

RESEARCH

Open Access



Detection of sexually transmitted infection agents in pregnant women using multiplex polymerase chain reaction method

Ayfer Bakir^{1*}, Busra Demir Cendek², Selma Usluca^{1,3}, Murat Aral¹, Gizem Korkut¹, Mehmet Morkoc¹, Gulsah Ceylan Yagiz¹, Muhammed Furkan Kurkcu¹, Mehmet Alican Sapmaz², Murat Polat², Sait Erbey², Burcu Gundogdu Ozturk² and Huseyin Levent Keskin²

Abstract

Background Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are a significant public health concern that can lead to serious outcomes such as infertility, pregnancy complications, and neonatal infections. This study aimed to evaluate the prevalence of STI and their associated risk factors in symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant women.

Methods Between July and October 2024, a total of 300 pregnant women in their third trimester, including 113 symptomatic and 187 asymptomatic individuals aged 18 to 45 years, who sought antenatal care at the Gynecology and Obstetrics Clinic of Ankara Etlik City Hospital, were included in the study. The detection of STIs agents in vaginal swab samples was performed using multiplex polymerase chain reaction in the Molecular Diagnosis Laboratory of the Department of Microbiology.

Results The overall prevalence of STIs was 34.3% (103/300), with single and multiple infections accounting for 28.3% and 6.0% of cases, respectively. The most frequently detected pathogens were *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum* (29.0%), *Mycoplasma hominis* (4.6%), and *Chlamydia trachomatis* (2.3%). Co-infections were commonly observed between *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum* and *Mycoplasma hominis*. No significant difference in STI prevalence was observed between the symptomatic (35.4%) and asymptomatic (33.7%) groups. Co-infection with non-STI bacterial agents, such as *Gardnerella vaginalis* and *Streptococcus agalactiae*, increased the risk of STIs by 1.96 times ($p=0.006$).

Conclusions This study revealed that STIs occur at similar rates among symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant women. This finding highlights the critical importance of detecting asymptomatic cases to prevent the spread of silent infections and to safeguard maternal and neonatal health. *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum* were identified as the most common pathogens. Given that co-infections with non-STI bacterial agents significantly increase the risk of STIs, multiplex PCR-based multicenter and prospective studies are essential to refine screening strategies for pregnant women.

Keywords Sexually transmitted infections, Pregnancy, Multiplex PCR, Prevalence

*Correspondence:

Ayfer Bakir
dr.ayfer.bakir@gmail.com

¹Department of Medical Microbiology, Republic of Türkiye Ministry of Health Ankara Etlik City Hospital, Ankara, Türkiye

²Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Republic of Türkiye Ministry of Health Ankara Etlik City Hospital, Ankara, Türkiye

³Department of Microbiology, Atilim University Medical School, Ankara, Türkiye



© The Author(s) 2025. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Introduction

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are a global health concern, affecting millions annually and causing severe complications such as infertility, pregnancy-related issues, and neonatal infections. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), approximately 376 million new STI cases occur globally each year [1]. Factors such as socioeconomic disparities, limited healthcare access, low education levels, and inadequate preventive measures contribute to their prevalence. Additionally, risky sexual behaviors further amplify transmission rates [2, 3].

During pregnancy, STIs can lead to complications such as preterm birth, low birth weight, and congenital infections [4, 5]. Agents primarily transmitted through sexual contact include *Chlamydia trachomatis*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, *Treponema pallidum*, *Mycoplasma genitalium*, *Mycoplasma hominis*, *Trichomonas vaginalis*, *Ureaplasma parvum/urealyticum*, *Haemophilus ducreyi*, Herpes simplex virus (HSV)-1, and HSV-2 [6–11]. According to the European STIs Guidelines, most cases of *M. hominis* and *Ureaplasma* species colonization occur through sexual contact and are correlated with the number of sexual partners [7]. *T. pallidum* causes congenital infection, whereas HSV, *N. gonorrhoeae*, and *C. trachomatis* lead to perinatal infections. The primary risk associated with HSV, *N. gonorrhoeae*, and *C. trachomatis* is perinatal infection related to transmission during labor [6]. *Gardnerella vaginalis* and *Streptococcus agalactiae* are microorganisms that are not primarily classified as sexually transmitted pathogens but can be part of the vaginal flora or act as opportunistic agents causing infections. *G. vaginalis* is associated with bacterial vaginosis, while *S. agalactiae* is linked to neonatal sepsis, meningitis, and maternal infections. Both bacteria can manifest in symptomatic and asymptomatic forms and have been associated with adverse pregnancy outcomes [8–11].

Molecular diagnostic methods like multiplex polymerase chain reaction (PCR) provide rapid and accurate detection of STIs, surpassing traditional techniques such as serological tests and cultures [12–14]. Multiplex PCR enables high-sensitivity detection of genital pathogens from various sample types, including swabs and urine samples, with the ability to detect multiple agents in a single test [15].

This study aimed to determine the prevalence of 10 different bacterial, viral, and parasitic STI agents, along with *G. vaginalis* and *S. agalactiae*, in symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant individuals in the third trimester using multiplex PCR. Additionally, we investigated their associations with demographic characteristics and risk factors.

