ISSN 2518-3214 (Print) ISSN 2518-3222 (Online) Scholars Middle East Publishers, Dubai, United Arab Emirates Journal homepage: <u>https://saudijournals.com</u>

Original Research Article

Detection of Antibodies to Human T Cell Lymphotrophic Virus-I/II and Strongyloides Stercoralis Among Pregnant Women on Antenatal Visits to Selected Hospitals in Jos, Nigeria

Nkup, J. Y^{1, 2*}, Aminu, M Inabo, H. I¹, David, S.A², Cirfat, N. A², Katnap, R. S², Muhammad, R. I², Adamu, R², Goyil, G.A.², Abubakar, F.¹, Aliyu, A.H.³

¹Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Life Sciences, Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), Zaria, Nigeria
 ²Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Jos, Jos Nigeria
 ³Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, Minna General Hospital, Niger State

DOI: 10.36348/sjbr.2022.v07i01.008

| **Received:** 13.12.2021 | **Accepted:** 18.01.2022 | **Published:** 30.01.2022

*Corresponding author: Nkup, J. Y

Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Life Sciences, Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), Zaria, Nigeria

Abstract

Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus (HTLV-I/II) is an oncogenic retrovirus known to cause adult T cell leukemia which is transmitted vertically from mother to child and sexually by infected lymphocytes. Studies suggest that the onset of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATL) in patients infected with HTLV-I/II occurs significantly earlier when the subjects are coinfected with S. stercoralis. This study was aimed at detecting antibodies to HTLV-I/II and Strongyloides stercoralis larvae among pregnant women on antenatal visits to selected hospitals in Jos, Nigeria. A total of 188 blood samples and 136 stool samples were collected for study. Five milliliters (5ml) of venous blood was collected and transferred into a screw capped plastic tube without anticoagulant and sera extracted from each participant's sample and later analyzed for antibodies to HTLV-I/II using double-antigen sandwich enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit. Stool samples were also analyzed using direct stool microscopy and Baemanns technique. Questionnaires were administered for participants' demographics and assessment of risk factors. Data obtained were then analyzed using SPSS version 17. Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus -I/II prevalence of 2.13% (4/188) was detected following the ELISA procedures with 1.06% (2/188) indeterminate results. Risk factors assessed had no statistical association with HTLV-I/II infection except for history of cancer in a family. Five parasite species were detected on stool examination with 2.2% prevalence of Strongyloides stercoralis. Keeping of pet dogs and having itching around legs were statistically associated with Strongyloidiasis (P< 0.05). Routine monitoring of HTLV-I/II and dewormming of pregnant women on antenatal should be a matter of priority.

Keywords: Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus, Strongyloides stercoralis, Pregnant women, Antenatal, Jos.

Copyright © 2022 The Author(s): This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY-NC 4.0) which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non-commercial use provided the original author and source are credited.

INTRODUCTION

Human T cell lymphotrophic/leukemia virus re-emerging I/II (HTLV-I/II) are blood-borne oncogenic viruses infecting millions of individuals worldwide. The human T-lymphotropic virus type I (HTLV-I) and type II (HTLV-II), although closely related, have different clinical manifestations, pathogenesis, and geographical distributions [1]. The etiologic importance of HTLV-1 in the occurrence of certain diseases such as adult T cell leukemia (ATL) neurological diseases; Human [2], Т cell Lymphotrophic Virus Associated Myelopathy (HAM) or Tropical Spastic Paraparesis (TSP) and autoimmunelike diseases including uveitis, arthritis have been extensively documented [3] and it is known to be endemic in many parts of the world, including southwestern Japan, some parts of the Caribbean islands, South America, and foci in western and central Africa and Australo-Melanesia [1]. Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus II on the other hand, despite there being no clear indications associating it with welldefined clinical manifestations, has been associated with sporadic cases of neurological disorders similar to HAM/TSP [4, 5], and has been observed as prevalent in native populations, such as the indigenous peoples of the Americas, certain tribes of pygmies in Africa [5], and injection drug users (IDUs) in urban areas of the United States, Europe, and Latin America [6, 7]. Both HTLV- I/II are transmitted mainly through blood transfusion [8], sex [9] and mother to child infection via breast milk [10].

Human T-cell lymphotropic virus type I/II (HTLV-I/II) are known to have epidemiologic overlap and an immunologic relationship with *Strongyloides stercoralis* [11]; coinfection is associated with higher likelihood of severe strongyloidiasis and more advanced HTLV infection [12]. HTLV trigger a predominant T_{H^-} 1 cytokine immune response which causes down regulation of the T_{H^-} 2– dependent immune responses against *Strongyloides* including degranulation of mast cells, activation of eosinophils, and production of IgE, placing the host at increased risk of more severe strongyloidiasis [13].

