al.*, 2012; Spiegel, 2012). This leads to proliferation of infectious organisms leading to formation of an NF- κ B coordinated inflammatory state thus recruiting pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL- β , IL-4, IL-6, IL-7, TNF- α and INF- γ) and chemokine (IL-8 and RANTES), exciting the production of matrix metalloproteins (MMPs) and arachidonic acid metabolites such as prostaglandins (PGs) and hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids (HETE) (Witkin *et al.*, 2013). MMPs destroy and digest the cervical extracellular matrix and fetal membranes, while the arachidonic acid metabolites moderate myometrial contractility leading to cervical maturation leading to PTB (Witkin *et al.*, 2013).

Veillonella species are of the family Vellonellacease genus veillonella. Veilonella are strictly anaerobic, gram negative cocci which form part of the normal flora of the oral, genitourinary, respiratory and intestinal tracts of humans' and animals (Rovery *et al.*, 2005; Marriott et al., 2007)

Veillonella are gram-positive cocci, oxidase positive, catalase negative, indole negative, urease negative and nitrate reduction positive (Brook and Brook, 1996) Veillonella are also known to be associated with endocarditis, periodontitis, dental carriers and osteomyelitis (Mashima et al., 2016). Lipopolysaccharide is the main virulent factor for Veillonella species and are known to form biofilms that are resistant to H_2O_2 thus enabling the growth of other anaerobic bacteria (Rovery *et al.*, 2009).

2.2.1.1 BV and HIV

A study done in Uganda found BV increases the risk of HIV infection by more than 2-fold. A study done in Malawi among women attending antenatal clinic conferred a 3 fold increased risk of HIV infection (Myer et al., 2018). Particularly, high concentration G.vaginalis and M.hominis has been associated with increased HIV shedding (Koumans et al., 2007; Margolis and Fredricks, 2014). Microbes such as Bacteroides, Prevotella, Gardenerella have been shown to attract CD4 cells to the mucosa, thus increasing HIV acquisition (Africa et al., 2014). A number of hypotheses suggest how BV increases HIV acquisition. One, a healthy vaginal makes healthy lactobacillus that produces hydrogen peroxide. Hydrogen peroxide can inactivate HIV. When there is a shift from a lactobacillus dominated vaginal flora, the absence of the H_2O_2 makes it possible for the HIV to stay alive longer in the vagina, thus increase the rate of transmission. Secondly, BV has shown to stimulate cells containing the virus thus increasing HIV replication. Thirdly, BV disrupts the skin cells at the surface of the vagina. This makes it easy for the virus to reach a deep layer of cells that are susceptible infection. Fourthly, BV increases intravaginal levels of interleukin-10, which increases susceptibility of macrophages to HIV. In addition studies have shown that a stable protein produced by G.vaginalis increases production of HIV by HIV infected cells by as much as 77-fold (Schmid et al., 1995; Mirmonsef et al., 2013). Interestingly, women with BV have three time likelihood of transmitting HIV to their male sexual partners compared to women with a normal vaginal microbiome (Schmid et al., 1995). In addition, observational data and physiology of the vaginal epithelium suggest those post-menopausal women are at higher risk of HIV acquisition. However, studies focusing on post-menopausal women with atrophic vaginitis have not yet been done (Myer et al., 2018). Moreover, BV increases the risk of acquiring Neisseria gonorrhea by 1.7, Chlamydia trachomatis by 3.4, Herpes simplex virus -2 by 2.1 and Trichomonal genital infection by 1.8 (Margolis and Fredricks, 2014).

2.2 2 Diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis

Diagnosis of BV is based on clinical and laboratory diagnosis. Clinical diagnosis is based on the nature of vaginal discharge.

2.2.2.1 Amsel's criteria

Diagnosis of BV is based on the presence of the three of the following four findings; increased vaginal pH>4.5, presence of white adherent discharge that contains numerous exfoliated epithelial cells with bacteria (Gram-variable polymorphic rods) attached to their surface (clue cells) that has a characteristic fishy odor, more so when 10% of potassium hydroxide is added (whiff test) and a characteristic thin, gray or white homogeneous discharge (Rao *et al.*, 2016).

However, BV can be asymptomatic in about 50% and this is why Nugent's scoring system is preferred in scientific community (Carr et al., 1998).

2.2.2.2 Nugent scoring

Nugent, whom it was named after, first described Nugent scoring in 1991 (Nugent *et al.*, 1991) Nugent score is the gold standard for diagnosis BV, which is based on bacteria counting in Gram stained slides of vaginal secretions (Chawla *et al.*, 2013). In Nugent score criteria, the vaginal (Lateral swab or posterior fonicle of the vagina) swab is smeared on a clear glass slide, air dried, heat fixed then Gram stained (Rao *et al.*, 2016). The bacteria morphology is observed under an oil immersion objective (×100) using the following scheme:

1+, < 1 per field 2+, 1-4 per field 3+, 5-30 per field 4+, >30 per field

Large gram positive rod are considered to be lactobacillus morphotypes, small gram negative to gram variable are considered to be *G.vaginalis* and *Bacteroides spp*. morphotypes while curved gram negative curved are considered to be *Mobiluncus spp*. morphotypes (Rao *et al.*, 2016).

 Table 1: Nugent scoring

Determination of the Nugent score through laboratory examination of vaginal smears Nugent score = The total sum of the scores for every bacteria morphotype is listed below

Lactobacillus	Score	G. vaginalis, Bacteroides	Score	Curved gram variable bacilli	Score	Nugent score
30 or more	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-30	1	Less than 1	1	Less than 1	1	3
1-4	2	1-4	2	1-4	1	5
Less than 1	3	5-30	3	5-30	2	8
0	4	30 or more	4	30 or more	2	10

(Note the quantity of organisms seen/100 \times objective)

The Nugent scores are interpreted as follows:

A score of 0-3 – Normal (B.V negative)

A score of 4-6 – Intermediate

A score of 7-10 – B.V positive (Mohanty *et al.*, 2010)

2.2.2.3 Cytology-Papanicolaou smear

A wet mount is done and examined under a microscope for the presence of clue cells. An epithelial cell is termed as a clue cell, when more than 20% of the epithelial cells have stripped appearance due to adherent cocco bacilli and whose edges are obscured or fuzzy (Vandana *et al.*, 2018).

2.2.2.4 Culture

Vaginal cultures have excellent sensitivity for BV diagnosis. However, cultures are not recommended because the predictive value for *G. vaginalis* is less than 50%. Thus vaginal gram stains are more useful than culture since BV is a polymicrobial infection (Nenadi and Pavlovi, 2015).

2.2.2.5 Rapid test kit

The BV Blue kit is a rapid test kit used to diagnose bacterial vaginosis. The kit detects vaginal fluid sialidase activity, which is produced by causative agents of bacterial vaginosis such as *G.vaginalis, Bacteroides, Prevotella and Mobiluncus*. The BV Blue kit detects bacterial vaginal fluid sialidase at levels of \geq 7.8 (Gad *et al.*, 2014). Affirm VP III is rapid test used for the detection of Candida species, *G. vaginalis* and *Trichomonas vaginalis* from a vaginal swab (Brown *et al.*, 2004).

2.2.2.6 Molecular assay

In the diagnosis of BV molecular assays are used, although not commonly since they are expensive. However molecular assays are the most effective. Specifically, quantitative molecular tool using a specific real-time polymerase chain (Bretelle *et al.*, 2018).

2.2.2.7 Sensitivity and specificity

Nugent scoring being the gold standard for BV, Amsel has recorded a sensitivity of 0.91 and specificity of 0.91, positive predictive value of 0.86, negative predictive value of 0.94 and accuracy of 0.91 diagnosis (Mohammadzadeh *et al.*, 2014). Vaginal pH recoded a sensitivity of 100% and specificity of 58.9%, while whiff test recoded a sensitivity of 100% and a specificity of 97.3% (Mohammadzadeh *et al.*, 2014). While another study Amsel recorded positive predictive values 80%, negative predictive value 94%, sensitivity 78% and specificity 95.6%, Nugent scoring as the gold standard (Bhat et al., 2011). A similar study was done and Amsel recorded a sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive of 100%, 91.20% 84.12% and 100 % respectively (Bhat et al., 2011). In comparison with Nugent scoring, Amsel criteria recorded a specificity of 78.72%, sensitivity of 92.35%, negative predictive value of 93.54% and positive predictive value of 75.51% (Rao *et al.*, 2016). A study was done with Amsel criteria as the gold standard for BV and Nugent scoring recoded a sensitivity of 65% and specificity of 97.3%, positive predictive value of 80.8%, negative predictive value of 94.2% and an accuracy of 92.7% (Mohammadzadeh *et al.*, 2014).

Pap smear and vaginal culture were compared to Nugent scoring as gold standard. Pap smear had a sensitivity and specificity of 43.1 and 93.6%. Vaginal culture had a sensitivity and specificity 77.8 and 97.7%. Positive and negative predictive values for Pap smear were 73.8 and 93.3%

respectively. Vaginal culture had a positive and negative predictive value of 78.8 and 91.8% respectively (Aktepe et al., 2004). BV Blue kit was compared to Amsel criteria and Nugent scoring. In comparison to Nugent scoring and Amsel criteria, BV Blue kit recorded a sensitivity and specificity of 91.7, 97.8, 91.7 and 97.8% respectively. While the positive and the negative predictive value for BV Blue kit versus Nugent scoring and Amsel criteria were 50.0,100,100 and 88.2%, respectively (Myziuk et al., 2003). PCR has recorded a sensitivity of 99% and specificity of 89% for diagnosis of BV, in comparison to Amsel criteria. In comparison to Nugent scoring, a sensitivity of 95.9 and 93.7% was recorded (Fredricks *et al.*, 2007).

2.2.2.8 Advantages and Disadvantages of Amsel and Nugent scoring

Amsel criteria is reliable, cheap, fast, simple and easy, while Nugent scoring is complex and require expertise (Mohammadzadeh *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, Nugent scoring can identify a few bacteria species and the exact number of Lactobacillus can be influenced by the variability of the methods. Depending on how you spread the sample on the slide the homogeneity and thickness of the sample on the slide may vary. Thus it is important to adhere to the basic standards of quality control (Mohammadzadeh *et al.*, 2014) However PCR has been credited to be more sensitive compared to Amsel criteria and Nugent scoring (Fredricks *et al.*, 2007; Mohammadzadeh *et al.*, 2014).

2.3 Pathogenesis of pre-term birth

Studies have been done in both animal models and humans as to how the bacteria cause PTB (Salminen *et al.*, 2008; Mendz et al., 2013). These studies have suggested that bacteria is likely to be having a more direct role in the pathogenesis of PTB by secreting enzymes such as collagens (Tebes et al., 2003) that degrade fetal membranes, or by inducing the synthesis and release of uterotonins such as prostaglandins(Koucký *et al.*, 2009), able to stimulate uterine contractions or their presence can lead to the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as phospholipase A2 thus causing preterm labor (Agrawal and Hirsch, 2012; Madianos et al., 2013; Rimawi, 2013)

Bacteria and diverse microbes are recognized by pattern recognition receptors such Toll-like receptors that activate innate immune system, prompting a proinflammatory cascade orchestrated by several elements such, the transcription factor NF-Kb (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012) This cascade result in amplification of effector molecules such as cytokines (e.g. In tumor necrosis

factor- α , Interleukin-1) (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012), prostaglandins, proteases, chemokine's such Interleukin-8 and other enzymes, to produce a coordinated response featuring placental detachment, infiltration of inflammatory cells into gestational tissues, cervical ripening and weakening of the fetal membranes leading to PTB (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012).

In addition, metabolic by-products of the anaerobic bacteria, which include amines increase the vagina pH resulting to exfoliation of the vaginal epithelial cells (clue cells) (Tebes et al., 2003). H_2O_2 produced by lactobacilli may have a critical role in preventing fetal membrane degradation, prostaglandin release and ascending infection. Alternative mechanism that has been proposed consist of the incidence rates and the bacterial loads of these bacteria are more among women with preterm low birth weight delivery (Monga and Blanco, 1995; Goldenberg et al., 2002; Kataoka *et al.*, 2006).

However many questions in relation to the pathogenesis of BV remain unanswered. In relation to how *Lactobacillus* reduce in number (Donders *et al.*, 2000).

2.4 Treatments of BV to prevent PTB

Metronidazole and clindamycin are the first-line treatment for BV. However recurrent rate are high, approximated to 50% at 3 months (Ferris *et al.*, 2007; Bagnall and Rizzolo, 2017). *A. vaginae* are resistant to metronidazole but susceptible to clindamycin. Unfortunately, clindamycin destroys lactobacilli (Ferris *et al.*, 2007). However, recurrence is common in 30 % at 3 months and later recurrence in 50 % at 6 months (Margolis and Fredricks, 2014).

2.5 Problem statement

Pre-term birth is the sole largest cause of perinatal mortality and morbidity in the world, (Agrawala and Hirscha, 2012; WHO, 2012) with a prevalence rate of 5-18% in 184 countries (Wagura *et al.*, 2018). Kenya is ranked position 48 among the top 50 countries with the highest proportion of PTB globally and position 13 with the highest deaths which result from pre-term birth complications (Blencowe *et al.*, 2012; Gebreslasie, 2016)

Microorganisms comprising bacteria, parasites, viruses and fungal have been associated as the causative agents for spontaneous PTB. Bacteria constitute the prime number of microorganisms linked with PTB (Zhou *et al.*, 2010) with molecular techniques detecting bacteria in 60% of women delivering preterm (Mendz et al., 2013; Romero *et al.*, 2016). BV which has been the most prevalent lower genital infection is postulated to be one of the causes PTB and neonatal mortality (Guaschino *et al.*, 2006; Bahram et al., 2009). However little has been done to profile the bacteria associated with BV leading to PTB. Yet the numbers of PTB are on the rise.

2.5.1 Justification

A number of studies have been done in Africa investigating an association between BV and PTB with varied findings. A study done in Nigeria,2010 (Aderoba *et al.*, 2016), found an association between BV and PTB unlike a study done in Tanzania (Shayo *et al.*, 2012). Through the study, we will be in a position to identify the most prevalent bacteria that causes BV after profiling the identified bacteria species, which may be associated with PTB. If that is the case as per our prediction, then this may offer an oppurtunity to formulate a policy or policies regarding management of BV in pregnancies for the purposes of controlling BV and reducing PTB. However, should we find that a particular bacteria or bacterium associated with pregnant women in Kisumu, there may be need to repeat a similar study in different parts of Kenya to confirm if what is found in Kisumu is similar to what we have in other parts of Kenya. More over the study will recommend on whether it is important to screen women coming for attenatal clinic for BV, since BV is assymtomatic in 50-75% of the infections, thus resulting in the reduction of PTBs (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2014). In addition the study will form a foundation for further studies to be done, in the optimization of BV treatment based on specific bacteria associated with PTB.

2.6 Research questions

- 1. What is prevalence of Bacterial vaginosis among pregnant women in Kisumu County?
- 2. Which bacterium among Bacterial vaginosis species is strongly associated with pre-term birth in Kisumu County?
- 3. What are the risks factors associated with BV infections and linked to pre-term births?

2.7 Null hypothesis and objectives

2.7.1 Null hypothesis

There is no association between bacterial vaginosis and pre-term births.

2.7.2 Broad Objective

To profile bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis related to preterm deliveries in Kisumu County Hospital.

2.7.3 Specific Objectives

- 1. To determine the prevalence of BV among pregnant women in Kisumu County
- 2. To characterize bacteria species in bacteria vaginosis infection associated with preterm births in Kisumu County
- 3. To determine the risk factors associated with bacteria vaginosis and preterm births

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 STUDY DESIGN

This was a comparative cross sectional analytical study conducted for one year. Comparative studies allow comparison of proportions in exposed group and in the unexposed group. In this study, the exposed group were pregnant women diagnosed with BV, while unexposed were BV negative pregnant women.

To examine the association between a supposed risk factor and a health outcome, analytical crosssectional studies may be used. The risk factor and the health outcome are measured simultaneously. This makes it difficult to know whether the disease or the exposure came first, thus the study design limits to draw valid conclusions about an association or predicted causality. Causality should be confirmed by more rigorous studied (Antay-bedregal and Camargo-revello, 2015).

3.2 STUDY SITE

Kisumu County is one of the new established counties. This county borders Siaya County to the west, Vihiga County to the north, Nandi County to the north east, Kericho County to the east, Nyamira County to the south and Homa Bay County to the south west. The county lies within longitudes 33° 20' East and 35° 20' East and latitudes 0° 20' South and 0° 50' South of the equator. Kisumu is situated 1174 meters above sea level.

The study enrolled participants who were in maternity ward at Kisumu County Hospital (KCH) and Jaramogi Oginga Odinga Teaching and Referral Hospital in Kisumu County. However the data collection took place only at KCH and not the two sites because the sample size was attained within a shorter duration than expected. KCH was established in the year 1900 during the building of Kenya-Uganda Railway. The obstetrics and gynecology department in the hospital offers patient care in major and minor obstetric and gynecological surgeries as well as specialized gynecology clinic, antenatal clinic (ANC), Family planning and cervical cancer screening.

3.3 STUDY POPULATION

The study involved two cohorts. One cohort, comprise of women delivering before 37th week of gestation while the other group, women delivering from 37th week of gestation and above

(comparative group). The second cohort involved pregnant women visiting or admitted at KCH. Kisumu County hospital receives deliveries from all over Kisumu. Therefore giving a general representation of the whole Kisumu County. The total number of deliveries KCH receives per month is between 200-250 per month and 10-20 pre-term births.

