

Clinical and epidemiological aspects of streptococcus pyogenes pharyngitis and carriage in Africa

Mark E. Engel and Bongani M. Mayosi

Department of Medicine, Groote Schuur Hospital and University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa

Address for correspondence:

Dr M.E. Engel
Department of Medicine
J Floor, Old Groote Schuur Hospital
Groote Schuur Drive
Observatory
7925
Cape Town
South Africa

Email:

mark.engel@uct.ac.za

INTRODUCTION

Infection with Group A β -haemolytic Streptococcus, a gram-positive bacterium also known as Streptococcus pyogenes, results in mucosal and skin diseases such as pharyngitis and pyoderma.⁽¹⁾ While most cases of sore throat are due to viral infections such as influenza and require symptomatic treatment before eventually self-resolving, group A streptococcal pharyngitis specifically refers to a sore throat resulting from an infection with group A streptococcus (GAS). Following the initial infection, or after repeated GAS pharyngeal and skin infections, more serious GAS-related illnesses may result (Table 1) such as acute post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis, acute rheumatic fever (ARF) and rheumatic heart disease (RHD).⁽²⁻⁵⁾ RHD is associated with significant morbidity and mortality in children and young adults living in developing countries.

In South Africa, guidelines for the management of pharyngitis (including bacterial tonsillitis) are provided in various Department of Health publications.^(6,7) Clinical features suggestive of β -haemolytic streptococci group A are sore throat, inflamed tonsils with exudate, tender and enlarged cervical lymph nodes and often, a sudden onset of fever as illustrated in Table 2. The current standard of care targets children aged 3 - 15 years for primary prevention, i.e. patients presenting with a sore throat are treated with penicillin if there are no signs of viral infection. Addressing

ABSTRACT

Infection with Group A β -haemolytic Streptococcus, also known as Streptococcus pyogenes, results in various mucosal and skin diseases including pharyngitis. An exaggerated immune response to a single or repeated group A streptococcal (GAS) infection subsequently results in acute rheumatic fever (ARF) and, in the absence of intervention, repeated bouts of ARF may in turn result in progression to RHD, particularly in those ARF patients with cardiac involvement. Addressing GAS pharyngitis through appropriate primary prevention measures and treating all symptomatic GAS sore throats with a course of oral or parenteral penicillin presents an opportunity for the primary intervention of RHD. Failure to eradicate streptococci from the pharynx occurs in about one third of non-treated cases, giving rise to carrier status in those individuals harbouring intracellular GAS and thus representing a potential source of the acquisition of infections for other children and adults. Improved living conditions and access to healthcare during the last century are credited for the considerable decline in the prevalence of ARF and RHD in developed countries. However, a few studies have been reported from within Africa, and in these GAS carriage ranged around 9.0%. In South African studies GAS carriage isolation rates, which range from 1.62% to 16.8%, were reported. As regards the prevalence of GAS pharyngitis, it is generally higher in developing countries and impoverished communities within industrialised nations. The most-up-to-date data from South Africa was collected more than 30 years ago with rates then ranging from 23.2% to 45.5%. There are no incidence data on GAS pharyngitis in Africa.

This review found that there is a need to document the epidemiology of GAS carriage and GAS pharyngitis in school children of all ages within Africa. Molecular characterisation of strains harboured in the pharynx of carriers and of those isolated during bouts of pharyngitis, will help to identify risk factors associated with carriage in school-aged children and influence the planning and evaluation of management programmes in the screening of pharyngeal carriers and treatment of GAS pharyngitis. SAHeart 2013;10:434-439

GAS pharyngitis through appropriate primary prevention measures and treating all symptomatic GAS sore throats with a course of oral or parenteral penicillin⁽⁸⁾ presents the opportunity for primary intervention of RHD,⁽⁹⁾ thereby reducing the economic and major public health consequences associated with disease burden.^(10,11)

TABLE 1: Group A streptococcal-related diseases^(2,5,19)

