

1 Diagnostic performance of polymerase chain reaction assays for the diagnosis of
2 neurosyphilis: A Systematic Review

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26 **Keywords:**

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31

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34 **Key Messages**

- 35 • Central nervous system involvement remains an important complication of
- 36 syphilis
- 37 • CSF Serological assays remain the standard diagnostic test for neurosyphilis
- 38 • CSF PCR has poor sensitivity compared to CSF serology and is not the
- 39 diagnostic test of choice for neurosyphilis

40 **Abstract:**

41 Introduction:

42 Syphilis continues to be a major public health problem and the recent resurgence
43 in syphilis in high-income settings has seen an accompanying increase in cases of
44 neurosyphilis. Whilst the introduction of PCR has had a significant impact on the
45 diagnosis of early syphilis, CSF serological assays remain the most commonly
46 used tests to diagnosis neurosyphilis. We reviewed data on the performance of
47 CSF-PCR for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis.

48 Methods:

49 We searched Pubmed, Medline, EMBASE and the grey literature for references on
50 PCR in neurosyphilis. We calculated the sensitivity and specificity of PCR
51 compared to reference testing for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis

52 Results:

53 We identified 66 articles of which seven met the study inclusion criteria. The
54 sensitivity of PCR for definite neurosyphilis varied between 40-70% and
55 specificity between 60-100% across the studies. The most commonly used PCR
56 assay targeted Tp47 which had an overall sensitivity of 68% and a specificity of
57 91.9%.

58 Discussion:

59 The sensitivity of PCR was low compared to CSF-serological assays but the
60 challenges of evaluating a diagnostic test in the absence of a clear gold standard
61 make definitive interpretation challenging. Most studies were small and not
62 adequately powered highlighting the need for multi-centre, multi-country trials
63 to provide adequate statistical power in evaluations of new tests the diagnosis of
64 neurosyphilis.

65 **Background**

66 Syphilis, caused by *Treponema pallidum*, remains a major public health problem
67 worldwide [1]. Infection with syphilis involves progression through a number of
68 clinical stages. Following an incubation period of approximately 21 days the
69 primary syphilitic chancre appears. If untreated the disease progresses to
70 secondary syphilis with dissemination of spirochetes and a generalised illness
71 often accompanied by a characteristic rash. If the disease is untreated then the
72 patient enters the latent phase of infection. During this stage the patient is
73 asymptomatic but has serological evidence of infection. In historical studies in
74 which patients with latent disease were untreated approximately one third of
75 patients would progress on to tertiary syphilis[1,2].

76

77 Involvement of the central nervous system (CNS), in the form of neurosyphilis, is
78 one of the major manifestations of syphilis causing significant debilitation to the
79 patient. Typically neurosyphilis is described as a late manifestation of infection
80 occurring during the tertiary stage of infection. Data from both animal models
81 and human infection clearly demonstrate that invasion of the CNS and
82 neurological manifestations can occur in both early and late syphilis[3] including
83 in patients without a clear history of primary syphilis, although the true
84 incidence of symptomatic neurological disease in early syphilis is not known. For
85 example, when lumbar punctures of patients with early syphilis are performed,
86 evidence of *T.pallidum* in the Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) may be identified, even in
87 those without apparent CNS disease [4] and reports of syphilis with ocular and
88 cranial nerve involvement have been common during the recent syphilis
89 epidemics in many countries. In many patients early CNS involvement appears to

90 resolve without specific CNS targeted therapy[5] but a proportion of patients will
91 experience clinical CNS disease either during early infection or as a
92 manifestation of tertiary syphilis.

93

94 Clinically the spectrum of neurosyphilis covers a broad range of presentations.
95 Five forms are well described: i) asymptomatic neuroinvasion, characterised by
96 evidence of CNS invasion but no clinical disease; ii) an aseptic meningitis ; iii)
97 meningovascular disease, characterised by a stroke-like syndrome; iv) tabes
98 dorsalis, characterised by demyelination of the posterior tracts of the spinal
99 columns; v) general paresis, characterised by a progressive dementing illness [1].

100

101 Evaluation of the CSF is central to the diagnosis of neurosyphilis although no
102 universal consensus diagnostic criteria exist. Frequent non-specific
103 abnormalities found in individuals with neurosyphilis include pleocytosis and
104 raised protein concentration. Interpretation of these abnormalities is more
105 difficult in individuals with HIV co-infection, particularly those who are
106 immunocompromised and/or not on antiretroviral therapy as they may have
107 CSF pleocytosis as a consequence of other CNS infections or untreated HIV [6,7].