Strongyloidiasis is caused by S. stercoralis, an emerging pathogen in the developed world due to increase in global migration and travel. It is estimated that 50-100 million individuals are infected with Strongyloides stercoralis world wide with a high prevalence in tropical regions of Africa, Asia and South America (particularly Brazil and Colombia) [14]. Studies have documented a surprisingly high level of Strongyloides stercoralis among HTLV carriers and of HTLV in Strongyloides stercoralis carriers [15]. Although the relationship between these taxonomically distant agents is yet to be elucidated and still remains controversial, it was proposed that the onset of adult Tcell leukemia/lymphoma (ATL) in patients infected with HTLV occurs significantly earlier when the subjects are coinfected with S. stercoralis [16]. [11] reported that in Japan, S. Stercoralis carriers were found to have a significantly higher seroprevalence for HTLV-I/II than non-S. Stercoralis carriers.

Strongyloides stercoralis is an active geohelminth that usually produces chronic intestinal infection especially in the tropics and subtropical countries of the world. This opportunistic agent can pose a life threatening systemic invasion on immunosuppressed patients including pregnant women. The life cycle of Strongyloides stercoralis is complex. Strongyloides stercoralis infection is acquired by infective filariform larvae (L₃), from contaminated soil, directly penetrating uncovered skin [17] and spread haematogenously through capillaries into the lungs. At the lungs, they cross the alveolar membrane, migrating into the alveolar space, reach the epiglottis and are swallowed down into the mucosa of the small intestine where they become adult worms. The parthenogenetic female lays eggs that release the rhabditiform larvae that migrate to the intestinal lumen and, in stages L_1 and L_2 , are excreted in stool. However, the L_2 larvae may become infective larvae. In this form, the filariform larvae enter the bloodstream by penetrating the colonic mucosa [14]. This is termed autoinfection, and is responsible for the perpetuation of the parasite even after a long period without infestation [18].

Conditions such as malnutrition, malignancies, corticosteroid, immunosuppressive therapy as well as pregnancy impair host resistance and are recognized as risk factors for development of severe strongyloidiasis. Currently, HTLV infection has been identified as the major factor related to disseminated strongyloidiasis [19]. Pregnant women play an important role in the transmission cycle of HTLV-I/II infection and represent an important epidemiological link in the study of *Strongyloides stercoralis* infection, hence, this study aimed to detect HTLV-I/II antibodies and *Strongyloides stercoralis* larvae among pregnant women on antenatal visits to selected hospitals in Jos, Nigeria.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Study Area

This study was conducted among pregnant women on antenatal visits to four selected hospitals in Jos (Plateau Specialist Hospital Jos, Bingham University Teaching Hospital Jos, Ola Hospital Jos, and Vom Christian Hospital Jos) Plateau State, Nigeria which serve as reference hospitals for high risk obstetric patients. Plateau state is located in the middle belt area of Nigeria with an area of 26,899 Km² and an estimated population of 3,000000 people (National Population Census, (NPC), 2006). It is located between latitude 08⁰24'N and Longitude 008⁰32' and 010⁰38' East. Plateau state shares boundaries with Kaduna state to the North West, Bauchi state to the North East, Nasarawa state to the South West and Taraba state to the East.

Study Design and Study Population

This study was a hospital-based cross-sectional study conducted among consented pregnant women at various stages of their gestation period and of all age categories.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

All consented pregnant women without any pregnancy complications on antenatal visits to the selected hospitals were included in this study while non-pregnant female, not giving informed consent and women with acute complications of pregnancy were excluded.

Ethical Approval and Consent

Approval was obtained from the Health Research and Ethics Committee of Bingham University Teaching Hospital Jos. Plateau State (NHREC/23/05/00534) and Vom Christian Hospital Ethics Committee on Research and (VCH/ADM/48/Vol.II/) to detect antibodies to Human T Cell Lymphotrophic Virus I/II and larvae of Strongyloides stercoralis among pregnant women attending selected Hospitals in Jos.

Sample Size Determination

The minimum sample size for this study was obtained using sample size-determination formula adopted from [20], which gave a sample size of 63

using HTLV-I/II antibodies prevalence of 4.3% in pregnant women [21]. However, statistical credence was given to the study by increasing the sample size to 188 pregnant women.

Similarly, the same formula was adopted for the detection of *Strongyloides stercoralis* larvae in stool; however, a prevalence of 2.3% reported by [22] was used. The calculated sample size was 35 which is the least number of stool samples to be used for the study. However, 136 samples were collected for study which corresponds to the number of consented pregnant women that submitted their stool samples.

Data Collection using Structured Questionnaires

Relevant information on demographic and risk factors were obtained from the participants with the aid of standardized questionnaire which were filled by the researcher and a trained assistant.

Blood Collection and Serology

About 5 ml of venous blood was collected into clean screw capped plastic tube without anticoagulant and allowed to clot at room temperature for 30minutes. The clotted samples were then centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 10 minutes. Sera were tested with commercially available Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) kit (manufactured by Diagnostic Automation, Inc., Calabasas, CA, USA). The plates were read with spectrophotometer at a wavelength of 450 nm. Interpretation of the results was then carried out according to the kit's manufacturer's instruction.

