



Seroprevalence of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 2 and Associated Risk Factors among Undergraduate Female Students of Babcock University, Nigeria

Seyi Samson Enitan^{1*}, John Cletus Ihongbe¹, John Okeleke Ochei¹,
Adeolu Sunday Oluremi¹, Grace Elejo Itodo², Stanley Osahon Usiobeigbe¹
and Wuraola Ajisola Fagboyegun¹

¹Department of Medical Laboratory Science, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Nigeria.

²Department of Medical Microbiology, Federal Medical Center, Lokoja, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Authors SSE designed the study, wrote the protocol and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Authors JCI and JOO managed the analyses of the study. Authors ASO and GEI managed the literature searches. Authors SOU and WAF performed the statistical analysis. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/ISRR/2020/v9i130103

Editor(s):

(1) Dr. Kailash Gupta, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH, USA.

Reviewers:

(1) Victor B. Oti, Nasarawa State University, Keffi, Nigeria.

(2) Sandra E. Perez, National University of Central Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Complete Peer review History: <http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/53988>

Received 15 November 2019

Accepted 17 January 2020

Published 23 January 2020

Original Research Article

ABSTRACT

Background: Herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2) causes genital herpes, a chronic viral infection that is sexually transmitted and often results in genital ulcer disease (GUD) worldwide.

Aim: The aim of this study was to determine the prevalence of herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2) IgG and IgM antibodies and the associated risk factors among undergraduate female students of Babcock University.

Methods: After ethical approval was obtained, serum samples of 150 consenting female participants (16-35 years) were collected randomly and screened using NADAL^R HSV-2 IgG/IgM Rapid Antibody Test Cassette (Bulgarian Company for Biotechnology, Sofia, Bulgaria). The demographic and clinical information of the participants were also collected using a structured questionnaire. The results were statistically analyzed using the SPSS version 18.0.

Results: The outcome of the study shows that out of the 150 participants screened, 5 (3.3%) were positive for HSV-2 IgG antibody, 4 (2.7%) were positive for HSV-2 IgM; while 2 (1.3%) were positive for both HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies. There were no significant differences ($P>0.05$) in the seropositivity for HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies among the study participants on the basis of age distribution. With regards to clinical indication for genital herpes in relation to seropositivity of HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies among the study participants, none of the 7 (4.6%) who indicated vaginal itching was seropositive for either HSV-2 IgG or HSV-2 IgM or both. On the other hand, genital lesions were recorded in 0.7% HSV-2 IgG seropositive, 1.3% HSV-2 IgM seropositive and 0.7% HSV-2 both IgG and IgM seropositive. Genital ulcer was recorded among two participants who were either seropositive for HSV-2 IgG (0.7%) or HSV-2 IgM (0.7%). Only one (0.7%) participant indicated inguinal lymphadenopathy, however, the person was HSV-2 IgG/IgM seronegative. Identifiable risk factor significantly ($P<0.05$) associated with HSV-2 infection include: history of sexually transmitted infections, HIV positive status, and change of sex partners recently.

Conclusion: The outcome of this study shows that HSV-2 infection exists among undergraduate female students of Babcock University, Nigeria and therefore appropriate public health measures must be taken to halt the cycle of infection within the University community. Early detection of genital herpes and prompt treatment will help prevent subsequent complications such as genital ulcer disease among young female adults.

Keywords: Herpes simplex virus type 2; IgG; IgM; genital herpes; risk factors; Babcock University.

1. INTRODUCTION

Herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2), a sexually transmitted double stranded DNA virus is the aetiologic agent of genital herpes infection and the primary cause of genital ulcer disease, a global public health concern especially among female population [1,2]. The virus has also been identified as an important risk factor for urethritis and cervical cancer among women [3].

Infection may be transmitted through contact with HSV-2 in herpes lesions, mucosal surfaces, genital secretions, or oral secretions [2,4]. Generally, a person can only get HSV-2 infection during genital contact with someone who has a genital HSV-2 infection. However, receiving oral sex from a person with an oral HSV-1 infection can result in getting a genital HSV-1 infection [5]. Transmission commonly occurs from contact with an infected partner who does not have visible lesions and who may not know that he or she is infected [6]. When symptoms do occur, herpes lesions typically appear as one or more vesicles, or small blisters, on or around the genitals, rectum or mouth. The average incubation period for an initial herpes infection is 4 days (range, 2 to 12) after exposure. The vesicles break and leave painful ulcers that may take two to four weeks to heal after the initial herpes infection [7,8].

Annual incidence of HSV-2 infection is 23 million [5,9]. In 2012, an estimated 417 million (11.3%) 15-49 year-old individuals were infected with HSV-2 worldwide [10]. CDC 2015-2016 reports

on latest estimates of HSV-2 prevalence in the United States was 11.9%, for individuals aged 14 to 49 years [11]. According to Ayoub et al. [12] an estimated 19 million people are currently infected with HSV-2 globally. Prevalence is highest in Africa (31.5%) and Nigeria is not left out among the African countries bearing the scourge of HSV-2 infection. Ojinmah et al. [13] reported a prevalence of 77.9% among female patients attending skin and ante natal care (ANC) clinics at University of Nigeria Teaching Hospital and Enugu State Teaching Hospital, Enugu state, Nigeria.

HSV-2 prevalence has been associated with age, gender, number of sexual partners, socioeconomic status and immunodeficiency amongst others [14]. Other prenatal risk factors of HSV-2 infection are ethnicity, poverty, cocaine abuse, early sexual activity, sexual behavior and bacterial vaginosis [15-17].

HSV-2 infection is often sub-clinical; therefore, most infected persons are unaware of their infection. HSV-2 has perineal transmission during labor and may lead to fatal neonatal infections [18,19]. HSV-2 infection has been associated with 2 to 3-fold increase in the risk of developing HIV infection [5]. Although HSV-2 is not a life-threatening infection, it may cause fulminant hepatitis among pregnant women and persistent severe infection among immune-compromised patients and even in normal immune persons [20].

Early detection of HSV-2 infection might prevent the occurrence of genital ulcer disease and its

attending complications. However, the percentage occurrence of HSV-2 IgM and IgG antibodies among undergraduate female students of Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria is not known. Scarcity of information in this regard, therefore necessitates this study.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Study Area

This cross-sectional institution based study was carried out among female undergraduate students of Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State. Babcock University is a private Christian co-educational Nigerian university owned and operated by the Seventh-day Adventist Church in Nigeria. The university is located at Ilishan-Remo equidistant between Ibadan and Lagos, South-Western region of Nigeria, coordinates: 6.8862° N, 3.7055° E, with an estimated student population of about 10, 000 [21].