3.3.1 Inclusion criteria

Pre-term deliveries	Term deliveries
Singleton pregnancy	Singleton pregnancy
Women delivering before 37 th week of gestation	Women delivering at 37 th week of gestation
Women who willingly consented to participate	and above
in the study	Women who willingly consented to participate
18 years and above	in the study
Residence of Kisumu county	18 years and above
	Residence of Kisumu county

3.3.2 Exclusion criteria

Table 3: Exclusion criteria of both term and preterm cohorts

Pre-term deliveries	Term deliveries
Assisted surgery	Use of antibiotics during the previous two
Use of antibiotics in the past two	weeks
weeks	Obstetric emergencies e.g. antepartum
Obstetric emergencies e.g. antepartum	hemorrhage, preeclampsia, eclampsia
hemorrhage, preeclampsia, eclampsia	

3.4: SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATION

The study majored in the comparison of two proportions. The study design allows comparison of two proportions. Thus the used sample size formula is the most appropriate because it permits getting the minimum sample size in a comparative study of two proportions.

$$n_1 \ge \frac{1+r(Z_{\alpha} + Z_{\beta})^2.\overline{P}(1-\overline{P})}{r(P_1 - P_2)^2}$$

 n_1 = minimum sample size for cases (women with pre-term births)

 Z_{β} = critical value corresponding to 70% power (β =0.30; Z_{β} = 0.53)

 $Z_{\alpha/2}$ = critical value corresponding to 0.05 α -level of significance ($Z_{\alpha/2}$ =1.96)

 p_1 = Proportion exposed among control group- women with full term births (p_1 =0.39 based on the prevalence of bacterial vaginosis (BV) among women in Western Kenya (Okuku et al., 2015)

r= ratio of controls to cases (women with full term births to women with preterm births. Due to the few number of preterm births per month in the facility a ratio of 4 full term birth women to 1 preterm birth was used to maintain the power (r=4)

 p_2 = Proportion exposed among the cases (proportion of women with bacterial vaginosis among those that had full term births)

 p_1 - p_2 = Expected difference in the prevalence (p1-p2=-0.20)

 $\overline{\rho}$ = pooled prevalence = (P_1+P_2) / 2 ($\overline{\rho}$ =0.49)

Using the formula and defined parameters, minimum sample size for women with preterm births is 59 and women with full-term births 117

59+117=176

3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Preterm deliveries are not predictable. This poses a limitation in recruitment of participants for the study within the limited study period. Consecutive sampling was therefore used to select participants until the required sample size was achieved. Participants, who met the inclusion criteria and willingly gave consent, were included in the study.

3.5.1 Recruiting and consenting procedures

Before the study nurse consented the participants who had met the inclusion criteria, she explained to the identified participant about the study procedures, expected results, risks and benefits. After which the study nurse had a one on one questionneiring session with the participant.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

3.6.1 Pretesting of interview tools

The questionnaires that was used to gather information in this study was pretested in Kisumu County Hospital. The pretesting was done by the principal investigator and the study nurse. This was done after ethical approval and before study kick off. A total of 10 different participants were subjected to the face-to-face interviews to test the questionnaire to determine whether the questions are understandable and are being answered correctly. Changes were be made accordingly to any question that required clarity.

3.6.2 Administering qualitative interviews

A questionnaire was used to collect socio-demographic information and medical history of the study participants. The socio-demographic information included age, family history, education level, marital status and socio-economic status. Medical history included previous pre-term deliveries, period between pregnancies, infertility treatment and sexually transmitted diseases. The questionnaire was first validated before use after which the participants filled the form. The form was then be taken back for tabulation and analysis

3.6.3 Laboratory analysis

3.6.3.1 Sample collection

A trained clinician collected the samples. Figure 1 show how the swab sample was collected. Three vaginal swabs were collected from each of the consenting participants. One was reserved for further studies while the two were used in Amsel criteria and Nugent scoring. Prior to swab collection, the study nurse ensured his/her hands are properly clean and the participants' bladder is empty. The participant lay in a dorsal position, knees flexed; hips abducted and head on pillow. The study nurse examined the vaginal for any vaginal discharge and the nature of the discharge, abnormal skin condition, lesions and evident of female genital mutilation. Warm a sterilized

speculum at 37°C. Clean away any cervical mucus if necessary. The speculum was inserted in the vaginal. Dalcon vaginal swab were inserted about 1-2 cm and a posterior or lateral vaginal wall swab was taken in a rotating motion. The stick was inserted back in the tube and corked tightly. This was repeated with the other Dalcon vaginal swab. Labeling of the dalcon vaginal swabs was done before examination, with the participant's name, number, time and date of collection. The two tubes were transported to the laboratory in Gas pak anaerobic chamber.

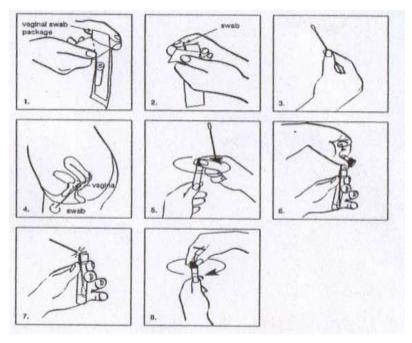


Figure 1:Steps for collection of high vaginal swab

3.6.3.2 Diagnosis

Clinical and laboratory diagnosis are used in the diagnosis of BV. However, clinical diagnosis has more to do with laboratory. In this study we dealt with both clinical and laboratory diagnosis. Amsel criteria and Nugent scoring were used in the diagnosis of BV. Nugent scoring is the gold standard. This study used Amsel and Nugent scoring.

3.6.3.2.1 Clinical diagnosis (Amsel criteria)

The clinical diagnosis of BV was based on the Amsel criteria, which is defined by three of the following criteria.

Clinical diagnosis of BV is based on the presence of the three of the following four findings:

• Homogeneous vaginal discharge, which appears to adhere to the wall of the vaginal in a thin film and can vary from white to grey.

• Increased vaginal pH > 4.5.

Litmus paper was used to determine the pH of the discharge. The colour change was compared with a pH standard colour chart.

• Presence of an amine odor (fishy smell) – positive whiff test.

A swab was placed in small size test tubes. In the test tube a few drops of 10% potassium hydroxide were added. Flapping was done on the opening of the test tube to capture the presence of the amine odor. This was for the positive whiff test. In the case of negative whiff test, amine odor was absent.

• Presence of clue cell.

A smear was prepared on a slide using the third swab. Normal saline was added on the slide and a cover slip placed on the smear and examined at a magnification power $\times 40$. Clue cells were identified for positive samples of BV. The clue cells are identified as vaginal epithelial cells with heavy coating of bacteria, in that the peripheral boarders are obscured(Rao *et al.*, 2016).

3.6.3.2.2 Laboratory diagnosis (Nugent score criteria)

In Nugent score criteria, the vaginal swab were smeared onto a clear and clean glass slide and airdried before Gram staining. The bacteria morphology was observed under an oil immersion objective ($\times 100$)

Large gram positive rod are considered to be lactobacillus morphotypes, small gram negative to gram variable are considered to be *G.vaginalis* and *Bacteroides spp*. morphotypes while curved Gram variable rods are considered to be *Mobiluncus spp*. Morphotypes(Rao *et al.*, 2016)

1+, < 1 per field 2+, 1-4 per field 3+, 5-30 per field 4+, >30 per field

 Table 4: Nugent scoring

Determination of the Nugent score through laboratory examination of vaginal smears Nugent score = The total sum of the scores for every bacteria morphotype is listed below

Lactobacillus	Bac		Score	Curved gram variable bacilli	Score	Nugent score	
30 or more	0	0	0	0	0	0	
5-30	1	Less than 1	1	Less than 1	1	3	
1-4	2	1-4	2	1-4	1	5	
Less than 1	3	5-30	3	5-30	2	8	
0	4	30 or more	4	30 or more	2	10	

(Note the quantity of organisms seen/ $100 \times objective$)

The Nugent scores are interpreted as follows:

A score of 0-3 – Normal (B.V negative)

A score of 4-6 – Intermediate

A score of 7-10 – B.V positive(Mohanty et al., 2010)

3.7 QUALITY ASSURANCE PROCEDURES

Standard operating procedures were developed and used in all procedures that involved sample collection, sample transportation and analysis. Equipment operation was done according to manufacturer's instructions. Reading of slides was re-confirmed by the supervising microbiologist before results are signed out to the participant's records.

3.8 QUALITY CONTROL

Professionals (study nurse and principal investigator) who are well trained in the field did the study. In addition the principal investigator was thoroughly trained from sample collection to

sample storage for three consecutive months on BV at University of Nairobi Tropical and Infectious Diseases Institute. After which a quality control was done at Kenya Medical Research Institute with a staff who has worked on BV for the last 30 years.

The Patient identification number was to label the specimen and identify the consent forms and questionnaires, rather than participant's name. The study nurse and principal investigator wore proper protective equipment's e.g. gloves, lab coat, when handling a participant or a specimen. Before running any sample the bench was sanitized.

3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The protocol and informed consent form was reviewed and approved by the Kenyatta National Hospital-University of Nairobi Ethics and Research Committee (KNH-UoN ERC) prior to any protocol-related procedures (e.g., recruitment efforts) being conducted. The principal investigator informed the KNH-UON ERC the progress of the study on a regular basis per the ERC requirements, but at a minimum once a year. Written informed consent was obtained from the potential study participants prior to any protocol-specified procedures being conducted. To maintain confidentiality, initials and coded numbers were used to identify the participants' laboratory specimens, source documents, and study reports. All study records were maintained in a secured location. Participant information was not obtained or released without written permission from the participant's legally authorized representative except as necessary for monitoring of the study. Permission to carry out this study was also obtained from the hospital's administrator and the county health department.

Participation in this study was completely voluntary and the participants could withdraw even after accepting to participate (Appendix A and B). The interviewee was also be informed that apart from having a direct benefit to an individual participant (by knowing their BV status -Thus providing proper management) and receiving BV treatment, this study will go a long way in helping both BV testing policy during pregnancy but also designing ways to prevent and manage BV to avoid preterm births.

3.10 DATA MANAGEMENT

Laboratory results were entered in a data collection form (Appendix D) and the documented socio demographic data from the corresponding questionnaire were entered into Microsoft Excel 2013 and stored in a password protected computer. All the collection forms and questionnaires filled were kept in a lockable filing cabinet located in a restricted-access room. The slides were stored in slide mailers in a lockable cabinet with restricted access.

Data was cleaned, coded and analyzed using SPSS. Data cleaning was done to identify extreme and missing records in the data set. For extreme values, counterchecking was done with the questionnaires/data collection forms, and replacement done in case of data entry errors. For missing values, the information was recovered from the questionnaires/data collection forms. If the information is not available the pattern of missingness was be assessed as whether completely missing at random or not. Unless the data is missing data is completely missing at random, pairwise deletion was adopted in the analysis. Evaluation for completeness and accuracy was done daily. Data was backed up daily.

3.10.1 Data analysis

Univariate analysis was done to summarize the data/variables. For continuous/discrete variables, histograms were plotted to show the distribution; measures of central tendency (means/medians/mode) and dispersion (SD/ IQR) were reported depending on the distribution. For categorical data such as marital status of the woman, BV test results, bacteria isolated etc. bar/pie charts were plotted to show the distribution; frequencies and proportions were reported.

In bivariate analysis, a test of associations (Pearson chi-square/ test) was used to check for association between the socio-demographic characteristics, clinical history of women with preterm births and the BV status in relation to the gestation at birth. Pearson chi-square statistics and corresponding p-values were reported. The study was conducted at 0.05 α -level of significance.

4.0 RESULTS

A total of 228 pregnant women were enrolled in the study through, systematic random sampling. Out of the 228, only 209 were followed up to delivery stage, while 19 had incomplete results.

4.1 Last Menstruation Period and Ultra Sound as determinants of preterm

The participants were categorized as preterm or term based on Last Menstruation Period (LMP) and Ultra-sound (Ultra-S). This is as illustrated in table 4. Last Menstruation Period (LMP) captured 209 pregnant women. Out of the 209 pregnant women under LMP, 76 (36.4%) went for Ultra sound (Ultra-S).

Deliveries	Tern	Preterm n (%)			
	Normal	Cs delivery	Normal	Cs delivery	
	delivery	-	delivery	•	
LMP	120 (57.4%)	19 (9.1%)	61 (29.2%)	9 (4.3%)	
Ultra-S	35 (46.1%)	5 (5.3%)	29 (39.5%)	7 (9.2%)	

Table 4: Preterm births by LMP and Ultra-S

Ultra-S being very accurate, it was used as the gold standard. Only those who had a normal delivery were included in the analysis the rest were excluded. A comparison was done between LMP and Ultra-S. The comparison was done to bring the participants who had a discrepancy and those who were at par in the two modes of classification. The comparison is presented in table 5. A total of 64 study participants qualified for the comparison. The 64 comprised of women who had both LMP and Ultra-S data and they delivered normally. Of the sixty-four, 34 (97.1%) and 28 (96.6%) had term and preterm deliveries respectively. These were captured both in LMP and Ultra-S. A slight discrepancy was evident between the two modes of classification. Of the 64 study participants, 1 (2.9%) classified as preterm under LMP, was reclassified as term under Ultra-S. In addition, 1 (3.4%) classified as term under LMP was reclassified as preterm under Ultra-S.

Table 5: Comparison between LMP and Ultra-sound for determination of preterm births

	Gestation LMP n (%)								
		Gestation	Term svd	Preterm svd	TOTAL				
		Term svd	34 (97.1%)	1 (3.4%)	35 (54.7%)				
Gestation Ultra-S	S n	Preterm svd	1 (2.9%)	28 (96.6%)	29 (45.3%)				
(%)		TOTAL	35 (100.0%)	29 (100.0%)	64 (100.0%)				

4.2 Demographic characteristics of the study participants

Different social demographic characteristics of mothers that are risk factors to preterm births were outlined as illustrated in table 6. A chi-square was run on each variable, in both LMP and Ultra-S mode of gestation classification. Majority of the study participants were aged 21-25 years in both LMP and Ultra-S. In the different categories of marital status, marital status steady partner living together were the majority under LMP, while married monogamous were the majority under Ultra-S. In the different categories of marital status, housewives were the majority. Both age and housewife were captured to have a statistical difference (p-value 0.016 and 0.005 respectively), under Ultra-S. However the rest of the risk factors there was no statistical significance.

				BIR	TH OUTCOME				
	DEMOGRAPHICS	LMP		p-	OR (95% CI of OR)	Ultra-S		p-	OR (95% CI of OR
Variables		Term	Preterm	value		Term	Preterm	value	
i. Age	21-25	56 (46.7%)	29 (47.5%)	0.053	0.906	14 (40.0%)	11 (37.9%)	0.339	1.886
					(0.392-2.097)				(0.510-6.978)
	26-30	30 (25.0%)	10 (16.4%)	0.292	0.583	9 (25.7%)	6 (20.7%)	0.529	1.6
					(0.213-1.598)				(0.369-6.946)
	31-40	13 (10.8%)	10 (16.4%)	0.592	1.346	0 (0.0%)	7 (24.1%)	0.002	0.294
					(0.454-3.994)				(0.141-0.614)
	18-20	21	12 (19.7%)		Ref	12 (34.3%)	5 (17.2%)		Ref
		(17.5 %)							
ii. Marital status	Steady partner living together	43 (35.8%)	23 (37.7%)	0.882	0.936	8 (22.9%)	10 (34.5%)	0.098	3.750
					(0.392-2.237)				(0.754-18.641)
	Steady partner not living together	9 (7.5%)	3 (4.9%)	0.475	0.583	2 (5.7%)	1 (3.4%)	0.770	1.5
					(0.132-2.580)				(0.098-23.069)
	Married monogamous	42 (35.0%)	21 (34.4%)	0.767	0.875	13 (37.1%)	13 (44.5%0	0.147	3.0
					(0.362-2.113)				(0.659-13.662)
	Married polygamous	4 (3.3%)	1 (1.6%)	0.472	0.438	3 (8.6%)	1 (3.4%)	1.000	1.0
					(0.044-4.378)				(0.073-13.664)
	Other (Widowed/Divorced)	1 (0.8%)	1 (1.6%)	0.698	1.75 (0.1-30.592)	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	0.118	0.250
									(0.094-0.666)
	Single (Never married)	21(17.5%)	12 (19.7%)		Ref	9 (25.7%)	3 (10.3%)		Ref
i. Occupation	Housewife	50 (41.7%)	31 (50.8%)	0.172	1.798	12 (34.5%)	18 (62.1%)	0.005	7.0
					(0.771-4.194)				(1.65-29.697)
	Small-scale business	25 (20.8%)	14 (23.0%)	0.326	1.624	7 (20.0%)	7 (24.1%)	0.055	4.667
	(fishing)				(0.614-4.292)				(0.916-23.785)
	Farmer	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	-	-	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	-	-
	Civil servant	7 (5.8%)	0 (0.0%)	0.130	0.744	1 (2.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0.645	0.824
					(0.618-0.894)				(0.661-1.026)
	Casual labourer	7 (5.8%)	4 (6.6%)	0.484	1.657	1 (2.9%)	1 (3.4%)	0.288	4.667
					(0.399-6.878)				(0.223-97.497)
	Students	2 (1.7%)	2 (1.7%)	0.301	2.9 (0.360-23.390)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		-
	Unemployed	29 (24.2%)	10 (16.4%)		Ref	14 (40.0%)	3 (10.3%)		Ref
iv. Main source of income	Business	34 (28.3%)	19 (31.1%)	0.838	1.118	10 (28.6%)	8 (27.6%)	1.000	1.000
					(0.385-3.248)				(0.2-5.004)
	Husband	52 (43.3%)	29 (47.5%)	0.833	1.118	13 (37.1%)	14 (48.3%)	0.700	1.346

Table 6: Different social demographic characteristics of mothers

					(0.404-3.077)				(0.296-6.131)
	Remittance	2 (1.7%)	0 (0.0%)	0.328	0.667	1 (2.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0.389	0.556
					(0.493-0.902)				(0.310-0.997)
	Relatives	18 (15.0%)	6 (9.8%)	0.538	0.667	6 (17.1%)	3 (10.3%)	0.629	0.625
					(0.183-2.434)				(0.093-4.222)
	Self service	14 (11.7%)	7 (11.5%)		Ref	5 (14.3%)	4 (13.8%)		Ref
v. Education	Secondary	50 (41.7%)	27 (44.3%)	0.708	0.880	17 (48.6%)	11 (37.9%)	0.346	0.644
					(0.45-1.719)				(0.211-1.728)
	Tertiary	26 (21.7%)	7 (11.5%)	0.089	0.439	4 (11.4%)	3 (10.3%)	0.674	0.700
					(0.168-1.149)				(0.132-3.699)
	Primary	44 (36.7%)	27 (44.3%)		Ref	14 (40.0%)	15 (51.6%)		Ref

4.3 Association between BV and preterm birth

A total of 228 study participants were diagnosed for bacterial vaginosis under Amsel criteria and Nugent scoring (gold standard). Two modes of gestational classification were used i.e. LMP and Ultra-S. This is as illustrated in table 7. However only 181 study participants had complete data, thus could be categorized if the delivered term or preterm. Majority of the study participants turned negative in both Amsel and Nugent.

