# REVIEW ARTICLE



# **Epidemiology of TORCH Infections and Understanding** the Serology in Their Diagnosis

Priyam Batra<sup>1</sup> · Megha Batra<sup>2</sup> · Sarman Singh<sup>1,3</sup>

Received: 7 August 2019/Accepted: 12 November 2019/Published online: 2 January 2020 © Society of Fetal Medicine 2020

**Abstract** TORCH, as coined by Nahmias et al. consists of Toxoplasmosis, other infections (includes, syphilis, HIV, Hepatitis viruses, varicella virus and Parvovirus B19), Rubella, Cytomegalovirus (CMV) and Herpes simplex virus. These infections are transmitted prenatally, perinatally, and postnatally through transplacental passage, contact with blood and vaginal secretions or from exposure to breast milk for CMV, HIV and HSV and infection generally manifests at birth, in infancy or in later years of life. The disease burden is maximum in low to middle-income countries. As treatment and prevention strategies are available for most of these infections, early recognition including prenatal serological screening are important. But routine full screening of 'TORCH panel" is not recommended in low risk asymptomatic pregnant women. It is indicated in pregnancies with congenital infections, fetal hydrops, fetal brain lesions, unexplained IUGR, in pregnant women with non-vesicular rash or other signs and symptoms suggestive of systemic infections or in women with a history of contact with a person with such illness. The following article highlights the importance of serological tests for the diagnosis of TORCH infections.

**Keywords** Toxoplasma · Rubella · Cytomegalovirus · Human herpes virus · Treponema · Syphilis

## Introduction

The acronym 'TORCH' was first coined in 1971 by Nahmias et al. [1] to stand for Toxoplasmosis, other infections (includes, syphilis, HIV, Hepatitis viruses, varicella virus and Parvovirus B19), Rubella, Cytomegalovirus (CMV) and Herpes simplex virus (HSV). However, most clinical laboratories continue to offer 'TORCH serology' typically for Toxoplasmosis, Rubella, CMV and HSV 1 and 2. These infections are generally transmitted prenatally, perinatally, and postnatally through the transplacental passage, contact with blood and vaginal secretions or from exposure to breast milk for CMV, HIV and HSV. The infections with these organisms may become apparent at birth, in infancy or in later years of life even after many years [2]. The epidemiology of these infections varies, with the maximum disease burden being in the low to middle income-countries [3].

Since most of these maternal infections are initially asymptomatic and the clinical diagnosis is also unreliable due to overlapping signs and symptoms, diagnosis of these infections is generally based on serological evidences [4]. As treatment and prevention strategies are available for most of these infections, early recognition including prenatal screening are important. Routine full screening of 'TORCH panel" is not recommended in low risk asymptomatic pregnant women. Screening of TORCH panel is indicated in pregnancies with congenital infections, fetal hydrops, fetal brain lesions, unexplained IUGR, in pregnant women with non-vesicular rash or other signs and symptoms suggestive of systemic infections or in women with a history of contact with a person with such illness [5].

In this review, we have focused on the importance and interpretation of serological tests for the diagnosis of TORCH infections. We also briefly review the role of serological tests in the diagnosis of Toxoplasmosis,



Sarman Singh sarman\_singh@yahoo.com; director@aiimsbhopal.edu.in

Department of Laboratory Medicine, AIIMS, New Delhi, India

Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Deen Dayal Upadhyay Hospital, New Delhi, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Bhopal, India

Table 1 Interpretation of the immune response to toxoplasma infection

IgG	IgM	Interpretation	Further action
Negative	Negative	No past/recent infection	Educate and teach the hygienic practices to patient to prevent the infection in future
Positive	Negative	Past infection (> 6 months)	Immunity to toxoplasmosis. Subsequent pregnancies are safe
Negative	Positive	Very early positive infection or false positive	Repeat test in 2–4 weeks to see IgG seroconversion. False positivity is very common in IgM. If the repeat IgG still remains negative, it is most likely a false positive test and must be ignored
Positive	Positive	Suggestive of acute infection	Repeat test in 2–4 weeks. If rising titres/OD values/OD ratio, it is most likely an acute active infection. If stable or reducing, it is most likely false positive
			Do IgG avidity test
			If low → recent infection and requires treatment
			If high $\rightarrow$ infection of $\geq$ 4 months duration

Syphilis, Parvovirus B19, Rubella, Cytomegalovirus (CMV) and Herpes simplex virus infections.