Materials and methods

Between July 2024 and October 2024, 300 pregnant women aged between 18 and 45 years in their third trimester who sought antenatal care at the Gynecology and Obstetrics Clinic of Ankara Etlik City Hospital were included in the study. The identification of STIs in vaginal swab samples using multiplex PCR was performed in the Molecular Diagnosis Laboratory of the Department of Microbiology. The study population was divided into two groups: symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant women. The symptomatic pregnant group was composed of women who exhibited at least one of the following symptoms: vaginal discharge, vaginal itching, dysuria, inguinal lymphadenopathy, genital ulcers, or dyspareunia. The asymptomatic group consisted of individuals who requested testing as part of a general health assessment. A total of 113 women suspected of having STIs during follow-up were enrolled in the symptomatic group, while the control group consisted of 187 asymptomatic pregnant women. Age groups were categorized as 18–25, 26–35, and 36–45 years to assess STI prevalence across different age ranges.

During the four-month study period, vaginal swab samples were collected from all participants by specialized physicians. Samples were obtained using vaginal swab following the manufacturer's instructions and stored in specialized transport tubes designed to preserve pathogen stability (VNAT, Bioeksan R&D Technologies Inc., Istanbul, Türkiye). After collection, the samples were transported to the laboratory under appropriate conditions and stored at +4 °C for multiplex PCR analysis on the same day. The samples were directly subjected to multiplex PCR without additional extraction processes.

The age, ethnicity (Turkish or foreign national), educational level (no formal education, primary, middle, or high school), condom use, presence of chronic disease (diabetes mellitus), immunosuppression status, history of malignancy, parity, gravida, and history of miscarriage of pregnant women were recorded. Additionally, pregnant women were asked about their history of hepatitis B, hepatitis C, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), human papillomavirus (HPV), and syphilis.

Criteria for inclusion /exclusion

Pregnant women aged between 18 and 45 years who were in their third trimester and reported at least one characteristic symptom of STIs, as well as asymptomatic pregnant women who requested testing as part of a general health assessment, were included in the study, provided they consented to participate. In cases of multiple visits, only the first collected sample was considered for evaluation. Pregnant women who were not in their third trimester, outside the 18–45 age range, or had received antibiotic treatment (oral or vaginal ovules) within the

past two weeks were excluded from the study. Additionally, those experiencing preterm labor or other obstetric complications, as well as those with active vaginal bleeding at the time of sample collection, were not included.

Preprocessing of clinical samples and multiplex PCR analysis

Swab samples in VNAT collection tubes were brought to room temperature and thoroughly mixed by vortexing. Real-time multiplex PCR amplification of 12 microorganisms, including *C. trachomatis*, HSV-1, HSV-2, *H. ducreyi*, *M. hominis*, *M. genitalium*, *N. gonorrhoeae*, *T. pallidum*, *Ureaplasma* spp., *T. vaginalis*, *G. vaginalis* and *S. agalactiae*, was performed using the Bio-Speedy® Sexually Transmitted Infection RT-qPCR Kit (Biospeedy®, Bioeksan R&D Technologies Inc., Istanbul, Türkiye) on a Mic PCR thermocycler device (Bio Molecular Systems, Australia), following the manufacturer’s protocol. Primers specifically designed to target the gene regions of each microorganism were used for PCR analyses (Table 1). Positive and negative controls for all targeted agents were included in each run to ensure accuracy. The results were analyzed using Sigmoida Software (V 8.6 REV.56) by Bioeksan, following the manufacturer’s guidelines.

The analytical sensitivity of the PCR kit is 98.75%, and the specificity is 99.28% (Catalog No: BS-STI-L-25/BS-STI-L-100, Revision Date: 24-06-2024/Rev.02).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS 25 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Data normality was evaluated with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize variables: qualitative data were presented as frequencies (%) and quantitative data as medians with interquartile ranges (IQR, range between the 25th to 75th percentiles).

Categorical variables were compared using Pearson’s chi-square or Fisher’s exact test. Numerical variables were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U test (two groups) or the Kruskal-Wallis test (more than two groups).

Binary logistic regression identified STI risk factors, including age, ethnicity, education, contraceptive use, bacterial co-infections, pregnancies, and deliveries. Odds ratios (ORs) were calculated, with statistical significance set at $p < 0.05$.

Results Study participants’ characteristics

A total of 300 women participated in the study, with an age range of 18–41 years and a mean age of 26 years (IQR: 23–30). Among the participants, 37.7% ($n = 113$) reported at least one symptom. The median ages of symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant women were 27 years (IQR: 24–30) and 26 years (IQR: 23–31), respectively, with no statistically significant difference ($p = 0.804$).

There were no significant differences between symptomatic and asymptomatic women in terms of ethnicity or educational level ($p = 0.287$ and $p = 0.801$, respectively). All participants were married, and only 24% had attained a higher education.

All women were in their third trimester of pregnancy, with the majority (43.7%) experiencing their first pregnancy. None of the pregnant women reported having HIV, HPV, hepatitis B, or hepatitis C virus. Additionally, no history of diabetes mellitus, immunosuppression, or malignancy was identified.

The sociodemographic and obstetric characteristics of the participants are detailed in Table 2.