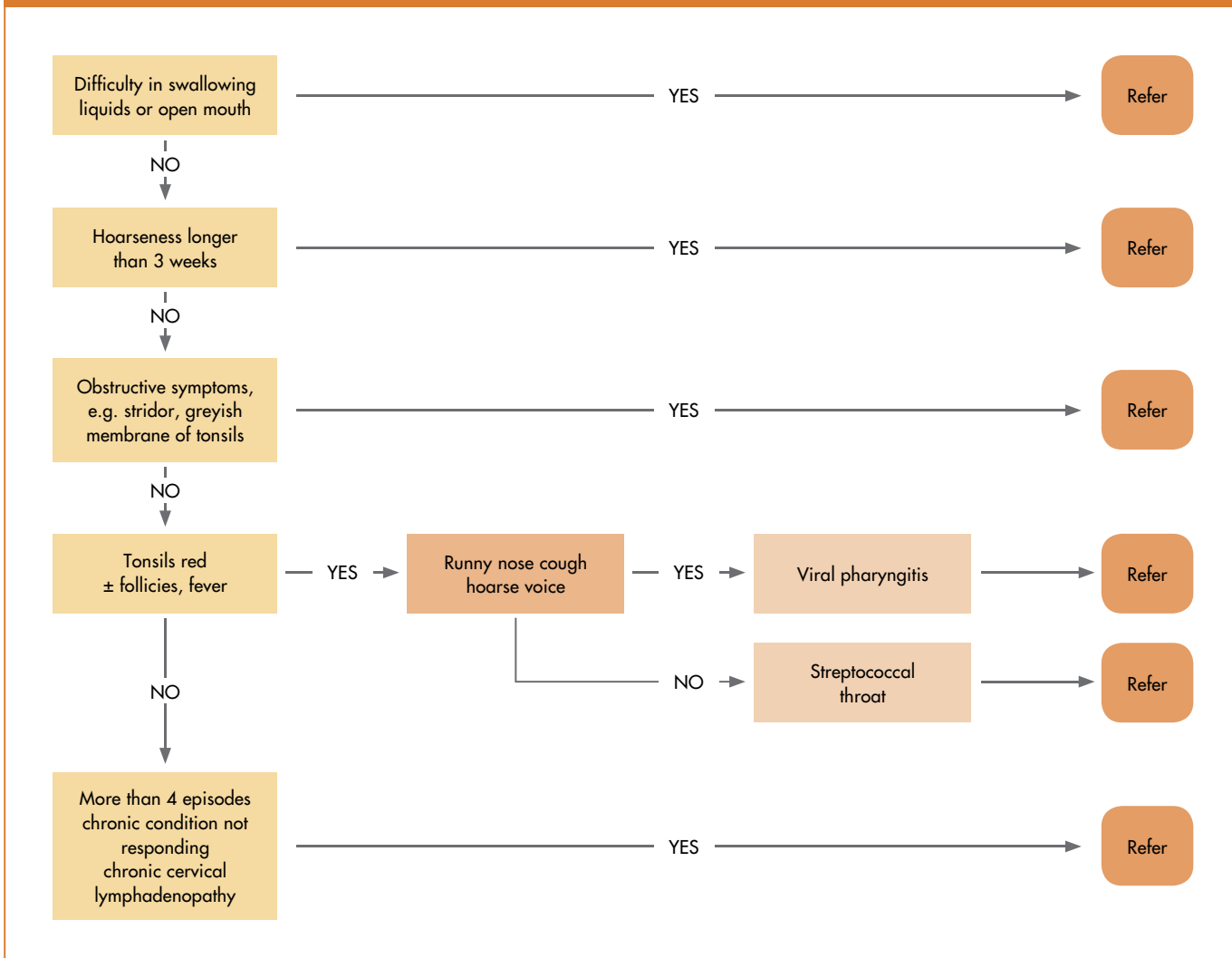
Pharyngitis and Scarlet Fever
Pyoderma and Streptococcal Skin Infections
Invasive Streptococcal Disease:
Streptococcal Toxic Shock Syndrome
Necrotizing Fasciitis
Septicaemia
Post-Infectious Sequelae
Rheumatic fever
Acute post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis
Reactive arthritis
PANDAS

PANDAS = Paediatric Autoimmune Neuropsychiatric Disorders Associated with Streptococcal infections.

Failure to eradicate streptococci from the pharynx occurs in about one third of non-treated cases, giving rise to the carrier status in those individuals harbouring intracellular GAS.⁽¹²⁾ Carriers of GAS may represent a potential source for the acquisition of infections for other children and adults. A longitudinal study over 44 months demonstrated the persistence of carrier strains during repeated episodes of GAS infection in 50% of participants.⁽¹³⁾ Thus, GAS carriage reflects the reservoir of circulating strains, which are relevant to disease, such as pharyngitis.