				BIRTH OUTCOM	ME				
]	LMP		Ultra-S				
	Diagnosis	Term (%)	Preterm (%)	p-value (CI)	Term (%)	Preterm (%)	p-value (CI))		
	Negative	109 (90.8%)	50 (82.8%)	0.084 (0.09-0.07)	30 (85.7%)	20 (69.0%)	0.107 (0.135-0.095)		
BV Amsel	Positive	11 (9.2%)	11 (18%)		5 (14.3%)	9 (31.0%)			
	TOTAL	120(100%)	61(100%0		35(100%)	29(100%			
BV Nugent	Intermediate	39 (32.5%)	24 (39.4%)	0.080 (0.07-0.08)	9 (25.7%)	12 (41.4%)	0.211 (0.23-0.246)		
	Negative	70 (58.3%)	26 (42.6%)		21 (60.0%)	11 (37.9%)			
	Positive	11 (9.2%)	11 (18.0%)		5 (14.3%)	6 (20.7%)			
	TOTAL	120(100%)	61(100%)		35(100%)	29(100%)			
CI: Confider	nce interval								

Table 7: Comparison between bacterial vaginosis and gestation at birth

4.3.1 Profiling bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis among preterm births

Different bacteria were profiled in relation to whether study participants delivered term or preterm, as illustrated in figure 2. This was general irrespective of one being negative or intermediate or positive for BV. Under LMP, the highest bacterium among term deliveries was *Lactobacilli* 56% seconded by *G.vaginalis/Bacteroides* 23%. These corresponded to preterm deliveries. This is as illustrated in figure 3 and figure 6

Diverse bacteria were profiled in relation to whether study participants delivered term or preterm and if they were positive or intermediate for BV. Under LMP-BV positive, the highest bacteria among term and preterm deliveries were *G.vaginalis/Bacteroides*, both taking 50%. This is as illustrated in figure 5. Under Ultra-S-BV positive, *G.vaginalis/Bacteroides* had the highest percentage in both term and preterm deliveries. However, slightly higher among preterm deliveries 55%, compared to term deliveries 46%. This is as illustrated in figure 8. Profiling of bacteria under intermediate diagnosis of BV is as illustrated in figure 4 and 7.

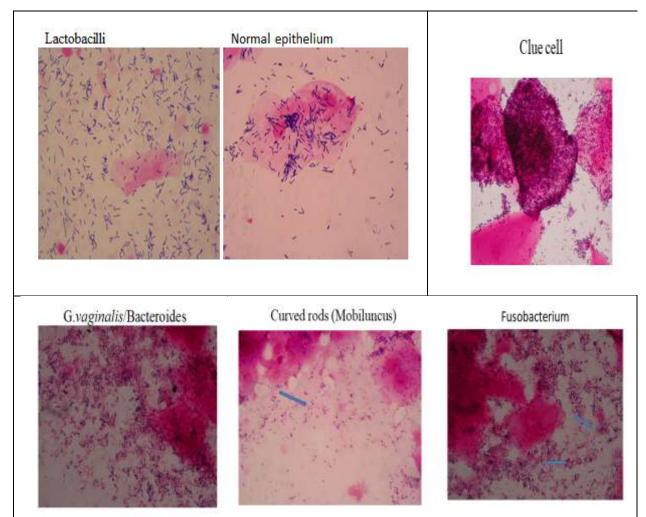


Figure 2: Bacteria identified and morphology of normal epithelium and a clue cell

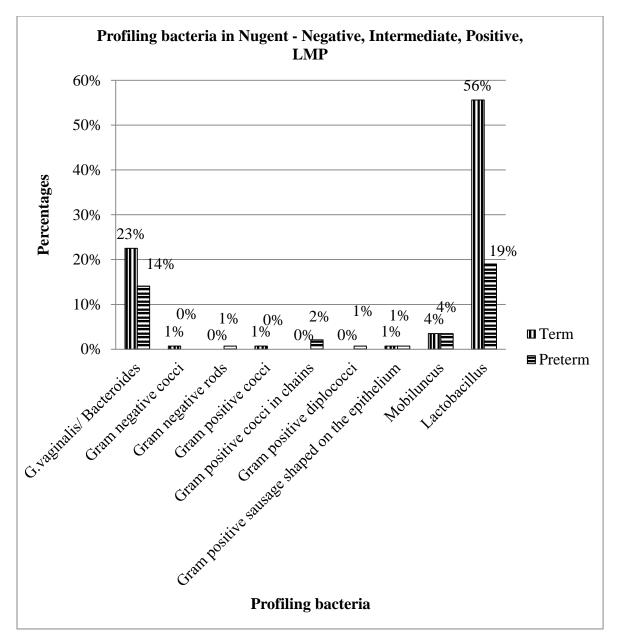


Figure 3: Profiling different of bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis with regard to normal delivery, gestation at birth (LMP)-in negative, intermediate and positive diagnosis of BV

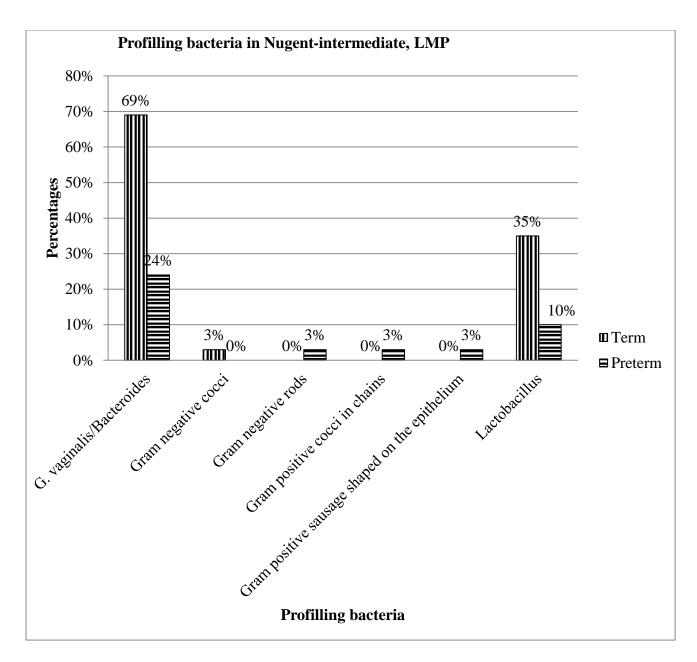


Figure 4: Profiling different bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis with regard to intermediate diagnosis, gestation at birth (LMP)

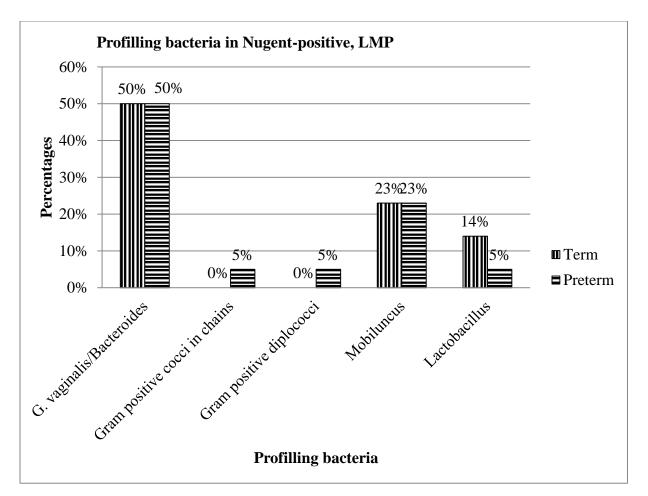


Figure 5: Profiling different bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis with regard to positive diagnosis, gestation at birth (LMP)

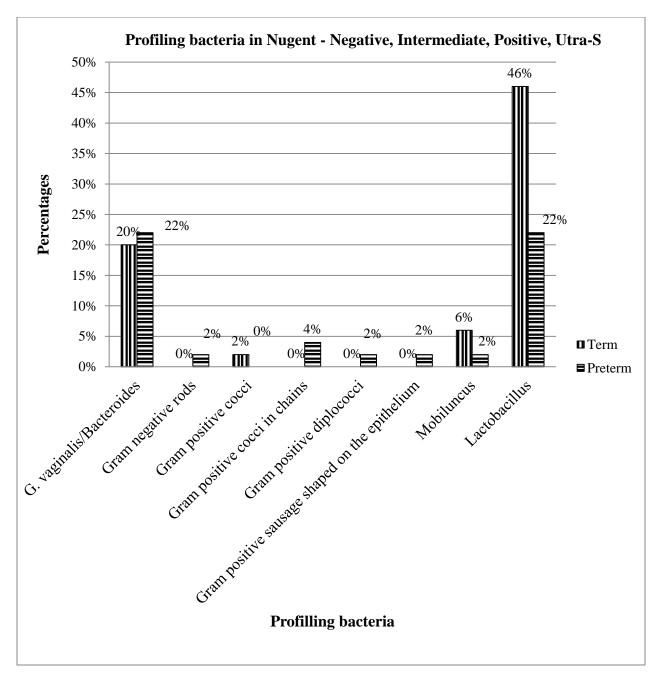


Figure 6: Profiling different bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis with regard to normal delivery, gestation at birth (Ultra-S)-in negative, intermediate and positive diagnosis of BV

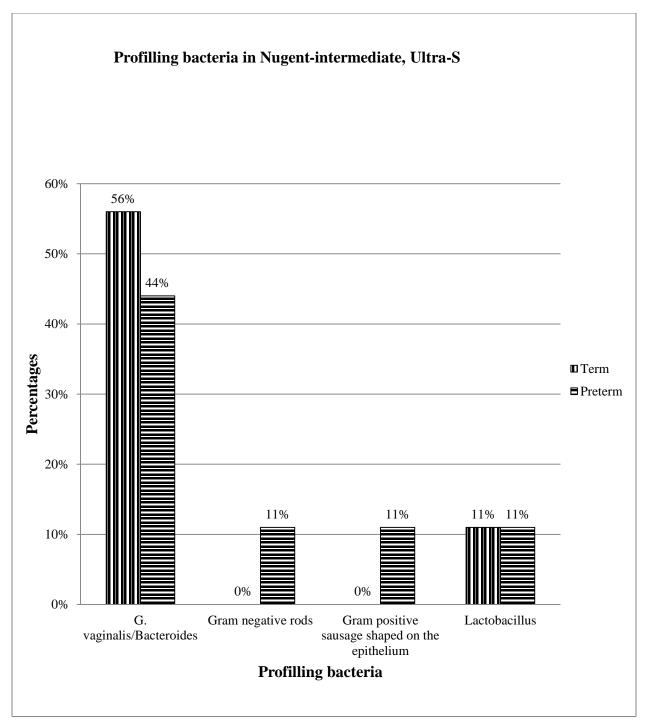


Figure 7: Profiling different bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis with regard to intermediate diagnosis, gestation at birth (Ultra-S)

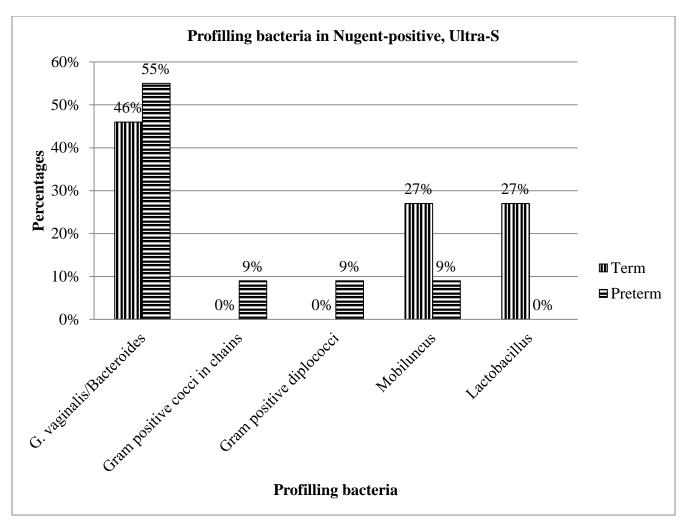


Figure 8: Profiling different bacteria associated with bacterial vaginosis with regard to positive diagnosis, gestation at birth (Ultra-S)

4.3.2 Performance characteristic of Amsel against Nugent

Amsel recorded a sensitivity and specificity of 58.6% and 98.3% respectively, as illustrated in table 8.

		BV Amsel criteria									
	Diagnosis	Negative	Positive	Total	p-value						
BV	Negative	119	2 (6.2%)	121	0.000						
Nugent	C	(60.7%)		(53.1%)							
criteria	Positive	12 (6.1%)	17 (53.1%)	29 (12.7%)							
	Intermediate	65 (33.2%)	13 (40.6%)	78 (34.2%)							
	Total	196 (100%)	32 (100%)	228 (100%)							

Sensitivity	Specificity
(119/121)*100=98.3%	(17/29)*100=58.6%

4.4 Proportions of preterm deliveries among bacterial vaginosis infections

The classification of delivering term or preterm was based on Ultra-S. A comparison was done in relation to infections and outcome of delivery. Figure 2 highlights the results.

Amsel and Nugent scoring were used in the diagnosis of BV. Using Nugent scoring, 11 participants had positive result. Of the 11 who turned positive, 5 (45.5%) delivered term while 6 (54.5%) delivered preterm. A total of 21 turned intermediate under Nugent scoring, of the 21 intermediates, 9 (42.9%) delivered term while 12 (57.1%) delivered preterm.

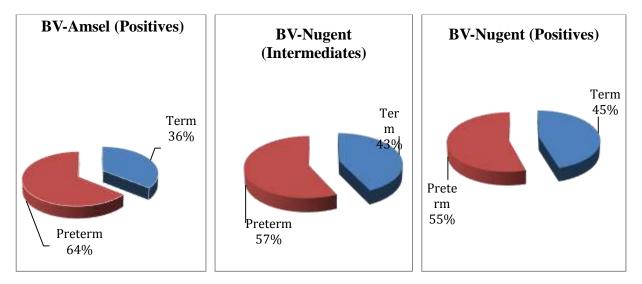


Figure 2: Proportion of preterm births among BV

4.5 Association between syphilis, HIV and PTB

Besides BV, two diseases namely syphilis and HIV were analysed in association of PTB. A total of 181 study participants were analysed for the two infections. In the two infections, majority turned negative, 186 (97.8%) and 147 (87.0%) on syphilis and HIV respectively under LMP.

However, there was no statistical difference in the two infections and missing data was excluded (pearsons chi-square test: p= 0.417 on syphilis and p=0.598 on HIV). The distribution of these infections is shown in Table 11.

Results		LMP	Ultra-S			
	Syphilis	HIV at Maternity	Syphilis	HIV at Maternity		
Negative	86 (97.9%)	147 (87.0%)	57 (98.3%)	45 (88.2%)		
Positive	4 (2.1%)	22 (13.0%)	1 (1.7%)	6 (11.8%)		
TOTAL	190 (100%)	169 (100%)	58 (100%)	51 (100%)		

 Table 9: Prevalence of Syphilis and HIV among LMP and Ultra-S study participants

4.6. Risk factors to bacterial vaginosis

Factors affecting preterm birth associated with bacterial vaginosis outlined as illustrated in table 12. The factors included; circumcision status of sex partner (p=0.566), vaginal irritation (0.155), lower abdominal pain (p=0.795), infected by any sexually transmitted disease (STI) currently or in the past (p=0.694), what you use for bathing (p=0.887), what you use for scrubbing your body (p=0.572), were found not have statistical difference. However a statistical difference of p=0.045 was captured on use of nylon panty material.

