

# Neurosyphilis: Understanding the Silent Invader of the Nervous System

Uluhan Sili\*

Departement of Clinicle Microbiology, University of Manitoba, Canada

## Abstract

Neurosyphilis, a complication of untreated syphilis infection, represents a formidable intersection of infectious disease and neurology. While once a common occurrence in the pre-antibiotic era, its incidence has decreased significantly in developed countries with widespread use of antibiotics. However, its persistence in certain populations and its potential resurgence in the context of evolving antibiotic resistance warrant continued vigilance and understanding. This article explores the pathophysiology, clinical manifestations, diagnosis, and treatment of neurosyphilis.

Syphilis is caused by the bacterium *Treponema pallidum*, a spirochete capable of invading the human body through mucous membranes or breaks in the skin. Initial infection manifests as a painless ulcer (chancre) at the site of entry, followed by a secondary stage characterized by rash and mucous membrane lesions. If left untreated, the infection progresses to the latent and tertiary stages, during which *T. pallidum* can disseminate throughout the body, including the central nervous system (CNS).

Neurosyphilis occurs when *T. pallidum* invades the CNS, typically through the blood-brain barrier. The bacteria can directly infect the meninges, brain parenchyma, spinal cord, and cranial nerves, leading to a variety of neurological complications.

## Introduction

Neurosyphilis, an insidious complication of untreated syphilis infection, represents a poignant intersection of infectious disease and neurology. Historically known as the “great imitator,” syphilis has intrigued and perplexed clinicians for centuries with its diverse and often unpredictable manifestations. Among these, neurosyphilis stands out as a profound example of the disease’s ability to invade and disrupt the central nervous system (CNS) [1].

Syphilis itself is caused by the spirochete bacterium *Treponema pallidum*, initially entering the body through mucous membranes or breaks in the skin. If left untreated, the infection progresses through distinct stages: primary and secondary lesions, followed by a latent phase [2]. In some individuals, particularly if untreated for years or decades, *T. pallidum* can disseminate throughout the body, including the CNS, leading to neurosyphilis.

The pathogenesis of neurosyphilis involves *T. pallidum* crossing the blood-brain barrier and infecting the meninges, brain parenchyma, spinal cord, and cranial nerves [3]. This invasion triggers a spectrum of neurological disorders, ranging from asymptomatic forms to severe and debilitating conditions affecting cognition, motor function, and sensory perception [4].

Clinically, neurosyphilis can present with diverse symptoms, including meningitis, stroke-like episodes, cognitive impairment resembling dementia, and sensory deficits such as ataxia and lancinating pains [5]. The variability and often delayed onset of these symptoms complicate diagnosis, necessitating a high index of suspicion in at-risk populations [6].

## Methodology

The clinical presentation of neurosyphilis is diverse and can mimic various neurological disorders, making diagnosis challenging. Common manifestations include:

**Meningitis:** Headache, neck stiffness, and cranial nerve palsies.

**Meningovascular syphilis:** Stroke-like symptoms due to inflammation and damage to blood vessels supplying the brain.

**General paresis:** Cognitive impairment, personality changes, and psychiatric symptoms resembling dementia.

**Tabes dorsalis:** Damage to the dorsal columns of the spinal cord, leading to sensory ataxia, lancinating pains, and bladder dysfunction.

These manifestations can occur years to decades after the initial syphilitic infection, highlighting the chronic and progressive nature of untreated neurosyphilis.

Diagnosing neurosyphilis relies on a combination of clinical suspicion, serological tests, and CSF analysis:

Serological tests include non-treponemal (e.g., RPR, VDRL) and treponemal (e.g., FTA-ABS, TP-PA) tests, which detect antibodies against *T. pallidum*.

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) analysis shows lymphocytic pleocytosis, elevated protein levels, and positive treponemal tests (e.g., TPPA) in the CSF.

Neuroimaging, such as MRI or CT scans, may reveal abnormalities suggestive of neurosyphilis, although findings can be nonspecific.