In culture, *Streptococcus pyogenes* can be differentiated from normal throat flora by their distinct appearance as β -haemolytic colonies on 5% sheep agar incubated under anaerobic conditions (Figure 1). β -haemolytic streptococci can further be differentiated into serotypes using the Lancefield grouping system including, for example, GAS which is distinguished by its group A carbohydrate.^(2,14) Earlier work by Rebecca Lancefield established a type-specific surface antigen on GAS, the M-protein which is encoded by

TABLE 2: South African Essential Drug List: Diagnosis and Treatment of streptococcal infection in children aged 3 - 15 years.⁽⁶⁾



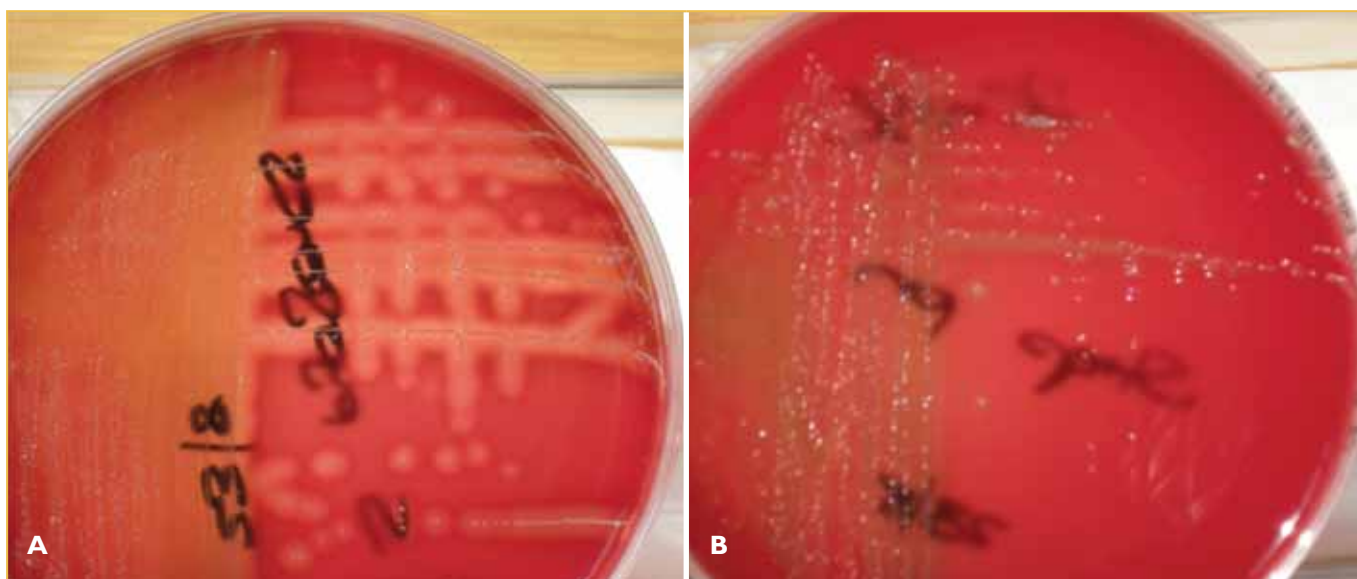


FIGURE 1: Pattern of haemolysis around streptococcal colonies distinguishing beta (A) with large zones of complete haemolysis around colonies from alpha (B) with its incomplete haemolysis and dark green agar under the colonies. Photo: M Engel, 2012