#### Toxoplasma gondii

Toxoplasma gondii is an obligate intracellular parasite, being ubiquitous in the environment, with members of the feline family being the only definitive hosts. The infection is acquired by ingestion of undercooked meat containing cysts of *T. gondii* or due to ingestion of water or food contaminated with oocysts excreted in the cat faeces. After ingestion, toxoplasma acquires it's active form invades into the intestinal epithelial cells and then reaches the circulation [6].

Congenital infection in foetus generally results when mother acquires primary infection during pregnancy [7]. Immunocompromised mothers such as those infected with HIV or on chemotherapy, may rarely transfer the infection to foetus by the reactivation of latent primary maternal infection during pregnancy [8] and very rarely even without any predisposition [9] or if the infection occurs with different genotype of *T. gondii* [10]. The rate of vertical transmission in foetus increases with the increasing duration of pregnancy [11]. The risk of transmission in the first, second and third trimester is 15%, 30% and 60% respectively. However, the severity of illness is greatest in the early pregnancy [11].

The seroprevalence of toxoplasmosis varies amongst countries; with higher prevalence seen in countries with tropical climate as the oocysts can survive better in the environment in these areas. It is also seen to be higher in countries having practice of eating raw or half cooked meat [3, 6, 12]. The details are given in various recent reviews on the subject [3, 6].

The prevalence rate of toxoplasmosis in India during pregnancy is reported to be between 20 and 44% [6, 13]. The seroprevalence of toxoplasma IgG antibodies in various regions of India with regard to general population has

been reported to range from 40 to 75% [12]. The prevalence of Toxoplasma IgG in women of child bearing age of Delhi and surrounding areas was reported to be between 25 and 28% [13, 14].

#### **Diagnosis**

Usually, the first step in the diagnosis of toxoplasmosis is detection of serum anti-T.gondii IgG and IgM antibodies as a measure of the response to infection [3, 5, 12, 13, 15]. The commonly used tests are Enzyme linked Immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and IgG avidity test. Confirmatory tests like Sabin–Feldman dye test (gold standard), indirect immune -florescent antibody test are done only in reference laboratories. A diagnostic algorithm has been published earlier by the author [15]. A brief summary of the interpretation of IgG and IgM results is given below in Table 1.

# Rubella Virus (German or 3 Day Measles)

Rubella virus is an enveloped, single-stranded, positive sense RNA virus belonging to the family Togaviridae which is transmitted by the respiratory route with humans as the only natural reservoir. Transmission to the foetus generally occurs, if mother acquires rubella infection from 1 month before conception to second trimester of pregnancy. The frequency of transmission of congenital infection after maternal rubella is 70–85% in first trimester, 30–54% from 13 to 16 weeks of gestation and 10–25% at the end of second trimester. The classical triad of rubella also known as the Congenital Rubella Syndrome comprises of sensorineural deafness, microphthalmia, cataract and congenital heart diseases esp patent ductus arteriosus [16].

United States in 2004 had declared the elimination of rubella transmission and Congenital Rubella Syndrome (CRS). However, worldwide it is estimated that nearly 110,000 infants are born with CRS every year. WHO has targeted regional elimination of CRS by 2015 and rubella



elimination in five WHO regions by 2020 [16]. It is important to note that vaccinated or naturally infected, the individual remains immune for entire life. There are only a few studies published from India [17]. A study carried out in Delhi [17] and a review of literature [18] revealed that 10–30% of adolescent girls and 12–30% of women in the reproductive age-group are susceptible to rubella infection. The authors reported that CRS accounted for nearly 10% of paediatric cataract in India.

# **Diagnosis**

Diagnosis of rubella virus infection is generally done using the serological tests. IgM antibodies usually develop within 4–5 days after the onset of the infection and may remain positive up to 6 months and rarely for a much longer duration [12, 19]. The serological diagnostic algorithm is by and large similar to Toxoplasmosis, except that false anti-Rubella IgM positivity can also be seen in recently vaccinated cases. Therefore history of vaccination is most crucial to interpret the test results. IgG avidity test plays very important role in pinpointing the time of infection [12]. For amniotic fluid, CSF and other body fluids, PCR methods are available, but only few laboratories do these molecular tests due to easy availability and high sensitivity of serological methods.

#### Cytomegalovirus

CMV belongs to the  $\beta$  herpesviruses of the Herpesviridae family. It is ubiquitous in nature and is the most common form of foetal infection occurring in 0.5–2% of all live births [20]. Pregnant women most commonly acquire infection by exposure to infected children at home or as an occupational hazard. Infection occurs by exposure to different body fluids such as saliva, semen, blood, urine and cervical secretions [21].