2.2 Study Population

Undergraduate female students of Babcock University were the target population. Female students within the age range of 16-35 years from different ethnic, religious and cultural background; studying different courses in various Departments were included in the study. There are nine female halls in the University (Ameyo Adadevoh, Crystal, Felicia Adebisi Dada, Havilah Gold, Nyberg, Ogden, Platinum and Queen Esther). Study participants were selected from each Hall of Residence at random between the months of March and May, 2019.

2.3 Sample Size Calculation

The sample size (N) was estimated using the formula described by Charan and Biswas [22]:

$$N = Z^2 PQ/d^2$$

Where;

N = required sample size,

Z = standard normal variate at 5% ($p < 0.05$) error or 95% confidence interval is 1.96

P = proportion of the population with HSV-2 infection from previous study,

Q = proportion of the population without HSV-2 infection ($1 - P$) and

d = Absolute error margin is 0.05

$$N = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.102 \times 0.898}{0.05^2}$$

For the calculation, a 95% confidence interval a P value of 0.102, *i.e.*, a prevalence rate of 10.2% from a previous study by Mirambo et al. [23], and margin of error (d) set at 0.05 was used to determine the minimum sample size required. To minimize errors arising from the likelihood of non-compliance, 10% of the sample size was added giving a final sample size of 150.

2.4 Sample Size

A total of 150 blood specimens were collected randomly from consenting apparently healthy female undergraduate students of Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State.

2.5 Eligibility of Subjects

2.5.1 Inclusion criteria

Consenting apparently healthy undergraduate female students of Babcock University were randomly recruited for the study.

2.5.2 Exclusion criteria

Undergraduate female students with history of anti-viral drugs or native herbal solution in the preceding two (2) weeks were excluded from the study. Also, undergraduate male students, as well as the postgraduate female and male Students of Babcock University were excluded from the study.

2.6 Data Collection

Prior to specimen collection, demographic and clinical information were obtained from participants through administration of prepared questionnaires and personal interviews. Each questionnaire has a unique participant identification number (PIDN). The first part of the questionnaire contained the biodata of the patients *e.g.* Name, sex, age, educational level, religion and marital status. Second part included history of genital infection (painful urination, itchy genital, swollen genital, genital discharge etc.), risk factors (if any), personal hygiene and health care-seeking behavior. The study population was stratified by age, study level, religion, tribe and hall of residence. Response to structured questionnaire administered was used to collect data on epidemiology and demographic trends of HSV-2 infection. For the purpose of privacy, all information obtained from the participant was treated confidentially.

2.7 Specimen Collection and Storage

Blood specimen was collected from each participant via venous puncture using standard procedure. The collected blood specimens were conveyed to the laboratory unit of the Department of Medical Laboratory Science, Babcock University. The blood specimens were made to stand for about an hour to clot, retracted and centrifuged afterwards at 3,500 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature. The yielded serum was transferred to another clean sterile plain bottle and analyzed immediately, otherwise, where a delay was envisaged, the sera were stored at 2-8°C for up to three days. The specimen was kept at a temperature below -20°C for long term storage. The frozen specimens

were properly thawed and mixed before testing commenced. Multiple freeze-thaw cycles of the sera were avoided. Prior to testing, frozen specimens were brought to room temperature slowly and mixed gently.

2.8 Laboratory Analyses

2.8.1 Detection of serum anti-HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies

Serum anti-HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies were detected using a NADAL^R HSV-2 IgG/IgM Rapid Antibody Test Cassette supplied by Bulgarian Company for Biotechnology, Sofia, Bulgaria according to the manufacturer instruction.

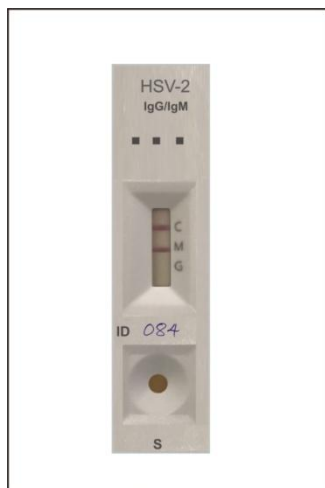


Fig. 1. HSV-2 Cassette positive for only IgM antibody

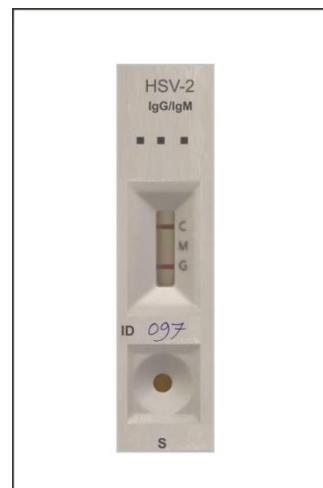


Fig. 2. HSV-2 Cassette positive for only IgG antibody

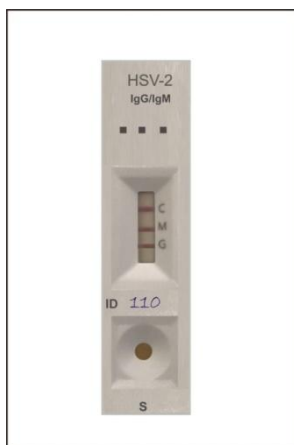


Fig. 3. HSV-2 Cassette positive for both IgM & IgG antibodies

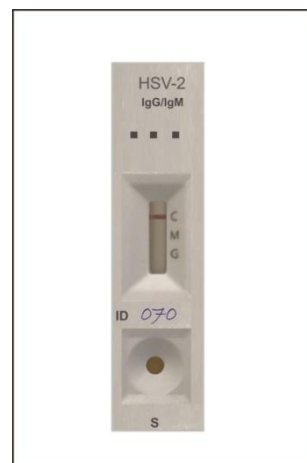


Fig. 4. HSV-2 Cassette negative for both IgM & IgG

2.8.2 Interpretation of results

2.8.2.1 Positive Result

In addition to the presence of the Control “C” line, if only the IgM “M” line is developed, the test indicates the presence of IgM anti-HSV-2 in the specimen. The result is positive or reactive. In addition to the presence of the Control “C” line, if only the IgG “G” line is developed, the test indicates the presence of IgG anti-HSV-2 in the specimen. The result is positive or reactive. Also in addition to the presence of the Control “C” line, if both the “M” and the “G” lines are developed, the test indicates the presence of both IgM and IgG anti-HSV-2 in the specimen. The result is positive or reactive.