General prevalence of STI agents

The overall prevalence of infection with at least one STI pathogen among the participants was 34.3% (95% CI: 28.9–40.0). The prevalence of single infections was 28.3% (95% CI: 23.3–33.8), while multiple infections were identified in 6.0% (95% CI: 3.5–9.3) of cases. The most common STI agent detected among pregnant women was *Ureaplasma* spp., found in 29.0% ($n = 87$) of the participants, followed by *M. hominis* (4.6%, $n = 14$) and *C. trachomatis* (2.3%, $n = 7$). The most frequent co-infection involved *Ureaplasma* spp. and *M. hominis*, observed in 2.7% (8/300) of cases. None of the clinical samples tested positive for *N. gonorrhoeae*, *T. pallidum*, *M. genitalium*, or *H. ducreyi*.

Among the study participants, 12.3% (37/300) were foreigners. *Ureaplasma* spp. was the most commonly identified agent in both Turkish participants (29.2%, 77/263) and foreign nationals (27%, 10/37), with no significant difference in prevalence between the two groups ($p = 0.864$) (Table 3).

Table 1 Multiplex PCR targets

Target species	Target gene
Bacterial panel	
<i>Streptococcus agalactiae</i>	<i>gfb</i>
<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	<i>ompC</i> , <i>por A</i>
<i>Treponema pallidum</i>	<i>MSP</i> <i>porin</i>
<i>Mycoplasma genitalium</i>	<i>mgpA</i>
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	<i>gap</i>
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	<i>DNA B</i>
<i>Haemophilus ducreyi</i>	<i>recC</i>
Viral panel	
Herpes simplex virus-1	<i>US5</i>
Herpes simplex virus-2	<i>US3</i>
Parasite panel	
<i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i>	<i>TVAGG3_0181000</i>

**Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum*

Table 2 Sociodemographic, clinic and obstetric characteristics of study participants

Characteristics	Total		Symptomatic group		Asymptomatic group		p value
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Age, years, median(IQR)	26	(23–30)	27	(24–30)	26	(23–31)	0.804
Age group (years)							
18–25	130	(43.3)	52	(46.0)	78	(41.7)	0.628
26–35	146	(48.7)	51	(45.1)	95	(50.8)	
36–45	24	(8.0)	10	(8.8)	14	(7.5)	
Ethnicity							
Turkish	263	(87.7)	102	(90.3)	161	(86.1)	0.287
Foreign national	37	(12.3)	11	(9.7)	26	(13.9)	
Location							
Urban	298	(99.3)	111	(100)	187	(100)	0.141
Rural	2	(0.7)	2	(0)	0	(0)	
Education							
No formal education	25	(8.3)	10	(8.8)	15	(8.0)	0.034
Primary	66	(22.0)	20	(17.7)	46	(24.6)	
Middle	137	(45.7)	63	(55.8)	74	(39.6)	
High-school	72	(24.0)	20	(17.7)	52	(27.8)	
Gravida							
Primigravida	131	(43.7)	48	(42.5)	83	(44.4)	0.547
Second	84	(28.0)	29	(25.7)	55	(29.4)	
Third and onwards	85	(28.3)	36	(31.9)	49	(26.2)	
History of STI							
Non	299	(99.7)	113	(100)	186	(99.5)	0.999
Yes	1	(0.3)	0	(0)	1	(0.5)	
Condom use							
Non	286	(95.3)	108	(95.6)	178	(95.2)	0.877
Yes	14	(4.7)	5	(4.4)	9	(4.8)	

IQR, interquartil range; STI, sexually transmitted infection

Distribution of STI agents by age groups

Across all age groups, *Ureaplasma* spp. was the most common STI agent. The highest positivity rate for *Ureaplasma* spp. was observed in the 36–45 years age group (41.7%), although this difference was not statistically significant ($p=0.113$). No significant differences were detected in the distribution of STI agents across the age groups (Table 4).

Among the 103 women with positive STI results, 63 (61.2%) were asymptomatic. In the symptomatic group, the prevalence of at least one positive agent was 35.4% (40/113, 95% CI: 26.6–44.9), while in the asymptomatic group, it was 33.7% (63/187, 95% CI: 26.9–40.9), with no statistically significant difference ($p=0.763$) (Table 5).

The most frequently detected agents in the symptomatic group were *Ureaplasma* spp. (30.1%), HSV-1 (2.7%), *M. hominis* (2.7%), HSV-2 (1.8%), and *C. trachomatis* (0.9%). In the asymptomatic group, the most common pathogens were *Ureaplasma* spp. (28.3%), *M. hominis* (5.9%), and *C. trachomatis* (3.2%). A comparison of agent distribution between symptomatic and asymptomatic groups showed no significant differences. Single infections were more prevalent in both groups ($p=0.063$). Additionally, *Ureaplasma* spp. infections were detected

at similar frequencies in the symptomatic (30.1%) and asymptomatic (28.3%) groups ($p=0.747$) (Table 5).

Prevalence of non- STI agents with clinical significance in pregnant women

In this study, *S. agalactiae* and *G. vaginalis*, which are not sexually transmitted but can lead to clinically significant outcomes in pregnant women, were also investigated. Among all participants, *S. agalactiae* was identified in 3.3% (10/300) and *G. vaginalis* in 35.7% (107/300).

Of the 107 participants infected with *G. vaginalis*, 54% were found to have a single pathogen, while 46% exhibited co-infections. *Ureaplasma* spp. co-infection was found to be the most common in both symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant women and demonstrated a statistically significant difference ($p=0.029$) (Table 6).