## Treatment and management

The cornerstone of neurosyphilis management is antibiotic therapy. Penicillin remains the treatment of choice, with various regimens depending on the stage and severity of the disease. For

\*Corresponding author: Uluhan Sili, Departement of Clinicle Microbiology, University of Manitoba, Canada, E-mail: sili209@gmail.com

**Received:** 01-July-2024, Manuscript No: JNID-24-143182, **Editor Assigned:** 04-July-2024, pre QC No: JNID-24-143182 (PQ), **Reviewed:** 18-July-2024, QC No: JNID-24-143182, **Revised:** 22-July-2024, Manuscript No: JNID-24-143182 (R), **Published:** 29-July-2024, DOI: 10.4172/2314-7326.1000520

**Citation:** Uluhan S (2024) Neurosyphilis: Understanding the Silent Invader of the Nervous System. J Neuroinfect Dis 15: 520.

**Copyright:** © 2024 Uluhan S This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

penicillin-allergic patients, alternative antibiotics such as doxycycline or ceftriaxone may be considered [7,8].

Treatment outcomes depend on the stage of neurosyphilis at diagnosis. Early intervention can halt disease progression and, in some cases, reverse neurological deficits. However, patients with advanced neurosyphilis may experience irreversible neurological damage despite treatment [9].

Regular follow-up with clinical evaluation and CSF analysis is crucial to monitor treatment response and assess for disease relapse. HIV co-infection, which is common in many populations affected by syphilis, complicates management due to potential interactions between HIV and neurosyphilis treatments [10].

## Conclusion

In conclusion, neurosyphilis remains a compelling testament to the enduring legacy of *Treponema pallidum* and its profound impact on the central nervous system. From its historical portrayal as the “great imitator” to modern diagnostic and therapeutic challenges, neurosyphilis exemplifies the complex interplay between infectious diseases and neurology.

Throughout history, neurosyphilis has posed diagnostic dilemmas due to its varied and often nonspecific clinical manifestations. The ability of *T. pallidum* to invade the CNS through the blood-brain barrier underscores the bacterium’s neurotropic potential, leading to a spectrum of neurological disorders that can manifest years after initial infection. These range from asymptomatic neurosyphilis to severe conditions like meningitis, general paresis, and tabes dorsalis, each affecting cognition, motor function, or sensory perception in distinct ways.

Advancements in medical understanding and treatment have transformed the prognosis of neurosyphilis, particularly with the advent of antibiotics such as penicillin. Early detection and prompt treatment can halt disease progression and, in some cases, reverse neurological deficits. However, challenges such as antibiotic resistance and the intersection with HIV co-infection necessitate ongoing vigilance and adaptation in clinical management.

## References

1. Davis A, Meintjes G, Wilkinson RJ (2018) Treatment of Tuberculosis Meningitis and Its Complications in Adults. *Curr Treat Opti Neurol* 20: 5.
2. Mezochow A, Thakur K, Vinnard C (2017) Tuberculosis Meningitis in Children and Adults: New Insights for an Ancient Foe. *Curr Neurol Neurosurg Rep* 17: 85.
3. Heemskerk AD, Bang ND, Mai NTH, Chau TTH, Phu NH, et al. (2016) Intensified Antituberculosis Therapy in Adults with Tuberculous Meningitis. *N Engl J Med* 374: 124-134.
4. Van Laarhoven A, Dian S, Ruesen C, Hayati E, Damen MSMA, et al. (2017) Clinical parameters, routine inflammatory markers, and LTA4H genotype as predictors of mortality among 608 patients with tuberculous meningitis in Indonesia. *J Infect Dis* 215: 1029-1039.
5. Gunarsa RG, Simadibrata M, Syam AF, Timan IS, Setiati S, et al. (2015) Total Lymphocyte Count as a Nutritional Parameter in Hospitalized Patients. *Indones J Gastro Hepatol Dig Endosc* 12: 89-94.
6. Rocha NP, Fortes RC (2015) Total lymphocyte count and serum albumin as predictors of nutritional risk in surgical patients. *Arq Bras Cir Dig* 28: 193-196.
7. Feleke BE, Feleke TE, Biadlegne F (2019) Nutritional status of tuberculosis patients, a comparative cross-sectional study. *BMC Pulm Med* 19: 1-9.
8. World Health Organization (2013) Nutritional care and support for patients with tuberculosis. Geneva 65.
9. Soria J, Metcalf T, Mori N, Newby RE, Montano SM, et al. (2019) Mortality in hospitalized patients with tuberculous meningitis. *BMC Infect Dis* 19: 1-7.
10. Török ME (2015) Tuberculosis meningitis: Advances in diagnosis and treatment. *Br Med Bull* 113: 117-131.