2.8.2.2 Negative Result

If only the “C” line is present, the absence of any pink color in both the test lines (M and G) indicates that no anti-HSV-2 antibodies are detected in the specimen. The result is negative or non-reactive.

2.8.2.3 Invalid Result

If no control “C” line is developed, the assay is invalid regardless of the pink color in the test bands as indicated. A total absence of color in either regions or only one color band appearing on the test region indicates procedure error and/or the test reagent has deteriorated. If this occurs, the assay is repeated with a new device.

2.9 Data Analysis

Data obtained from the serum antibody screening, as well as from the questionnaires were entered into Microsoft Excel. Statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS-18.0 (Statistical Packages for Social Scientists-version 18.0) statistical program. Chi-Square, Two-way Anova Analysis and Turkey-Kramer Multiple Comparisons Test was used to test for significant differences between the prevalence rate of anti-HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies, while significant risk factors associated with the seroprevalence of HSV-2 infection was determined with simple logistic regression analysis.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study investigated the prevalence of Herpes Simplex Virus type 2 IgG and IgM antibodies amongst undergraduate female students of a private University in Ogun state,

Nigeria. The socio-demographic characteristics of the study participants are presented in Table 1. Their age distribution is as follows: 16-20 years (101, 67.3%), 21-25 years (48, 32.0%), 26-30 years (1, 0.7%) and ≥ 30 years (0). On the basis of religion, 129 (86.0%) were Christians, while 21 (14%) were Muslims. There were no traditionalists amongst them. Based on tribal distribution (ethnic groups), 89 (59.3%) of them were Yoruba, 35 (23.3%) were Igbo, while just only 1 person (0.7%) was Hausa. 25 (16.7%) were neither Igbo, Hausa nor Yoruba. Based on their study level, 22 (14.7%) were 100 level students, 19 (12.7%) were 200 level students, 37 (24.7%) were 300 level students, 57 (38.0%) were 400 level students while 15 (10.0%) were 500 level students. Based on their Hall of Residence, 24 (16.0%) reside in Crystal hall, 48 (32.0%) in FAD hall, 15 (10.0%) in Havilah Gold hall, 2 (1.3%) in Marigold hall, 10 (6.7%) in Nyberg hall, 21 (14.0%) in Ogden hall, 16 (10.7%) in Platinum hall, 7 (4.7%) in Queen Esther while 7 (4.7%) in White hall.

The prevalence rate of HSV-2 infection among the study participants is presented in Fig. 5. Out of 150 students screened, 11 (7.3%) of them were found to be seropositive for either HSV-2 IgG or IgM antibody or both, whereas the remaining 139 (92.7%) were HSV-2 seronegative. The frequency of occurrence of HSV-2 IgG antibody in relation to the Age, Study Level and Hall of Residence of the study participants is presented in Table 2. Out of the 150 participants screened, 5 (3.3%) were positive for HSV-2 IgG antibodies. There was no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) in the occurrence of HSV-2 IgG antibody among the study participant on the basis of their age, study level and Hall of residence.

The frequency of occurrence of HSV-2 IgM antibody in relation to the Age, Study Level and Hall of Residence of the study participants is presented in Table 3. Out of the 150 participants examined, only 4 (2.7%) were found to be positive for HSV-2 IgM antibody. Similarly, there was no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) in the occurrence of HSV-2 IgM antibody among the study participant based on their socio-demographic characteristics.

Furthermore, the frequency of co-occurrence of both HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies in relation to the socio demographic characteristics of the study participants is presented in Table 4. Only two (1.3%) out of the 150 participants examined tested positive to both HSV-2 IgG and IgM

antibodies. There were no significant differences ($P>0.05$) in the co-occurrence of both HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies within and among the study participants regardless of their socio-demographic characteristics.

The percentage of single and co-occurrence of HSV-2 antibodies in relation to their non-occurrence among the study participants, is presented in Fig. 6. 3.3% were seropositive for HSV-2 IgG antibody, 2.7% were seropositive for HSV-2 IgM antibody, 1.3% were seropositive for both HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies; whereas the remaining 92.7% were seronegative for both antibodies.

The percentage occurrence of HSV-2 symptomatic and asymptomatic infection among the study participants is presented using a Bar Chart (Fig. 7). Out of the 11 (7.3%) participants

who tested positive for HSV-2 antibodies, 6 (4.0%) of them were symptomatic, whereas 5 (3.3%) of them were asymptomatic.

The indication for genital herpes in relation to seropositivity of HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies among the study participants is presented using a histogram (Fig. 8). None of the 7 (4.6%) participants who indicated vaginal itching was seropositive for either HSV-2 IgG or HSV-2 IgM, nor both. On the other hand, genital lesions were present in 0.7% of HSV-2 IgG seropositive individuals, 1.3% of HSV-2 IgM seropositive and 0.7% of HSV-2 IgG and IgM seropositive persons. Genital ulcer was recorded among two participants who were either seropositive for HSV-2 IgG (0.7%) or HSV-2 IgM (0.7%). Only one participant (0.7%) indicated inguinal lymphadenopathy, however, the person was HSV-2 IgG/IgM seronegative.

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the study participants

Characteristics	Category	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Age (Years)	16-20	101	67.3
	21-25	48	32.0
	26-30	1	0.7
	≥30	0	0
	Total	150	100
Marital Status	Single	1050	100
	Married	0	0
	Total	150	100
Study Level	100	22	14.7
	200	19	12.7
	300	37	24.7
	400	57	38.0
	500	15	10.0
	Total	150	100
Religion	Christianity	129	86.0
	Islam	21	14.0
	Total	150	100
Tribe (Ethnic group)	Hausa	1	0.7
	Igbo	35	23.3
	Yoruba	89	59.3
	Others	25	16.7
	Total	150	100
Hall of Residence	Crystal	24	16.0
	Fad	48	32.0
	Havilah	15	10.0
	Marigold	2	1.3
	Nyberg	10	6.7
	Ogden	21	14.0
	Platinum	16	10.7
	Queen Esther	7	4.7
	White	7	4.7
	Total	150	100

Table 2. Frequency of occurrence of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 2 IgG antibody in relation to the age, study level and hall of residence of the study participants