Stool Collection and Analysis

The pregnant women were given widemouthed containers for stool sample collection and requested to be submitted 1 hour after collection. A total of 136 stool samples were collected and examined immediately by direct microscopy as adopted from [22], and Baemanns method for the presence of motile S. stercoralis rhabditiform larvae. Briefly, a drop of fresh physiological saline was placed on one end of a clean slide and a drop of iodine placed on the other end of the slide. Using an applicator stick, a small amount of stool specimen was emulsified in the saline and another in the iodine solution. Each preparation was covered with cover slip and examined under the microscope for the presence or absence of the rhabditiform larvae under the microscope using $\times 10$ and $\times 40$ objectives respectively. Baermanns technique employed followed descriptions by [23] for the detection of larvae of Strongyloides stercoralis in stool samples.

Statistical Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the software SPSS version 17 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Pearson's Chi-square test was performed at 95% confidence interval and P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

A total of 188 blood samples from pregnant women on antenatal visits to selected hospitals in Jos were assayed for Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus (HTLV-I/II) IgG antibodies. Of the 188 pregnant women tested for HTLV-I/II antibodies, 4 were found to be seropositive for HTLV-I/II antibodies giving a prevalence of 2.13%, with 2 (1.06%) indeterminate results and the remaining 182 tested negative for HTLV-I/II antibodies (Figure 1).

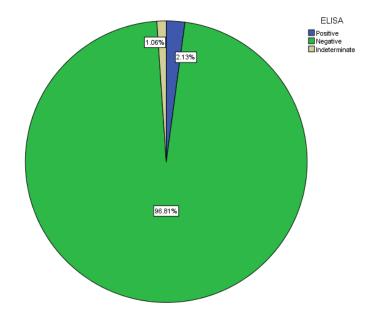


Fig 1: Seroprevalence of Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus IgG Antibodies among Pregnant Women in Jos, Nigeria

Women's socio-demographic variables were assessed in relation to HTLV-I/II infection. All pregnant women were married with age ranged from 14-45years (mean age; 27 ± 5.9). The distribution of antibodies to HTLV-I/II in relation to age showed that women in the age group 36-40years had the highest prevalence of 10.00% (2/20) followed by age group 26-30years with prevalence of 7.02% (4/57). However, there was no statistically significant association between age and HTLV-I/II infection (χ^2 = 14.619 df= 6

P= 0.263). Pregnant women from polygamous families had the highest HTLV-I/II antibodies prevalence of 5.00% (1/20) (χ^2 = 1.178, df= 1 *P*= 0.555) with majority having attended secondary school. However, those who had tertiary education had the highest HTLV-I/II antibodies prevalence of 6.12% (3/49) though not statistically significant (χ^2 = 7.730 df= 6 *P*= 0.259). In terms of occupation, majority of the women studied were into businesses, but HTLV-I/II antibodies prevalence was highest among civil servants (13.04%).

Table 1: Seroprevalence	e of Human T	cell Lymphotrop	hic Virus I/II (HTI	LV-I/II) Antibodi	es in Relation to Socio-
	demographic	Variables among	g Pregnant Women	in Jos, Nigeria	

Variables	No. Examined	No. Positive (%)	
Age			
11-15	1(0.5%)	0(0.00)	14.619(0.263)
16-20	21(11.2%)	0(0.00)	
21-25	60(31.9%)	0(0.00)	
26-30	57(30.3%)	4(7.02)	
31-35	28(14.9%)	0(0.00)	
36-40	20(10.6%)	2(10.00)	
41-45	1(0.5%)	0(0.00)	
Type of Famil	ly		
Monogamy	168(89.4%)	5(2.98)	1.178(0.555)
Polygamy	20(10.6%)	1(5.00)	
Total	188	6(3.19)	
Education Le	vel		
Non-formal	5(2.7%)	0(0.00)	
Primary	30(15.9%)	0(0.00)	
Secondary	104(55.3%)	3(2.88)	
Tertiary	49(26.1%)	3(6.12)	
Total	188(100%)	6(3.19)	
Occupation			
Business	85(45.2%)	2(2.35)	17.323(0.027*)
Civil Servant	23(12.2%)	3(13.04)	
Farming	40(21.3%)	1(2.50)	
House wife	25(13.3%)	0(0.00)	
Student	15(7.9%)	0(0.00)	
Total	188	6(3.19)	

Information on the risk factors to Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus (HTLV-I/II) were also collected and presented in Table 2. On assessment of the risk factors such as history of blood transfusion, sharing of needles and syringes, use of condom, history of surgery, and history of sexually transmitted diseases showed no statistically significant association with

HTLV-I/II infection, however, association was established between history of cancer in the family and infection with the virus (χ^2 = 9.948 df =2 *P*= 0.007). About 8(4.26%) of the women who had history of cancer in their family reported prevalence of 12.50% to HTLV-I/II antibodies.