The prevalence of *G. vaginalis* was higher in the symptomatic group (39.8%, 45/113) compared to the asymptomatic group (33.2%, 62/187); however, the difference was not statistically significant ($p=0.243$). *S. agalactiae* was observed at similar rates in the symptomatic (2.7%, 3/113) and asymptomatic (3.7%, 7/187) groups, with no significant difference ($p=0.748$). Among the 10 women with *S. agalactiae*, it was detected as the sole pathogen in

Table 3 Laboratory features of the patients

	Total	Turkish	Foreign national	p value
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
No. of pregnant women	300 (100)	263 (87.7)	37 (12.3)	
STI status				
Absent	197 (65.7)	171 (65.0)	26 (70.3)	0.528
Present	103 (34.3)	92 (35.0)	11 (29.7)	
Infection agents				
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	87 (29.0)	77 (29.2)	10 (27.0)	0.864
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	14 (4.6)	12 (4.6)	2 (5.4)	
HSV-1	8 (2.7)	8 (3.0)	0 (0)	
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	7 (2.3)	6 (2.2)	1 (2.7)	
Herpes simplex virus-2	4 (1.3)	4 (1.5)	0 (0)	
<i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i>	1 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	
Infection type				
Single infection	85 (28.3)	76 (28.9)	9 (24.3)	0.063
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	71 (23.7)	63 (24.0)	8 (21.6)	
HSV-1	5 (5.7)	5 (1.9)	0 (0)	
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	4 (1.3)	4 (1.5)	0 (0)	
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	3 (1.0)	2 (0.8)	1 (2.7)	
Herpes simplex virus-2	2 (0.7)	2 (0.8)	0 (0)	
Multiple infection	18 (6.0)	16 (6.1)	2 (5.4)	
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp., <i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	8 (2.7)	6 (2.3)	2 (5.4)	
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> , <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	3 (1.0)	3 (1.1)	0 (0)	
HSV-1, <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	3 (1.0)	3 (1.1)	0 (0)	
HSV-2, <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	2 (0.7)	2 (0.8)	0 (0)	
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> , <i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	1 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i> , <i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i>	1 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	

STI, sexually transmitted infection; HSV-1, Herpes simplex virus-1; HSV-2, Herpes simplex virus-2; *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum*, *Ureaplasma* spp; N, number

five cases (50%). In the remaining five cases, it was found alongside HSV-1 ($n = 1$), *Ureaplasma* spp. ($n = 2$), and *G. vaginalis* ($n = 2$).

Risk factors

Co-infection with *G. vaginalis* significantly increased the risk of developing STIs (OR: 1.96, 95% CI: 1.20–3.19, $p = 0.006$). Although an increased relative risk for STIs was observed among women under the age of 36, those with no formal education or only primary education, primiparous or multiparous women, and multigravida women, these associations were not statistically significant. Additionally, contraceptive status and ethnicity were not associated with STIs. The risk factors for STIs in pregnant women are summarized in Table 7.

Table 4 Distribution of STI agents by age groups

	Age groups			p value
	18–25	26–35	36–45	
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
No. of pregnant women	130 (43.3)	146 (48.7)	24 (8.0)	
HSV-1	4 (3.1)	3 (2.1)	1 (4.2)	0.533
HSV-2	1 (0.8)	3 (2.1)	0 (0)	0.999
<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-
<i>Treponema pallidum</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	42 (32.3)	35 (24.0)	10 (41.7)	0.113
<i>Mycoplasma genitalium</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	4 (3.1)	10 (6.8)	0 (0)	0.176
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	4 (3.1)	3 (2.1)	0 (0)	0.839
<i>Haemophilus ducreyi</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-
<i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i>	0 (0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0)	0.999

STI, sexually transmitted infection; HSV-1, Herpes simplex virus-1; HSV-2, Herpes simplex virus-2; *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum*, *Ureaplasma* spp; N, number

Table 5 Distribution of infectious agents based on groups

	Symp-tomatic group	Asymp-tomatic group	p value
	N (%)	N (%)	
STI status			
Absent	73 (64.6)	124 (66.3)	0.763
Present	40 (35.4)	63 (33.7)	
Infectious agents			
HSV-1	3 (2.7)	5 (2.7)	0.999
HSV-2	2 (1.8)	2 (1.1)	0.634
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	34 (30.1)	53 (28.3)	0.747
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	3 (2.7)	11 (5.9)	0.199
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	1 (0.9)	6 (3.2)	0.261
<i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i>	0 (0)	1 (0.5)	0.999
Infection type			
Single infection	37 (32.7)	48 (25.7)	0.063
Multiple infection	3 (2.7)	15 (8.0)	
Details of single and multiple infections			
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	31 (27.4)	40 (27.3)	0.200
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	1 (0.9)	2 (1.1)	0.999
HSV-1	2 (1.8)	3 (1.6)	0.999
HSV-2	1 (0.9)	1 (0.5)	0.999
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	2 (1.8)	2 (1.1)	0.640
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> , <i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	0 (0)	1 (0.5)	0.999
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> , <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	0 (0)	3 (1.6)	0.280
HSV-1, <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	1 (0.9)	2 (1.1)	0.999
HSV-2, <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	1 (0.9)	1 (0.5)	0.999
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i> , <i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i>	0 (0)	1 (0.5)	0.999
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i> , <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	1 (0.9)	7 (3.7)	0.146

N, number; STI, sexually transmitted infection; HSV-1, Herpes simplex virus-1; HSV-2, Herpes simplex virus-2; *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum*, *Ureaplasma* spp.