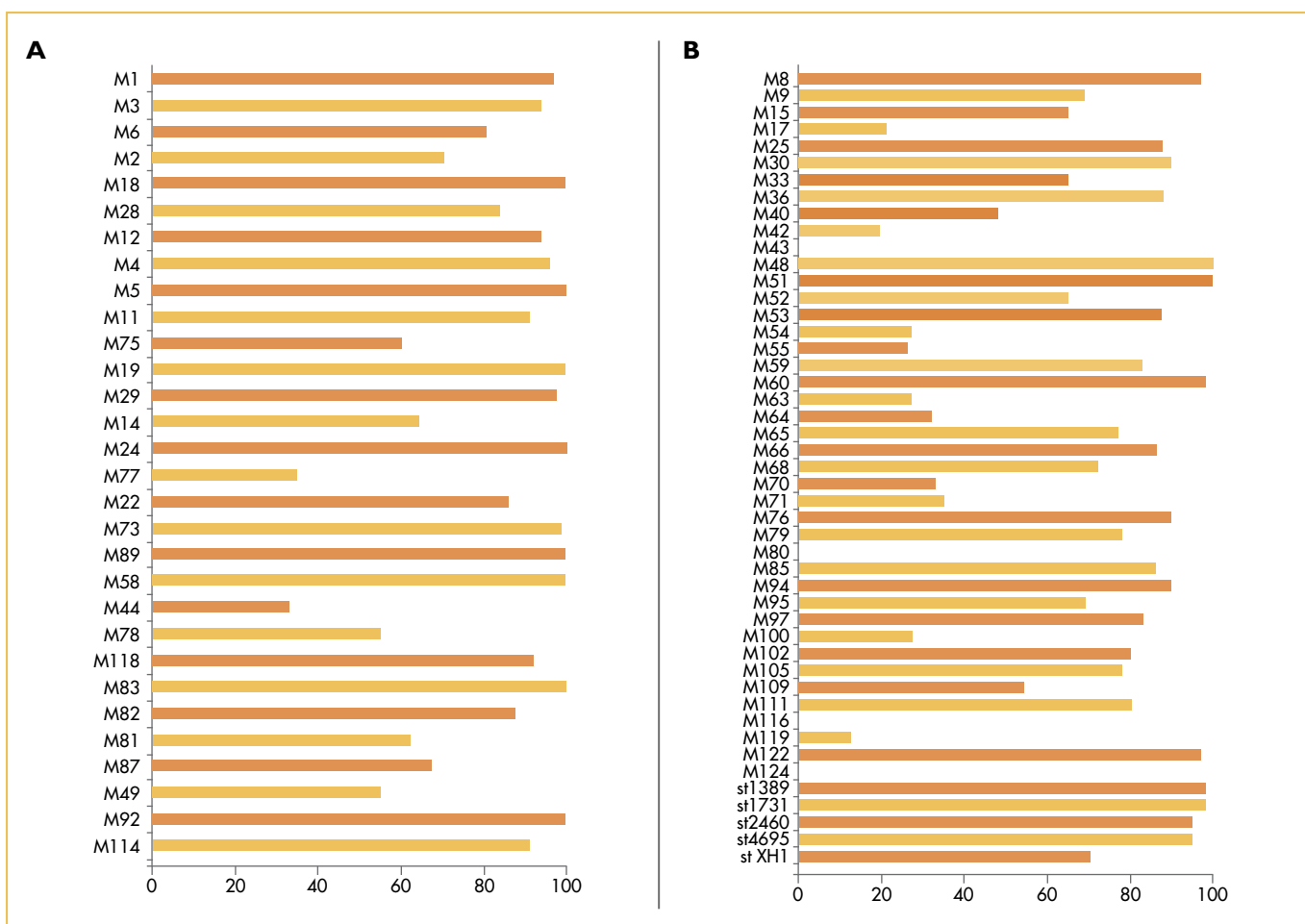


FIGURE 2: In vitro percentage killing in human whole blood. Percentage killing by bactericidal antibodies evoked by the 30-valent vaccine. A. Vaccine serotypes. B. Non-vaccine serotypes. Courtesy of J. Dale.

the emm gene and is the major target for the immune system.⁽¹⁵⁾ Recent advances in molecular biology have made it possible to differentiate the more than 200 variations in the emm sequence by so-called emm typing.^(16,17) The N-terminal region of the M-protein is the target for vaccine development, having been shown to evoke antibodies with the greatest bactericidal activity, while showing no cross-reaction with human tissues.⁽¹⁸⁾ Amino acid sequences of M proteins of 30 emm types have been included in the latest vaccine initiative and preliminary results indicate bactericidal killing of >40% in over 90% of the vaccine serotypes and additional cross-opsionic activity against 60% of 40 non-vaccine serotypes of GAS evaluated (Figure 2).