108

109 Serological tests performed on CSF have been the mainstay of diagnostics for
110 neurosyphilis. The gold standard assay for specificity is normally considered to
111 be the Venereal Disease Research Laboratory (VDRL) assay but this is known to
112 have limited sensitivity [8,9]. Whilst the Rapid Plasma Reagin (RPR) assay is
113 commonly used when testing CSF samples it has reduced sensitivity compared
114 the VDRL[10]. A variety of other CSF serological assays have been evaluated

115 including the Fluorescent Treponemal Antibody-adsorption (FTA-ABS)[11] and
116 *Treponema pallidum* particle agglutination assays[12]. Whilst these treponemal
117 specific assays are considered to be more sensitive they are less specific than the
118 VDRL assay. Some studies have suggested the specificity of the TPPA can be
119 increased by using a higher titre cut-off albeit at the cost of some sensitivity[13].

120

121 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays have emerged as valuable diagnostic
122 tools for early syphilis when applied to genital or other mucocutaneous lesions
123 [14,15]. Most assays target highly conserved targets including *polA* and *tp47* and
124 demonstrate good sensitivity and specificity. PCR can also detect circulating
125 treponemes in the blood of a subset of patients with early infectious and early
126 latent syphilis[16,17] although the value of PCR in these settings remains less
127 clear. Given the overall high level of performance it is perhaps unsurprising that
128 there has been interest in the use of PCR as a possible diagnostic test for
129 neurosyphilis [7]. Although a number of studies have evaluated PCR assays for
130 the diagnosis of neurosyphilis its performance compared to alternative
131 diagnostic assays is not well established. The aim of this study was to review
132 available data on the performance of PCR for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis in
133 comparison to reference assays.

134

135 **Methods**

136

137 Search strategy and selection criteria

138 We searched Pubmed, Medline, EMBASE and the grey literature for references on
139 PCR in neurosyphilis. We searched reference lists of selected papers to identify
140 additional manuscripts. We searched for (“CSF” OR “Cerebrospinal Fluid”) AND
141 “syphilis” OR “neurosyphilis”) AND (“PCR” OR “Polymerase Chain Reaction” OR
142 “NAAT” OR “Nucleic Acid Amplification Test”). We limited the search to studies
143 published between 1st January 1960 and 15th June 2017 (the date the search was
144 conducted).

145

146 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

147 We included papers that reported the sensitivity and specificity of a PCR assay
148 against a reference standard in patients with either definite or probable
149 neurosyphilis. We did not restrict inclusion of data based on the specific PCR
150 assay or target utilised. No language restrictions were placed on papers included
151 in the review. We excluded papers that did not report sensitivity and specificity
152 of the assay or which did not provide the raw data from which this could be
153 calculated. We also excluded studies reporting data already described in a
154 different paper and review papers.

155

156 Data Extraction:

157 The titles and abstracts of all papers were reviewed by at least two authors (MM,
158 DL, CK). The full text was obtained for any potentially relevant articles. Full-text

159 articles were reviewed to determine whether they met the inclusion criteria and
160 where this was uncertain disagreements were resolved by discussion amongst at
161 least two authors. Data were initially extracted by the first author and double-
162 checked by the co-authors. For each paper that met the inclusion criteria we
163 extracted the diagnostic criteria used for neurosyphilis, reference diagnostic test,
164 the comparator PCR assays evaluated, and the performance of the PCR assay
165 compared to the reference test.

166

167 Statistical Analysis:

168 We report the sensitivity and specificity of CSF PCR compared to reference CSF
169 tests. Where available we stratify results for performance in cases of definite and
170 suspected neurosyphilis. Due to limited data we pooled data only from studies
171 assessing a tp47 based PCR assay. All analysis was performed in R 3.4.2 (The R
172 Foundation for Statistical Computing). The review was performed in line with
173 the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta Analyses
174 (PRISMA) guidelines[18].

175

176

177 **Results**

178

179 Our search identified 66 articles of which seven met the inclusion criteria for the
180 study (Figure 1). These studies enrolled a combined total of 109 patients
181 classified as having definite neurosyphilis, 13 classified as having probable
182 neurosyphilis (from only two studies) and 317 classified as not having
183 neurosyphilis (Table 1)[5,19–24].