Table 6 Co-infections of *G. vaginalis* (n=107)

	Total	Symptomatic group	Asymptomatic group	p value
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	
Single infection	58 (54)	27 (60)	31 (50)	0.305
Multiple infection	49 (46)	18 (40)	31 (50)	
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	33 (30)	15 (33.3)	18 (29)	0.029*
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp., <i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	5 (4.6)	1 (2.2)	4 (6.4)	
<i>Mycoplasma hominis</i>	3 (4.6)	1 (2.2)	2 (3.2)	
HSV-1, <i>Ureaplasma</i> spp.	2 (1.8)	0 (0)	2 (3.2)	
<i>Streptococcus agalactia</i>	2 (1.8)	0 (0)	2 (3.2)	
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	1 (0.9)	1 (2.2)	0 (0)	
HSV-1	1 (0.9)	0 (0)	1 (1.6)	
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp., <i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	1 (0.9)	0 (0)	1 (1.6)	
<i>Ureaplasma</i> spp., HSV-2	1 (0.9)	0 (0)	1 (1.6)	

N, number; HSV-1, Herpes simplex virus-1; HSV-2, Herpes simplex virus-2; *Ureaplasma parvum/urealiticum*, *Ureaplasma* spp.

*Comparison of *Ureaplasma* spp. co-infection with other multiple infection types.

Table 7 Risk factors of STI in pregnant women

Risk factor	STI		OR	OR	p value
	Negative (N)	Positive (N)		(95%CI)	
Age groups (years)					
18–25	82	48	1.22	0.50–2.96	0.659
26–35	101	45	1.60	0.66–3.88	0.295
36–45	14	10	Reference		
Ethnicity					
Turkish	171	92	Reference		
Foreign national	26	11	0.78	0.37–1.66	0.529
Education (years)					
No formal education	17	8	1.64	0.60–4.51	0.331
Primary	43	23	1.87	0.88–3.97	0.102
Middle	81	56	0.77	0.42–1.42	0.409
High-school	56	16	Reference		
Contraception					
No	189	97	0.68	0.23–2.02	0.493
Condom use	8	6	Reference		
Non-STIs*					
Absent	133	53	Reference		
Present	64	50	1.96	1.20–3.19	0.006
Gravida					
Primigravida	98	43	Reference		
Multigravida	99	60	1.38	0.85–2.23	0.188
Parity					
Nullipar	102	42	Reference		
Primipar/multipar	95	61	1.55	0.96–2.52	0.070

STI, sexually transmitted infection; OR, Odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; N, number

*Non-STIs: *Gardnerella vaginalis* and/or *Streptococcus agalactiae* positivity

Discussion

In this study, the prevalence of STIs was found to be 34.3% among pregnant women, with at least one STI pathogen detected. Although the prevalence was slightly higher in symptomatic pregnant women (35.4%) compared to asymptomatic women (33.7%), this difference was not found to be statistically significant. The similar

rate in asymptomatic cases demonstrates the silent progression of these infections. The literature also highlights the crucial role of asymptomatic infections in STI transmission [16, 17]. STIs in pregnant women are often asymptomatic but can pose serious risks if left untreated. However, studies using multiplex PCR to assess STI prevalence in this group remain limited [18]. For instance, a

study conducted in Brazil involving 400 pregnant women (40.3% asymptomatic) reported a 24% prevalence of *C. trachomatis*, *N. gonorrhoeae*, and *T. vaginalis*, with 59% of cases being asymptomatic [4]. Similarly, another study of 2,728 pregnant women found a 21% prevalence of at least one STI, including *C. trachomatis*, *N. gonorrhoeae*, *T. vaginalis*, and *M. hominis* [19]. In South Africa, the prevalence of seven STI pathogens in asymptomatic pregnant women attending antenatal care was investigated using a multiplex PCR test. Of the 202 participants tested, 88 (43.5%) were found to be positive for at least one STI pathogen. *U. urealyticum* (43%), *C. trachomatis* (41%), and *T. vaginalis* (10%) were identified as the most common pathogens. *M. genitalium* (5%) and *N. gonorrhoeae* (2%) were detected less frequently [20]. These regional differences in STI prevalence may result from variations in disease distribution patterns; demographic characteristics such as age, education, and income levels; a high proportion of asymptomatic cases; limited access to healthcare services; risky sexual behaviors; cultural norms; and gaps in health policies and screening guidelines [3, 19–23].