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF ASYMPTOMATIC PHARYNGEAL CARRIAGE

Asymptomatic children can be a major reservoir of pharyngeal GAS. A pooled GAS carriage prevalence of 12% (95% CI: 9% - 14%) in healthy children aged 5 - 17 years was reported in a recent review of 18 clinic- and school-based studies on streptococcal carriage in both industrialised and developing countries.⁽²⁰⁾ Amongst the 7 studies on school-aged children included in the review, the prevalence of asymptomatic carriage ranged from 10% in Sweden to 21% in Iran. In another 16 month follow-up study conducted in community-based family medicine practices in Australia, seasonal carriage rates ranged from 8% - 16% amongst 160 randomly selected families,⁽²¹⁾ while in a prospective surveillance study conducted over 9 months in Fiji, a GAS carriage of 6.0% was observed amongst 685 healthy children.⁽²²⁾

Results from India show contrasting figures; in Chennai, 8.4% of 1 102 school children from overcrowded government or charity-aided schools in slum-like conditions harboured GAS⁽²³⁾ while in a rural community in Northern India, a prevalence rate of only 1.3 % was observed in 3 385 children aged 5 - 15 years.⁽²⁴⁾ Still within the region, a cross-sectional study across 4 schools in Nepal, isolated GAS from 10.9% of 350 students 5 - 15 years of age.⁽²⁵⁾ Elsewhere, in Grenada, a study conducted in randomly selected schools observed a GAS prevalence of 5.2% among 1 388 children aged 5 - 15 years.⁽²⁶⁾

Data on GAS carriage from countries in Africa remain scarce with only a few studies reporting on carriage. In Ethiopia, Abdissa reported a 9.7% carriage rate in pharyngeal isolates from 937 healthy participants aged 6 - 14 years (mean age, 11 years).⁽²⁷⁾ An earlier study in Tunisia documented a rate of 9.0% from throat swabs taken from 155 controls.⁽²⁸⁾ More recently, Sadoh reported a prevalence of almost 10% among asymptomatic school children in Nigeria.⁽²⁹⁾

In South Africa there is a dearth of recent studies on GAS carriage rates in school-aged children, with only 4 studies conducted more than 25 years ago. In a study of 12 050 school children from largely lower-socio economic households in Soweto, isolation rates of 5.2% were reported with a significantly higher rate of GAS isolation during the winter months and a peak incidence in fifth and sixth school grades.⁽³⁰⁾ In another study from the northern part of South Africa, contrasting carriage rates of 1.62% and 16.8% were reported in asymptomatic Black participants from a remote traditional community and an urban setting respectively.⁽³¹⁾ In the same study, urban Whites had a carriage prevalence of only 3.4%. A study conducted in the late 1970s in the densely overcrowded Hout Bay community of Cape Town reported an overall prevalence of 3.6% amongst 1 150 children aged 6 - 17 years.⁽³²⁾ The 2 schools surveyed had respective prevalence rates of 2.4% and 12%, the latter speculated to be reflective of the 10km distance from the nearest primary health care polyclinic. Finally, a study involving mostly grade 3 school children of either mixed or Indian ancestry reported GAS carriage rates >20% in summer and <5% in spring.⁽³³⁾

Few studies report on the distribution of emm types amongst asymptomatic GAS carriers.

In Fiji, while not reporting specific emm types, Steer et al. observed that 32% of GAS emm sequence types were shared between carriage and sore throat isolates.⁽²²⁾ To date, only 1 study reports on the distribution of emm types amongst asymptomatic GAS carriers in Africa, indicating diversity in M strains.⁽³⁴⁾

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF GAS PHARYNGITIS

GAS-positive pharyngitis is common among school-aged learners, with the peak age of incidence for GAS infections being between 5 and 15 years.⁽³⁵⁾ Generally, developing countries have higher prevalence rates of GAS isolated from patients with pharyngitis compared to industrialised nations, except for impoverished populations within industrialised countries.⁽¹⁹⁾ A recent review of 17 studies of GAS prevalence calculated a pooled prevalence estimate of 37% among children presenting with sore throat from both industrialised and developing countries.⁽²⁰⁾ Of the studies included in the review, the prevalence rates ranged from 23% in the United States to 58% in a study from the Netherlands; although on closer inspection of the Netherlands study, the isolation of GAS was actually only 32%.⁽³⁶⁾ In the same review, 2 studies from developing countries reported rates of 45% (Sri Lanka) and 33% (Egypt/Croatia/Brazil) respectively.