Table 10: Different risk factors to bacterial vaginosis

]	BIRTH OUTCOME				
	Variables		LMP					Ultra	a-S
		Term svd	Preterm svd	p-value	OR (95% CI of OR)	Term svd	Preterm svd	p- value	OR (95% CI of OR)
i Circumcision status of the	Circumcised	83	39	0.566	0.790	27	20	0.461	0.658
male partner		(69.2%)	(63.9%)			(77.1%)	(69.0%)		
					(0.412-1.515)				(0.216-2.006)
	Non circumcised	37	22		Ref	8	9 (31.0%)		Ref
		(30.0%)	(36.1%)			(22.9%)			
ii Vaginal irritation	Yes	42	28	0.155	1.576	12	13	0.390	1.557 (0.566-4.281)
		(35.0%)	(45.9%)			(34.3%)	(44.8%)		
					(0.841-2.953)				
	No	78	33		Ref	23	16		Ref
		(65.0%)	(54.1%)			(65.7%)	(55.6%)		
iii Lower abdominal pain	Yes	81	40	0.795	0.917 (0.478-1.760)	22	20	0.609	1.313 (0.462-3.728)
•		(67.5%)	(65.6%)			(62.9%)	(69.0%)		
	No	39	21		Ref	13	9 (31.0%)		Ref
		(32.5%)	(34.4%)			(37.1%)			
iv Infected with any sexually	Yes	12 (5.7%)	5 (13.8%)	0.694	0.804 (0.270-2.395)	2 (5.7%)	4 (13.8%)	0.270	2.640 (0.447-15.579)
transmitted disease	No	108	56		Ref	33	25		Ref
		(94.3%)	(86.2%)			(94.3%)	(86.2%)		
v Type of STI infected with	Gonorrhoea	4 (3.3%)	3 (4.9%)	0.679		1 (2.9%)	2 (6.9%)	0.544	
	HIV	3 (2.5%)	0 (0.0%)			0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		
	HIV and Syphilis	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)			0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		
	Syphilis	4 (3.3%)	2 (3.3%)			1 (2.9%)	2 (6.9%)		
vi Presence of fishy smell	Yes	25	17	0.289	1.468 (0.720-2.993)	8	8 (27.6%)	0.664	1.286 (0.414-3.995)
from the vaginal		(20.8%)	(27.9%)			(22.9%)			
	No	95	44		Ref	27	21		Ref
		(79.2%)	(72.1%)			(77.1%)	(72.4%)		
vii Use when bathing	Soap and water	117	59	0.995	1.009 (0.090-11.351)	34	27	0.267	2.259 (1.705-2.994)
		(97.5%)	(96.7%)			(97.1%)	(93.1%)		
	Water and other detergents(liquid	1 (0.8%)	1 (1.6%)	0.709	2.000 (0.051-78.250)	1 (2.9%)	1 (3.4%)	0.386	2.000 (0.500-7.997)
	soap, body deodorants)								
	Water only	2 (1.7%)	1 (1.6%)		Ref	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.4%)		Ref

viii Use for scrubbing your	Inner pant	27	12	0.871	1.079 (0.429-2.713)	10	5 (17.2%)	0.200	0.389 (0.090-1.673)
oody		(22.5%)	(19.7%)			(28.6%)			
	Sponge	59	35	0.339	1.441 (0.681-3.049)	18	15	0.478	0.648 (0.195-2.157)
		(49.2%)	(57.4%)			(51.4%)	(51.7%)		
	A piece of cloth	34	14		Ref	7	9 (31.0%)		Ref
		(28.3%)	(23.0%)			(20.0%)			
ix Material of panties	Nylon	11 (9.2%)	4 (6.6%)	0.614	0.735 (0.222-2.435)	4	0 (0.0%)	0.045	0.480 (0.360-0.641)
						(11.4%)			
	Both cotton and nylon	16	11	0.444	1.390 (0.597-3.236)	7	3 (10.3%)	0.204	0.396 (0.092-1.707)
		(13.3%)	(18.0%)			(20.0%)			
	Cotton	93	46		Ref	24	26		Ref
		(77.5%)	(75.4%)			(68.6%)	(89.7%)		
x Washing genitals	Yes	67	38	0.405	1.307 (0.696-2.456)	17	19	0.174	2.012 (0.731-5.539)
		(55.8%)	(62.3%)			(48.6%)	(65.5%)		
	No	53	23		Ref	18	10		Ref
		(44.2%)	(37.7%)			(51.4%)	(34.5%)		
xii What you use to wash	Soap and water	73	37	0.982	0.993 (0.528-1.866)	23	17	0.560	0.739 (0.267-2.043)
vaginal		(60.8%)	(60.7%)			(65.7%)	(58.6%)		
	Other detergents	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		-	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		-
	Water only	47	24		Ref	12	12		Ref
	-	(39.2%)	(39.3%)			(34.3%)	(41.4%)		
xiii Washing vaginal	Yes	72	39	0.607	1.182 (0.625-2.236)	21	19	0.650	1.267 (0.456-3.518)
immediately after sex		(60.0%)	(63.9%)			(60.0%)	(65.5%)		
	No	48	22		Ref	14	10		Ref
		(40.0%)	(36.1%)			(40.0%)	(34.5%)		

4.7 Maternal and obstetrics risk factors for PTB

Different maternal and obstetric factors predisposing mothers to preterm births were outlined as illustrated in table 13. Out of the variables, history of preterm birth (p=0.049), condom use in the last sexual act (p=0.022), parity 3+0 (p=0.013), parity 4+0 (p=0.003), gravidae 1 (p=0.034) and gravidae 2 (p=0.001) under ultra-sound were captured to have a statistical difference. Under LMP hormonal and non-hormonal type of contraceptive (p=0.046) and parity 4+0 (p=0.031) were captured to have a statistical difference. However, the rest of the risk factors there was no statistical difference.

Table 11: Different maternal and obstetric factors	predisposing	mothers to pr	eterm births
--	--------------	---------------	--------------

					BIRTH OUTCOME				
		LMP				Ultra-S			
		Term svd	Preterm svd	p-value	OR (95% CI of	Term svd	Preterm svd	p-value	OR (95% CI of OR)
Va	riables				OR)				
i. Age of sex debut	Less than 18 years	57 (47.5%)	30 (49.2%)	0.831	1.070 (0.577-1.982)	19 (54.3%)	15 (51.7%)	0.838	0.902 (0.337-2.419)
	More than 18 years	63 (52.5%)	31 (50.8%)		Ref	16 (45.7%)	14 (48.3%)		Ref
ii No. of sex partners in the last six months	1	110 (91.7%)	56 (91.8%)	0.284	3.055 (0.359-25.996)	31 (88.6%)	28 (96.6%)	0.065	1.903 (1.493-2.426)
	More than 1	4 (3.3%)	4 (6.6%)	0.143	6.000 (0.478-75.344)	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.4%)		-
	None	6 (5.0%)	1 (1.6%)		Ref	4 (11.4%)	0 (0.0%)		Ref
iii History of PTB	Yes	12 (10.0%)	9 (14.8%)	0.608	1.544 (0.611- 3.901)	3 (8.6%)	8 (27.6%)	<mark>0.049</mark>	3.683 (0.872-15.556)
	No	105 (87.5%)	51 (83.6%)		Ref	29 (82.9%)	21 (72.4%)		Ref
	N/A (primigravida)	3 (2.5%)	1 (1.6%)			3 (8.6%)	0 (0.0%)		
iv Period between last pregnancy	Less than 1 year	21 (17.5%)	12 (19.7%)	0.919	1.126 (0.494-2.565)	4 (11.4%)	5 (17.2%)	0.108	1.125 (0.261-4.848)
	N/A (primigravida)	34 (28.3%)	16 (26.2%)		-	13 (37.1%)	4 (13.8%)		-
	More than 1	65 (54.2%)	33 (54.1%)		Ref	18 (51.4%)	20 (69.0%)		Ref
v Emotional stress	Yes	59 (49.2%)	32 (52.5%)	0.675	1.141 (0.616-2.114)	16 (45.7%)	17 (58.6%)	0.304	1.682 (0.623-4.546)
	No	61 (50.8%)	29 (47.5%)		Ref	19 (54.3%)	12 (41.4%)		Ref.
vi Contraceptive use	Yes	78 (65.0%)	33 (54.1%)	0.155	0.635 (0.339-1.189)	20 (57.1%)	19 (65.5%)	0.494	1.425 (0.515-3.940)
	No	42 (35.0%)	28 (45.9%)		Ref	15 (42.9%)	10 (34.5%)		Ref
vii Type of contraceptive	Hormonal	54 (71.1%)	25 (75.8%)	0.059	1.463 (1.259-1.700)	18 (90.0%)	14 (73.7%)	0.383	1.778 (1.310-2.413)
	Hormonal and Non- hormonal	14 (18.4%)	8 (24.2%)	<mark>0.046</mark>	1.571 (1.146-2.155)	1 (5.0%)	5 (26.3%)	0.088	6.000 (1.003-35.908)
	Non-hormonal	8 (10.5%)	0 (0.0%)		Ref	1 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)		Ref

viii Infertility treatment	Yes	5 (4.2%)	3 (4.9%)	0.816	1.190 (0.275-5.152)	1 (2.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0.359	0.540 (0.430-0.678)
	No	115	58 (95.1%)		Ref	34 (97.1%)	29 (100%)		Ref
		(95.8%)							
ix Condom use in the	Yes	22 (18.3%)	18 (29.5%)	0.087	1.865	3 (8.6%)	9 (31.0%)	<mark>0.022</mark>	4.8
last sexual act?					(0.909-3.826)				(1.159-19.879)
	No	98 (81.7%)	43 (70.5%)		Ref	32 (91.4%)	20 (69.0%)		Ref
x Parity	0+1	4 (3.3%)	2 (3.3%)	0.947	0.941	1 (2.9%)	1 (3.4%)	0.457	3.000
					(0.156-5.673)				(0.15-59.890)
	0+3	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.6%)	0.178	0.347	0(0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	0.110	0.25
					(0.236-0.509)				(0.107-0.584)
	1+0	39 (32.5%)	18 (29.5%)	0.734	0.869	15 (42.9%)	10 (34.5%)	0.323	2.000
					(0.386-1.955)				(0.5-7.997)
	1+1	5 (4.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0.112	0.653	1 (2.9%)	0(0.0%)	0.567	0.750
					(0.533-0.801)				(0.565-0.995)
	2+0	28 (23.3%)	12 (19.7%)	0.638	0.807	5 (14.3%)	5 (17.2%)	0.192	3.000
					(0.329-1.977)				(0.560-16.071)
	2+1	1 (0.8%)	1 (1.6%)	0.657	1.882	0(0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	0.110	0.250
					(0.111-32.010)				(0.107-0.584)
	3+0	7 (5.8%)	2 (3.3%)	0.464	0.538	1 (2.9%)	5 (17.2%)	<mark>0.013</mark>	15.00
					(0.100-2.880)				(1.325-169.870)
	3+1	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)	0.468	0.653	0(0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	0.110	0.250
					(0.533-0.801)				(0.107-0.584)
	4+0	2 (1.7%)	6 (9.8%)	<mark>0.031</mark>	5.647	0(0.0%)	5 (17.2%)	<mark>0.003</mark>	0.250
					(1.026-31.066)				(0.107-0.584)
	5+0	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.6%)	0.178	0.347	0(0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	0.110	0.250
					(0.236-0.509)				(0.107-0.584)
	5+1	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.6%)	0.178	0.347	0(0.0%)	1 (3.4%)	0.110	0.250
					(0.236-0.509)				(0.107-0.584)
	6+0	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		-	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	-	-
	0+0	32 (26.7%	17 (27.9%)		Ref	12 (34.3%)	4 (13.8%)		Ref
xi Gravidae	1	35 (29.2%)	19 (31.1%)	0.463	1.543	15 (42.9%)	6 (20.7%)	<mark>0.034</mark>	1.4
					(1.268-1.878)				(1.068-1.835)
	2	41 (34.2%)	18 (29.5%)	0.509	1.439	6 (17.1%)	9 (31.0%)	0.001	2.5
					(1.215 (1.704)				(1.345-4.646)
	3	31 (25.8%)	13 (21.3%)	0.519	1.419	1 (2.9%)	5 (17.2%)	0.000	6.000
					(1.172-1.719)				(1.003-35.908)
	4	8 (6.7%)	3 (4.9%)	0.546	1.375	0(0.0%)	2 (6.9%)		-

				(0.958-1.975)			
5	3 (2.5%)	6 (9.8%)	0.197	3.000	0(0.0%)	5 (17.2%)	-
				(1.191-7.558)			
6	0 (0.0%)	2 (3.3%)	0.083	-	0(0.0%)	2 (6.9%)	-
7	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)		-	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	-
0	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)		Ref	13 (37.1%)	0 (0.0%)	Ref
P<0.05=signific	P<0.05=significant; OR = odds ratio; CI = Confidence interval; ref = reference category						

4.6.2 1 Relationship between body mass index of expectant mothers and preterm births

Weight and height measurements were obtained from the records and used to compute body mass index (BMI). BMI was used to determine if one was underweight or obese as these are known risk factors for preterm deliveries.

Body mass index was compared between term and preterm deliveries with the use of independent t-test for LMP and Ultra-S. The results are shown in table 14 and 15. A total of 181 normal deliveries were determined by LMP. Of the 181, a total 64 did an Ultra-S. Under LMP, the mean body mass index for term and preterm were 26.2 and 25.8 respectively, which can be classified as overweight. However there were no statistical differences noted between the two groups (t-test; p=0.853).

Under Ultra-S, the mean body mass index for term and preterm were 26.4 and 26.5 respectively, which can be classified as under overweight. However these means were not statistically different (t-test; p=0.961).

Gestation classification	Ν	Mean	p value
Term	120	26.205	0.853
Preterm	61	25.815	

Gestation classification	Ν	Mean	p value
Term svd	35	26.416	0.961
Preterm	29	26.491	

5.0 DISCUSSION

PTB is the leading cause of prenatal mortality and morbidity globally. In spite of efforts to prevent PTB in most nations, the incidences of PTB have been on the rise. Infections are the leading causes of PTB. Among the infectious agents, bacteria constitute the largest number of microorganisms associated with PTB. The most prevalent lower genital infection that causes PTB is bacterial vaginosis (BV. In this study, BV prevalence was found to be 9.2% and 18% among the term and preterm deliveries respectively, under LMP. Under Ultra-S, BV prevalence was 14.3% and 20.6% under term and preterm deliveries. The most common bacterium was found to be *lactobacilli* in both term and preterm deliveries. However among BV positive and intermediate, *G. vaginalis/Bacteroides* were dominant in both LMP and ultra-s. A number of risk factors were looked into such as age (31-40), history of preterm births, and use of nylon panty material under ultra-S and hormonal and non-hormonal use of contraceptives under LMP were found to have a statistical significance.

Among the social demographic factors, age was reported to be associated with PTB, in particular age between 31-40. This was similar in other studies despite of differences in geographical location, such as Europe, Canada and Nigeria (Saurel-cubizolles *et al.*, 2004; WHO, 2012; Butali *et al.*, 2016; Cnattingius, Vixner and Norman, 2016; Michael *et al.*, 2017; Fuchs *et al.*, 2018). However in other studies there was no association (Aderoba, Olokor and Olagbuji, 2017; Goisis *et al.*, 2017). The disparity could be as a result to difference in the social economic status. Interestingly, there was variation per study even within the same country on the minimum gestation age of a preterm birth. For some it was 22 weeks while others it was 28 weeks (Butali *et al.*, 2016; Aderoba, Olokor and Olagbuji, 2017). In addition housewife under occupation was reported to be associated with PTB; however no association has been reported from other studies

The prevalence of BV in this study was 12%. A study done in Ethiopia among pregnant women and the same age group of 18-40 had a slightly higher prevalence of 19.4%. The study compared the prevalence of BV between symptomatic and asymptomatic, which was 31.6% and 15.9% respectively. In addition a higher percentage of pregnant women were asymptomatic for BV (Ababa *et al.*, 2014). Moreover some studies had a higher prevalence of 37% among HIV-1 pregnant women in Kenya, 48.6% among normal women in Ethiopia (Bitew *et al.*, 2017) and 29.2% among normal women aged between 14-49 years in USA (Quillan *et al.*, 2007). A similarity

in the two studies done in Ethiopia and USA is that BV prevalence is lower among young girls compared to older women. In this study, BV prevalence was higher among preterm deliveries similar to a study done in Nigeria (Aderoba, Olokor and Olagbuji, 2017).

BV has been consistently associated with PTB. However in this study there was no statistically significant association as documented in quite a number of studies (Shayo *et al.*, 2012; Freitas *et al.*, 2018; Mcelrath *et al.*, 2018). Unlike recent studies, a number of past studies have proclaimed an association between BV and PTB (Obert *et al.*, 2000; Hebb *et al.*, 2004; Bahram et al., 2009; Margolis and Fredricks, 2014; Aderoba et al., 2017). This provides a limelight for more research to be done on what has changed to lead to no association. Interestingly a study done in India and Sweden, reported a significance of BV and PTB in early pregnancy period of 16-20 weeks and no significance in late pregnancy period of 28-32 weeks (Jacobsson *et al.*, 200;Gupta *et al.*, 2016). The difference in the findings could be as a result of difference in the geographic location, race and clinical characteristics. In addition the prevalence of BV also varies within the same study population groups (Bitew *et al.*, 2017).

Different bacteria associated to BV were profiled in association to PTB. Bacteria profiled included Lactobacilli, G.*vaginalis*/Bacteroides, Mobiluncus and Fusobacteria. However, there was no statistical difference between term and preterm deliveries. The most dominant bacteria were lactobacillus, more so among the term deliveries. However, among those who were positive and intermediate for BV, *G.vaginalis*/Bacteroides was the commonest among term and preterm deliveries under gestation by both LMP and Ultra-S. The same findings were evident in Tanzania, despite of the lack of categorization of the common bacteria between term and preterm deliveries (Shayo *et al.*, 2012). A study done in USA reported *Mobiluncus* bacteria associated to BV, to have a significance of about 2-fold increased risk to PTB, despite absence of statistical significance (Foxman *et al.*, 2014).

In this study, bacterial vaginosis was not associated with risk factors such as: circumcision status of the male partner, vaginal irritation, fishy smell from the vaginal, lower abdominal pain, history of STI, washing of vaginal immediately after sex, items used when bathing and washing vaginal. This was an interesting finding since the mentioned factors predispose one to BV yet little has been done in comparison to term and preterm deliveries. Some studies have reported an association with the use of cloth for intravaginal cleansing in 1 to >28 times a week, (Clelland *et al.*, 2008)

and fishy smell from the vaginal (Schwebke and Desmond, 2005). The differences could be attributed to geographical and study population differences. Some studies used pregnant women while others used non-pregnant women female sex workers. However, a statistical difference was captured in use of nylon panties as risk factor to bacterial vaginosis. This was equivalent to other studies (Yu et al., 2011; Bardin *et al.*, 2013).