Characteristics	Category	No. of serum samples examined N (%)	No. positive for HSV-2 IgG N (%)	No. negative for HSV-2 IgG N (%)	P-Value	Pearson Chi-Square (χ^2)
Age (Years)	16-20	101 (67.3)	3 (1.9)	98 (65.3)	0.100	29.274
	21-25	48 (32.0)	1 (0.7)	47 (31.3)	0.203	
	26-30	1 (0.7)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	0.062	
	≥30	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
	Total	150 (100)	5 (3.3)	145 (96.6)		
Study Level	100	22 (14.7)	1 (0.7)	21 (14.0)	0.904	1.324
	200	19 (12.7)	0 (0.0)	19 (12.7)	0.999	
	300	37 (24.7)	1 (0.7)	36 (24.0)	0.998	
	400	57 (38.0)	2 (1.3)	55 (36.7)	0.313	
	500	15 (10.0)	1 (0.7)	14 (9.3)	0.518	
	Total	150 (100)	5 (3.3)	145 (96.7)		
Hall of Residence	Crystal	24 (16.0)	1 (0.7)	23 (15.3)	1.000	2.254
	Fad	48 (32.0)	2 (1.3)	46 (30.7)	0.999	
	Havilah	15 (10.0)	1 (0.7)	14 (9.3)	0.998	
	Marigold	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.3)	0.998	
	Nyberg	10 (6.7)	0 (0.0)	10 (6.7)	1.000	
	Ogden	21 (14.0)	1 (0.7)	20 (13.3)	0.999	
	Platinum	16 (10.7)	0 (0.0)	16 (10.7)	0.998	
	Queen	7 (4.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (4.7)	0.999	
	Esther					
	White	7 (4.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (4.7)	1.000	
	Total	150 (100)	5 (3.3)	145 (96.7)		

P>0.05 is considered statistically not significant

Table 5 shows the risk factors associated with HSV-2 IgM and IgG antibodies seropositivity among the study participants. History of STI (OR, 0.016), HIV status (OR, 0.026), recent change of sex partners (OR, 0.022) and intravenous drug use (OR, 0.001) were found to be significantly associated with the occurrence of HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies among the study participants.

The results of this study differ from those of previous studies. On one hand, the frequency of occurrence of HSV-2 IgG antibody in this study is slightly higher than those reported by Mohamed et al. [24], who observed a prevalence rate of 3.1% and 3.2% among pregnant and non-pregnant women in Iraq. On the other hand, it is far lower than those reported by Yunusa et al. [14] and Naga et al. [25] among HIV co-infected patients in Central Nigeria (36.4%) and Eastern India (61.5%), respectively. Current data was also found to be lower than those reported by Hayatudeen et al. [26], and Salman et al. [27] among apparently healthy individuals (73.5%) in Nigeria, and Children under 5 years (56%) in Iraq, respectively, using ELISA method. Furthermore, the frequency of occurrence of HSV-2 IgM antibody as observed in this study is lower than the one reported by the same

Mohamed et al. [24], among pregnant (21.8%) and non-pregnant (26.4%) women, using ELISA method.

Still, it is far lower than those reported by Naga et al. [25], Hayatudeen et al. [26], and Salman et al. [27] among HIV co-infected patients (34.6%) in Eastern India, apparently healthy individuals (46.1%) in Nigeria, and Children under 5 years (20.37%) in Iraq, respectively, using the same ELISA method.

Also, the frequency of co-occurrence of both HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies in this current study (1.3%) is extremely lower than the 31.5% reported by Agyemang-Yeboah et al. [3] among women attending routine cervix care clinic in Ghana. The differences in the prevalence rates reported in this study and those of other previous studies might be due to differences in the sensitivity and precision of the diagnostic methods employed, cultural/socio-economic status, as well as the geographical locations of the study participants.

On the basis of age distribution, the outcome of this study shows that the prevalence of HSV-2 infection was non-significantly ($P>0.05$) higher

among participants 16-20 years old than other age groups examined. This study differs from other previous studies that reported high prevalence rate of HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies mostly among under 5 years children [28] and in the elderly [29].

In most developing countries, HSV-1 antibody is found in 18% to 35% of children by the age of 5 years and 90% of the population have it by the age of 30. However, detection of HSV-2 antibody before puberty is less common since direct sexual transmission is the major mode of spread for HSV-2. Approximately 15% to 30% of sexually active adults in industrialized countries have HSV-2 antibodies, depending on the number of sexual partners. This current study cannot prove whether HSV-2 antibodies are more prevalent in children, young adult or elderly as it focused mainly on young adults (the undergraduate female students), of which most of them are in their mid-teens, early twenties and one (1) in her late twenties. This age range is the period of greatest sexual activity. Undergraduate female students in this group tend to engage in frequent sexual intercourse in exchange for money and exam scores and are therefore prone

to sexually transmitted diseases including HSV-2 infection.

The risk factors associated with occurrence of HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies identified in this study include: lack of knowledge/awareness, increasing numbers of sexual partners, recent change in sex partners, engagement in unprotected sex, history of sexually transmitted infections, and HIV status amongst others. This agrees with the work of Hayatudeen et al. [26], who also reported similar risk factors.

Knowledge and information is very vital to disease prevention and control in epidemiology. The percentage of participants not aware of HSV-2 and the infection it causes was quite high, hence the need for more public awareness among the study participants in this regard.

Furthermore, all the participants who were sero-positive for either HSV-2 IgG and/or HSV-2 IgM antibodies had history of STI. Also, the 4 participants with positive HIV status were either sero-positive for either HSV-2 IgM or both HSV-2 IgM and IgG antibodies. This is in agreement with the works of Yunusa et al. [14] and Naga et al. [25].

Table 3. Frequency of occurrence of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 2 IgM antibody in relation to the Age, Study Level and Hall of Residence of the study participants

Characteristics	Category	No. of serum samples examined N(%)	No. Positive for HSV-2 IgM N (%)	No. Negative for HSV-2 IgM N (%)	P-Value	Pearson Chi-Square (χ^2)
Age (Years)	16-20	101 (67.3)	4 (2.7)	97 (64.6)	0.997	1.994
	21-25	48 (32.0)	0 (0.0)	48 (32.0)	0.100	
	26-30	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0.100	
	≥30	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
	Total	150 (100)	4 (2.7)	146 (97.3)		
Study Level	100	22 (14.7)	2 (1.3)	20 (13.3)	1.000	4.613
	200	19 (12.7)	0 (0.0)	19 (12.7)	0.998	
	300	37 (24.7)	1 (0.7)	36 (24.0)	0.999	
	400	57 (38.0)	1 (0.7)	56 (37.3)	0.998	
	500	15 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (10.0)	0.998	
	Total	150 (100)	4 (2.7)	146 (97.3)		
Hall of Residence	Crystal	24 (16.0)	1 (0.7)	23 (15.3)	1.000	10.338
	Fad	48 (32.0)	0 (0.0)	48 (32.0)	1.000	
	Havilah	15 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (10.0)	1.000	
	Marigold	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.3)	1.000	
	Nyberg	10 (6.7)	0 (0.0)	10 (6.7)	0.999	
	Ogden	21 (14.0)	2 (1.3)	19 (12.7)	1.000	
	Platinum	16 (10.7)	0 (0.0)	16 (10.7)	0.999	
	Queen	7 (4.7)	1 (0.7)	6 (4.0)	1.000	
	Esther					
	White	7 (4.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (4.7)	1.000	
Total	150 (100)	4 (2.7)	146 (97.3)			

