LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Prevalence of HPV cervical infections among imprisoned women in Barcelona, Spain

EDITOR,—The penitentiary centres in Spain harbour inmates in whom the combination of HIV infection, history of injecting drug use, and prostitution is common.1 Extensive protocols to detect sexually transmitted diseases and tuberculosis are implemented in these centres; however, human papillomavirus (HPV) infections and related lesions are not routinely searched for. Although Spain is characterised by a very low incidence of cervical cancer,2 a high rate of cervical cancer has been reported recently among the AIDS female population in Catalonia.3 We carried out a study aiming to characterise HPV cervical infection and related cervical lesions among women with many potential risk factors for cervical neoplasia. The study was done in the only institution in Barcelona where women are imprisoned. The population consisted of 157 women attending the medical office of the prison between February and December 1996 and represented 90% of all women staying in prison for more than 3 days. Women who agreed to participate underwent a gynaecological examination, collection of cervical cells, a structured interview by a trained nurse, determination of HIV, hepatitis B and C serostatus, and detection of HPV DNA in the cervical cells by means of PCR. L1 consensus primers MY09/MY11 were used with modifications as described by Hiddesheim et al.4

HPV DNA was detected in 48% of the women. The prevalence of cervical abnormalities was 29.9%; 19 women had a atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (ASCUS) and 28 women were diagnosed with squamous intraepithelial lesion (SIL), five of whom had a high grade lesion. All women with a SIL and 42% of those with an ASCUS were HPV positive. Prostitution was reported by 38.2% and injecting drug use by 64.3% women. HPV infection was detected in 56.1%. HPV detection was significantly related to HIV, to injecting drug use, to reproductive and sexual characteristics. In addition, HIV positive women had an increased risk to develop SIL compared with HIV negative women (POR=5.02, 95% CI=1.69–14.89). As previously reported, the risk for SIL increased with low CD4 T cell counts, although POR did not reach statistical significance.5

Data from an ongoing study in a nearby area indicate that the prevalence of cervical abnormalities in the general population is around 4% (manuscript in preparation). This is the first time that we have documented in Spain a group of women with a very high rate of HPV infection linked to injecting drug use and with a rate of pre-neoplastic cervical lesions about seven times higher than that observed in the general population. While in prison these women were appropriately treated for HIV infection and for SIL. When out of prison or in jail, a gynaecological screening every 6–12 months should be organised and recommended.

Financial support: This work has been partially supported by the Spanish Ministry of Health, FIS No 98/0646. We thank Mrs Anna Coma for her assistance with data managing and analysis.

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Table 1 Age adjusted prevalence odds ratios for human papillomavirus infection (HPV DNA) in the cervical cells by different characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HPV DNA Negative</th>
<th>HPV DNA positive</th>
<th>PORc</th>
<th>PORa</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HIV Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>79.2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostitution</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injecting drug use</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of use:</td>
<td>0–9 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10+ years</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hepatitis C</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PORc = age adjusted.
PORa = adjusted for age and the other variables in the table.


Accepted for publication 5 November 1999

Detection of penicillinase producing Neisseria gonorrhoeae strains in Cuba, 1995–8

EDITOR,—Since the 1940s, penicillin has been recommended for the treatment of gonorrhoea. In the 1950s the first strains of Neisseria gonorrhoeae with reduced susceptibility to this antibiotic, as a result of chromosomal mutations, were isolated. In 1977 the first penicillinase producing Neisseria gonorrhoeae (PPNG) strains emerged in South East Asia and Africa, causing high level resistance to penicillin (MIC 150 µg/ml).1 In Cuba, the first report of a PPNG strain was made in 1986 (C Almanza, personal communication). We report here on the proportion of PPNG strains received at the Neisseria Reference Laboratory, Tropical Medicine Institute “Pedro Kouri” (IPK), Cuba between January 1995 and December 1998.

In all, 110 strains of N gonorrhoeae isolated from 10 of the 14 Cuban provinces were examined for their β lactamase activity by the chromogenic method (Nitrocefin, Oxoid). These strains were transported to the IPK using a novel transport and conservation medium for gonococci developed at the laboratory.2 N gonorrhoeae who E and WHO A were used as positive and negative control strains, respectively. All strains were identified as gonococci by standard procedures.3

Table 1 shows the distribution of Cuban PPNG and non-PPNG strains detected in our laboratory during 1995–8. The PPNG strains predominated, totally (61/110, 55.5%). The percentage of PPNG strains was high in all years analysed.4 To our knowledge it is the first study developed in Cuba, analysing the β lactamase activity of N gonorrhoeae isolated from different provinces in the island. In 1997 a high percentage of PPNG strains was found. Previous studies developed in specific Cuban hospitals in Havana City have revealed a lower percentage of PPNG strains (M Berroa et al, 1988; C Almanza et al, 1988, personal communications).