In our study we found some maternal and obstetrics risk factors that were associated to PTB. These included history of PTB, condom use, parity, gravidae, hormonal and non-hormonal type of contraceptive. Many studies have reported an association of PTB and history of PTB (Saurel-cubizolles *et al.*, 2004; Hamad et al., 2005; Zhang *et al.*, 2012; Phillips *et al.*, 2017). However, a prospective study done in Sweden recorded no association on PTB and history of PTB (Larsson *et al.*, 2007) Association of condom use in the last sexual act and PTB has not been reported from other studies. However, a study done in USA reported consistent use of condom, increased recurrence of BV (Jane R. Schwebke, 2009) while other studies have reported reduction BV (Mart et al., 2004; Horne *et al.*, 2009). Association of gravidae and PTB was reported in this study. However, other studies have reported no association (Horne *et al.*, 2009; Koss *et al.*, 2015). Parity was captured to have a statistical significance in this study just like other studies (Fredricks, 2011; Wagura *et al.*, 2018) Hormonal and non-hormonal use of contraceptive has been associated with PTB like a study done by WHO (Mohamed *et. al.*, 2012)

Besides BV, the study was in a position to capture data on HIV and candidiasis. However, there was no statistical difference in both. HIV prevalence was 13% and 11% under LMP and Ultra-S respectively. This is slightly high compared to the HIV prevalence of 6.1% among women who had at least one live birth in the last 5 years in different counties in Kenya, (Sirengo *et al.*, 2016). Difference in the prevalence could be as a result of dissimilarity in the study populations.

One participant was captured to be positive for candidiasis. The participant delivered term, however she was excluded from the study since she delivered through caesarean.

5.1 STUDY STRENGTHS

The main strength of this study is the vigor with which it arrived at the diagnosis of BV. This is unlike a number of studies. Two main diagnosis were used, Amsel and Nugent (gold standard). Moreover, profiling of the different bacteria associated to PTB was highlighted and a comparison was made between the term and PTB cohorts. Hence, very few studies have profiled bacteria associated with BV in relation to PTB.

In addition, the study extensively highlighted risk factors that predispose women to BV and PTB. This has not been done in any of the studies. Most studies focus on risk factors to BV or PTB separately but not both. Thus through this study more light has been shed.

5.2 STUDY CONCLUSION

The study was in a position to profile different bacterial associated with bacterial vaginosis in relation to term and preterm deliveries. Lactobacillus was dominant in the two cohorts. However, study participants diagnosed for BV positive or intermediate *G.vaginalis*/Bacteroides was the most dominant.

Moreover, G.vaginalis/Bacteroides were slightly higher among the preterms compared to terms.

BV prevalence was found to be 12% among women about to deliver. Despite the low prevalence, high percentages (55%) who were diagnosed positive of BV delivered preterm.

Ages, house wife under occupation, history of PTB, nylon panty material, parity, gravidae, hormonal and non-hormonal use of contraceptive, condom use in the last sexual act were found to be significantly associated with preterm deliveries. Vaginal irritation, fishy smell from the vaginal, lower abdominal pain, history of STI, washing of vaginal immediately after sex, items used when bathing and washing vaginal were found not to be significantly associated to PTB.

5.3 STUDY LIMITATION

The study had the limitation of not drawing causality as a result of the study design. In addition microscopy is limited to identifying a wider array of bacteria associated with BV.

5.4 RECOMMENDATION

The study recommends a replication of the study in a longitudinal study that allows drawing causal relationships. In addition use of loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP) or Multiplex Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) that helps in the identification of different species of bacteria and their quantity, since BV is an imbalance of the aerobes and anaerobes.

More research needs to be done since a discrepancy is arising on association of BV and PTB. Recent studies are reporting no association while past studies reported BV to be associated with PTB. More needs to be done on what has caused the shift.

Further research is needed in condom use and association to PTB. Some studies have reported consistent use of condom increases recurrence of BV while other studies are reporting reduction of BV.

5.5 STUDY RESULTS DISSEMINATION PLAN

The results of this study will be disseminated through print publication in peer review journal and as well as in conferences and seminars.

6.0 REFERENCE:

Ababa, A. *et al.* (2014) 'Prevalence of bacterial vaginosis among pregnant women attending antenatal care in Tikur Anbessa', *BioMed Central*, 7(822), pp. 1–5. Available at: http://www.biomedcentral.com/1756-0500/7/822.

Aderoba, A. *et al.* (2016) 'Bacterial vaginosis in spontaneous preterm and term birth: A case– control study', *Tropical Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, 33(3), p. 297. doi: 10.4103/0189-5117.199820.

Aderoba, A. K., Olokor, O. E. and Olagbuji, B. N. (2017) 'Bacterial vaginosis in spontaneous preterm and term birth : A case – control study', *Tropical Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, 33(3), pp. 297–301. doi: 10.4103/0189-5117.199820.

Africa, C. W. J., Nel, J. and Stemmet, M. (2014) 'Anaerobes and Bacterial Vaginosis in Pregnancy : Virulence Factors Contributing to Vaginal Colonisation', *International Journal of Environment Research Public Health*, 11, pp. 6979–7000. doi: 10.3390/ijerph110706979.

Agrawal, V. and Hirsch, E. (2012) 'Intrauterine infection and preterm labor.', *Seminars in fetal* & *neonatal medicine*, 17(1), pp. 12–19. doi: 10.1016/j.siny.2011.09.001.

Agrawala, V. and Hirscha, E. (2012) 'Intrauterine infection and preterm labor', *Seminars in Fetal and Neonatal Medicine*, 17(1), pp. 12–19. doi: 10.1016/j.siny.2011.09.001.Intrauterine.

Aktepe, O. C., Cevriog, A. S. and Altindis, M. (2004) 'Bacterial vaginosis : comparison of Pap smear and microbiological test results', *Modern Pathology*, 17(July 2003), pp. 857–860. doi: 10.1038/modpathol.3800132.

Aldunate, M. *et al.* (2015) 'Antimicrobial and immune modulatory effects of lactic acid and short chain fatty acids produced by vaginal microbiota associated with eubiosis and bacterial vaginosis', *Frontiers in physiology*, 6(June), pp. 1–23. doi: 10.3389/fphys.2015.00164.

Antay-bedregal, D. and Camargo-revello, E. (2015) 'Associated factors vs risk factors in crosssectional studies', *Dove Press journal Patient Prefrence and Adherence*, 9, pp. 1635–1636. Avila-campos, M. J. *et al.* (2006) 'Pathogenicity of Fusobacterium nucleatum : General aspects of its virulence', *International Journal of Probiotics and Prebiotics*, 1(2), pp. 105–112.

De Backer, E. *et al.* (2007) 'Quantitative determination by real-time PCR of four vaginal Lactobacillus species, Gardnerella vaginalis and Atopobium vaginae indicates an inverse relationship between L. gasseri and L. iners', *BMC Microbiology*, 7(1), p. 115. doi: 10.1186/1471-2180-7-115.

Bagnall, P. and Rizzolo, D. (2017) 'Bacterial vaginosis: A practical review', *Journal of the American Academy of Physician Assistants*, 30(12), pp. 15–21. doi: 10.1097/01.JAA.0000526770.60197.fa.

Bahram, Hamid and Zohre (2009) 'Prevalence of Bacterial Vaginosis and Impact of Genital Hygiene Practices in Non-Pregnant Women in Zanjan, Iran', *Oman Medical Journal*, 24(4), pp. 288–293. doi: 10.5001/omj.2009.58.

Bala, R., Kaur, M. and Nagpal, M. (2017) 'Can preterm birth be gainfully prevented ?', *International Journal of Reproduction, Contraception, Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 6(1), pp. 6–
14. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.18203/2320-1770.ijrcog20164500.

Baljinder Kaur, B. M. (2015) 'Bacterial Vaginosis', *Clinical Microbiology: Open Access*, 04(03), pp. 3–4. doi: 10.4172/2327-5073.1000e124.

Bardin, M. G. *et al.* (2013) 'A ssociation of sanitary pads and clothing with vulvovaginitis', *J bras Doenças Sex Transm*, 25(7), pp. 123–127. doi: 10.5533/DST-2177-8264-201325302.

Barros, F. C. *et al.* (2010) 'Global report on preterm birth and stillbirth (3 of 7): evidence for effectiveness of interventions', *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*, 10(Suppl 1), p. S3. doi: 10.1186/1471-2393-10-S1-S3.

Bautista, C. T. *et al.* (2016) 'Bacterial vaginosis: A synthesis of the literature on etiology, prevalence, risk factors, and relationship with chlamydia and gonorrhea infections', *Military Medical Research*. Military Medical Research, 3(1), pp. 1–10. doi: 10.1186/s40779-016-0074-5.

Bennett, K. W. and Eley, A. (1993) 'Fusobacteria : n e w taxonomy and related diseases', *J. Med. Microbiol*, 39(1993), pp. 246–254.

Bhat, G., Kotigadde, S. and Shenoy, S. (2011) 'Comparison of the Methods of Diagnosis of Bacterial Vaginosis', *Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research*, 5(3), pp. 498–501.

Bitew, A. *et al.* (2017) 'Prevalence of Bacterial Vaginosis and Associated Risk Factors among Women Complaining of Genital Tract Infection', *International Journal of Microbiology*. Hindawi, 2017(ii), p. 8. doi: 10.1155/2017/4919404.

Blencowe, H. *et al.* (2012) 'Country data and rankings for preterm birth Embargo until May 2nd 2012', '*Born too Soon: The Global Action Report on Preterm Birth*', pp. 6–9. Available at: http://www.who.int/pmnch/media/news/2012/201204_borntoosoon_countryranking.pdf.

Blencowe, H. *et al.* (2013) 'Born Too Soon: The global epidemiology of 15 million preterm births', *Reproductive Health*, 10(Suppl 1), p. S2. doi: 10.1186/1742-4755-10-S1-S2.

Bolstad, A. I., Jensen, H. B. and Bakken, V. (1996) 'Taxonomy, biology, and periodontal aspects of Fusobacterium nucleatum', *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 9(1), pp. 55–71.

Bretelle, F. *et al.* (2018) 'High Atopobium vaginae and Gardnerella vaginalis Vaginal Loads Are Associated With Preterm Birth', *Clinical infectious diseases*, 60(August), pp. 7–860. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciu966.

Briselden, A. M. *et al.* (1992) 'Sialidases (neuraminidases) in bacterial vaginosis and bacterial vaginosis-associated microflora', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 30(3), pp. 663–666.

Brook, I and Brook, Itzhak (1996) 'Veillonella infections in children . These include : Veillonella Infections in Children', *Microbiology*, 34(5), pp. 1283–1285.

Brown, H. L. *et al.* (2004) 'Clinical evaluation of Affirm VPIII in the detection and identification of Trichomonas vaginalis, Gardnerella vaginalis, and Candida species in vaginitis/vaginosis', *Infectious Disease in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 12(1), pp. 17–21. doi: 10.1080/1064744042000210375.

Butali, A. *et al.* (2016) 'Characteristics and risk factors of preterm births in a tertiary center in Lagos, Nigeria', *Pan African Medical journal*, 8688, pp. 1–8. doi: 10.11604/pamj.2016.24.1.8382.

Carr, P. L., Felsenstein, D. and Friedman, R. H. (1998) 'Evaluation and management of vaginitis', *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 13(5), pp. 335–346. doi: 10.1046/j.1525-1497.1998.00101.x.

Catlin, B. W. (1992) 'Gardnerella vaginalis: Characteristics, Clinical Considerations, and Controversies', *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 5(3), pp. 213–237.

Chawla, R. *et al.* (2013) 'Comparison of Hay' s Criteria with Nugent' s Scoring System for Diagnosis of Bacterial Vaginosis', *BioMed Research International*, 2013, p. 5. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2013/365194.

Clelland, R. S. M. C. *et al.* (2008) 'HIV-1-Seronegative African Women', *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 35(6), pp. 617–623. doi: 10.1097/OLQ.0b013e31816907fa.

Cnattingius, S., Vixner, L. and Norman, M. (2016) 'Advanced maternal age increases the risk of very preterm birth , irrespective of parity : a population-based register study', *International Journal of Obsterics and Gynaecology*, pp. 1235–1244. doi: 10.1111/1471-0528.14368.

Dennise F, Mandell, D. and B. (2015) Gardnerella-vaginalis-science-direct-topic.pdf.

Dhotre, S. V. . *et al.* (2016) 'Susceptibility, resistance and treatment strategy for infections caused by Viridans Group Streptococci - A review', *Journal of Krishna Institute of Medical Sciences University*, 5(4), pp. 1–9. Available at: http://www.jkimsu.com/jkimsu-vol5no4/JKIMSU,Vol.5,No.4,Oct-Dec2016Page1-

9.pdf%5Cnhttp://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=emed18b&NEWS= N&AN=612650841.

Dijk, J. A. W. Van, Anderko, L. and Stetzer, F. (2010) 'The Impact of Prenatal Care', *Journal of Obstetric Gynecologic and Neonatal Nursing*. Elsevier Masson SAS, 40(1), pp. 98–108. doi: 10.1111/j.1552-6909.2010.01206.x.

Donders, G. G. *et al.* (2000) 'Relationship of bacterial vaginosis and mycoplasmas to the risk of spontaneous abortion', *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 183(2), pp. 431–437. doi: 10.1067/mob.2000.105738.

Dorn, B. R., Leung, K. P. and Progulske-Fox, A. (1998) 'Invasion of human oral epithelial cells by Prevotella intermedia', *Infection and Immunity*, 66(12), pp. 6054–6057. Available at: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-0031741638&partnerID=40&md5=1e601073110a31a7f6ceb4748c794e5b.

Easmon, C. S., Hay, P. E. and Ison, C. A. (1992) 'Bacterial vaginosis: a diagnostic approach', *Genitourinary medicine*, 68(2), pp. 134–138.

Ekmekci, E. and Gencdal, S. (2018) 'Placental abruption and preterm premature rupture of membranes : How much frequent ?', *Journal of Clinical and Molecular Medicine*, 1(2), pp. 1–2. doi: 10.15761/JCMM.1000108.

Esbroeck, M. *et al.* (1996) 'Polyphasic approach to the classification and identification of Gardnerella vaginalis and unidentified Gardnerella vaginalis-like coryneforms present in bacterial vaginosis', *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology*, 46(July 1996), pp. 675–682. doi: 10.1099/00207713-46-3-675.

Ferris, M. J. *et al.* (2007) 'Cultivation-independent analysis of changes in bacterial vaginosis flora following metronidazole treatment', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 45(3), pp. 1016–1018. doi: 10.1128/JCM.02085-06.

Foxman, B. *et al.* (2014) 'BVAB3, race, and risk of preterm birth in a high-risk cohort', *The American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology*. Elsevier Inc, 210(3), pp. 226.e1-226.e7. doi: 10.1016/j.ajog.2013.10.003.

Fredricks, D. N. *et al.* (2007) 'Targeted PCR for Detection of Vaginal Bacteria Associated with Bacterial Vaginosis', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 45(10), pp. 3270–3276. doi: 10.1128/JCM.01272-07.

Fredricks, E. M. and D. N. (2011) 'The association between parity, infant gender, higher level of paternal education and pretermbirth in Pakistan: a cohort study', *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-397169-2.00083-4.

Freitas, A. C. *et al.* (2018) 'Increased richness and diversity of the vaginal microbiota and spontaneous preterm birth', *BMC open*. Microbiome, 6(117), pp. 1–15.

Friese, K. (2003) 'The role of infection in preterm labour', *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, 110(SUPPL. 20), pp. 52–54. doi: 10.1016/S1470-0328(03)00025-9.

Fuchs, F. *et al.* (2018) 'Effect of maternal age on the risk of preterm birth : A large cohort study', *PLOS\one*, 08, pp. 1–10.

Gad, G. F. M. *et al.* (2014) 'Evaluation of different diagnostic methods of bacterial vaginosis', *IOSR Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences*, 13(1), pp. 15–23. Available at: www.iosrjournals.org.

Gebreslasie, K. (2016) 'Preterm Birth and Associated Factors among Mothers Who Gave Birth in Gondar Town Health Institutions', *Hindawi Publishing Corporation*, 2016, p. 5 pages. doi: 10.1155/2016/4703138.

Goisis, A. *et al.* (2017) 'Original Contribution Advanced Maternal Age and the Risk of Low Birth Weight and Preterm Delivery : a Within-Family Analysis Using Finnish Population Registers', *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 186(11), pp. 1219–1226. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwx177.

Goldenberg, R. L. *et al.* (2009) 'Preterm Birth 1: Epidemiology and Causes of Preterm Birth', *Obstetric Anesthesia Digest*, 29(1), pp. 6–7. doi: 10.1097/01.aoa.0000344666.82463.8d.

Goldenberg, R. L., Andrews, W. W. and Hauth, J. C. (2002) 'Choriodecidual infection and preterm birth', *Nutr Rev*, 60(5 Pt 2), pp. S19-25. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list _uids=12035853. Guaschino, S. *et al.* (2006) 'Aetiology of preterm labour: Bacterial vaginosis', *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, 113(SUPPL. 3), pp. 46–51. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-0528.2006.01122.x.

Gupta, A. *et al.* (2016) 'Bacterial Vaginosis in Pregnancy (< 28 Weeks) and its effect on pregnancy outcome : A Study from a western up city', *Indian Journal of Obsterics and Gynecology Research*, 3(2), pp. 90–94. doi: 10.5958/2394-2754.2016.00021.7.

Gupta, A., Garg, P. and Nigam, S. (2013) 'Bacterial Vaginosis in Pregnancy (<28 Weeks) and its Effect on Pregnancy Outcome: A Study from a Western UP City', 23(11), pp. 740–744.