184

185 Five studies reported results for the performance of a Tp47 PCR alone and a
186 single study reported the combined results of a panel of PCR assays including
187 TP47, polA and bmp. Two studies reported performance of a polA based PCR,
188 one of which also independently reported results for a Tp47 assay and one of
189 which was the evaluation of a panel of Tp47, polA and bmp. A single study
190 evaluated PCR targeting TMPA (Table 1). The criteria for definite neurosyphilis
191 varied between studies but the majority (n = 6) required a CSF VDRL to be
192 positive to make a diagnosis of neurosyphilis, either alone or in combination
193 with a CSF Treponemal assay. A single study did not use serological assays to
194 diagnose definite neurosyphilis but instead used a combination of CSF
195 pleocytosis and raised protein.

196

197 Excluding two small studies the reported sensitivity of the PCR assays for
198 definite neurosyphilis varied between 40-70% and specificity varied between
199 60-100% (Table 1). The five studies which reported results for a Tp47 assay
200 included a total of 88 patients who met the study specific criteria for
201 neurosyphilis (predominantly CSF VDRL positivity) of which 60 (68%) were

202 positive using a Tp47 PCR. A total of 210 patients without neurosyphilis were
203 included and the PCR was negative in 193 of these individuals (91.9%).
204 Excluding the study which defined neurosyphilis only on the basis of CSF
205 pleocytosis and raised protein did not alter this finding.

206

207

208 **Discussion**

209 In this study we have demonstrated the limitations of CSF PCR as a diagnostic for
210 neurosyphilis whilst also highlighting the limited data currently available to fully
211 evaluate these assays. The limited performance of PCR for the diagnosis of
212 neurosyphilis is in marked contrast to the use of PCR for the diagnosis of other
213 stages of syphilis. PCR has emerged as a key diagnostic tool for early
214 syphilis[14,25] with a reported sensitivity and specificity above 95% in most
215 studies. In early syphilis PCR is also able to provide a microbiological diagnosis
216 before seroconversion occurs, reducing the chance of false negative
217 investigations in patients presenting with a chancre. In many high income
218 settings, such as the UK, PCR has become the diagnostic test of choice for primary
219 syphilis and has increasingly replaced dark-field microscopy. By contrast the
220 data from this review demonstrates that PCR has lower sensitivity than CSF
221 VDRL assays for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis. Interpretation of the specificity
222 of PCR is challenging given the use of VDRL, a test known to have limited
223 sensitivity, as the reference standard. In some circumstances false-positive PCR
224 results may actually represent true-positive for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis
225 which are missed by the current CSF serological assays.

226

227 The evaluation of diagnostic tests for neurosyphilis remains extremely
228 challenging. There is no accepted gold-standard diagnostic test against which
229 new candidate tests can be compared. This is evident from the studies included
230 in this current review which utilised a range of different reference standards
231 when evaluating the performance of PCR. Whilst CSF VDRL is considered highly
232 specific the sensitivity is believed to be as low as 40% for detecting

233 neurosyphilis. A result of this is that evaluations of CSF PCR against CSF VDRL
234 are likely to result in an under-estimation of PCR specificity due to true
235 positives being incorrectly classified. Conversely a previous systematic review
236 has demonstrated a high sensitivity of CSF treponemal antibody testing[13] but
237 lower specificity. Comparisons of CSF PCR against CSF Treponemal antibodies
238 are therefore likely to under-estimate sensitivity due to true-negatives being
239 incorrectly classified. Indeed even the stated sensitivity or specificity of common
240 reference standards such as CSF-VDRL or CSF-TPPA are heavily dependent on
241 the patients included and the criteria used to define neurosyphilis.

242 As well as analytical challenges in the selection of an appropriate gold-standard,
243 our review highlights further issues in assessing the role of PCR in the diagnosis
244 of neurosyphilis. There was no consistent definition of definite or probable
245 neurosyphilis, variation in the amplification target and relatively small sample
246 sizes. These between study variations make it difficult to draw definitive
247 conclusions on the performance of PCR for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis and
248 highlight the significant challenges in evaluating diagnostic assays for this
249 condition. Of particular importance, the total number of samples included in each
250 of the reviewed studies was small and compared to guidelines on the
251 appropriate sample size for the evaluation of diagnostic tests all the included
252 samples would be considered underpowered[26].