Penicillin has been the drug of choice for treatment of gonococcal infections in Cuba since 1972. The results of this study indicate that any policy to treat such infections should not include penicillin or other similar drugs. Other antimicrobials recommended by the World Health Organisation for treatment gonorrhoea—for example, spectinomycin, cephalosporins, quinolones, and azithromycin.
RISING HIV PREVALENCE IN STD CLINIC ATTENDERS AT CHANDIGARH (NORTH INDIA)—A RELATIVELY LOW PREVALENCE AREA

EDITOR.—The patients attending the STD clinics are at risk of having concurrent HIV infection. The trends of HIV infection in these patients may reflect the trends of HIV epidemic in the community. We have analysed the HIV status of 981 patients (824 males, 157 females) who attended our STD clinic from January 1993 to July 1999 (about 6½ years). The screening for HIV was done by ELISA. Those who were found positive were tested by repeat ELISA utilising another blood sample and considered HIV seropositive only, if both samples were found positive. The STDs were diagnosed by appropriate laboratory tests. The majority of the attenders had STDs; however, a small but significant proportion of patients had psychiatric disorders and other non-sexually transmitted genital diseases. Four per cent of the 981 patients—that is, 40 patients (26 males, 14 females) were found to be seropositive for HIV. The annual prevalence showed a rising trend (1993, 0.56%; 1994, 4.3%; 1995, 2.6%; 1996, 4%; 1997, 4.4%; 1998, 5.7%; and January to July 1999, 8.7%). The prevalence of HIV seropositivity in different STDs is shown in table 1. Large proportions of seropositive patients were truckers (15/40, 37.5%) and housewives (12/40, 30%). Among 12 housewives, four wives of the same trucker. All of the 26 seropositive male patients confessed to at least one sexual contact with commercial sex workers (CSWs). Twenty eight (70%) seropositive patients had one STD, while the remaining 12 (30%) patients had more than one STD; 18 (45%) seropositive patients had STDs with either atypical morphologies or unusual severity, the remaining 22 (55%) presented with usual morphologies.

India is a country with a wide variation in geographical, cultural, and behavioural patterns. This is also reflected in the trends of current HIV epidemic in the different regions of the country. We believe that no other country has such a high intravariation in HIV epidemic status. Comparison of our data on HIV prevalence with STD clinics of different regions of the country highlights this difference. The high HIV prevalence zones of the country include western and southern provinces, where HIV prevalence among STD clinic attenders varies from 1.5% to 3.3%. On the other hand, in eastern and northern zones, it is still low and varies from 0.2% to 4%. In our study we found that a high proportion of HIV positive patients were truckers, who generally acquired infection from CSWs from the highways to Bombay or Chennai, two metropolitan cities of the western and southern zones respectively. These long distance truckers have a high risk sexual behaviour and contribute in the spread of HIV infection throughout the country in a short time. Even though the present figures for HIV seropositivity in STD clinic attenders are not very high, the HIV epidemic in this region is now progressing at an alarming rate. In our study, the prevalence in our STD clinic increased from 0.56% in 1993 to 8.7% in 1999 (July). This indicates that northern India is entering from a low level epidemic (HIV prevalence less than 5% in STD patients) to a concentrated epidemic. This calls for an immediate vigorous intervention programme to be introduced in this region.

Correspondence to: Dr Kumar

Table 1—Frequency of HIV seropositivity in different sexually transmitted diseases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STDs</th>
<th>No screened</th>
<th>HIV seropositive</th>
<th>Seropositivity rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ulcerative STDs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genital herpes</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syphilis</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chancroid</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donovanosis</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lymphogranuloma venereum</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All ulcerative STDs</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-ulcerative STDs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condyloma acuminate</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanitis</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genital warts</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molluscum contagiosum</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-gonococcal urethritis</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaginosis</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All non-ulcerative STDs</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All STD clinic attenders*</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The discrepancy in total is due to the presence of more than one STD in some patients.
positive for HIV antibody. This was highly significant (p<0.001, Fisher's exact test).

Presence of HIV antibody was associated with genital ulcer in 23.5% women, followed by genital growth and vaginal discharge in 16.6% and 11.1% respectively.