Table 2: Seroprevalence of Human T cell Lymphotrophic Virus (HTLV-I/II) Antibodies in Relation to some Risk Factors among Pregnant Women in Jos

Factors	No. Examined	No. Positive (%)	χ^2 (P-Value)
History of Blood Transfusion			0.302(0.751)
Yes	9(4.8%)	0(0.00)	
No	179(95.2%)	6(3.35)	
Sharing of needles and syringes			0.576(0.584)
Yes	15(7.98%)	0(0.00)	
No	173(92.02%)	6(3.47)	
Condom Use			1.135(0.287)
Yes	17(9.04%)	3(17.65)	
No	171(90.95%)	3(1.75)	

© 2022 | Published by Scholars Middle East Publishers, Dubai, United Arab Emirates

Nkup, J. Y	<i>et al.</i> , Saudi J	Biomed Res,	Jan, 2022;	7(1): 57-66
------------	-------------------------	-------------	------------	-------------

Factors	No. Examined	No. Positive (%)	χ^2 (P-Value)
Previous Surgery			0.552(0.759)
Yes	16(8.51%)	0(0.00)	
No	172(91.49%)	6(3.49)	
Itraveinous Drug use			0.290(0.865)
Yes	8(4.26%)	0(0.00)	
No	180(95.74%)	6(3.33)	
History of Sexually Transmitted Disease			0.390(0.823)
Yes	61(32.45%)	2(3.28)	
No	127(67.55%)	4(3.15)	
History of Cancer in Family			9.948(0.007**)
Yes	8(4.26%)	1(12.50)	
No	180(95.74%)	5(2.78)	

A total of 31(22.79%) parasites belonging to four helminthic genuses were detected in stool samples of pregnant women in Jos. *Strongyloides stercoralis* was detected in 3 of the 136 pregnant women who participated in this study giving the prevalence of 2.21% (Figure 2).

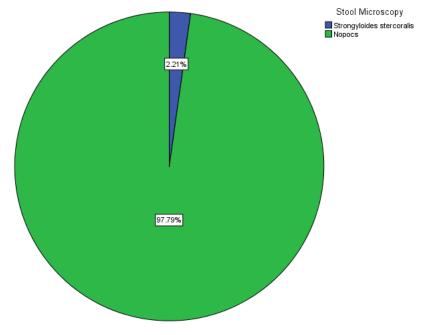


Fig 2: Prevalence of Strongyloides stercoralis in Pregnant Women in Jos, Nigeria

The frequency of *Strongyloides stercoralis* infection among pregnant women positive for HTLV-I/II IgG antibodies is presented in Table 3. The result showed that none of the HTLV-I/II carriers had *Strongyloides stercoralis* and there was no significant association between infection with HTLV-I/II and having *Strongyloides stercoralis* within the study population ($\chi^2 = 0.591$, df = 2, P-value =0.744,).

Analysis of symptoms and environmental factors of the pregnant women revealed that those who had itching around the legs, seen worms in stool, coughed out worm and abdominal pain were significantly associated with parasite in infection (Table 4).

 Table 3: Frequency of Infection with Strongyloides stercoralis among Pregnant Women Positive for HTLV I/II

 IgG antibodies in Jos

S. stercoralis						
		Positive	Negative	Total	χ^2 (P-Value)	
HTLV-I/II	Positive	0(0.00%)	6(100.00%)	6	0.142(0.707)	
	Negative	3(2.31%)	127(97.69%)	130		
	Total	3(2.21%)	133(97.79%)	136		

Nkup, J. Y et al., Saudi J Biomed Res, Jan, 2022; 7(1): 57-66

Table 4: Prevalence of Parasites Detected in Stools of Pregnant Women in Relation to some Risk Factors				
Factors	No. Examined (%)	No. Positive (%)	(P-Value)	O R (95% CI)
Toilet at Home			0.594	0.764(0.288-2.028)
Yes	109	24(22.02)		
No	27	7(25.93		
You Defecate in Toilet			0.518	1.358(0.528-3.490)
Yes	98	24(24.49)		
No	38	7(18.42)		
Keep Pet Dogs			0.024	2.577(1.123-5.911)
Yes	57	18(31.58)		
No	79	13(16.46)		
Are You a Farmer			0.052	3.557(0.810-16.588)
Yes	112	28(25.00)		
No	24	3(12.50)		
Do You Have Itching around			0.033	2.813(1.113-7.106)
the Leg				
Yes	26	11(42.31)		
No	110	20(18.18)		
Have You Seen Worms in			0.000	14.000(5.056-38.700)
Stool				
Yes	24	16(66.67)		
No	112	15(13.39)		
Coughed Out Worms			0.004	10.400(1.906-56.755)
Yes	7	5(71.43)		
No	129	26(20.16)		
Abdominal Pain			0.098	1.993(0.877-4.526)
Yes	59	18(30.51)		
No	77	13(16.88)		
Diarrrhoea			0.835	1.125(0.375-3.372)
Yes	21	5(23.81)		
No	115	26(22.61)		

DISCUSSION

Considering their strategic importance in the chain of transmission of HTLV-I/II, pregnant women are better population group in estimating the true burden of HTLV infection in a region deemed endemic like Nigeria. This crossectional study has confirmed the presence of antibodies to HTLV-I/II among pregnant women and to the best of our knowledge, the first study on HTLV-I/II coinfection with *Strongyloides stercoralis* among pregnant women in Nigeria.