The diagnosis of STIs requires rapid, reliable, and effective diagnostic methods to ensure positive outcomes for both individual and public health. As a result, there has been a significant global increase in the use of PCR-based methods [18]. The prevalence of *Ureaplasma* spp. in pregnant women varies widely (8–93%) depending on diagnostic methods, highlighting its global presence [24]. In this study, *Ureaplasma* spp. was the most common STI pathogen, followed by *C. trachomatis* and *M. hominis*, with co-infection of *Ureaplasma* spp. and *M. hominis* being the most frequent. This contrasts with findings from other PCR-based studies [19–21]. The variability of detected infectious agents depends on factors such as geographical location, population characteristics, individual behaviors, diagnostic methods used, the sample collection process, and the design of multiplex PCR kits. Disease prevalence may vary by region, and access to healthcare services can differ. Population characteristics include age, immune status, and socioeconomic factors, while behavioral factors encompass sexual practices and contraceptive methods. Additionally, the sensitivity of diagnostic techniques, sampling methods, and the pathogens targeted in PCR kits can directly influence infection detection rates [25–27]. Although *Ureaplasma* spp. is part of the normal genital flora, it is also associated with infertility and non-gonococcal urethritis. In vitro studies have shown that *U. parvum* forms biofilms, contributing to chronic and mixed bacterial infections. Additionally, *Ureaplasma* spp. has been linked to pregnancy complications such as premature rupture of membranes, amniotic fluid infections, preterm birth, and low birth weight [28–36].

Similarly, *G. vaginalis* disrupts the vaginal microbiota, increasing the risk of pregnancy complications such as preterm birth, low birth weight, and puerperal infections, as well as STIs [37–39]. In this study, *G. vaginalis* was detected in 35.7% of cases, with co-infections (primarily with *Ureaplasma* spp.) in 46%, suggesting its role in altering the vaginal microecosystem and facilitating the colonization of other pathogens. This study also found that non-STI bacterial co-infections, particularly with *G. vaginalis*, increased the risk of STIs by 1.96 times. The most common co-infection observed was between *G. vaginalis* and *Ureaplasma* spp. Numerous studies have highlighted a strong association between *G. vaginalis* and STIs [40–43]. Recent research suggests that disruptions in normal genital flora, including co-infections involving *Ureaplasma* spp. and *G. vaginalis*, may impair fertility [44]. Although these microorganisms are common in sexually active individuals as part of the commensal flora, their pathogenic roles remain unclear, emphasizing the need for further investigation [44, 45]. Treating non-STI bacterial infections in pregnant women may help prevent STIs and adverse pregnancy outcomes.

One of the strengths of this study was its comparison of both symptomatic and asymptomatic groups. Furthermore, the use of a highly sensitive diagnostic method, such as multiplex PCR, enhances the reliability of the findings. Nevertheless, the study has certain limitations, including its inability to examine associations with clinical outcomes and its single-center design, which restricted the evaluation of regional variations. In addition, *G. vaginalis* was analyzed as part of the multiplex PCR panel, but Nugent scoring or Amsel criteria were not applied for the diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis.

Sensitive, rapid, and reliable tests are essential for the early diagnosis of genital infections, as traditional methods have low sensitivity and fail to detect certain pathogens. Compared to conventional techniques, multiplex PCR is more effective and also reduces treatment costs [3, 4, 45–47].

In conclusion, this study revealed that the prevalence of STIs was similar between symptomatic and asymptomatic pregnant women. *Ureaplasma* spp. was the most frequently detected pathogen, and co-infections with non-STI bacterial infections significantly increased STI risk. Therefore, it is crucial to reassess screening strategies for pregnant women. To further evaluate these findings, multicenter prospective studies are recommended.

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Author contributions

Design: AB, SU, MA, BDC, HLK. Planning: AB, MAS, BDC, MA, GK, HLK, MFK, MM, GCY, SE, MP, BGO. Data Acquisition: BDC, GK, MAS, MP, SE, BGO, GCY, MM, MFK, HLK. Data analysis: AB, SU, GK, GCY, MM, MFK. Manuscript writing: AB, MA, SU. Final Approval: AB, SU, MA, BDC, GK, MM, MAS, BGO, SE, MP, GCY, MFK, HLK.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for this article's research, authorship, and publication.

Data availability

No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was conducted after obtaining ethical approval from the Non-Interventional Scientific Research Committee of the Scientific Research Evaluation and Ethics Board of Ankara Etlik City Hospital (approval number: AEŞH-BADEK-2024-392). The research was carried out in accordance with the principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki, and informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Clinical trial number

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 2 January 2025 / Accepted: 6 March 2025