P>0.05 is considered statistically not significant

Table 4. Frequency of co-occurrence of Herpes Simplex Virus type 2 IgG and IgM antibodies in relation to the age, study level and hall of residence of the study participants

Characteristics	Category	No. of serum samples examined N (%)	No. positive for both HSV-2 IgG & IgM N (%)	No. Negative for both HSV-2 IgG & IgM N (%)	P-Value	Pearson Chi-Square (χ^2)
Age (Years)	16-20	101 (67.3)	1 (0.7)	100 (66.6)	1.000	0.309
	21-25	48 (32.0)	1 (0.6)	47 (31.3)	1.000	
	26-30	1 (0.7)	0 (0)	1 (0.7)	0.999	
	≥30	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
	Total	150 (100)	2 (1.3)	148 (98.7)		
Study Level	100	22 (14.7)	1 (0.7)	21 (14.0)	1.000	2.762
	200	19 (12.7)	0 (0)	19 (12.7)	0.999	
	300	37 (24.7)	0 (0)	37 (24.7)	1.000	
	400	57 (38.0)	1 (0.6)	56 (37.3)	1.000	
	500	15 (10.0)	0 (0)	15 (10.0)	1.000	
	Total	150 (100)	2 (1.3)	148 (98.7)		
Hall of Residence	Crystal	24 (16.0)	1 (0.6)	23 (15.3)	1.000	6.208
	Fad	48 (32.0)	0 (0)	48 (32.0)	0.999	
	Havilah	15 (10.0)	1 (0.6)	14 (9.3)	0.999	
	Marigold	2 (1.3)	0 (0)	2(1.3)	0.999	
	Nyberg	10 (6.7)	0 (0)	10(6.7)	1.000	
	Ogden	21 (14.0)	0 (0)	21(14.0)	0.999	
	Platinum	16 (10.7)	0 (0)	16(10.7)	0.999	
	Queen Esther	7 (4.7)	0 (0)	7(4.7)	0.999	
	White	7 (4.7)	0 (0)	7(4.7)	1.000	
	Total	150 (100)	2 (1.33)	148 (98.7)		

P>0.05 is considered statistically not significant

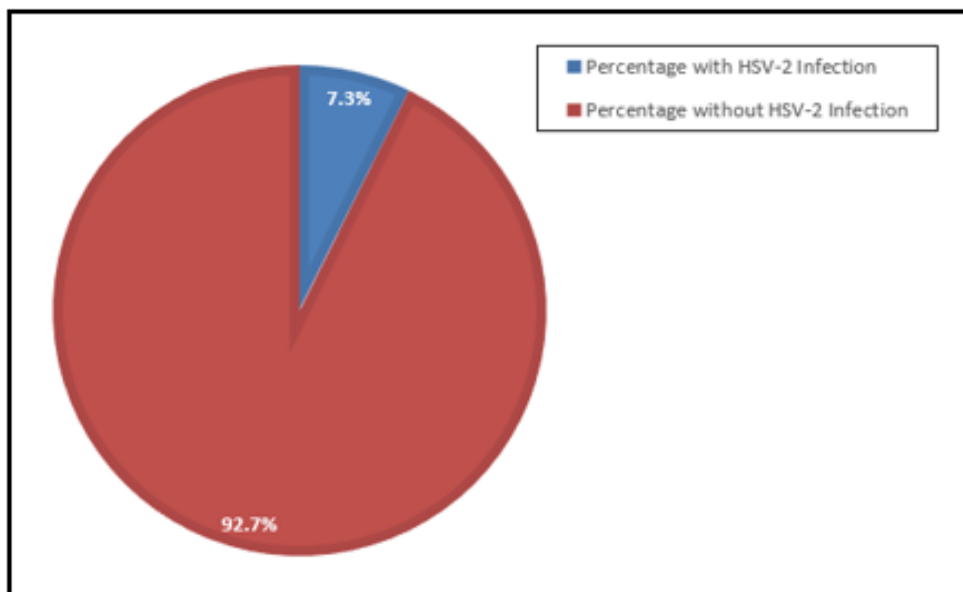


Fig. 5. Pie chart showing prevalence rate of HSV-2 infection among the study participants

Table 5. The risk factors associated with Herpes simplex virus Type 2 IgM and IgG antibodies seropositivity among the study participants

Characteristics	Responses	Number of participants	HSV-2 IgG Positivity N (%)	HSV-2 IgM Positivity N (%)	HSV-2 IgM & IgG Positivity N (%)	Odd Ratio (OR)
Knowledge of HSV-2	Yes	62 (41.3)	1 (0.66)	1 (0.675)	1 (0.65)	0.621
	No	88 (58.7)	4 (2.64)	3 (2.025)	1 (0.65)	
	Total	150 (100)	5 (3.3)	4 (2.7)	2 (1.3)	
History of STI	Yes	17(11.3)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	0.016*
	No	133(88.7)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	
	Total	150(100)	5 (3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
HIV Status	Positive	4(2.7)	0(0)	2(1.35)	2(1.3)	0.026*
	Negative	128(85.3)	4(2.64)	2(1.35)	0(0)	
	Not known	18(12)	1(0.66)	0(0)	0(0)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Sharing of underwear	Yes	5(3.3)	0(0)	0(0)	1(0.65)	0.728
	No	145(96.7)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	1(0.65)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Sharing of sanitary facilities	Yes	52(34.7)	4(2.64)	1(0.675)	2(1.3)	2.125
	No	98(65.3)	1(0.66)	3(2.025)	0(0)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Engage in unprotected sex	Yes	20	1(0.66)	0(0)	1(0.65)	0.857
	No	130	4(2.64)	4(2.7)	1(0.65)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Number of sexual partners	None	106(70.7)	0(0)	2(1.35)	0	27.178
	1-2	38(25.3)	5(3.3)	1(0.675)	0(0)	
	3-5	6(4)	0(0)	1(0.675)	2(1.3)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Changed sex partners recently	Yes	11(7.3)	4(2.64)	0(0)	1(0.65)	0.022*
	No	139(92.7)	1(0.66)	4(2.7)	1(0.65)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Number of sexual intercourse per week	None	136(90.7)	4(2.64)	4(2.7)	1(0.65)	3.907
	1-2	11(7.3)	1(0.66)	0(0)	1(0.65)	
	3-5	3(2)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	
Medical check-up/lab test	Less often	114(76)	4(2.64)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	0.978
	Often	27(18)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	
	More often	9(6)	1(0.66)	0(0)	0(0)	
	Total	150(100)	5(3.3)	4(2.7)	2(1.3)	

*OR <0.05 is considered statistically significance

Once an individual suffers from one form of STI or the other, the chances of re-occurrence in the future is high, not only by the same primary pathogen, but as well by other secondary invaders.