Hamad, K. A., Abed, Y. and Hamad, B. A. (2005) 'Risk factors associated with preterm births in Gaza strip: hospital-based case -control study', *Eastern Mediterranean Health*, 13(5), p. 2007.

Han, Y. W. (2013) 'NIH Public Access', *Curr Opin Microbiol*, 6(8), pp. 141–147. doi: 10.1021/nn300902w.Release.

Hardie, J. M. and Whiley, R. A. (1997) 'Classification and overview of the genera Streptococcus and Enterococcus.', *Society for Applied Bacteriology symposium series*, 26(1874), pp. 1S-11S. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2672.83.s1.1.x.

Harwich, J. M. D. *et al.* (2010) 'Drawing the line between commensal and pathogenic Gardnerella vaginalis through genome analysis and virulence studies', *BMC genomics*, 11(375), pp. 1–12. Available at: http://www.biomedcentral.com.

Hebb, J. K. *et al.* (2004) 'Detection of novel organisms associated with salpingitis, by use of 16S rDNA polymerase chain reaction.', *The Journal of infectious diseases*, 190, pp. 2109–2120. doi: 10.1086/425929.

Hernández-Díaz, S. *et al.* (2014) 'Triggers of spontaneous preterm delivery - Why today?', *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology*, 28(2), pp. 79–87. doi: 10.1111/ppe.12105.

Hill, G. B., Ayers, O. M. and Kohan, A. P. (1987) 'Characteristics and sites of infection of Eubacterium nodatum, Eubacterium timidum, Eubacterium brachy, and other asaccharolytic eubacteria', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 25(8), pp. 1540–1545.

Hoffmann, J. N. *et al.* (2014) 'Prevalence of Bacterial Vaginosis and Candida among Postmenopausal Women in the United States', *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, 69(Suppl 2), pp. S205–S214. doi: 10.1093/geronb/gbu105.

Holst, E., Goffeng, A. R. and Andersch, B. (1994) 'Bacterial vaginosis and vaginal microorganisms in idiopathic premature labor and association with pregnancy outcome', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 32(1), pp. 176–186.

Horne, B. S. Van *et al.* (2009) 'Multilevel Predictors of Inconsistent Condom Use Among Adolescent Mothers', *American Journal of Public Health*, 99(2), pp. 417–424. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.2007.131870.

Hosseini Doust, R. and Mohabbati Mobarez, A. (2004) 'Collagenase activity in Prevotella Bivius isolated from patients with premature rupture of membranes', *Medical Journal of The Islamic Republic of Iran*, 18(1), pp. 61–66. Available at: http://mjiri.iums.ac.ir/browse.php?a_code=A-10-298-114&slc_lang=fa&sid=1.

Howson, C. P. *et al.* (2013) 'Born Toon Soon: Preterm birth matters', *Reproductive Health*, 10(Suppl 1), p. S1. doi: 10.1186/1742-4755-10-S1-S1.

Jacobsson *et al.* (2002) 'Bacterial vaginosis in early pregnancy may predispose for preterm birth and postpartum endometritis', *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand 81*, (6), pp. 1006–1010.

Jane R. Schwebke (2009) 'New Concepts in the Etiology of Bacterial Vaginosis', *Current Infectious Disease Report*, 11, pp. 143–147.

Jarosik, G. P. *et al.* (1998) 'Acquisition of Iron by Gardnerella vaginalis Acquisition of Iron by Gardnerella vaginalis', *Infection and Immunity*, 66(10), pp. 5041–5047.

Jayaprakash, T. P., Schellenberg, J. J. and Hill, J. E. (2012) 'Resolution and Characterization of Distinct cpn60-Based Subgroups of Gardnerella vaginalis in the Vaginal Microbiota', *PLoS*\ *ONE*, 7(8), pp. 1–11. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0043009.

Kataoka, S. *et al.* (2006) 'Association between Preterm Birth and Vaginal Colonization by Mycoplasmas in Early Pregnancy Association between Preterm Birth and Vaginal Colonization by Mycoplasmas in Early Pregnancy', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 44(1), pp. 51–55. doi: 10.1128/JCM.44.1.51.

Kelly, M. C., Mequio, M. J. and Pybus, V. (2003) 'Inhibition of vaginal lactobacilli by a bacteriocin-like inhibitor produced by Enterococcus faecium: Potential significance for bacterial vaginosis', *Infectious Diseases in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 11(3), pp. 147–156. doi: 10.1080/10647440300025513.

Kerubo, E. *et al.* (2016) 'Prevalence of reproductive tract infections and the predictive value of girls' symptom-based reporting: findings from a cross-sectional survey in rural western Kenya', *Sexually Transmitted Infections*, 92(4), pp. 251–256. doi: 10.1136/sextrans-2015-052371.

Koss, C. A. *et al.* (2015) 'Risk Factors for Preterm Birth among HIV-Infected Pregnant Ugandan Women Randomized to Lopinavir/ritonavir- or Efavirenz-based Antiretroviral Therapy', *J Acqui Immune Defic Syndr*, 67(March 2014), pp. 128–135. doi: 10.1097/QAI.0000000000281.Risk.

Koucký, M. et al. (2009) 'Pathophysiology of preterm labour.', *Prague medical report*, 110(1), pp. 13–24.

Koumans, E. H. *et al.* (2007) 'The prevalence of bacterial vaginosis in the United States, 2001-2004; associations with symptoms, sexual behaviors, and reproductive health', *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 34(11), pp. 864–869. doi: 10.1097/OLQ.0b013e318074e565.

Krepel, C. J. *et al.* (2018) 'Anaerobic Pathogenesis : Collagenase Production by
Peptostreptococcus magnus and Its Relationship to Site of Infection', *Oxford journals*, 163(5),
pp. 1148–1150. Available at: https://www.jstor.org/stable/30132514.

Larsson, P. *et al.* (2007) 'BMC Women' s Health Predisposing factors for bacterial vaginosis, treatment efficacy and pregnancy outcome among term deliveries; results from a preterm delivery study', *BMC Women's Health 2007*, 6, pp. 1–6. doi: 10.1186/1472-6874-7-20.

Lydon, M. *et al.* (2018) 'National Guidelines for Quality Obstetrics and Perinatal Care', *Jornal of global health*, 8(1), p. 11.

Madianos, P. N., Bobetsis, Y. A. and Offenbacher, S. (2013) 'Adverse pregnancy outcomes (APOs) and periodontal disease: pathogenic mechanisms', *Journal of Periodontology*, 84(4-s), pp. S170–S180. doi: 10.1902/jop.2013.1340015.

Margaret, B. S., Heath, J. R. and Krywolap, G. N. (1990) 'Pathogenic potential of Eubacterium yurii subspecies', *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 31(2), pp. 103–108. doi: 10.1099/00222615-31-2-103.

Margolis, E. and Fredricks, D. N. (2014) *Bacterial Vaginosis-Associated Bacteria*, *Molecular Medical Microbiology: Second Edition*. Elsevier Ltd. doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-397169-2.00083-4.

Marriott, D., Stark, D. and Harkness, J. (2007) 'Veillonella parvula discitis and secondary bacteremia: A rare infection complicating endoscopy and colonoscopy?', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 45(2), pp. 672–674. doi: 10.1128/JCM.01633-06.

Mart, S., Singal, A. and Mindel, A. (2004) 'Social and sexual risk factors for bacterial vaginosis', *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, (80), pp. 58–62. doi: 10.1136/sti.2003.004978.

Martha, K. (2012) 'Bacterial vaginosis Vaginosis : Prevalence and value of different diagonistic test among prenatal women at Kenyatta National Hospital.'

Mashima, I., Theodorea, C. F. and Thaweboon, B. (2016) 'Identification of Veillonella Species in the Tongue Biofilm by Using a Novel One-Step Polymerase Chain Reaction Method', *PLoS*\ *ONE*, 11(6), pp. 1–16. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0157516.

Mazor, M. *et al.* (1994) 'Eradication of Viridans streptococci from the amniotic cavity with transplacental antibiotic treatment', *Archives of Gynecology and Obstetrics*, 255(3), pp. 147–151. doi: 10.1007/BF02390942.

Mcelrath, T. *et al.* (2018) 'Oral Concurrent 1 Oral Concurrent 1', *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. Elsevier, 218(1), pp. S12–S13. doi: 10.1016/j.ajog.2017.10.426.

Mcguire, A. M. *et al.* (2014) 'Evolution of Invasion in a Diverse Set of Fusobacterium Species', *mBio*, 5(6), pp. 1–11. doi: 10.1128/mBio.01864-14.Editor.

Mendz, G. L., Kaakoush, N. O. and Quinlivan, J. A. (2013) 'Bacterial aetiological agents of intra-amniotic infections and preterm birth in pregnant women', *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*, 3(October), pp. 1–7. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2013.00058.

Michael, W. *et al.* (2017) 'Risk factors associated with preterm birth after a prior term delivery', *BJOG : an international journal of obstetrics and gynaecology*, 123(11), pp. 1772–1778. doi: 10.1111/1471-0528.13683.Risk.

Mirmonsef, P. *et al.* (2012) 'Short-Chain Fatty Acids Induce Pro-Inflammatory Cytokine Production Alone and in Combination with Toll-Like Receptor Ligands', *American Journal of Reproductive Immunology*, 67(5), pp. 391–400. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0897.2011.01089.x.

Mirmonsef, P. *et al.* (2013) 'Transmission Across The Female Genital Tract', *National Institute of Health*, 10(3), pp. 202–210.

Mohamed M. Ali, Cleland, J. and Shah, I. H. (2012) 'Causes consequences of contraceptive discontinuation ':, *WHO*, (ISBN 978 92 4 150405 8).

Mohammadzadeh, F. *et al.* (2014) 'Diagnostic Value of Amsel's Clinical Criteria for Diagnosis of Bacterial Vaginosis', *Global Journal of Health Science*, 7(3), pp. 8–14. doi: 10.5539/gjhs.v7n3p8.

Mohanty, S. *et al.* (2010) 'Interobserver variation in the interpretation of nugent scoring method for diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis', *Indian Journal of Medical Research*, 131(1), pp. 88–91. Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20167979.

Moncla, B. J. and Pryke, K. M. (2009) 'Oleate lipase activity in Gardnerella vaginalis and reconsideration of existing biotype schemes.', *BMC microbiology*, 9, p. 78. doi: 10.1186/1471-2180-9-78.

Money, D. (2005) 'The laboratory diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis.', *The Canadian journal of infectious diseases & medical microbiology = Journal canadien des maladies infectieuses et de la microbiologie médicale*, 16(2), pp. 77–79. doi: 10.1155/2005/230319.

Monga, M. and Blanco, J. D. (1995) 'Intrauterine Infection and Preterm Labor', *Infectious Diseases in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 3(1), pp. 37–44. doi: 10.1155/S1064744995000287.

Moore, L. V. H., Johnson, J. L. and Moore, W. E. C. (2016) 'sp . nov . from the Human Gingival Crevice and Emendation of the Description of Prevotella zoogleofomzans', *International journal of systematic bacteriology*, 44(4), pp. 599–602.

Moutquin, J. M. (2003) 'Classification and heterogeneity of preterm birth', *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, 110(SUPPL. 20), pp. 30–33. doi: 10.1016/S1470-0328(03)00021-1.

Murdoch, D. A. (1998) 'Gram-positive anaerobic cocci', *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 11(1), pp. 81–120. doi: 10.1002/9780470017968.ch44.

Myer, L. *et al.* (2018) 'Bacterial Vaginosis and Susceptibility to HIV Infection in South African Women : A Nested Case-Control Study', *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 192(August), pp. 7–1315.

Myziuk, L., Romanowski, B. and Johnson, S. C. (2003) 'BVBlue Test for Diagnosis of Bacterial Vaginosis', *Society*, 41(5), pp. 1925–1928. doi: 10.1128/JCM.41.5.1925.

Nejad, V. M. and Shafaie, S. (2008) 'The Association of Baceterial Vaginosis and Preterm Labour', *J Pak Med Assoc*, 58(3), pp. 104–106.

Nenadi, D. and Pavlovi, M. D. (2015) 'Value of bacterial culture of vaginal swabs in diagnosis of vaginal infections Vrednost bakterijske kulture vaginalnog brisa u dijagnozi vaginalne infekcije', 72(6), pp. 523–528. doi: 10.2298/VSP140602061N.

Ng, J. *et al.* (1994) 'Identification of five Peptostreptococcus species isolated predominantly from the female genital tract by using the rapid ID32A system', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 32(5), pp. 1302–1307.

Nugent, R. P., A., K. M. and L., H. S. (1991) 'Reliability of Diagnosing Bacterial Vaginosis Is Improved by Standardized Method of Gram Stain Interpretation a', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 29(2), pp. 297–301. Obert..R *et al.* (2000) 'Intrauterine infection and preterm delivery', *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 342(20), pp. 35233–7333.

Okuku, R. *et al.* (2015) 'Test performance and correlates of bacterial vaginosis among women in Western Kenya', *Primejournal.Org*, 4(1), pp. 183–189. Available at: http://primejournal.org/PJMR/pdf/2016/jan/Okuku et al.pdf.

Onderdonk, A. B., Delaney, M. L. and Fichorova, N. (2016) 'The Human Microbiome during Bacterial Vaginosis', *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 29(2), pp. 223–238. doi: 10.1128/CMR.00075-15.Address.

Phillips, C. *et al.* (2017) 'Risk of recurrent spontaneous preterm birth : a systematic review and meta- analysis', *BMJ open*, 7, pp. 1–6. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2016-015402.

Polatti, F. (2012) 'Bacterial Vaginosis, Atopobium vaginae and Nifuratel', *Current Clinical Pharmacology*, 7(1), pp. 36–40. doi: 10.2174/157488412799218824.

Quillan, G. M. C. *et al.* (2007) 'Reproductive Health', *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 34(11), pp. 864–869. doi: 10.1097/OLQ.0b013e318074e565.

Quinn, J. A. *et al.* (2016) 'Preterm birth: Case definition & guidelines for data collection, analysis, and presentation of immunisation safety data', *Vaccine*, 34(49), pp. 6047–6056. doi: 10.1016/j.vaccine.2016.03.045.

Rabe, L. K., Winterscheid, K. K. and Hillier, S. L. (1988) 'Association of viridans group streptococci from pregnant women with bacterial vaginosis and upper genital tract infection', *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 26(6), pp. 1156–1160.

Ranjit, E., Raghubanshi, B. R. and Maskey, S. (2018) 'Prevalence of Bacterial Vaginosis and Its Association with Risk Factors among Nonpregnant Women : A Hospital Based Study', *Hindawi International Journal of Microbiology*, 2018, p. 9. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/8349601.

Rao, D. S. R. *et al.* (2016) 'Diagnosis of Bacterial Vaginosis: Amsel's Criteria vs Nugent's scoring', *Scholars Journal of Applied Medical Sciences*, 4(6), pp. 2027–2031. doi:

10.21276/sjams.2016.4.6.32.

Riggio, M. P. and Lennon, A. (2002) 'Development of a PCR assay, specific for Peptostreptococcus anaerobius', *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 51(12), pp. 1097–1101. doi: 10.1099/0022-1317-51-12-1097.

Rimawi, B. H. (2013) Infectious Comorbidities Encountered in Obstetrics and Neonatology Edited by Infectious Comorbidities Encountered in Obstetrics and Neonatology, OMICS eBooks.

Rodrigo, S. (2013) 'Prevalence of Bacterial Vaginosis in Grenadian Women of Reproductive Age Prevalencia de la Vaginosis Bacteriana en Mujeres Granadinas en Edad Reproductiva', *West Indian Med J*, 62(7).

Rodriguez Jovita, M. *et al.* (1999) 'Characterization of a novel Atopobium isolate from the human vagina: description of Atopobium vaginae sp. nov.', *International journal of systematic bacteriology*, 49 Pt 4(1 999), pp. 1573–1576. doi: 10.1099/00207713-49-4-1573.

Romero, R. *et al.* (2016) 'Vaginal progesterone decreases preterm birth \leq 34 weeks of gestation in women with a singleton pregnancy and a short cervix: an updated meta-analysis including data from the OPPTIMUM study', *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 48(3), pp. 308–317. doi: 10.1002/uog.15953.

Rovery, C. *et al.* (2005) 'Veillonella montpellierensis endocarditis', *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 11(7), pp. 1112–1114. doi: 10.3201/eid1107.041361.

Rovery, C. *et al.* (2009) 'Coinfection with Coxiella burnetii in infectious endocarditis', *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*. European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, 15(SUPPL. 2), pp. 190–191. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-0691.2008.02221.x.

Salminen, A. *et al.* (2008) 'Maternal endotoxin-induced preterm birth in mice: Fetal responses in toll-like receptors, collectins, and cytokines', *Pediatric Research*, 63(3), pp. 280–286. doi: 10.1203/PDR.0b013e318163a8b2.

Saurel-cubizolles, Á. *et al.* (2004) 'History of induced abortion as a risk factor for preterm birth in European countries : results of the EUROPOP survey', *Human Reproduction*, 19(3), pp. 734–740. doi: 10.1093/humrep/deh107.

Schmid, G. *et al.* (1995) 'Bacterial vaginosis and HIV infection The British Co-operative Clinical Group (BCCG)', *Centers for Disease Control and Prevention*, pp. 14–15.

Schwebke, J. R. and Desmond, R. (2005) 'Risk Factors for Bacterial Vaginosis in Women at High Risk for Sexually Transmitted Diseases', *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 32(11), pp. 654– 658. doi: 10.1097/01.olq.0000175396.10304.62.