253
254 Neurosyphilis remains a challenging condition to diagnose. In patients with
255 positive syphilis serology in blood and evidence of neurological symptoms the
256 absence of a reliable test means that neurosyphilis treatment is often started
257 without confirmation of the diagnosis from CSF testing. In patients without

258 neurological symptoms however, especially those who are HIV positive, there
259 are concerns surrounding the risk of asymptomatic neurosyphilis with rates as
260 high as 22% reported[27]. In these patients, neurosyphilis is associated with
261 increased CNS inflammation but does not appear to explain cognitive
262 impairment[28]. Given ongoing uncertainties about the significance of
263 asymptomatic neurosyphilis, there remains debate about the need for CSF
264 analysis to assess for neurosyphilis in all asymptomatic HIV positive patients. A
265 recent UK study found that among patients who have received treatment for
266 early syphilis with benzathine penicillin G, the rates of asymptomatic
267 neurosyphilis after treatment are low [29]. In view of this the optimal timing
268 and use of lumbar puncture in the management of syphilis remains
269 uncertain[30].

270

271 An alternative to lumbar punctures is to prescribe a neuropenetrative antibiotic
272 regimen to all patients at risk of neurosyphilis without obtaining a confirmatory
273 diagnosis. The only randomised control trial of using a boosted neuropenetrative
274 regimen did not find an improved cure rate compared to standard therapy,
275 although the trial was not powered to specifically address this question in HIV
276 co-infected individuals[31]. One centre in the UK adopts this approach and has
277 shown good adherence and serological response to extended treatment[32] but
278 definitive data remain lacking. A randomised control trial is currently evaluating
279 the benefit of routine lumbar puncture in those patients for whom it is still not
280 clear how to proceed.

281

282 Whilst the development of a superior diagnostic test cannot directly answer all
283 these areas of uncertainty it would certainly aid in clinical decision making,
284 especially in HIV positive patients. However our data suggest PCR is not that test
285 and do not support the routine use of CSF-PCR as a diagnostic test for
286 neurosyphilis. A number of new assays are being evaluated including the B-Cell
287 chemoattractant CXCL-13 which shows promise[33]. Given the current absence
288 of a gold-standard assay and the challenges in evaluating assays for the diagnosis
289 of neurosyphilis, consideration should be given to multi-centre, multi-country
290 trials to provide adequate power to fully evaluate new tests which may have
291 superior performance for the diagnosis of neurosyphilis.

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408 **Contributions**

409 MM & DL conceived of the study. MM, CK, DL reviewed the papers. MM wrote the
410 first draft of the manuscript. All authors revised the manuscript.

411

412 **Figure 1: Flowchart of studies reviewed for inclusion**

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Table 1: Characteristics of Included Studies

| STUDY | Criteria definite neurosyphilis | Criteria probable neurosyphilis | Cases definite Neurosyphilis | Cases probable Neurosyphilis | Cases without Neurosyphilis | PCR Target | Sensitivity Definite Neurosyphilis | Specificity Definite Neurosyphilis | Sensitivity Probable Neurosyphilis | Specificity Probable Neurosyphilis |
|-------------------|---|---|------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Castro et al | CSF TPHA/FTA-ABS & WCC>10 OR CSF VDRL/RPR | N/A | 33 | N/A | 91 | tp47 | 75.80% | 86.80% | | |
| | | | | | | polA | 69.70% | 92.30% | | |
| Dumareq et al | CSF VDRL | CSF WBC count of >20 cells/ml with a nonreactive CSF VDRL | 19 | 11 | 92 | tp47 & polA & bmp* | 40% | 61% | 89% | 67% |
| Molepo et al | CSF VDRL & FTA-ABS | N/A | 35 | N/A | 15 | tp47 | 65% | 66% | | |
| García et al | VDRL OR MH-TPA | N/A | 8 | N/A | 25 | tp47 | 50% | 100% | | |
| Moskophidis et al | CSF Pleocytosis & Raised CSF-Protein & Raided CSF-IgG | N/A | 10 | N/A | 0 | tp47 | 60% | | | |
| Marra et al | CSF VDRL | N/A | 2 | N/A | 79 | tp47 | 100% | 100% | | |