HIV infection in particular is characterized by progressive and continuous impairment of the immune system function, with varying rates of progression among patients depending on whether the individual is on medication or not. Highly active antiretroviral treatments (HAARTs) have been shown to be effective in arresting

immune system impairment and prevention of disease progression, yet the incidence of opportunistic infections (OIs) does not seem to cease. OIs occur in about 40% of people living with HIV, with a CD4 lymphocyte count less than 200 cells/mm³ and high plasma HIV RNA loads. Organisms that cause OIs are frequently present in the body but are generally kept under control by a healthy immune system [29-31].

In most people with healthy immune systems for instance, HSV-2 is usually latent (inactive). The virus resides in latently infected ganglia in a non-

replicating state, persisting indefinitely in the infected host. However, provocative stimuli such as stress, trauma, exposure to ultraviolet light or sunlight, other infections, or suppression of the immune system, (such as by HIV), can reactivate the latent virus and symptoms can return [25]. The virus follows axons back to the peripheral site, and replication proceeds at the skin or mucous membranes. Latency has been documented as one of the main strategies by which HSV-2 circumvents or evades the host defense system. Still, it has been observed that antiviral agents do not eradicate the virus in its latent state [30].

The low prevalence rate reported in this current study in contrast to previous studies may be partly due to the fact most of the study participants examined were virgins, as 70.7% of them indicated that they have no sex partners, while 90.7% of them indicated they don't engage in sexual intercourse. Abstinence has been well documented as a 100% effective control and preventive measure against all forms of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) including HSV-2 infection. On the assumption that the information provided by the participants regarding their sexual life and activities were sincerely correct and authentic, it is suggestive that non-venereal means of transmission be considered in addition to venereal means, especially among sexually non-experienced girls as 7 out of the 52 participants who indicated that they share sanitary facilities were positive for either HSV-2 IgG or IgM Ab or both. Also one person out of the 5 who indicated that they share underwear was positive for both HSV-2 IgG and IgM Ab.

Nevertheless, evidence of non-venereal transmission of HSV-2 requires further investigation.

Another plausible reason for the low prevalence rate reported in this current study may be partly due to the fact that majority of the study participants (86.7%) do not engage in unprotected sex and even among the remaining 13.3% participants who indicated that they engage in unprotected sex, only one person was positive for HSV-2 IgG Ab, while another was positive for both HSV-2 IgG and IgM Abs. The use of barriers such as condoms is also another effective control and preventive measure against all forms of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) including HSV-2 infection. Although not as effective as the former, the use of protective barriers has also been reported to prevent sexual transmission of infectious agents including HSV-2.

Furthermore, the results obtained from the study corroborate the claim that there is a relationship between the occurrence of HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies and indications for genital herpes (genital lesions and genital ulcer). This agrees with the work of Matthew et al. [32] who reported genital ulcer among 61.9% of pregnant women seropositive for HSV-2. On one hand, these indications are consistent with HSV-2 infection. Primary genital herpes infections can be severe, with illness lasting about 3 weeks. However, an initial HSV-2 infection in a person already immune to HSV-1 tends to be less severe. Some experts opined that prior infection with HSV-1 may provide some protection against or shorten

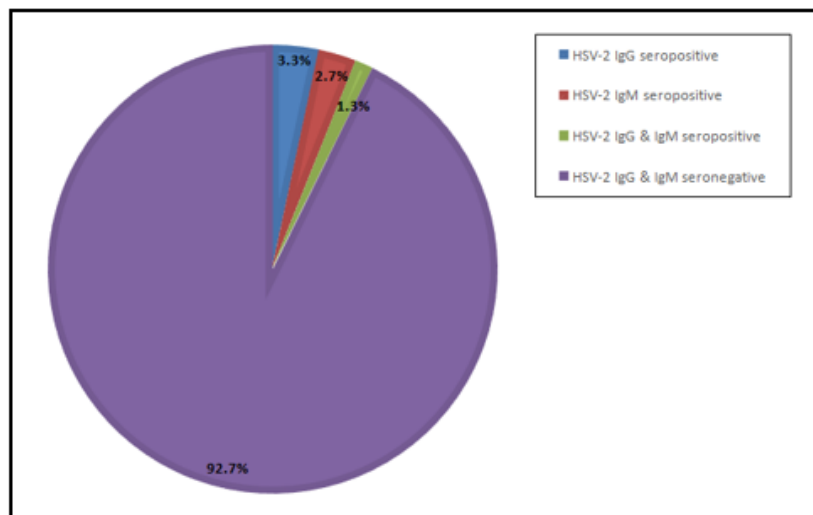


Fig. 6. Pie chart showing the percentage occurrence of HSV-2 antibodies among the study participants

the duration of symptoms and lesions from subsequent infection with HSV-2 as a result of some degree of cross-protection [33,34].

On the other hand, the lack of occurrence of HSV-2 antibody sero-positivity among those who indicated they that they have vaginal itching exempts HSV-2 as the culprit of their condition, therefore other aetiological agents like Candida

spp., *Trichomonas vaginalis* and *Gardnerella vaginalis* should be queried in their case. Similarly, complain of genital ulcer among HSV-2 sero-negative individuals among the study participants should prompt one to suspect and probe for *Treponema pallidum*, *Haemophilus ducreyi*, *Klebsiella granulomatis*, and *Chlamydia trachomatis* (serovars L1, L2, L3) as possible causative agents, however, such investigations are outside the scope of this study.