In a hospital-based study from Kolkata, GAS was isolated from 42 out of 100 throat swabs from patients of all ages presenting with pharyngitis, with a peak incidence observed in the 5 - 15 years age group.⁽³⁷⁾ Elsewhere in India, a cross-sectional study comprising 4 249 children aged 5 - 15 years from 25 randomly selected villages in the Panchkula district of Haryana in northern India, reported respective prevalence rates for β HS and GAS of 25.7% and 2.8% from children with pharyngitis with rates of isolation being significantly higher in the winter months.⁽²⁴⁾ In the same study, the investigators observed pharyngeal β HS and GAS carriage rates of 15.4% and 1.3% respectively.

The incidence of GAS positive pharyngitis is estimated to be 616 million cases per year amongst all ages across the world based on a systematic review of population-based data using United Nations population data as the denominator. In more developed countries approximately 15% of school-aged children will suffer an episode of GAS pharyngitis each year, whereas in less-resourced countries, the incidence may be more than 5 times greater.⁽³⁾ A few studies have documented incidence of GAS pharyngitis. Respective incidence rates of acute sore throat and GAS swab-positive pharyngitis include, in former Czechoslovakia, 8.3 and 3.9 cases per 100 child-years,⁽³⁸⁾ Northern India, 705 and 95 cases per 100 child-years⁽³⁹⁾ and Melbourne, Australia, 33 and 13 cases per 100 child-years⁽²¹⁾ as well as 162 and 14.7 cases per 100 child-years.⁽²²⁾

Prevalence and incidence data on GAS pharyngitis from developing countries are largely lacking when compared to industrialised nations,⁽⁴⁰⁾ especially in South Africa. A study conducted in Pretoria over 30 years ago on 232 unselected patients who presented with a complaint of sore throat reported an overall prevalence of 33.2% with a significant difference between rates for Blacks (45.5%) and Whites (23.2%).⁽⁴¹⁾ No variation in rates was observed by season and the overall background carriage rate of 165 controls was 12.1% (Blacks, 16.8%; Whites, 3.4%). In another study of 112 participants aged 2 to 19 years of age conducted during the summer months at a hospital serving the Black community in Bloemfontein, 42% of throat swabs cultured returned a positive GAS result.⁽⁴²⁾

DISCUSSION

Contemporary data on GAS carriage rates among asymptomatic school children in Africa and South Africa remain scarce, with no school-based studies undertaken across the complete spectrum of age groups. There is a need to document GAS carriage in school children of all ages which, together with molecular characterisation of strains harboured in the pharynx of carriers, will help to identify risk factors associated with carriage in school-aged children and influence the planning and evaluation of management programmes

in the screening of pharyngeal carriers.⁽²³⁾ Also, knowledge of the pre-test probability influences assessment of the post-test probability of GAS pharyngitis, so as to minimise unnecessary diagnostic testing in children.⁽²⁰⁾

There is considerable heterogeneity amongst epidemiological studies on GAS pharyngitis in terms of participant selection, study setting and duration of enrolment. Few studies employed a passive surveillance approach where participants are enrolled only at the time of presenting to the clinic or health facility, thereby reducing the risk of selection bias. Furthermore, few studies extend much beyond a year in duration, thus making it difficult to make conclusive judgements on seasonality. An understanding of the incidence of GAS pharyngitis in children within a local context is an important component of any ARF and RHD control programme.⁽⁴³⁾ Given that no data exist on the incidence of GAS pharyngitis among children with pharyngitis attending primary health care clinics in South Africa, a prospective surveillance study of sufficient duration (>3 years) is required.

Given the advancement in molecular methods to enable the characterisation of GAS strains through M-typing of the emm gene, there is a need to conduct emm strain typing on GAS isolates from patients presenting with pharyngitis at primary health care facilities in order to compare strains with those isolated from carriers. In the light of recent progress towards a streptococcal vaccine⁽¹⁸⁾ and given that asymptomatic carriers have been shown to maintain the carrier streptococcal strain when progressing to active disease,⁽¹³⁾ identification of the DNA sequencing pattern of the 5' hypervariable region of the cell-surface M-protein (so called emm typing)⁽⁴⁴⁾ may inform vaccine development and later help in assessing the impact of vaccination, the monitoring of serotype changes and its efficacy within the population.

Conflict of interest: none declared.