There is a higher prevalence of STD and HIV infection among men compared with women. HIV seropositivity has been associated with a reactive serological test for syphilis among males. This could be probably due to the higher percentage of male attendance in STD clinics.1 We therefore undertook this study to evaluate if some association exists between syphilis and HIV among non-pregnant women attending the gynaecology clinic, as well as the STD clinic. Untreated STDs, especially those with ulcerative disease, can enhance the both susceptibility of a person to HIV infection as well as infectivity of HIV positive individual. Breach in the epithelial surface of a genital ulcer may be an important event in the transmissibility of HIV. This is evident from our results where incidence of positive serology for HIV was highest among women with genital ulcer (23.5%). Our study demonstrates a significant association between positive serology for syphilis and presence of HIV infection. We feel that the diagnosis of syphilis in non-pregnant women may act as a marker to detect the presence of HIV infection.

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Immune reconstitution CMV pneumonitis

EDITOR,—A 41 year old white homosexual man presented in late July 1999 with a 5 day history of exertional dyspnoea, non-productive cough, fever with sweats, and anosmia. An empirical course of broad spectrum antibiotics did not improve his symptoms and SaO2 remained >98% on air. The chest radiograph showed non-specific abnormalities. He had been found to be HIV-1 antibody positive in August 1991; cutaneous Kaposi's sarcoma defined AIDS in June 1992. In May 1995 biopsy showed lymphoid tissue and CMV (CMV) oesophagitis and colitis were treated with intravenous ganciclovir for 2 weeks; no maintenance therapy was given. At this time the CD4 count was 130 cells x10^3/l. In October 1996 the patient had 'Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia'. He had a complex antiretroviral history, having taken combinations of reverse transcriptase inhibitors and protease inhibitors. He had discontinued all antiretroviral therapy in January 1999 as the CD4 count had fallen to 50 cells x10^3/l. Two weeks before the onset of respiratory symptoms the patient had recommenced antiretroviral therapy with d4T, 3TC, and amprinavir/ saquinavir. Four weeks after starting antiretroviral therapy viral load had fallen to 1500 copies/ml and CD4 count had risen to 170 cells x10^3/l. A computed tomography (CT) scan of the thorax 4 weeks after the onset of respiratory symptoms and 6 weeks after starting antiretroviral therapy showed focal areas of ground glass shadowing, largely in the left upper lobe but also involving other lobes; in addition, chronic changes resulting from the previous episode of pneumonia were noted, including multifocal fibrotic change with thickened interlobar septae, cystic air spaces, and minor bronchiectasis involving all lobes. Repeat CT scan at this time showed 200 copies/ml and CD4 = 160 cells x10^3/l. At bronchoscopy, performed after 8 weeks of antiretroviral therapy, the endobronchial appearances were normal. Bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) was performed from the left upper lobe. Analysis of BAL fluid revealed a lymphocytic reaction; many cells had intranuclear/cytoplasmic inclusions typical of CMV infection. In situ hybridisation for CMV was positive in pneumocytes and for bacteria, mycobacteria, P carinii and other fungi were negative. Intravenous ganciclovir 10 mg/kg per day was given for 21 days, in addition, antiretroviral therapy and cotrimoxazole were continued. With this therapy there was a rapid defervescence of fever, a reduction in exertional dyspnoea and improvement in SaO2 to >98% on air. Repeat CT of the thorax after 3 weeks of intravenous ganciclovir showed an improvement in ground glass shadowing and persistence of the chronic changes. The patient was subsequently maintained on oral ganciclovir.

The diagnosis of CMV pneumonitis was made by identifying CMV as the sole pathogen in BAL fluid and the improvement in symptoms, SaO2, and CT appearances with ganciclovir as monotherapy. This diagnosis was made in the context of a rapidly falling viral load and an increase in CD4 count indicating partial immune reconstitution.

Intrauterine death, still birth, repeated abortions.

Accepted for publication 23 November 1999

BOOK REVIEWS


A book with a title such as this one makes it difficult for the author to decide what to exclude. This book certainly fulfils its major objective of providing an easy reference manual for the diagnosis and management of common gynaecological conditions. It deals with almost all the gynaecological problems that could be encountered in the community and the common gynaecological problems in hospital medicine. Overall, the topics covered are well presented with special points highlighted.
The use of pictures relating to almost all the conditions dealt with by the book breaks up what would otherwise be a book of lists. The use of two different views of the same woman exercising on a treadmill certainly made me smile. The first picture tells us she is an intensively training sportswoman who may develop amenorrhoea and osteoporosis with stress fractures while the second picture, on a page dealing with advice to women who do not want HRT, reveals she is a grandmother taking regular exercise.