Shayo, P. A. *et al.* (2012) 'Prevalence of bacterial vaginosis and associated factors among pregnant women attending at Bugando Medical Centre, Mwanza, Tanzania', *Tanzania Journal of Health Research*, 14(3). doi: 10.4314/thrb.v14i3.3.

Sirengo, M. *et al.* (2016) 'Mother-to-Child Transmission of HIV in Kenya: Results From a Nationally Representative Study', *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*, 66(Suppl 1), pp. 1–18. doi: 10.1097/QAI.00000000000115.Mother-to-Child.

Spiegel (2012) 'Bacterial Vaginosis', *Journal of Midwifery & Women's Health*, 57(6), pp. 649–650. doi: 10.1111/jmwh.12006.

Tebes, C. C., Lynch, C. and Sinnott, J. (2003) 'The effect of treating bacterial vaginosis on preterm labor', *Infectious Disease in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 11(2), pp. 123–129. doi: 10.1080/10647440300025509.

Tunkel, A. R. and Sepkowitz, K. A. (2002) 'Infections caused by viridans streptococci in patients with neutropenia.', *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*, 34(11), pp. 9–1524. doi: 10.1086/340402.

Turienzo, C., Sandall, J. and Peacock, J. L. (2016) 'Models of antenatal care to reduce and prevent preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis.', *BMJ open*, 6(1), p. e009044. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2015-009044.

Vandana, G. *et al.* (2018) ^{("} Cytological Findings of Bacterial Vaginosis in Routine Pap Smears " A Two Yrs Institutional Study', *Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences*, 17(01), pp. 68–78. doi: 10.9790/0853-1701036878.

Vetere, A. *et al.* (1987) 'Characterisation of anaerobic curved rods (Mobiluncus spp.) isolated from the urogenital tract', *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 23(3), pp. 279–288. doi: 10.1099/00222615-23-3-279.

Wagura, P. *et al.* (2018) 'Prevalence and factors associated with preterm birth at kenyatta national hospital', *BMC pregnancy and Childbirth*. BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth, 18(107), pp. 2–9.

Wein, A. J. (2011) 'Vulvovaginal atrophy', *Journal of Urology*, 185(6), p. 2262. doi: 10.1016/j.juro.2011.02.2689.

WHO (2012) 15 Million Babies Born Too Soon.

Witkin, S. S. *et al.* (2013) 'Influence of vaginal bacteria and D- and L-lactic acid isomers on vaginal extracellular matrix metalloproteinase inducer: Implications for protection against upper genital tract infections', *mBio*, 4(4), pp. 1–8. doi: 10.1128/mBio.00460-13.

Yamanaka, T. *et al.* (2009) 'BMC Microbiology', *BMC microbiology*, 15(9), pp. 1–15. doi: 10.1186/1471-2180-9-11.

Yeoman, C. J. *et al.* (2010) 'Comparative genomics of Gardnerella vaginalis strains reveals substantial differences in metabolic and virulence potential', *PLoS ONE*, 5(8). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0012411.

Yu, K., Schwebke, J. R. and Andrews, W. W. (2011) 'Personal Hygienic behaviors and Bacterial Vaginosis', *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*, 37(2), pp. 94–99. doi: 10.1097/OLQ.0b013e3181bc063c.PERSONAL.

Zhang, Q. *et al.* (2009) 'Maternal anaemia and preterm birth : a prospective cohort study', *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 38(July), pp. 1380–1389. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyp243.

Zhang, Y.-J. *et al.* (2015) 'Impacts of Gut Bacteria on Human Health and Diseases', *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 16(4), pp. 7493–7519. doi: 10.3390/ijms16047493.

Zhang, Y. *et al.* (2012) 'Risk Factors for Preterm Birth in Five Maternal and Child Health Hospitals in Beijing', *PLoS\ ONE*, 7(12), pp. 1–7. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0052780.

Zhou, X. *et al.* (2010) 'Recent advances in understanding the microbiology of the female reproductive tract and the causes of premature birth', *Infectious Diseases in Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 2010. doi: 10.1155/2010/737425.

7.0 APPENDIXES

(A) INFORMED CONSENT EXPLANATION DOCUMENT

Title of study: Profiling of bacteria species in bacteria vaginosis associated with preterm births in Kisumu County

Principal investigator: Jelioth Muthoni, MSc. Student, University of Nairobi/KNH (tel. 0792487066)

Introduction

I would like to talk to you about the study being conducted by Jelioth Muthoni, a medical microbiology student at the University of Nairobi/Kenyatta National Hospital. The purpose of this consent is giving you information, which will help you, make up your mind on whether to participate in the study or not. Feel free to as any question concerning the study, any benefits, and risk to ensure that this consent form is clear. This will help you make a concrete decision on whether to participate in the study or not. Ones you decide to participate you will be given a copy of this consent to keep it in your records.

Purpose of the study

This study is about having a better understanding on the risk factors and the bacteria that are associated with pre-births. I hereby kindly request for your permission to use your vaginal specimens for my research, which will be used to identify the bacteria, using most reliable diagnostic method and the questioners will identify the risk factors. High standards of confidentiality of your test will be ensured.

Study procedure

A study nurse in Jaramogi Oginga Odinga teaching referral hospital will consent the participants who meet the inclusion criteria. Then carry a one on one questionneiring session with the participant. After which the study nurse will take a vaginal swab. The vaginal sample will be run in Amsel and Nugent score criteria by the principal investigator.

Role of Participant

Obtaining a small vaginal swab from the participants who obtain the consent.

Type of specimen

Three vaginal swabs will be obtained on each participant who obtains the consent.

Possible storage of specimen

One of the swabs collected will be stored for further analysis.

Expected time in the study

The study is expected to run for one year. However, it will be one time contact with the study participant.

Benefits

The benefits of participating in this research include:

The diagnosis will be used in the identification of Bacterial vaginosis; the tests are of high sensitivity and specificity. Participants' positive for BV will be referred to Obstetric and Gynecological for treatment. In addition the results will be used to guide on the measures to be put in place in the prevention of pre-term deliveries. The participants will incur no cost.

Risks and discomforts

The risks in this research are minimal. A slight discomfort in the collection of the vaginal swab.

Confidentiality

Records relating to you or your patients participation in the study will remain confidential. A signed copy of the consent form will be given to you.

Data dissemination

The data acquired will be presented to the School of Medicine, Department of Medical Microbiology, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga teaching referral hospital and University of Nairobi Tropical and Infectious Diseases. Moreover, it will be published in peer reviews, presented in journal clubs and seminars.

Voluntary participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. Ones you decline from participating, no services will be denied that are normally available to you.

Contact information

If you have questions now or in future regarding your rights or about this study, you may contact:

- Jelioth Muthoni, MSc student at the University of Nairobi on +254792487066
- Chairperson, KNHUONERC.-Prof. Anastasia Guantai

P.O BOX 20723-00200 Nairobi. Tel#: 726300-9, Fax 725272/

• KNH-UoN ERC Secretary- Prof. Mark L. Chindia

Contact telephone numbers 2726300 ext. 44102 email, uonknh_erc@uonbi.ac.ke

- Dr. Julius Oyugi Supervisor Tel +254713898564
- Prof. Walter Jaoko Supervisor Tel +254727555254

(B) CONSENT FORMS

Consent from the patient

The above details about the study and the basis of participation have been explained to me and I agree to give permission for use of my vaginal sample in the proposed study. I understand that at liberty to choose whether my specimen should be used in the study or not. I give my consent for my vaginal specimen to be used in the diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis and the association with pre-term deliveries.

Patient's signature/Thumb mark:	
P I's signature:	
Date:	

Ridhaa ya kukubali kuwa muhusika katika Kiswahili

Title of study:Wasifu aina ya bakteria katika bakteria utoko kuhusishwa na kuzaliwa njiti katika Kisumu County

Mpelelezi mkuu: Jelioth Muthoni, MSc.student, Chuo Kikuu cha Nairobi / KNH (Number ya rununu 0792487066)

Utafiti kuanzishwa

Ningependa kuzungumza na wewe kuhusu utafiti unaofanywa na Jelioth Muthoni, mwanafunzi wa mikrobiolojia katika Chuo Kikuu cha Nairobi / Kenyatta Hospital ya Taifa. Madhumuni ya idhini hii ni kukupa taarifa, ambayo kukusaidia, kufanya uamuzi wako kama kushiriki katika utafiti au la. Jisikie huru kama swali lolote kuhusu utafiti, faida yoyote, na hatari ya kuhakikisha kwamba fomu hii ya idhini ni wazi. Hii itasaidia kufanya uamuzi halisi na kama kushiriki katika utafiti au la. Ukiamua kushiriki utapewa nakala ya idhini hii ya kuitunza katika kumbukumbu zako.

Madhumuni ya utafiti

Utafiti huu ni kuhusu kuelewa mzuri juu ya mambo ya hatari na bakteria ambayo ni kuhusishwa na kabla ya kuzaliwa. I hapa kwa huruma ombi kwa ruhusa ya kutumia sampuli yako ya uke kwa ajili ya utafiti wangu, ambao utatumika kwa kutambua bakteria, kwa kutumia mbinu zinazoaminika kwa uchunguzi na kuuliza maswali yatakayo tambua hatari. Viwango vya hali ya juu vya usiri vitatumika kwa matokeo yako.

Utaratibu kifani

Katika somo hili, kufanya tamu ya uke kwa kupata specimen. Muuguzi katika hospitali ya rufaa ya Jaramogi Oginga Odinga mafunzo ya uhamisho atachukua utaratibu baada ya uchunguzi mkuu amepokea ridhaa kutoka kwa mgonjwa. Baadaye, sampuli ya uke itatumika katika vigezo vya alama za Amsel na Nugent.Pia dakika 15 kikao wa kujaza dodoso.

Wajibu wa Mshiriki

Kupata kidogo ya uke usufi na dodoso kujazwa kutoka washiriki ambao watapeana idhini. Aina ya sampuli Usufi uke tatu zitapatikana kwenye kila mshirika ambaye amepeana idhini.

Uwezekano uhifadhi wa sampuli

74

Moja ya swabs zilizokusanyawa itakuwa kuhifadhiwa kwa ajili ya uchambuzi zaidi.

Inatarajiwa wakati katika utafiti

Utafiti unatarajiwa kuendesha kwa mwaka mmoja

Faida

Faida ya kushiriki katika utafiti huu ni:

Utambuzi zitatumika katika utambuzi wa bakteria utoko, vipimo ni ya unyeti wa juu na maalum. Washiriki watakao kuwa na bacteria utoko wata tumwa kwa Obsteric na Gynecologia kwa matibabu. Aidha matokeo itumika kuongoza hatua za kuwekwa katika nafasi kwa kuzuia uzazi kabla ya muda. Washiriki hawatalipa chochote.

Hatari na usumbufu

Hatari katika utafiti huu ndogo. Usumbufu kidogo kwa ukusanyaji wa usufi uke.

Usiri

Recordi kuhusiana na wewe au mgojwa wako katika kushiriki kwa utafiti utabaki kuwa siri. Anayehusika kwa utafiti atapewa nakala aliyotia saini ya fomu ya idhini.

Usambazaji wa data

Data alipewa yatawasilishwa kwa Shule ya Tiba, Idara ya Medical Microbiology, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga kufundisha hospitali ya rufaa na Chuo Kikuu cha Nairobi Tropical na Magonjwa ya Kuambukiza. Aidha, itachapishwa katika peer mapitio majarida na kuwasilisha katika vilabu jarida na semina.

Ushiriki wa hiari

Kushiriki kwako katika utafiti huu ni ya hiari. Wale watakaoshuka kutokana na kushiriki, hakuna huduma unayopokea kwa kawaida utanyimwa. Utapokea huduma kwa kawaida. Maelezo ya mawasiliano Kama una maswali sasa au katika siku zijazo kuhusu haki zako au utafiti huu, unaweza kuwasiliana na:

- Jelioth Muthoni, MSc Mwanafunzi katika chuo Kikuu cha Nairobi on +254792487066
- Mwenyekiti, KNHUONERC. Prof. Anastasia Guantai

P.O BOX 20723-00200 Nairobi. Namba ya simu#: 726300-9, Faksi 725272/

• KNH-UoN ERC Katibu Mawasiliano- Prof. Mark L. Chindia

Nambari za simu 2726300 ext. 44102 email, uonknh_erc@uonbi.ac.ke

- Dr. Julius Oyugi Supervisor Tel +254713898564
- Prof. Walter Jaoko Supervisor Tel +254727555254

NYONGEZA FOMU YA KUKUBALI

Ridhaa kutoka kwa mgonjwa

Maelezo ya hapo juu kuhusu utafiti na msingi wa ushiriki zimeelezwa kwangu na mimi kukubali kutoa ruhusa kwa ajili ya matumizi ya sampuli yangu uke katika utafiti mapendekezo. Naelewa kwamba uhuru wa kuchagua kama sampuli yangu itumike katika utafiti au la. Natoa kibali yangu kwa sampuli yangu uke kutumika katika utambuzi wa vimelea utoko na kushirikiana na kujifungua kabla ya muda.

Sahihi/kidole gumba cha mgonjwa:	
Sahihi ya mlinzi wa mgonjwa:	
Tarehe:	

KITABU MAR RUSA MICHIWO BANG WINJO TIENDE NONRO

Wich mar nonro: Kawo ratiro mar aina mag bacteria makelo tuo e duong mar mine mamiyo ginyuolo nyithindo ka pok kinde mar nyuol ochopo e County mar Kisumu

Janonro Maduong :Jelioth Muthoni, japuonjre mar Masters e mbalarieny mar Nairobi , hospital mar Kenyatta (namba mar sime 0792487066)

Chakruok

De ahero mondo alosie kodi kuom nonro ma itimo kod Jelioth Muthoni, japuonjre mar medical microbiology e mbalarieny mar Nairobi/hospital mar Kenyatta. Gimomiyo rusa ni imiyi en ni mondo iwinj tie nonro ni ma biro konyi ngado bura e pachi ka idwaro bedo e nonro ni kata ka ok idwar. Bed thuolo penjo gimoro amora maluore gi nonro ni, ber kata rach, ma ine ni form mar rusa ni iwinjo maler. Ma biro konyi ngado bura makare kaluore gi yie kata dagi bedo achiel e nonro ni. Sama iseyie mondo ibedi e nonro ni ibiro miyi barua mar rusa ni mondo ikan kama ikane gikeni.

Momiyo mar Nonro

Nonro ni en kuom bedo gi winjo maber kuom bacteria gi gik ma kelo nyuol ka pok kinde mar dweche ochiko ochopo. Kuom mano akwayi gi luoro mondo iyie mondo wati gi specimen ma wabiro golo e duong mari e nonro ni ma ibiro ti godo fwenyo bacteria ka itiyo gi yore makare mag nonro kendo jononro biro fwenyo bende gik ma kelo bacteria gi. Ling ling mamalo ibi tigo sama ipimi.

Chenromarnonro

E nonro ni, ibiro ti gi pamba e duong mari ka igolo godo specimen mar nonro. Nurse ma nitiere e hosiptal mar Jaramogi Oginga Odinga teaching and referral biro timo chenro ni bang ja nonro maduong ka oseyudo rusa kuom jatuo. Bang mano gima ochoki ibi keti e Amsel gi Nugent score criteria

Tich mar jatuo

Yudo sample ka oa e duong mar ngama ochiwo rusa

Aina mar gir nonro

Pamba adek ma oywe godo duong mar ngato ka ngato ma ochiwo rusa

Kama ibiro kan e gige nonro

Achiel kuom pamba adek ibi kan ne nonro mabuora

Kinde ma nonro biro kawo

Nonro owinjore mondo otimre kuom higa achiel. Kata kamano obiro bedo mana mar neno jatuo dichiel kende

Ber

Ber mar riwruok gi nonro ni en ni :

Nonro ni biro konyo e fwenyruok mar tuo mar bacterial vaginosis. Yore mag fwenyo tuo ni gin yore ma nigi teko mar fwenyo tuo e yo ma yot. Jokma ibiro yudi gi tuo ni ibiro nwang ne gi daktari ma thiedho tuoche mag mine mondo gi yud thieth. Kuom mago, duoko ibiro ti godo loso yore gi chenro mag konyo mine kik nyuol ka kinde mar dweche ochiko pok ochopo. Onge pesa ma ibiro dwar kuom jotuo

Chandruok kod winjo marach

Chandruok ma luore gi nonro ni tin.Winjo marach matin biro mana bedo sama ikawo specimen e duong.

Ling ling

Ndiko ma luore kodi kata jatuo ni e nonro ni biro dong ma ling ling. Ibiro miyi copy mokete sei mar barua mar rusa

Kaka ibiro ti gi duoko

Duoko ma oyudi ibiro nyisi e School of Medicine , department mar Microbiology, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga teaching and referral hospital kod University of Nairobi Tropical and infectious diseases. Moloyo duoko go ibiro keti e mbui kod kitepe mag sayans misomo e mbui .

Bedo e nonro kuom hero

Bedoni e nonro ni en kuom hero mari. Po mono ni iweyo bedo e nonro ni onge huduma mora mora ma ibi tuoni mane nyiche imiyi.

Contact information

Laini mar tudruok

Ka intiere gi penjo sani kata e ndalo mabiro kaluore gi haki mari e nonro ni, inyalo tudori gi jok ma ondik piny kae :

Jelioth Muthoni, japuonjre mar masters e University of Nairobi e +254792487066

Jakom KNHUONERC.- Prof. Anastasia Guantai

P.O BOX 20723-00200 Nairobi. Tel#: 726300-9, Fax 725272/

KNH-UoN ERC Secretary - Prof. Mark L. Chindia

Contact telephone numbers 2726300 ext. 44102 email, uonknh_erc@uonbi.ac.ke

Dr. Julius Oyugi Supervisor Tel +254713898564

Prof. Walter Jaoko Supervisor Tel +254727555254

(B) Form mar Rusa

Rusa ka oa kuom jatuo

Weche duto ma luore gi nonro ni ose ler na kendo ayie mondo oti gi samples ka ae duong mara e nonro ni. Angeyo ni an gi thuolo mar yie kata dagi mondo oti gi specimen ma oa e duong mara e timo nonro ni. Achiwo rusa mara mondo oti gi specimen ma wuok e duong na e fwenyruok mar bacterial vaginosis gi gik ma kelo nyuol ma pok ochopo dweche ochiko.