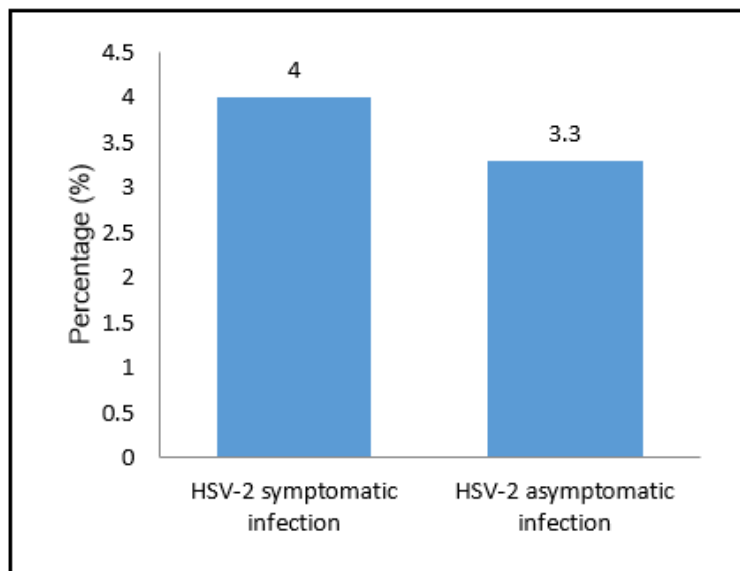


Fig. 7. Bar chart showing percentage occurrence of HSV-2 symptomatic and asymptomatic infection among the study participants

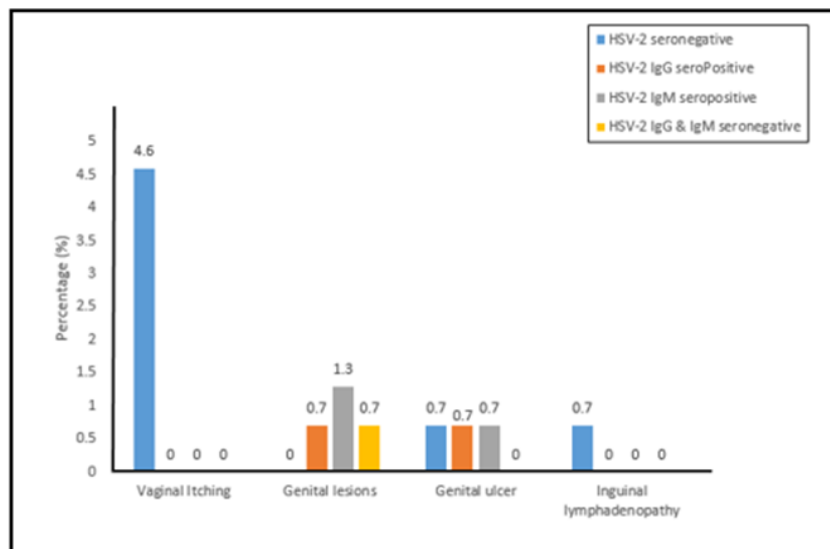


Fig. 8. Histogram showing indications for genital herpes in relation to the percentage of study participants seropositive for HSV-2 IgG and IgM antibodies

Contrary to the earlier report that many people with HSV-2 infection are asymptomatic or have small, unnoticed genital lesions, the outcome of this study reveal that percentage of study participants with symptomatic HSV-2 infection (4.0%), were slightly higher than those who were asymptomatic (3.3%). Nevertheless, it is worthy to mention here that recurrences of genital herpetic infections are common and whether symptomatic or asymptomatic, a person shedding virus can transmit the infection to sexual partners. Individuals with genital herpes should therefore be counseled that asymptomatic shedding is frequent and that the risk of transmission can be reduced by antiviral therapy and condom usage [35,36].

Finally, this discussion will not be complete without a remark on the implications of the results obtained in this study. Immunologically speaking, antibody production is one of the body's responses to the presence of infectious agents, including viruses like HSV-2. The detection of anti-HSV-2 antibodies in the patient's serum is an indication that the individual must have been exposed to the said pathogen at one time or the other. Immunoglobulin M (IgM) and Immunoglobulin G (IgG) are two major antibodies of great interest with regard to host humoral response to HSV-2 infection. Generally speaking, IgM and IgG antibodies are produced as a result of primary (first 1-7 days) and secondary (7-21 days) immune response to infectious agents, respectively. IgM disappears within 2-3 weeks of infection and is replaced by IgG which intend to persist longer in the patient's blood proving lasting immunity. The detection of only anti-HSV-2 IgM antibody in patient's serum suggests that the individual has current HSV-2 infection, while detection of only anti-HSV-2 IgG antibody suggests recent or previous HSV-2 infection. On the other hand, the detection of both anti-HSV-2 IgM and IgG antibodies suggests current as well as recent and previous infection. Meanwhile, the non-detection of both anti-HSV-2 IgM and IgG antibodies denotes absence of HSV-2 infection and that the individual is susceptible to HSV-2 infection and should therefore take necessary precautions against exposure in the future [8].

4. CONCLUSION

The outcome of this study show that HSV-2 infection exists among undergraduate female students of Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria and therefore appropriate

public health measures must be taken to halt the cycle of infection within the University community. Early detection of genital herpes and prompt treatment will help prevent subsequent complications such as genital ulcer disease among young female adults.

CONSENT

All authors declare that 'written' informed consent was obtained from the participants with assurance of anonymity and confidentiality before the commencement of the study.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Babcock University Health Research Ethics Committee (BUHREC) with ethical approval registration number: BUHREC310/19.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Bailey G, Ramaswamy M, Hawkes SJ, Geretti AM. Herpes simplex type 2: epidemiology and management options in developing countries. *Sexually transmitted infections*. 2007;83:16-22.
2. Corey L, Holmes KK, Sparling PF, Stamm W E, Wald A. Genital Herpes In: *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill. 2008;399-438.
3. Agyemang-Yeboah F, Oksana D, Timmy-Donkoh E, Asmah RH, Mohammed MS. Commentary: Sero-prevalence of herpes simplex virus type 1 and type 2 among women attending routine cervix care clinics in Ghana. *Current Findings of Infectious Diseases*. 2019;(01):RD-INF-10005.
4. Tronstein E, Johnston C, Huang M. Genital shedding of herpes simplex virus among symptomatic and asymptomatic persons with HSV-2 infection. *JAMA*. 2011; 305(14):1441-1449.
5. Bradley H, Markowitz L, Gibson T. Seroprevalence of herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2—United States, 1999–2010. *J Infect Dis*. 2014;209(3):325-33.
6. Mertz GJ. Asymptomatic shedding of herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2: Implications for prevention of transmission. *J Infect Dis*. 2008;198(8): 1098-1100.