From a genitourinary medicine trainee point of view, I would have liked to see a more comprehensive chapter on pelvic infections and sexually transmitted infections (this is the second smallest chapter in the book), and would have preferred this chapter to follow the one on vaginal and vulval problems. I am, however, glad to see that the role of the genitourinary clinic in the management of pelvic infections is emphasised.

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These two books provide histories of STDs and HIV in nine sub-Saharan African countries and another 11 countries in the Asia-Pacific region. The contributors are mostly historians or social scientists and the historical accounts take the reader up to 1995. Each volume is divided up into well referenced scholarly monographs on individual countries and individual chapters will be of considerable interest to anyone with an interest in sexual health in the countries studied. The number of readers of this journal who will want to read both books throughout is likely to be much less, given that these books are fairly specialist medical historical studies written mainly by historians for historians. The decision of the editors to treat each country separately has led inevitably to much repetition of certain themes. Many chapters rehearse the familiar story of how governments have responded to public pressure to regulate prostitution and the difficulties of demonstrating whether such efforts have had any real impact on STD transmission. The most interesting example in this context is the account of the attempts to eradicate prostitution and STDs in China, a subject which in my view is particularly difficult to separate the facts from the propaganda. Not only were STDs allegedly expunged from the population but they were deleted from medical textbooks too! Another theme to which contributors have referred is that of the possibility of determining the mode of transmission from serological results or, in many instances, from observed clinical manifestations, receive rather patchy and inconsistent coverage. A third recurring theme is the unreliability of passive reporting systems. While this is often acknowledged, contributors still feel obliged to cite whatever data they can unearth and to discuss observed trends that are unlikely to bear much relation to any true epidemiological situation.

What is there in these books for the clinician or epidemiologist with an interest in STDs? There is no shortage of entertaining anecdotes such as the expatriate doctor in Uganda who had himself publicly injected with mercury to demonstrate his faith in this treatment. The account of regular penicillin injections for prostitutes in Indonesia will interest those who are following studies of targeted periodic presumptive treatment in Africa such as the Lesedi Project. Having worked in Papua New Guinea, I was interested to see what was written about the spectacular epidemic of donovanosis that affected the Marind-anim tribe in the 1920s. I felt that the account given failed to bring alive the unique nature of this epidemic and the campaign to control it. The main problem for more clinically oriented readers is the wealth of innovative approaches to STD and HIV control that have been explored in these countries since 1995 and which are too recent for inclusion in these volumes. The accounts of HIV go little further than the difficulties experienced in galvanising governments out of denial and into action. For detailed accounts of the Kanana and Rakai trials and their impact on policy and for the discussion of more topical controversies such as the possible role of polio vaccine development in the Congo in triggering the HIV pandemic we will have to look to future historians.

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This book is a terrific read and should be read cover to cover by all practising genitourinary medicine physicians and trainees. Generally the quality of the writing is excellent. Genitourinary medicine is a rapidly advancing field so read the book now before it becomes out of date. Already the incubation period of the text shows in places. Some statistics relate to 1992 where 1997 figures are available. Some statements are also slightly out of date.

In a book of this size the referencing presents a challenge. If one references every statement (and considers all the conflicting evidence) the handbook turns into a weighty and unmanageable tome. Mostly, the authors have managed a sensible compromise. Statements that are uncontroversial or old hat are not referenced. Occasionally more controversial statements remain unreferenced. This may present a problem for the trainee. There are also some surprising omissions. I could find no description of desquamative vaginitis or focal vulvitis. However, I believe that this handbook could serve as an excellent basis for discussions between trainer and trainee and stimulate further reading around these topics.

Get this book. You will enjoy it. A number of chapters are absolute gems.

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Consortium of Thai Training Institutes for STDs and AIDS—10th STDs/AIDS diploma course, Bangkok Hospital, Bangkok (30 Oct–12 Nov) and Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Thailand (13–23 Nov) 30 October–23 November 2000
Further details: Hat Yai Secretariat, Dr Ve-rapol Chandeying, Dept of OB-GYN, Faculty of Medicine, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Songkla 90110, Thailand (fax: (66-74) 446 361; email: verapol@ratecu.psu.ac.th or Bangkok Secretariat, Dr Thanthi Palanvej, Bangkok Hospital, 189 Sathorn Road, Bangkok 10120, Thailand (fax: (66-2) 286 3013; email: pthanit@email.ksc.net).