REFERENCES

- Centres for disease control and prevention. "Group A Streptococcal (GAS) Disease." Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/dbmd/diseaseinfo/groupastrep_tococcal_g.htm. Accessed 01 May 2013.
- Cunningham MW. Pathogenesis of group A streptococcal infections. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2000;13:470-511.
- Carapetis JR, Steer AC, Mulholland EK, Weber M. The global burden of group A streptococcal diseases. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2005;5:685-94.
- Stollerman GH. Rheumatic fever and streptococcal infection. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1975.
- Marijon E, Mirabel M, Celermajer DS, Jouven X. Rheumatic heart disease. *Lancet* 2012;379:953-64.
- Department of Health SA. Standard Treatment Guidelines and Essential Drugs List for South Africa: Primary Health Care 2003 Edition. Pretoria: DOH, 2006. <http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/policy/2006/stg&edl2006.pdf> (Last accessed 20/09/2012). 2006.
- Department of Health SA. National Guidelines on the Primary Prevention and Prophylaxis of Rheumatic Fever and Rheumatic Heart Disease for Health Professionals at Primary Level. Pretoria: DOH, 1999. <http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/facts-f.html> (Last accessed 12/11/2003). 1999.
- Robertson KA, Volmink JA, Mayosi BM. Antibiotics for the primary prevention of acute rheumatic fever: a meta-analysis. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord* 2005;5:11.
- Karthikeyan G, Mayosi BM. Is primary prevention of rheumatic fever the missing link in the control of rheumatic heart disease in Africa? *Circulation* 2009;120:709-13.
- Pfoh E, Wessels MR, Goldmann D, Lee GM. Burden and economic cost of group A streptococcal pharyngitis. *Paediatrics* 2008;121:229-34.
- Danchin MH, Rogers S, Selvaraj G, et al. The burden of group A streptococcal pharyngitis in Melbourne families. *The Indian journal of medical research* 2004; 119 Suppl:144-7.
- Markowitz M, Gerber MA, Kaplan EL. Treatment of streptococcal pharyngotonsillitis: reports of penicillin's demise are premature. *The Journal of paediatrics* 1993;123:679-85.
- Martin JM, Green M, Barbadora KA, Wald ER. Group A streptococci among school-aged children: clinical characteristics and the carrier state. *Paediatrics* 2004;114:1212-9.
- Lancefield RC. Specific relationships of cell composition to biologic activity of hemolytic streptococci. *Harvey Lectures*. 1941;36:251-65.
- Scott JR, Pulliam WM, Hollingshead SK, Fischetti VA. Relationship of M protein genes in group A streptococci. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 1985;82:1822-6.
- Beall B, Gherardi G, Lovgren M, Facklam RR, Forwick BA, Tyrrell GJ. Emm and of gene sequence variation in relation to serological typing of opacity-factor-positive group A streptococci. *Microbiology* 2000;146 (Pt 5):1195-209.
- CDC Protocol for emm typing available at http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/biotech/strep/M-ProteinGene_typing.htm. Protocol for emm typing. Centres for Disease Control and Prevention. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/biotech/strep/M-ProteinGene_typing.htm Accessed 20 August 2012.
- Dale JB. Current status of group A streptococcal vaccine development. *Advances in experimental medicine and biology* 2008;609:53-63.
- Steer AC, Danchin MH, Carapetis JR. Group A streptococcal infections in children. *J Paediatr Child Health* 2007;43:203-13.
- Shaikh N, Leonard E, Martin JM. Prevalence of streptococcal pharyngitis and streptococcal carriage in children: a meta-analysis. *Paediatrics* 2010;126:e557-64.
- Danchin MH, Rogers S, Kelpie L, et al. Burden of acute sore throat and group A streptococcal pharyngitis in school-aged children and their families in Australia. *Paediatrics* 2007;120:950-7.
- Steer AC, Jenney AW, Kado J, et al. Prospective surveillance of streptococcal sore throat in a tropical country. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 2009;28:477-82.