In this study, 2.13% prevalence of HTLV-I/II antibodies was reported among pregnant women on antenatal visits to selected hospitals in Jos. This prevalence is not surprising considering that Jos is a cosmopolitan city characterized by high level of ethnocultural and social activities especially among youths. The result agrees well with the categorization of the study area as HTLV-I/II endemic location in Nigeria as the virus is considered endemic in areas where the prevalence ranges from 0.5 to 20% in the population [24]. The prevalence is relatively higher compared to similar studies in Ilorin, North Central Nigeria where [25] reported a prevalence of 1.1% and the 0.5% prevalence documented by [26] in Enugu, South Eastern Nigeria among pregnant women. The result of the present study is similar to the 2.1% reported by [27]

in Accra, Ghana; however, it is lower compared to the reported prevalence from South Western part of the Nigeria. [28] reported a prevalence of 22.9% among Commercial Sex Workers (CSWs) and 16.7% among pregnant women in South Western Nigeria. Similarly [21], examined the prevalence in mother-child pair; a prevalence of 4.3% was reported among mothers, while 1.1% was reported among children. This disparity in results with some reports from South Western part of the country indicates somewhat different epidemiology of the virus in North Central Nigeria. Ethnic, social, cultural and other differences have been noted to affect the distribution of the virus [25]. Although it is not yet established how these factors affect the distribution of the virus, but a relationship between these factors and progression of the proviral load in infected individuals have been established [29]. In addition, differences in sample size could also be attributable to the disparity in results.

Studies in different parts of the world have identified socio demographic variables like age, gender, socio-economic status and environmental conditions as factors for acquisition of HTLV-I/II [30]. In relation to family type, the highest prevalence of 5.0% was observed among women from polygamous families compared to 2.9% observed among women from monogamous families. The high prevalence observed among women in polygamous family may be attributed to multiple sexual partners of the spouse, given transmission from husband to wife to be 60% and from wife to husband to be 0.4% over a 10 year period [1]. This study shows that the seropositivity of HTLV-I/II increases with age in pregnant women, with the highest prevalence found in age group 36-40 years, although there was no statistical association between age and HTLV-I/II. This finding agrees with the submissions of [25] and [31] who reported higher prevalence among older participants (26 years and above). The result is also consistent with the studies of [32] which showed that HTLV infection increases with age from 20 to 40 years in Nigeria as well as other endemic countries [33]. The result in this study may not be surprising and could indicate greater sexual involvement which is known to be a major mode of transmission of the virus. Differences in the number of pregnant women examined within each age group could also be attributed to the observed prevalence.

Tests of association between the women's level of education and occupation with seroprevalence of HTLV-I/II showed that women with tertiary education had the highest prevalence of 6.1% and 13.0% among civil servants. This result is slightly higher than studies of [30] who reported prevalence of 2.7% among students and 0.0% among civil servants in Osun state, Nigeria. The observed prevalence could be true of increase sexual activities on campus and could translate into the status of the work force in a country. The limited literatures for comparison in these areas highlight the need for further studies.

Risk factors for HTLV-I/II infection include multiple sexual partners, a history of STD [34], intravenous drug use [35] and previous blood transfusion [8]. However, the present study shows no association between history of blood transfusion, sharing of needles, condom use, history of previous surgery, intravenous drug use, history of sexually transmitted diseases and HTLV-I/II infection (p>0.05). A significant association was observed between history of cancer in the family and seropositivity to HTLV-I/II among women ($\chi^2 = 9.948$ P-Value = 0.007). HTLV-I/II associated diseases in family members have been reported [36], however, does having a relative with an HTLV-I/II associated disease increase an HTLV carrier's risk to develop an associated disease as well? There is limited knowledge of the factors implicated in the development of HTLV-I/II-associated diseases and, in consequence, the lack of measures to prevent them, it remains difficult to answer such questions [37]. This calls for further studies on the risk of cancer in family and infection with HTLV.

Coinfection of *Strongyloides stercoralis* with HTLV-I/II is known increase the chances of early onset and development of HTLV-I/II-associated diseases. Moreso, parasitic infection among different population

is a function of many different factors. Most importantly the environmental factors, parasitic factors and host factors [38]. This study recorded Strongyloides stercoralis prevalence of 2.2% among pregnant women on antenatal visits to selected hospitals in Jos, Nigeria. This helminth generally has low prevalence as observed in most studies. This reason for low prevalence may not be unconnected to its vulnerability to adverse environmental conditions hence its alternate mode of infection, auto-infection [39]. The low prevalence could also be associated to climate and weather at the time of study. The study was conducted during the dry season where the ground was so dry which may have contributed to the unlivable infective stage making unbroken penetration of the skin difficult. Comparatively, this finding is similar to reports of [22] and close to the 2.5% reported by [40].