Published online: 18 March 2025

References

1. Alam N, Chamot E, Vermund SH, Streatfield K, Kristensen S. Partner notification for sexually transmitted infections in developing countries: A systematic review. *BMC Public Health*. 2010; 18;10:19.
2. Elendu C, Amaechi DC, Elendu ID, Elendu TC, Amaechi EC, Usoro EU, et al. Global perspectives on the burden of sexually transmitted diseases: A narrative review. *Med (Baltim)*. 2024;103(20):e38199.
3. Tsega NT, Abebe B, Ebabu T, Asmare T, Kassa M, Haile TT, et al. Sexually transmitted infections and associated factors during pregnancy in Gondar City, Northwest Ethiopia, 2021: A multicenter study. *Clin Epidemiol Global Health*. 2022;16:101096.
4. Yeganeh N, Kreitchmann R, Leng M, Nielsen-Saines K, Gorbach PM, Klausner J. High prevalence of sexually transmitted infections in pregnant women living in Southern Brazil. *Sex Transm Dis*. 2021;48(2):128–33.
5. Zango SH, Lingani M, Valea I, Samadoulougou OS, Bihoun B, Rouamba T, et al. Malaria and curable sexually transmitted infections in pregnant women: A two-years observational study in rural Burkina Faso. *PLoS ONE*. 2020;15(11):e0242368.
6. Chemaitelly H, Weiss HA, Smolak A, Majed E, Abu-Raddad LJ. Epidemiology of *Treponema pallidum*, *Chlamydia trachomatis*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, *Trichomonas vaginalis*, and herpes simplex virus type 2 among female sex workers in the middle East and North Africa: systematic review and meta-analyses. *J Glob Health*. 2019;9(2):020408.
7. Horner P, Donders G, Cusini M, Gomberg M, Jensen JS, Unemo M. Should we be testing for urogenital *Mycoplasma hominis*, *Ureaplasma parvum* and *Ureaplasma urealyticum* in men and women? - A position statement from the European STI guidelines editorial board. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venerol*. 2018;32(11):1845–51.
8. Bonneton M, Huynh BT, Seck A, Bercion R, Sarr FD, Delarocque-Astagneau E, et al. Bacterial vaginosis and other infections in pregnant women in Senegal. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2021;21(1):1090.
9. Capraro GA, Lala S, Khaled K, Gosciński E, Saadat B, Alvarez SM, et al. Association of sexually-transmitted infection and African-American race with *Streptococcus agalactiae* colonization in pregnancy. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control*. 2020;9(1):174.
10. Shabayek S, Abdellah AM, Salah M, Ramadan M, Fahmy N. Alterations of the vaginal Microbiome in healthy pregnant women positive for group B *Streptococcus* colonization during the third trimester. *BMC Microbiol*. 2022;22(1):313.
11. Rokni H, Ahmadi A, Moradi Y, Nouri B, Roshani D. Relationship between vaginal bacterial infections and pregnancy outcomes: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Iran J Nurs Midwifery Res*. 2024;29(1):1–15.
12. Yarbrough ML, Burnham CA. The ABCs of stis: an update on sexually transmitted infections. *Clin Chem*. 2016;62(6):811–23.
13. Muralidhar S. Molecular methods in the laboratory diagnosis of sexually transmitted infections. *Indian J Sex Transm Dis AIDS*. 2015;36(1):9–17.
14. Grad AI, Vica ML, Ungureanu L, Siserman CV, Tătaru AD, Matei HV. Assessment of STI screening in Romania using a multiplex PCR technique. *J Infect Dev Ctries*. 2020;14(4):341–8.
15. Martín-Saco G, Tristáncho A, Arias A, Ferrer I, Milagro A, García-Lechuz JM. *Mycoplasma genitalium* and sexually transmitted infections: evidences and figures in a tertiary hospital. *Rev Esp Quimioter*. 2022;35(1):76–9.
16. Lesiak-Markowicz I, Tschewitzek C, Pöppel W, Mooseder G, Walochnik J, Fürnkranz U. Prevalence of selected sexually transmitted infectious agents in a cohort of asymptomatic soldiers in Austria. *Parasit Vectors*. 2022;15(1):424.
17. Di Pietro M, Filardo S, Porpora MG, Recine N, Latino MA, Sessa R. HPV/*Chlamydia trachomatis* co-infection: metagenomic analysis of cervical microbiota in asymptomatic women. *New Microbiol*. 2018;41(1):34–41.
18. Workowski KA, Bachmann LH, Chan PA, Johnston CM, Muzny CA, Park I, et al. Sexually transmitted infections treatment guidelines. *MMWR Recomm Rep*. 2021;70(4):1–187.
19. Miranda AE, Gaspar PC, Schörner MA, Barazzetti FH, Dias GB, Bigolin A, et al. Brazilian surveillance for stis in pregnant women group. Prevalence of *Chlamydia trachomatis*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, *Trichomonas vaginalis*, and *Mycoplasma genitalium* and risk factors among pregnant women in Brazil: results from the National molecular diagnosis implementation project. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet*. 2024;166(1):71–9.
20. Mukavhanyedzi D, Rukasha I. Sexually transmitted pathogens in asymptomatic women at rethabile clinic, Limpopo, South Africa. *S Afr J Infect Dis*. 2024;39(1):618.
21. Joseph Davey DL, Shull HI, Billings JD, Wang D, Adachi K, Klausner JD. Prevalence of curable sexually transmitted infections in pregnant women in low- and middle-income countries from 2010 to 2015: A systematic review. *Sex Transm Dis*. 2016;43(7):450–8.
22. Vural T, Gölbaşı C, Bayraktar B, Gölbaşı H, Yıldırım AGŞ. Are Syrian refugees at high risk for adverse pregnancy outcomes? A comparison study in a tertiary center in Turkey. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res*. 2021;47(4):1353–61.
23. Golbasi C, Vural T, Bayraktar B, Golbasi H, Sahingoz Yildirim AG. Maternal and neonatal outcomes of Syrian adolescent refugees and local adolescent Turkish citizens: a comparative study at a tertiary care maternity hospital in Türkiye. *Gynecol Obstet Reprod Med*. 2022;28(2):135–43.
24. Donders GGG, Ruban K, Bellen K, Petricevic L. *Mycoplasma/Ureaplasma* infection in pregnancy: to screen or not to screen. *J Perinat Med*. 2017;45(5):505–15.
25. Enwuru CA, Aiyedobgon AS, Ajayi MB, Osulale KA. Bacterial vaginosis (BV) and *Trichomonas vaginalis* (TV) co-infection, and bacterial antibiogram profile of pregnant women studied in Lagos, Nigeria. *BMC Womens Health*. 2024;24(1):415.
26. Kumar T, Bryant M, Cantrell K, Song SJ, McDonald D, Tubb HM, et al. Effects of variation in sample storage conditions and swab order on 16S vaginal Microbiome analyses. *Microbiol Spectr*. 2024;12(1):e0371223.
27. Bruins MJ, Dos Santos CO, Damoiseaux RAMJ, Ruijs GJHM. Bacterial agents in vulvovaginitis and vaginal discharge: A 10-year retrospective study in the Netherlands. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2021;40(10):2123–8.
28. Sprong KE, Mabenge M, Wright CA, Govender S. *Ureaplasma* species and preterm birth: current perspectives. *Crit Rev Microbiol*. 2020;46(2):169–81.
29. Kataoka S, Yamada T, Chou K, Nishida R, Morikawa M, Minami M, et al. Association between preterm birth and vaginal colonization by *Mycoplasmas* in early pregnancy. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2006;44(1):51–5.
30. Viscardi RM. *Ureaplasma* species: role in neonatal morbidities and outcomes. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 2014;99(1):F87–92.
31. McKechnie ML, Hillman RJ, Jones R, Lowe PC, Couldwell DL, Davies SC, et al. The prevalence of urogenital micro-organisms detected by a multiplex PCR-reverse line blot assay in women attending three sexual health clinics in Sydney, Australia. *J Med Microbiol*. 2011;60(Pt 7):1010–6.
32. Cassell GH, Waites KB, Watson HL, Crouse DT, Harasawa R. *Ureaplasma urealyticum* intrauterine infection: role in prematurity and disease in newborns. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 1993;6(1):69–87.
33. Combaz-Söhnchen N, Kuhn A. A systematic review of *Mycoplasma* and *Ureaplasma* in urogynaecology. *Geburtshilfe Frauenheilkd*. 2017;77(12):1299–303.

