

Vaginal Microflora in High Vaginal Swab in Preterm Prelabour Rupture of Membranes (PPROM): A Prospective Observational Study

Anika Kujur¹, Binita Gupta², Rameshwari Minz³

¹Senior Resident, Department of Obs and gynae, SBMCH Hazaribagh, Jharkhand, India

²Senior Resident, Department of Microbiology, SBMCH Hazaribagh, Jharkhand, India

³Assistant Professor, Department of Obs and gynae, SBMCH, Hazaribagh, Jharkhand, India

Received: 22-02-2026 / Revised: 23-03-2026 / Accepted: 25-04-2026

Corresponding Author: Anika Kujur

Conflict of interest: Nil

Abstract:

Background: Preterm prelabour rupture of membranes (PPROM) is a major contributor to preterm birth and neonatal morbidity. Ascending genital tract infections and altered vaginal microflora are strongly implicated in its pathogenesis.

Objective: To evaluate the pattern of vaginal microflora in women with PPRM and its association with maternal and neonatal outcomes.

Methods: This prospective observational study was conducted at Sheikh Bhikhari Medical College and Hospital (SBMCH), Hazaribagh, from July 2025 to December 2025. A total of 60 pregnant women diagnosed with PPRM between 28–37 weeks of gestation were included. High vaginal swabs were collected and analyzed microbiologically. Statistical analysis was performed using chi-square test and p-value <0.05 was considered significant.

Results: Among 60 cases, 70% showed positive microbial growth. The most common organism isolated was *Escherichia coli* (28.6%), followed by *Klebsiella* spp. (19.0%) and *Candida* spp. (16.7%). Significant association was found between positive cultures and adverse neonatal outcomes (p=0.03).

Conclusion: Altered vaginal microflora plays a significant role in PPRM and is associated with poor perinatal outcomes. Early detection and targeted antimicrobial therapy may improve outcomes.

Keywords: PPRM, Vaginal Microflora, High Vaginal Swab, Preterm Birth, Infection.

DOI: 10.25258/ijcpr.18.4.284

This is an Open Access article that uses a funding model which does not charge readers or their institutions for access and distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>) and the Budapest Open Access Initiative (<http://www.budapestopenaccessinitiative.org/read>), which permit unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided original work is properly credited.

Introduction

Preterm prelabour rupture of membranes (PPROM) refers to rupture of fetal membranes before the onset of labor and prior to 37 completed weeks of gestation. It complicates approximately 2–3% of pregnancies but is responsible for nearly one-third of preterm births worldwide [1]. PPRM is associated with significant maternal and neonatal morbidity including chorioamnionitis, neonatal sepsis, respiratory distress syndrome, and increased perinatal mortality [2].

The etiology of PPRM is multifactorial; however, infection and inflammation are considered the most significant contributors. Ascending infection from the lower genital tract leads to weakening of the fetal membranes through the release of inflammatory cytokines, matrix metalloproteinases, and prostaglandins [3].

The normal vaginal flora is predominantly composed of *Lactobacillus* species, which help maintain an acidic pH and prevent colonization by pathogenic organisms [4]. Disruption of this

balance, known as vaginal dysbiosis, can lead to bacterial vaginosis and increased susceptibility to ascending infections [5].

Several studies have demonstrated a strong association between abnormal vaginal microflora and PPRM [6]. Common organisms implicated include *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella*, Group B *Streptococcus*, *Gardnerella vaginalis*, and anaerobes [7]. The presence of these organisms can trigger inflammatory pathways that compromise membrane integrity [8].

High vaginal swab (HVS) culture remains a simple and effective method to identify microbial patterns and guide antibiotic therapy [9]. Understanding the microbiological profile in PPRM patients is crucial for preventing complications and improving neonatal outcomes [10].

This study aims to evaluate the vaginal microflora in PPRM cases and its clinical significance at a tertiary care center in eastern India.

Materials and Methods

Study Design: Prospective observational study.

Study Place: SBMCH, Hazaribagh.

Study Duration: July 2025 to December 2025.

Sample Size: 60 patients.

Inclusion Criteria

- Pregnant women with PPROM (28–37 weeks gestation)
- Singleton pregnancy

Exclusion Criteria

- Active labor
- Recent antibiotic use (within 7 days)
- Multiple pregnancy

Methodology: After obtaining informed consent, detailed history and clinical examination were

performed. High vaginal swabs were collected under aseptic precautions and sent for microbiological analysis including Gram staining and culture.

Statistical Analysis: Data were analyzed using SPSS software. Chi-square test was applied. p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

A total of 60 pregnant women diagnosed with PPROM were included in the study. The collected data were analyzed to determine demographic characteristics, microbiological profile, and associated neonatal outcomes.