Infection with HTLV-I/II, even in asymptomatic carriers, is usually associated with immunologic alterations resulting in decreased levels of serum IgE [41, 42] predisposing a host to parasitic infections including Strongyloides stercoralis. In this study, Strongyloides stercoralis prevalence of 2.2% was recorded; however, the prevalence of the parasite in HTLV-I/II positive pregnant women was 0.0%. This agrees with the findings of [43] from Japan and [44] in Jamaica which revealed that there was no serologic relation between Strongyloides stercoralis infection and HTLV-I/II. The study however disagrees with the report of [15] who documented higher prevalence (31.6%) of Strongyloides stercoralis among HTLV-I/II carriers than those without HTLV-I/II infection in Okinawa, Japan. Results from this study suggest that infection with HTLV-I/II does not predispose people to Strongyloides stercoralis infection since acquisition of the parasite is dependent on exposure to infective larvae, whether or not immune status of the host is altered by HTLV-I/II.

Factors such as poor environmental conditions, insufficient health care education, lack of toilet facilities, as well as lack of public health hygiene, coupled with the complete absence of pipe-borne water could predispose individuals to parasitic infection. In this study, having itching of legs, keeping of pet dog, seeing worms in stool and coughing out of worms have been noted to have significant association with worm burden while other risk factors such having toilet facility, abdominal pain, diarrhea and being a farmer were as well assessed. Studies on the risk factors for were scarce Strongyloides stercoralis making comparisons difficult, however, [45] made similar emphasis that absence of footwear, other household members already being infected, and poor sanitation facilities as well keeping dogs which are reservoir of S. stercoralis are potential risk factors.

Study on antibodies to HTLV-I/II and infection with *Strongyloides stercoralis* among

pregnant women on antenatal visits to selected hospitals in Jos, Nigeria shows no coinfection with HTLV-I/II and Strongyloides stercoralis among the pregnant women, however, 2.13% of the women have antibodies to HTLV-I/II and 2.21% were found to be infected with larvae of S. stercoralis. We strongly recommend the incorporation of routine screening for HTLV-I/II among all pregnant women during antenatal visits as this will go a long way in proper management of HTLV-I/II infections and slow the spread of the viruses. Observing personal hygiene and deworming of all pregnant women infected with Strongyloides stercoralis to prevent disseminated strongyloidiasis is also recommended.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors would like to acknowledge, specifically, the contributions of Professor M. Aminu, and Professor H. I. Inabo in playing vital roles in the design and supervision of this research work from start to finish. To all the health care facilities we worked with, and the contributions of the nurses at the antenatal unit of the hospitals during samples collection is highly commendable. We also appreciate the cooperation of all pregnant women who participated in this study.

REFERENCES

- 1. Paiva, A., & Casseb, J. (2015). Origin and prevalence of human T-lymphotropic virus type 1 (HTLV-1) and type 2 (HTLV-2) among indigenous populations in the Americas. *Revista do Instituto de Medicina Tropical de São Paulo*, *57*(1), 01-14.
- 2. Robert-Guroff, M., & Gallo, R. C. (1983). Establishment of an etiologic relationship between the human T-cell leukemia/lymphoma virus (HTLV) and adult T-cell leukemia. *Blut*, 47(1), 1-12.
- Swaims, A. Y., Khani, F., Zhang, Y., Roberts, A. I., Devadas, S., Shi, Y., & Rabson, A. B. (2010). Immune activation induces immortalization of HTLV-1 LTR-Tax transgenic CD4+ T cells. *Blood, The Journal of the American Society of Hematology*, 116(16), 2994-3003.
- 4. Araujo, A., & Hall, W. W. (2004). Human Tlymphotropic virus type II and neurological disease. *Annals of neurology*, *56*(1), 10-19.
- Hall, W. W., Ishak, R., Zhu, S. W., Novoa, P., Eiraku, N., Takahashi, H., ... & Kurata, T. (1996). Human T lymphotropic virus type II (HTLV-II): epidemiology, molecular properties, and clinical features of infection. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*, 13, S204-S214.
- Toro, C., Rodés, B., Bassani, S., Jiménez, V., Tuset, C., Brugal, M. T., ... & HTLV Spanish Study Group. (2005). Molecular epidemiology of HTLV-2 infection among intravenous drug users in Spain. *Journal of clinical virology*, 33(1), 65-70.
- de Araujo, A. C., do Rosario Casseb, J. S., Neitzert, E., De Souza, M. X., Mammano, F., Del Mistro, A., ... & Chieco-Bianchi, L. (1994). HTLV-I and

HTLV-II infections among HIV-1 seropositive patients in Sao Paulo, Brazil. *European journal of epidemiology*, *10*(2), 165-171.