Sei mar jatuo ------Sei mar janonro maduong ------Tarik ------

(C) QUESTIONNAIRE

PROJECT TITLE: Profiling of bacteria species in bacteria vaginosis associated with preterm

births in Kisumu County

- 1. DATE:
- 2. PATIENTS NAME:

3. PARTICIPANTS IDENTIFICATION NUMBER (PID):

- 4. WARD NO.....
- 5. WEIGHT FROM CHARTS:
- 6. HEIGHT FROM CHARTS:

Part one: demography

8. Age

<20	
21-25	
26-30	
31-40	
>41	
9. Marital status	
Single (Never married)	
Steady partner living tog	gether

Steady partner not living together

Married monogamous		Married polygamous
Any other		
If others, please specify		
10. What is your occup	ation?	
Housewife		
Small scale business (fish	hing)	
Farmer		
Civil servant		
Casual laborer		
Unemployed		

11. What is the main source of income in your house?

Self service	
Fishing	
Business	
Husband	
Remittance Others	

11a. If others, please specify.....

12. What is your highest education level?

Never	attended	
	attenueu	

Primary	
Secondary	
Tertiary	

13. What is your place of residence?

Urban		
Rural		
14. Age of sexual debut	t (first time you had sex)	
Less than 18 years		
More than 18 years		
15a. How many sexual partners do you have or had in the past 6 months ?		
None		
1		
More than 1		

15b.If more than 1, for how long.....

16. What is the circumcision status of your sex partner(s)?

Circumcised	
Not circumcised	
Circumcised and Non-cir	cumcised
17. Do you have a histor	ry of pre-term delivery?(the participant)
Yes	
No	
If yes, how many?	
18. What was the period	l between your last pregnancy?
Less than 1 year	
More than 1 year	
19. Do you experience e	motional stress?
Good	
Poor	
20. Have you ever used	a contraceptive either currently or in the past?
Yes	
No	

If yes,

21. Which one did you use?

21. Which one ara you	
Pills	
Intrauterine Contraceptiv	ve Device (A Pack of six)
Norplant	
Other	
If other, please specify	
22. Have you been unde	er any infertility treatment?
Yes	
No	
23. Did you use condon	n during the last sexual act?
Yes	
No	
24a. Do you experience	vaginal irritation?
Yes	
No	

b. If yes, when and how often?

25. Do you experience lower abdominal pa	ain?
--	------

Yes	
No	
26a. Have you ever beer	n infected with any sexually transmitted disease
Yes	
No	
b. If yes, How many tim	les
27b. Which one were yo	ou infected with
28. Do you have any vag	ginal discharge?
Yes	
No	
If yes, please specify the	nature
29a. Do you sometimes g	get or smell unpleasant odor that has a fishy smell from your vaginal?
Yes	
No	
b. If yes, when was the l	ast time you experience?
30. How many times do	you bathe in a week? ()
31. What do you use wh	en bathing?
Water only	

Soap	and	water
------	-----	-------

Water and other (specific detergent) (.....)

32. What do you use for scrubbing your body?

Hands		
Apiece of cloth		
Your inner pant		
Sponge		
Any other means (spec	ify)	
33. How much water	do you use w	he <u>n ba</u> thing?
About ¼ basin		
About ½ basin		
About ³ ⁄4 basin		
A full basin		
More than a full basin		
		o you use when bathing? ()
35. How many pairs of	of panty do y	ou own? ()
36. Which material a	re your panti	es?
Cotton		
Nylon		
Other (specify)		

37a. How many times in a week do you change your pants? ()		
B. How many times in a week do you wash your pants? ()		
38a. Do you ever wash	your genitals ("private parts") apart from when you are bathing?	
Yes		
No		
b. If yes, how many time	in a week ()	
39. What do you use to	wash your vagina?	
Water only		
Soap and water		
Other detergents (specify)	
40a. Have you ever was	ned your vaginal immediately after sex?	
Yes		
No		
b . If yes, how often do yo	ou wash your vagina after sex?	
Always		
More than half of the time	e	
Half of the time		
Less than half of the time		
Never		

MASWALI

Kichwa cha utafiti: wasifu aina ya bakteria katika bakteria utoko kuhusishwa na kuzaliwa njiti katika kisumu county

1. TAREHE
2. JINA LA WAGONJWA:
3. WAKAZI WA IDENTIFICATION NAMBARI:
4. WARD NO
5. UZITO KUTOKA KWA CHARTS:
6. UREFU KUTOKA KWA CHARTS:

Sehemu ya kwanza: demography

8. Umri	
<20	
21-25	
26-30	
31-40	
>41	

9. Hali ndoa

Hajawahi kuolewa

Mshirika wa kudumu anaishi pamoja

Г		
		_

Mshirika wa kudumu hamuishi pamoja

Mke aliyeolewaWanando	ba walioolewa	
Nyingine yoyote		
Ikiwa wengine, tafadhali	taja	
10. Nini ufunzo wako?		
Mke wa nyumbani		
Biashara ndogo (uvuvi)		
Mkulima		
Mtumishi wa umma		
Kazi ya kawaida		
Hunakazi		
11. Mapato yako mengi	yatoka wapi?	

Uvuvi	
Biashara	
Mchumba	
Uondoaji	
Vingine	

11a. Ikiwa wengine, tafadhali taja

12. Umesoma hadi kiwango kipi?

Sikusoma	
Shule ya msingi	
Secondari	
Msituni	

13. Makazi yako ni yapi?

Mjini	
Kijijini	

14. Ulikuwa na miaka mingapi ulipo jihusisha kwa ngono mara ya kwanza?

Chini ya miaka 18		
Zaidi ya miaka 18		
15a. Umekuwa na wach	umba wangapi, miezi sita iliyopota ?	
Hakuna		
Mmoja		
Zaidi ya mmoja		
15b. Kama zaidi ya mmoj	a, kwa mda wa kiasi gani	
16. Hali ya tohara ya m	chumaba ama wachumba wako ni ipi?	
Tohara		
Hajatahiriwa		
Wengine wametahiriwa wengine hawajatahiriwa		
17. Je, una historia ya utoaji mimba kabla ya muda? (mshiriki)		
Ndio		
La		
Kama ndio, mara ngapi?		
18. Umekaa kwa mda upi baada ya mimba yako ya mwisho?		
Chini ya mwaka mmoja		
Zaidi ya mwaka mmoja		

19. Je, wewe ni unasumbuka kimawazo?

La	
Ndio	

20.Je, umejihusisha na mbinu yeyote ya upangaji uza, kwa sasa ama hapo awali?

Ndio	
La	

Kama ndio,

21.Ulitumia ipi?	
Pills	
Kifaa hiki cha uzazi wa	mpango (pakiti ya sita)
Kupandikiza	
Zingine	
Kama zingine, tafadhar	i taja
22 . Je, umekuwa chini <u>y</u>	ya utasa matibabu?
Ndio	
La	

23. Je, unatumia kondomu unapofanya ngono?

,	
Ndio	
La	
24a Je, unawashwa	a sehemu ya siri?
Ndio	
La	
b. Kama ndio, unawa	ashwa lini na mara ngapi?
25. Je, unakuwa na	maumivu ya tumbo, upande wa chini?
Ndio	
La	
26a. Je, ushawahi u	gua ugwanjwa wowote wa ngono?
Ndio	
La	
b. Kama ndio, mara	a ngapi
27b. Ni ungojwa up	i uliuguwa?
28. Je una usaha uke	ni?
Ndio	
La	

Kama ndiyo, tafadhali taja asili

29a. Je, wakati mwingine wapata au kuwa na harufu mbaya harufu ya fishy kutoka ukeni yako?

Ndio	
La	
bKama ndio, ni lir	ni ulikuwa na tukio hili mara ya mwisho?
30. Je, waoga mar	a ngapi kwa wiki? ()
31. Je, watumia ni	ni kuga?
Maji tupu	
Maji na sabuni	

Maji na vifaa vingine (tafadhali taja ni zipi) (.....)

32. Je, watumia nini kusugua mwili?

Mikono	
Kitambaa	
Suruali	
Sifongo	
Kitu kingine (taja ni kipi))

33. Je, watumia maji kiasi gani unapooga?

Robo basini	
Nusu basini	
Robo tatu basini	

Basini nzima	
Zaidi ya basini nzima	
•	ngani unana aga? (
	ngapi unapo oga? ()
35. Je, unasuruali ngapi	
36. Je, ngozi ya suaruali	
Cottoni	
Nyloni	
Ngozi nyingine (taja)	
37a. Je, wabadirisha sur	uali mara ngapi kwa wiki? ()
B. Je, waosha suruali ma	ara ngapi kwa wiki? ()
38a. Je, unaosha sehemu	ı ya uke, wakati mwingine ila unapooga?
Ndio	
La	
b. Kama ndio mara ngapi	kwa wiki ()
39 je, unaosha sehemu y	a uke na nini?
Maji tupu	
Sabuni na maji	
Other detergents (specify))
Vitu zingine(tafadhari taja	a ni zipi)
40a. Ushawahi osha sehe	emu ya uke, mara tu ulipofanya ngono?
Ndio	
La	

b. Kama ndio, unaosha sehemu ya siri mara ngapi baada ya ngono?

Wakati wote	
Zaidi ya mara nusu ya wakati	
Nusu ya wakati	
Chini ya nusu ya wakati	

Keto kendo ngiyo kit gi matelo tuo kendo nyuol ka pod ndalo

- 1. Taki.....
- 2. Nying manguon:
- 3. Nying no.:
- 4. Wuod no.....
- 5. Pek mar otas:....
- 6. Bor mar otas:

Part one: demography

8. Iga

<20	
21-25	
26-30	
31-40	
>41	

9. Weche mag kendruok

Migogo	
Jomo okendore to gidak	
Okinde to okodak kanyakla	
Jathako achiel	Jadoho
Waya	
Ka nthe machielo	
10. Tichi?	
Chi oot	
Jalupo	
Japur	
Ondike gi sirikal	
Jatij lwedo	
Jao orak	
11. Ere kaka tiji konyi e od	li?
Tija	
Lupo	

Oala	
Chuora	
Yuto matin matin	
Joma moko	

11a. Ka nthe machielo	
-----------------------	--

12. Sombi ochopu kanye?

Ok nadhi	
Primar	
Sekondar	
Jakom	
13. Idak kure?	
Taon	
Dala	
14. Odiochieng mokuon	go manikuongo riworie gi osiepni
Pin mar igni apar ga abor	·0

Ioni	mokalo	anao	σa	ahoro	
igm	покаю	apao	ga	abbio	

15a. Jo era adi maise bedo go ei dueche auchi el mokalo ?

Onge	
Achiel	
Mokal achiel	
15b.To ka en mokalo ach	iiel,
16. Kuom ndalo mage?	
Odhi nyange	
Odhi nyange	
Odhi nyange, Odhi nyang	ge
17. Bende isebedo kod k	konyruolk ka ndaloni pod
Kamano	
Ok kamano	
To kaenkano, adi?	
18. Nyaka nene kyulo n	yaka koro sani en ndalo maromo nadi?
Matin ne iga achiel	
Mangeny ne iga achiel	
19. Tobe isebeno gi pare	o moro amora?
Maber	
Ohier	

20. To bende isetioga gi yedhe mag kungo nyuol eiodiochienge mokalo?

Kamano	
Ol kamano	
To ka en kamano,	
21. En kuom mage itiog	0?
Yedhe	
Ma otwe diuchiel	
Yath ma ikeo e lwedo	
Machielo	
Ka nthe machielo	

22. To beisebedo gi konyuoruk moroamora kaka thagruule kuom nyuol?

Kamano

Ok kamano

23. To beneitio gi rabuoyunga eseche mag riuruok?

Kamano	
Ok Kamano	

24a. Ise bedo gi guonyruok eduongni?

Kamano	
Ok kamano b. To kaen kamano osetir	ni kuom ndalo adi?
25. To beisebedo gi ichk	ach mar piny ich?

Kamano Ok kamano 26a. To bende isebedo gi tuoche mag era? Kamano Ok kamano Ok kamano b. Tu ku en kamano, kuom kinde mage...... 27b. En tuo mane 28. To be isebedo gi tuo mora mora ka oluore gi? Kamano Ok kamano Image: Im

29a.To bende isebedo gi tik marach e duongni?

Kamano

Ok kamano	
-----------	--

b. To kaen kamano, odiochieng mogik en karango?.....

30. Iluokori didi kuom ngalo abich? (.....)

31. Ango ma itiyo go ka iluokori?

Sabun gi pi

Gimaitigo,ainya (.....)

32. Itiyo gi ango kuom rudho dendi?

Luendo	
Nanga	
Suruachi ma ixe	
Lau ma yom	
Machiel mopogore gi m	ago

33. Itio gi pi maromo nade kailuokori?

Ario	
Achiel gi nus	
Adek gi nus	
Ka opong	
Mokalo besen ka opong	

34. Itieko seche adi kuor	n luokruok? ()
35. In gi sirueche adi ma	a ingo? ()
36. To gi chal nade?	
Koton	
Juala	
Ka nthe machielo	
37a. Iloko lepi mag ixe d	lidi e ndalo abich? ()
B. To i luoko gi didi e no	lalo abich? ()
38a. To beisebebedo ka	iluoko duongni ma opogore gi luok?
Kamano	
Ok kamano	
b. To ka en kamano didi e	e ndalo abich ()
39. Ango ma itio go kuo	m luok duongni?
Pi lilo	
Sabun gi pi	
Mamoko	
40a. To be iseluokoga du	iongni mapixo bang riuruok?
Kamano	
Ok kamano	
b . To ka en kamano, didi	mailuoko duongni bang riuruok?
Osebedo	

Mangeny ne seche achiel	
Seche ma ok oromo achiel	
Matin ne seche achiel	
Nyaka chieng	

(D) LABORATORY FORM

Р	atients ID:								
Date of sample collection: Date of analysis:									
R	Read by			Reviewed b	у				
1	. Amsel criteria								
N	lature of discharge								
p	H reading								
ν	Whiff test (positive, nega	ative)							
C	Clue cells								
C	Conclusion:		В	V positive		В	V negative		
	. Nugent scoring criter Epithelial cells at 100X		Ν	Iorphotype	Point	Morphoty	pe Point		
	<1 per field =1 +			4+ Lacto	0	1+ G.vag			
	1-5 per field = 2+			3+ Lacto	1	2+ G.vag	. 2		
	5-30 per field=3+			2+ Lacto	2	3+ G.vag	. 3		
	>30 per field=4+			1+ Lacto	3	4+ G.vag	. 4		
				0 + Lacto	4	1-2 mobl.	. 1		
							3-4 mobl.	2	
	Gram stain reactions		First rea	ding		Second	reading		-
	Epithelial cells		/10×	ang		/10×	reading		-
	White Blood cells		/10×			/10×			-
	Red blood cells		/100×			/100×			-
	Pleomorphic Gram pos	itive Rods	/100×			/100×			-
	Gram positive cocci		/100×			/100×			-
	Gram negative cocci		/100×			/100×			-
	Gram negative rods	Prevotella spp.	/100×			/100×			
		Fusobacteria spp.	/100×			/100×			-
		Coliforms	/100×			/100×			
	Diptheroids		/100×			/100×			_
	Other non-specified bac	cteria	/100×			/100×			
-	Yeast cells Stem cells								_
	Trichomonas vaginalis								_
	C		_			_			_
	Others (general)								
	Specific indicators								
	Lactobacillus (intermed	liate, Large species)	/100×			/100×			
	G.vaginalis/Bacteroides	S	/100×			/100×			
	Mobiluncus spp.		/100×			/100×			
	BV score (0 to 10)								
	Clue cells BV diagnosis								
	0								

(E) DUMMY TABLES

Specific objective 1

Table 14: Distribution of participant age (years)

Group	Mean/Median	SD/IQR	Minimum	Maximum
BV positive				
BV negative				
All participants				

Table 15: Socio-demographic characteristics of patients

Variable	Category	Frequency	Proportion
Marital status	Single		
	Married		
	Separated		
	Divorced		
Occupation	H/wife		
1	Casual		
	Farmer		
	Small business		
	Office work		
	Not indicated		
Education level	None		
	Primary		
	Secondary		
	College/University		

Variable	Category	Frequency	Proportion
	1		
Parity	2		
	3		
	4		
	5		
	+6		
History of UTI	Yes		
	No		
Gestation week at labor	<32		
	33		
	34		
	35		
	36		

Table 16: Obstetric characteristic of participants

Specific objective 2

Table 17: Bacterial vaginosis infection

Variable	Category	Frequency	Proportion
BV status	Positive		
	Negative		
Bacteria isolated	Lactobacillus		
	Gardenerella & Bacteroides		
	Mobiluncus		
	Fusobacteria		

Severity of BV	Mild	
infection		
	Moderate	
	Severe	

Specific objective 3

Table 18: Socio demographic factors and BV status

Variable	BV positive	BV negative	Chi-square	P-value
Marital status				
Single				
Married				
Divorced/separated				
Education status				
None				
Primary				
Secondary				
College/University				

(F) MATERIALS

Gloves

pH tester (Merck pH, range 4.0 to 7.0)

Glass slide and cover slips

Sterile Dacron swabs

10% Potassium hydroxide

A dropper

Gram stain reagents

Oil

70% alcohol - sterilizer

Disposable towels

4 Slide boxes

Normal saline