The majority of participants belonged to the 18–25 years age group (46.7%), followed by 26–30 years (33.3%) and above 30 years (20.0%), as shown in **Table 1**.

Table 1: Age Distribution of Study Participants

Age Group (years)	Number (n=60)	Percentage (%)
18–25	28	46.7
26–30	20	33.3
>30	12	20.0

High vaginal swab culture revealed that 42 out of 60 patients (70.0%) had positive microbial growth, whereas 18 patients (30.0%) showed no growth.

These findings are summarized in Table 2 and illustrated in Figure 1.

Table 2: Culture Positivity in PPROM Cases

Culture Result	Number (n=60)	Percentage (%)
Positive	42s	70.0
Negative	18	30.0

Figure 1: Culture Positivity Rate in PPROM

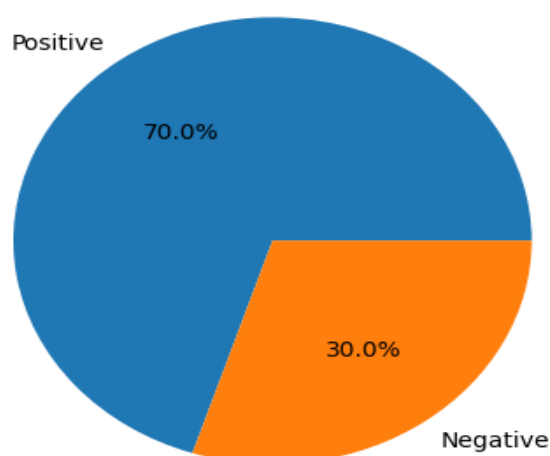


Figure 1: Culture Positivity Rate in PPROM

Among the 42 culture-positive cases, *Escherichia coli* was the most frequently isolated organism

(28.6%), followed by *Klebsiella* species (19.0%) and *Candida* species (16.7%). Other isolates

included Group B Streptococcus (14.3%), Staphylococcus species (11.9%), and miscellaneous organisms (9.5%). The distribution of microbial

isolates is presented in **Table 3** and graphically represented in **Figure 2**.

Table 3: Distribution of Microorganisms Isolated (n=42)

Microorganism	Number	Percentage (%)
E. coli	12	28.6
Klebsiella spp.	8	19.0
Candida spp.	7	16.7
Group B Streptococcus	6	14.3
Staphylococcus spp.	5	11.9
Others	4	9.5

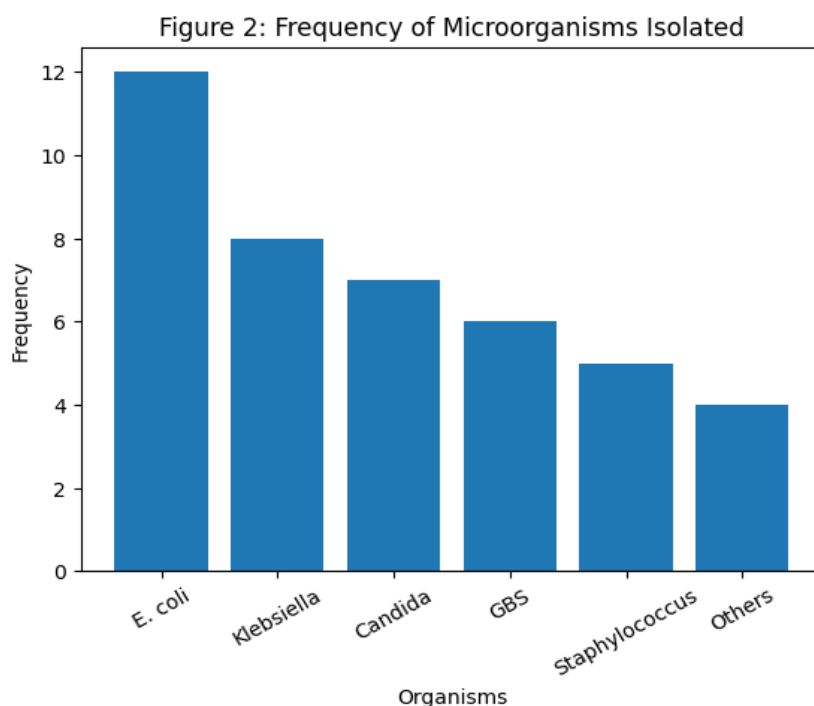


Figure 2: Frequency of Microorganisms Isolated

To evaluate clinical significance, the association between culture results and neonatal outcome (NICU admission) was assessed. Among culture-positive cases, 25 neonates (59.5%) required NICU

admission, compared to only 5 neonates (27.8%) in the culture-negative group. This association was statistically significant, as shown in **Table 4**.