- Manns, A., Wilks, R. J., Murphy, E. L., Haynes, G., Figueroa, J. P., Barnett, M., ... & Blattner, W. A. (1992). A prospective study of transmission by transfusion of HTLV-I and risk factors associated with seroconversion. *International journal of cancer*, 51(6), 886-891.
- Murphy, E. L., Figueroa, J. P., Gibbs, W. N., Brathwaite, A., Holding-Cobham, M., Waters, D., ... & Blattner, W. A. (1989). Sexual transmission of human T-lymphotropic virus type I (HTLV-I). Annals of internal medicine, 111(7), 555-560.
- Wiktor, S. Z., Pate, E. J., Rosenberg, P. S., Barnett, M., Palmer, P., Medeiros, D., ... & Blattner, W. A. (1997). Mother-to-child transmission of human Tcell lymphotropic virus type I associated with prolonged breast-feeding. *Journal of human virology*, 1(1), 37-44.
- 11. Nakada, K., Kohakura, M., Komoda, H., & Hinuma, Y. (1984). High incidence of HTLV antibody in carriers of Strongyloides stercoralis. *Lancet* (*London, England*), 1(8377), 633-633.
- Nakada, K., Yamaguchi, K., Furugen, S., Nakasone, T., Nakasone, K., Oshiro, Y., ... & Takatsuki, K. (1987). Monoclonal integration of HTLV-I proviral DNA in patients with strongyloidiasis. *International Journal of Cancer*, 40(2), 145-148.
- 13. Marcos, L. A., Terashima, A., Canales, M., & Gotuzzo, E. (2011). Update on strongyloidiasis in the immunocompromised host. *Current infectious disease reports*, 13(1), 35-46.
- Carvalho, E. M., & Da Fonseca Porto, A. (2004). Epidemiological and clinical interaction between HTLV-1 and Strongyloides stercoralis. *Parasite immunology*, 26(11-12), 487-497.
- 15. Hirata, T., Uchima, N., Kishimoto, K., Zaha, O., Kinjo, N., Hokama, A., ... & Fujita, J. (2006). Impairment of host immune response against Strongyloides stercoralis by human T cell lymphotropic virus type 1 infection. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*, 74(2), 246-249.
- Chieffi, P. P., Chiattone, C. S., Feltrim, E. N., Alves, R., & Paschoalotti, M. A. (2000). Coinfection by Strongyloides stercoralis in blood donors infected with human T-cell leukemia/lymphoma virus type 1 in Sao Paulo City, Brazil. *Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz*, 95, 711-712.
- 17. Getaneh, A., Medhin, G., & Shimelis, T. (2010). Cryptosporidium and Strongyloides stercoralis infections among people with and without HIV infection and efficiency of diagnostic methods for Strongyloides in Yirgalem Hospital, southern Ethiopia. *BMC research notes*, *3*(1), 1-6.

© 2022 | Published by Scholars Middle East Publishers, Dubai, United Arab Emirates

- Schär, F., Odermatt, P., Khieu, V., Panning, M., Duong, S., Muth, S., ... & Kramme, S. (2013). Evaluation of real-time PCR for Strongyloides stercoralis and hookworm as diagnostic tool in asymptomatic schoolchildren in Cambodia. *Acta tropica*, *126*(2), 89-92.
- Porto, M.A., Muniz, A., Oliveira, J. J. and Carvalho, E.M. (2002). Clinical and immunological consequences of the association between HTLV-1 and strongyloidiasis. *Revista daSociedade Brasileira deMedicina Tropical*, 35: 641–649.
- 20. Kadam, P., & Bhalerao, S. (2010). Sample size calculation. *International Journal of Ayurveda Research*, 1(1), 55-58.
- Olaleye, D. O., Omotade, O. O., Sheng, Z., Adeyemo, A. A., & Odaibo, G. N. (1999). HumanT-Cell Lymphotropic Virus Type I and II Infections in Mother-Child Pairs in Nigeria. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics*, 45, 66-70.
- Alli, J. A., Okonko, I. O., Kolade, A. F., Nwanze, J. C., Dada, V. K., & Ogundele, M. (2011). Prevalence of intestinal nematode infection among pregnant women attending antenatal clinic at the University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria. Advances in Applied Science Research, 2(4), 1-13.
- Garcia, L. and Bruckner, D. (2001). Diagnostic medical parasitology. eds Washington DC: *American Society for Microbiology*, 1–179.
- Proietti, F. A., Carneiro-Proietti, A. B. F., Catalan-Soares, B. C., & Murphy, E. L. (2005). Global epidemiology of HTLV-I infection and associated diseases. *Oncogene*, 24(39), 6058-6068.
- Udeze, A. O., Odebisi-Omokanye, M. B., Faneye, A., Olusola, B. A., Ogunsemowo, O., Iwuoha, C., & Atoyebi, V. (2018). Serological detection of human T-cell lymphotropic virus types I and II among pregnant women in Ilorin, Nigeria. *Journal* of *Immunoassay and Immunochemistry*, 39(4), 428-438.
- Okoye, A. E., Ibegbulam, O. G., Onoh, R. C., Ugwu, N. I., Anigbo, C. S., & Nonyelu, C. E. (2015). Seroprevalence of human T-cell lymphoma/leukemia virus type-1 (HTLV-1) antibodies among blood donors at Enugu, Nigeria. *Journal of blood medicine*, *6*, 31-36.
- Armah, H. B., Narter-Olaga, E. G., Adjei, A. A., Asomaning, K., Gyasi, R. K., & Tettey, Y. (2006). Seroprevalence of human T-cell lymphotropic virus type I among pregnant women in Accra, Ghana. *Journal of medical microbiology*, 55(6), 765-770.
- Forbi, J. C., & Odetunde, A. B. (2007). Human Tcell lymphotropic virus in a population of pregnant women and commercial sex workers in South Western Nigeria. *African Health Sciences*, 7(3), 129-132.
- Kwaan, N., Lee, T. H., Chafets, D. M., Nass, C., Newman, B., Smith, J., ... & HTLV Outcomes Study (HOST) Investigators. (2006). Long-Term

Variations in Human T Lymphotropic Virus (HTLV)–I and HTLV-II Proviral Loads and Association with Clinical Data. *The Journal of infectious diseases*, *194*(11), 1557-1564.