7. Kimberlin DW, Rouse DJ. Genital herpes. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;350(19): 1970–1977.
8. Bernstein DI, Bellamy AR, Hook EW, Levin MJ, Wald A, Ewell MG. Epidemiology, clinical presentation and antibody response to primary infection with herpes simplex virus type 1 and type 2 in young women. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56:344-351.
9. CDC. Seroprevalence of herpes simplex virus type 2 among persons aged 14-49 years, United States, 2005-2008. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, *MMWR.* 2010;59(15):456–459.
10. Looker KJ, Margaret AS, Turner KM, Vickerman P, Gottlieb SL, Newman LM. Global estimates of prevalent and incident of herpes simplex virus type 2 infections in 2012. *PloS One.* 2015;10:e114989.
11. CDC. Prevalence of herpes simplex virus type 1 and type 2 in persons aged 14-49: United States, 2015-2016 [press release]. Atlanta, GA: US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 2018. Available: <https://www.infectiousdiseaseadvisor.com/home/topics/sexually-transmitted-diseases/cdc-reports-on-latest-estimates-of-hsv-1-hsv-2-prevalence-in-the-united-states>
12. Ayoub HH, Chemaitelly H, Abu-Raddad LJ. Characterizing the transitioning epidemiology of herpes simplex virus type 1 in the USA: Model-based predictions. *BMC Medicine.* 2019;17(57). DOI:10.1186/s12916-019-1285-x
13. Ojinmah UR, Nnoruka EN, Ozoh GAO, Onyekonwu CL, Aguwa EN. Herpes simplex virus type 2 infection among females in Enugu, Enugu State. *Nigerian Journal of Medicine.* 2012;21(4);394-403.
14. Yunusa T, Haruna SA, Garba HZ. Seroprevalence of herpes simplex virus among human immunodeficiency virus positive patients in resource-limited setting. *Global Journal of Infectious Diseases.* 2019;11(3):107-111.
15. Chernes TL, Meyn LA, Krohn MA, Lurie JG, Hillier SL. Association between acquisition of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 2 in women and bacterial vaginosis. *Clinical Infectious Diseases.* 2003;37(3):319–325.
16. Sauerbrei A, Schmitt S, Scheper T, Brandstädt A, Saschenbrecker S, Motz M. Seroprevalence of herpes simplex virus type 1 and type 2 in Thuringia, Germany, 1999 to 2006. *Eur Surv.* 2011;16:1-7.
17. Johnston C, Morrow RA, Stanberry LR. Human herpesviruses: Herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2. viral infections of humans: Springer. 2014;829-853.
18. Berardi A, Lugli L, Rossi C. Neonatal herpes simplex virus type 2. *Journal of Maternal-Fetal and Neonatal Medicine.* 2011;24:88–90.
19. Sénat MV, Anselem O, Picone O. Prevention and management of genital herpes simplex infection during pregnancy and delivery: Guidelines from the French College of Gynecologists and Obstetricians (CNGOF). *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2018;224:93-101.
20. Mugo N, Dadabhai SS, Bunnell R, Williamson J, Bennett E, Baya I. Prevalence of herpes simplex virus type 2 infection, human immunodeficiency virus/herpes simplex virus type 2 coinfection and associated risk factors in a national, population-based survey in Kenya. *Sex Trans Dis.* 2011;38:1059-1066.
21. Office of Archives, Statistics, and Research, Babcock University. *Adventist Yearbook. Student Population;* 2019.
22. Charan J, Biswas T. How to calculate sample size for different study designs in medical research? *Indian. J. Psychol. Med.* 2013;35:121-126.
23. Mirambo MM, Chrispus I, Stephen E. Serological profiles of herpes simplex virus type 2 among HIV negative population in Mwanza City, Tanzania. *Tanzania Journal of Health Research.* 2017;19(2). DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/thr.v9i2.12>
24. Mohamed Z K, Alsamarai A M, Najem W S. Seroprevalence of Herpes Simplex Virus type 2 (HSV-2) in women with bad obstetric history. *American Journal of Dermatology and Venereology.* 2013;2(3): 31-38.
25. Naga S, Sarkar S, Chattopadhyay D, Bhattacharya S, Biswas R, Sen Gupta M. Seroprevalence of herpes simplex virus infection in HIV co-infected individuals in Eastern India with Risk Factors Analysis. *Advances in Virology.* 2015;7. [Article ID 537939]
26. Hayatudeen MR, Mukhtar GL, Aminu M. Seroprevalence of immunoglobulins G. M associated with herpes simplex virus type 2 among apparently healthy Individuals in

- Katsina State, Nigeria. UJMR. 2017;2(1): 186-191.
27. Salman HJ, Chalooob FA, Al-Shuwaikh AM, Kadhim HS. Seroprevalence of anti-herpes simplex virus type 2 IgG, IgM antibodies among Hospitalized Children under 5 years. Biochem. Cell. Arch. 2018;18(1): 161-167.
 28. Oti VB, Usman BA, Pennap GR, Eno-Ibanga CK. Seroprevalence of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 2 (HSV-2) among pregnant women accessing antenatal care in a tertiary healthcare Facility in Central Nigeria. AJIMPS. 2017; 1(4):1-6.
 29. Zelalem TM, Gameda A, Andargachew M. Opportunistic and other intestinal parasitic infections in AIDS patients, HIV seropositive healthy carriers and HIV seronegative individuals in southwest Ethiopia. East Afr J Public Health. 2008;5: 169-173.
 30. Shenoy N, Ramapuram J T, Shenoy A, Ahmed J, Srikant N. Incidence of opportunistic infections among HIV-positive adults on highly active antiretroviral therapy in a Teaching Hospital, India: Prospective study. Journal of the International Association of Providers of AIDS Care. 2017;16(3):309–311.
 31. CDC. AIDS and opportunistic infections. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 2018. Available: <https://www.cdc.gov/hiv/basics/livingwithhiv/opportunisticinfections.html>
 32. Matthew O, Ndomb T, Onakewhor J, Matawal B, Osagie E, Abimiku A, Charurat M. Multi-center study on the prevalence of human immunodeficiency virus/herpes simplex virus type 2 co-infection. International Journal of Virology and AIDS. 2019;6(1):6:052.
 33. Corey L. Synergistic copathogens—HIV-1 and HSV-2 published correction appears. Engl J Med. 2007;356(8):854–856.
 34. Chemaitelly H, Nagelkerke N, Omori R, Abu-Raddad LJ. Characterizing herpes simplex virus type 1 and type 2 seroprevalence declines and epidemiological association in the United States. PLoS One. 2019;14(6):e0214151.
 35. Wald A, Lagenberg AG, Krantz E. The relationship between condom use and herpes simplex virus acquisition. Annals of Internal Med. 2005;143(1):707-713.
 36. Murtaza M, Illzam EM, Muniandy RK, Sharifah AM, Nang MK, Ramesh B. Herpes simplex virus infections, Pathophysiology and Management. IOSR Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences. 2016;15(7):85-91.

© 2020 Enitan et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/53988>