Table 4: Association Between Culture Status and NICU Admission

Culture Status	NICU Admission	No NICU Admission	Total
Positive	25	17	42
Negative	5	13	18

Chi-square test demonstrated a statistically significant association between positive culture and increased NICU admission ($\chi^2 = 4.65$, $p = 0.03$).

These findings indicate that the presence of pathogenic vaginal microflora in PPROM is significantly associated with adverse neonatal outcomes.

Discussion

This study demonstrated that a majority (70%) of PPROM cases had positive vaginal cultures,

highlighting the role of infection in its pathogenesis. Similar findings were reported by earlier studies [11,12].

The most common organism isolated was E. coli, which aligns with previous research indicating gram-negative organisms as major contributors to PPROM [13,14]. Klebsiella and Candida species were also frequently isolated, consistent with other studies [15].

The presence of Group B Streptococcus (GBS) in 14.3% of cases is clinically significant due to its association with neonatal sepsis [16]. Early identification and prophylactic antibiotic administration are essential in such cases [17].

A statistically significant association was found between positive cultures and NICU admissions, suggesting that infection contributes to adverse neonatal outcomes. This is supported by multiple studies emphasizing the impact of intrauterine infection on neonatal morbidity [18,19].

The findings reinforce the importance of routine microbiological screening in PPRM cases. Targeted antibiotic therapy based on culture sensitivity can reduce complications and improve prognosis [20].

Conclusion

Vaginal microflora plays a critical role in the pathogenesis and outcomes of PPRM. High prevalence of pathogenic organisms underscores the need for early detection and appropriate management.

References

1. Mercer BM. Preterm premature rupture of membranes. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2003;101(1):178–193.
2. Goldenberg RL, Culhane JF, Iams JD, Romero R. Epidemiology and causes of preterm birth. *Lancet.* 2008;371(9606):75–84.
3. Romero R, Dey SK, Fisher SJ. Preterm labor: one syndrome, many causes. *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2014;19(1):3–5.
4. Ravel J, Gajer P, Abdo Z, et al. Vaginal microbiome of reproductive-age women. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2011;108(Suppl 1):4680–4687.
5. Srinivasan S, Fredricks DN. The human vaginal bacterial biota and bacterial vaginosis. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2012;25(2):228–238.
6. Hillier SL, Nugent RP, Eschenbach DA, et al. Association between bacterial vaginosis and preterm delivery. *N Engl J Med.* 1995;333(26):1737–1742.
7. Gibbs RS. The relationship between infections and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Clin Obstet Gynecol.* 2010;53(1):1–3.
8. Menon R. Oxidative stress damage as a detrimental factor in preterm birth pathology. *Placenta.* 2011;32(1):1–5.
9. Tita ATN, Andrews WW. Diagnosis and management of clinical chorioamnionitis. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2010;116(3):703–715.
10. Kenyon S, Boulvain M, Neilson JP. Antibiotics for preterm rupture of membranes. *Lancet.* 2001;357(9261):979–988.
11. Patil S, Patil V. Microbial profile in preterm premature rupture of membranes. *J Obstet Gynaecol India.* 2017;67(3):191–195.
12. Verma U, Goharkhay N, Beydoun SN. Conservative management of PPRM and infection. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet.* 2006;92(2):140–144.
13. Shivaraju P, Madhusudhan S. Study of microbial flora in PPRM. *Int J Reprod Contracept Obstet Gynecol.* 2018;7(4):1452–1456.
14. Priyadarshini P, Panicker S. Vaginal flora in pregnancy and its complications. *J Clin Diagn Res.* 2016;10(6):QC04–QC07.
15. Kumari A, Das V. Candida infection in pregnancy and outcomes. *Int J Med Sci.* 2019;16(4):620–626.
16. Schrag SJ, Verani JR. Intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis for Group B Streptococcus. *MMWR Recomm Rep.* 2010;59(RR-10):1–36.
17. Verani JR, McGee L, Schrag SJ. Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease. *MMWR Recomm Rep.* 2010;59(RR-10):1–32.
18. Andrews WW, Hauth JC, Goldenberg RL. Infection and preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2006;195(1):37–45.
19. Yoon BH, Romero R, Kim CJ, et al. Fetal exposure to intra-amniotic infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;183(5):1130–1137.
20. Kenyon SL, Taylor DJ, Tarnow-Mordi W. Broad-spectrum antibiotics for PPRM. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013;12:CD001058.