34. Beeton ML, Payne MS, Jones L. The role of *Ureaplasma* spp. In the development of nongonococcal urethritis and Infertility among men. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2019;32(4):e00137–18.
35. Capoccia R, Greub G, Baud D. *Ureaplasma urealyticum*, *Mycoplasma hominis* and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Curr Opin Infect Dis.* 2013;26(3):231–40.
36. Sweeney EL, Dando SJ, Kallapur SG, Knox CL. The human *Ureaplasma* species as causative agents of chorioamnionitis. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2016;30(1):349–79.
37. Holdcroft AM, Ireland DJ, Payne MS. The vaginal Microbiome in health and disease-What role do common intimate hygiene practices play? *Microorganisms.* 2023;11(2):298.
38. Pillay K, Mabaso N, Abbai N. The impact of bacterial vaginosis on pregnancy. *J Med Lab Sci Technol S Afr.* 2024;6(1):42–7.
39. Chee WJY, Chew SY, Than LTL. Vaginal microbiota and the potential of Lactobacillus derivatives in maintaining vaginal health. *Microb Cell Fact.* 2020;19(1):203.
40. Ferreira CS, Marconi C, Parada CM, Duarte MT, Gonçalves AP, Rudge MV, et al. Bacterial vaginosis in pregnant adolescents: Proinflammatory cytokine and bacterial Sialidase profile. Cross-sectional study. *Sao Paulo Med J.* 2015;133(6):465–70.
41. Abbai NS, Reddy T, Ramjee G. Prevalent bacterial vaginosis infection - a risk factor for incident sexually transmitted infections in women in Durban, South Africa. *Int J STD AIDS.* 2016;27(14):1283–8.
42. Brotman RM, Klebanoff MA, Nansel TR, Yu KF, Andrews WW, et al. Bacterial vaginosis assessed by gram stain and diminished colonization resistance to incident gonococcal, chlamydial, and trichomonal genital infection. *J Infect Dis.* 2010;202(12):1907–15.
43. Gallo MF, Macaluso M, Warner L, Fleenor ME, Hook EW 3rd, Brill I, et al. Bacterial vaginosis, gonorrhea, and chlamydial infection among women attending a sexually transmitted disease clinic: a longitudinal analysis of possible causal links. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2012;22(3):213–20.
44. Vitale SG, Ferrari F, Ciebiera M, Zgliczyńska M, Rapisarda AMC, Vecchio GM, et al. The role of genital tract Microbiome in fertility: A systematic review. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2021;23(1):180.
45. Scaglione E, Mantova G, Caturano V, Fanasca L, Carraturo F, Farina F, et al. Molecular epidemiology of genital infections in campania region: A retrospective study. *Diagnostics (Basel).* 2022;12(8):1798.
46. Fischer N, Peeters I, Klammer S, Montourcy M, Cuylaerts V, Van Beckhoven D, et al. Prevalence estimates of genital Chlamydia trachomatis infection in Belgium: results from two cross-sectional studies. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2021;21(1):947.
47. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for chlamydial infection: U.S. Preventive services task force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2007;147(2):128–34.

Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.