- Adekunle, O. T., Rotimi, T. O., Alabi, B. L., Ogunfolakan, O. O., Alabi, A. O., & Agunlejika, A. S. (2015). Prevalence of Human T-lymphotropic Virus I and II among Patients Visiting Bowen University Clinic in Nigeria. *Int. J. Health Sci. Res*, 5(11), 115-118.
- Verdonck, K., González, E., Van Dooren, S., Vandamme, A. M., Vanham, G., & Gotuzzo, E. (2007). Human T-lymphotropic virus 1: recent knowledge about an ancient infection. *The Lancet infectious diseases*, 7(4), 266-281.
- Olaleye, D. O., Bernstein, L., Sheng, Z., Ekweozor, C. C., Li, X. Y., Sullivan-Halley, J., & Rasheed, S. (1994). Type-specific immune response to human T cell lymphotropic virus (HTLV) type I and type II infections in Nigeria. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*, 50(4), 479-486.
- 33. Murphy, E., Figueroa, P., Gibbs, W. N., Holding-Cobham, M., Cranston, B., Malley, K., ... & Blattner, W. A. (1991). Human T-lymphotropic virus type I (HTLV-I) seroprevalence in Jamaica: I. Demographic determinants. *American journal of epidemiology*, 133(11), 1114-1124.
- 34. Zunt, J. R., Tapia, K., Thiede, H., Lee, R., & Hagan, H. (2006). HTLV-2 infection in injection drug users in King County, Washington. Scandinavian journal of infectious diseases, 38(8), 654-663.
- 35. Fukushima, Y., Takahashi, H., Hall, W. W., Nakasone, T., Nakata, S., Song, P., Duc, D. D., Hien, B., Quang, N. X., Trinh, T. N., Nishioka, K., Kitamura, K., Komuro, K., Vahlne, A., & Honda, M. (1995). Extraordinary high rate of HTLV -2 seropositivity in IDUs in South Vietnam. *AIDS Research and Human Retroviruses*, 11(5), 637-645.
- Imamura, N., Koganemaru, S., & Kuramoto, A. (1982). T-cell leukemia a few months apart in two brothers. *Lancet*, 1361-1362.
- Alvarez, C., Gotuzzo, E., Vandamme, A. M., & Verdonck, K. (2016). Family aggregation of human T-lymphotropic virus 1-associated diseases: a systematic review. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 7, 1674.
- Cheesebrough, M. (2004). District laboratory practice in tropical countries. Part 2. Cambridge University Press, p.357.
- 39. Mordi, R. M., & Ngwodo, P. O. A. (2007). A study of blood and gastro-intestinal parasites in Edo state. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, *6*(19), 2201-2207.
- Nwosu, D. C., Nwoke, B. E. D., & Anosike, J. C. (2004). Aspects of sanitation and intestinal helminth infection in children in Aba, Abia State, Nigeria. In 28th annual conference Abstract (47) Niger. Soc. Parasitol, 20(53), pp. 545-547.

- 41. Newton, R. C., Limpuangthip, P., Greenberg, S., Gam, A., & Neva, F. A. (1992). Strongyloides stercoralis hyperinfection in a carrier of HTLV-I virus with evidence of selective immunosuppression. *The American journal of medicine*, 92(2), 202-208.
- 42. Hayashi, J., Kishihara, Y., Yoshimura, E., Furusyo, N., Yamaji, K., Kawakami, Y., ... & Kashiwagi, S. (1997). Correlation between human T cell lymphotropic virus type-1 and Strongyloides stercoralis infections and serum immunoglobulin E responses in residents of Okinawa, Japan. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*, 56(1), 71-75.
- 43. Arakaki, T., Asato, R., Ikeshiro, T., Sakiyama, K., & Iwanaga, M. (1992). Is the prevalence of HTLV-

1 infection higher in Strongyloides carriers than in non-carriers?. Tropical medicine and parasitology: official organ of Deutsche Tropenmedizinische Gesellschaft and of Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), 43(3), 199-200.

- Nera, F. A., Murphy, E. L., Gam, A., Hanchard, B., Figueroa, J. P., & Blattner, W. A. (1989). Antibodies to Strongyloides stercoralis in healthy Jamaican carriers of HTLV-1. *The New England journal of medicine*, 320(4), 252-253.
- 45. Paltridge, M., & Traves, A. (2018). The health effects of strongyloidiasis on pregnant women and children: a systematic literature review. *Tropical medicine and infectious disease*, *3*(2), 50.