- Lloyd CA, Jacob SE, Menon T. Pharyngeal carriage of group A streptococci in school children in Chennai. *Indian J Med Res* 2006;124:195-8.
- Kumar R, Vohra H, Chakraborty A, et al. Epidemiology of group A streptococcal pharyngitis & impetigo: a cross-sectional & follow up study in a rural community of northern India. *The Indian journal of medical research* 2009;130:765-71.
- Dumre SP, Sapkota K, Adhikari N, et al. Asymptomatic throat carriage rate and antimicrobial resistance pattern of *Streptococcus pyogenes* in Nepalese school children. *Kathmandu Univ Med J (KUMJ)* 2009;7:392-6.
- Noel TP, Zabriskie J, Macpherson CN, Perrotte G. Beta-haemolytic streptococci in school children 5 - 15 years of age with an emphasis on rheumatic fever, in the tri-island state of Grenada. *West Indian Med J* 2005;54:22-7.
- Abdissa A, Asrat D, Kronvall G, et al. Throat carriage rate and antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of group A Streptococci (GAS) in healthy Ethiopian school children. *Ethiop Med J* 2011;49:125-30.
- Mzoughi R, Bouallegue O, Selmi H, Ben Said H, Essoussi AS, Jeddi M. Group A streptococci in children with acute pharyngitis in Sousse, Tunisia. *East Mediterr Health J* 2004;10:488-93.
- Sadok AE, Omokhodion SI. Streptococcal Throat Isolates In School Children In An Urban Centre In Nigeria - Are There Other Rheumatogenic Strains? *Nigerian journal of Cardiology* 2007;4:50-5.
- McLaren MJ, Hawkins DM, Koomhof HJ, et al. Epidemiology of rheumatic heart disease in black schoolchildren of Soweto, Johannesburg. *Br Med J* 1975;3:474-8.
- Van Staden DA, Nel W, Van Zyl ML. Groep A B-hemolitiiese streptocokke in 'n tradisionele Swart gemeenskap. *S Afr Med J* 1982;62:569-70.
- Bundred PE. The place of primary care in the prevention and control of rheumatic fever and rheumatic heart disease in Southern Africa. In: *Medicine*, Vol. M.D. Thesis - University of London. London: London, 1986.
- Ransome OJ, Roode H, Spector I, Reinach SG. Pharyngeal carriage of group A beta-haemolytic streptococci in coloured and Indian schoolchildren. *S Afr Med J* 1983;64:779-81.
- Abdissa A, Asrat D, Kronvall G, et al. High diversity of group A streptococcal emm types among healthy schoolchildren in Ethiopia. *Clin Infect Dis* 2006 42:1362-7.
- WHO. Rheumatic Fever and Rheumatic Heart Disease. Report of a WHO Expert Consultation, Vol. Technical Report Series, No. 923, 2004.
- Dagnelie CF, Touw-Otten FW, Kuyvenhoven MM, Rozenberg-Arska M, de Melker RA. Bacterial flora in patients presenting with sore throat in Dutch general practice. *Family practice* 1993;10:371-7.
- Ray D, Banerjee S, Bhattacharya S, et al. A hospital-based study to evaluate the incidence pattern of group A streptococcal throat infections from different age group patients. *J Indian Med Assoc* 2010;108:81-3.
- Duben J, Jelinkova J, Jelinek J, Rotta J. Prospective study on streptococcal pharyngitis among a town population. *Journal of hygiene, epidemiology, microbiology, and immunology* 1979;23:159-67.
- Nandi S, Kumar R, Ray P, Vohra H, Ganguly NK. Group A streptococcal sore throat in a periurban population of northern India: a one-year prospective study. *Bulletin of the World Health Organisation* 2001;79:528-33.
- Carapetis JR, McDonald M, Wilson NJ. Acute rheumatic fever. *Lancet* 2005;366:155-68.
- van Zyl ML, van Staden DA, Potgieter MD. (Beta-hemolytic streptococci as a cause of sore throat in the Pretoria area.) *South African medical journal = Suid-Afrikaanse tydskrif vir geneeskunde* 1981;59:783-4.
- Olivier L, de Graad G. Streptococcal sore throat. *South African medical journal = Suid-Afrikaanse tydskrif vir geneeskunde* 1978;54:1082.
- World Health Organisation. Rheumatic fever and rheumatic heart disease: report of a WHO Expert Consultation: Geneva, 29 October - 1 November 2001. Geneva: World Health Organisation, 2004.
- Beall B, Facklam R, Thompson T. Sequencing emm-specific PCR products for routine and accurate typing of group A streptococci. *J Clin Microbiol* 1996;34:953-8.