Consortium of Thai Training Institutes for STDs and AIDS—International Reunion and Refresher Course on Sexual Health, Lee Garden Plaza Hotel, Hat Yai, Songkla 90110, Thailand 24–26 November 2000
Further details: Hat Yai Secretariat, Dr Ve-rapol Chandeying, Dept of OB-GYN, Faculty of Medicine, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Songkla 90110, Thailand (fax: (66-74) 446 361; email: verapol@ratecu.psu.ac.th or Bangkok Secretariat, Dr Thanthi Palanvej, Bangkok Hospital, 189 Sathorn Road, Bangkok 10120, Thailand (fax: (66-2) 286 3013; email: pthanit@email.ksc.net).

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS

Selected titles from recent reports published worldwide are arranged in the following sections:

Gonorrhea
Chlamydia
Candidiasis
Bacterial vaginosis
Pelvic inflammatory disease
Septic and other reproductive infections
Hepatitis
Herpes
Human papillomavirus infection
Cervical cytology and colposcopy
Other sexually transmitted infections
Public health and social aspects
Microbiology and immunology
Dermatology
Miscellaneous

Gonorrhea

Increasing in oral sex and pharyngeal gon-orrhea: an unintended effect of a successful condom promotion programme for vaginal sex.

Cervical wet mount as a negative predictor for gonorrhoea and Chlamydia trachomatis-induced cervicitis in a gravid population.

Experimental transmission of Neisseria gonorrhoea from pregnant rat to fetus.

Comparison of direct inoculation and copan transport systems for isolation of Neisseria gonorrhoeae from endocervical specimens.

T lymphocyte response to Neisseria gonorrhoeae porin in individuals with mucosal gonococcal infections.
SD SIMPSON, Y HO, PA RICE, LM WETZLER. J Infect Dis 1999;180:762–73 38

Decreased azithromycin susceptibility of Neisseria gonorrhoeae due to mtrR mutations.

The farAB-encoded efflux pump mediates resistance of gonococci to long-chained antibacterial fatty acids.
EH LEE, WM SHAFER. Mol Microbiol 1999;33:839–45 40

Chlamydia

Partner notification for chlamydial infec-tions among private sector clinicians in Seattle-King County: a clinician and patient survey.
MR GOLDEN, WH WHITTINGOOTH, PN GORRACH et al. Sex Transm Dis 1999;26:543–7 37

Patterns of Chlamydia trachomatis test-ing and follow-up at a university hospital medical center.
HJ BACHMANN, CM RICHIE, K WAITEs et al. Sex Transm Dis 1999;26:496–9

Completeness of and duration of time before treatment after screening women for Chlamydia trachomatis infections.
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Control of Chlamydia trachomatis in-fections in female army recruits: cost-effec-tiveness screening and treatment in training cohorts to prevent pelvic inflammatory disease.

Lack of association between serum anti-bodies to Chlamydia trachomatis and a history of recurrent pregnancy loss.

How adequate is adequate for the collection of endocervical specimens for Chlamydia trachomatis testing?

The impact on accuracy and cost of ligase chain reaction testing by pooling urine specimens for the diagnosis of Chlamydia trachomatis infections.
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Ability of the Digene Hybrid Capture II test to identify Chlamydia trachomatis and Neisseria gonorrhoeae in cervical specimens.

Impact of reference standard sensitivity on accuracy of rapid antigen detection assays and a leukocyte esterase dipstick for diagnosis of Chlamydia trachomatis infection in first VOID urine specimens from men.

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing of Chlamydia trachomatis using a reverse transcriptase PCR-based method.

Detection of Chlamydia trachomatis endocervical infections by ligase chain reaction versus ACCESS Chlamydia anti-gen assay.

Antibody response to the chlamydial heat-shock protein 60 in an experimental model of chronic pelvic inflammatory disease in monkeys (Macaca nemestrina).
JW FEELING, DK PATTON, YTC SWEENEY et al. Infect Dis 1999;180:774–9

Role of gamma interferon in controlling murine chlamydial genital tract infec-tion.

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HJ SCHUMACHER, JS GERARD, RK ARAYSSI et al. J Infect Dis 1999;180:2289–93

Lack of cell wall peptidoglycan versus penicillin sensitivity: new insights into the chlamydial anomaly.

The effect of doxycycline treatment and the development of protective immunity in a murine model of chlamydial genital infection.
Double-blind comparison of trovafloxacin and doxycycline in the treatment of uncomplicated chlamydial urethritis and cervicitis.
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