Maternal infection is generally asymptomatic with the mother generally being unaware of the infection. A small percentage of women may present with mononucleosis like symptoms such as malaise, myalgia, fever, lymphadenopathy etc. However, immunocompromised patients may develop severe complications such as pneumonia and chorioretinitis [20]. Maternal transfer of CMV occurs only in 0.5–2% women with pre-conceptional immunity. Congenital CMV infection can still occur in previously immune mothers due to reinfection with a new strain of the virus [22–24]. CMV causes congenital infection with mental retardation, microcephaly, chorioretinitis and many vague manifestations [12].

As mentioned in the above paragraph, in India, various studies have reported IgG seroprevalence amongst women of child bearing age to be 80–90% [20–26]. A study

conducted at AIIMS, New Delhi in 2004 [12], showed the prevalence of CMV IgM antibodies to be nearly 20.2% in children with varied clinical manifestations of CMV e.g. hepatitis/cholestasis etc.

## **Diagnosis**

Due to very high seroprevalence of CMV in general population, diagnosis and especially the interpretation of test results is very complex and not straight forward as in the case of Rubella. The commonest method for the diagnosis of maternal infection is CMV IgM positive or very high IgG antibody titers [5]. The presence of IgM antibodies in the foetal or cord blood is a very sensitive and specific test for the detection of congenital CMV infection. The CMV avidity test is also available to determine if the infection is recently acquired. A low avidity indicates recent infection and high avidity indicates past infection. Highly sensitive and most specific PCR methods are available, but only few laboratories do these molecular tests due to easy availability and high sensitivity of sero-logical methods.

# **Herpes Simplex Viruses**

Herpes Simplex viruses (HSV) belong to  $\alpha$  Herpesviridae and consists of two viruses, HSV-1 and 2, which resemble each other at the molecular level and also in their clinical manifestations. [16, 20]. It has been classically described that HSV-1 causes lesions above the belt while HSV-2 causes lesions below the belt. However, recent studies [20, 27–29] show changing pattern of clinical manifestations especially in HIV infected individuals. The risk of transmission from pregnant women to an infant in individuals with primary genital herpes is 33–50% whereas in recurrent maternal infection is only 1–3% [30]. As per the WHO 2012 report [31], nearly 417 million people worldwide were seropositive for HSV-2. A recent study published in India shows that HSV-1 and HSV-2 infections are prevalent in 40% and 25.9% of adult males [32].

# **Diagnosis**

Nearly 90% of the women with genital herpes due to HSV-1 or HSV-2 are underdiagnosed as they are asymptomatic or their symptoms are incorrectly attributed to other vulvovaginal disorders [33]. Thus, a negative maternal history of HSV does not dissuade the clinicians from considering the possibility of neonatal herpes in infants with compatible signs and symptoms. All individuals with HSV-2 seropositivity are at high risk of transmitting infection during sexual activity, labour, delivery and intimate contact [16]. Thus, all women should be screened serologically for



HSV-1 and 2 antibodies and women with genital lesions at the time of delivery must be counselled for caesarean delivery, antiviral suppressive therapy and minimal invasive intrapartum procedures. Single-plex and multiplex PCR methods are available which can detect and differentiate HSV-1 and HSV-2 but only few laboratories do these molecular tests.

#### Parvovirus B19

Parvovirus B19 causes erythema infectiosum or fifth disease [34]. If acquired during early pregnancy, this can lead to hydrops fetalis and fetal aplastic crisis. The maternal infection rate is highest in mothers having other school age children at home and in day care workers.

Globally, the seroprevalence of IgG antibodies in children of 1 to 5 years age is 2–15%; children of 6–19 years it is 15–60%; in adults it is 30–60% and in geriatric age group it is > 85% [35, 36]. There have been no nationwide surveys in India but the seroprevalence rate ranges from 43 [37] to 70% [38].

## **Diagnosis**

Systematic screening of Parvovirus in low risk pregnancies is currently not recommended [39]. Investigation of Parvovirus B19 is recommended as part of the standard workup for fetal hydrops or IUD [40]. Also, if a pregnant woman is exposed to Parvovirus infection or develops signs and symptoms suggestive Parvovirus infection, it should be determined whether she is immune through testing for IgG and IgM antibodies. IgM antibodies usually appear 10–12 days after inoculation and may persist up to 6 months. IgG antibodies usually appear few days after IgM antibodies and persist for several decades or even lifelong. Presence of IgG with absence of IgM suggests immunity. As a principle as explained in case of Toxoplasmosis, in cases of IgM positive but IgG negative cases, repeat blood testing should be requested after 2–3 weeks.

# Treponema pallidum

Syphilis, is also included in the extended group of TORCH infections. The disease is caused by a delicate cork screw shaped highly motile spirochete *Treponema pallidum*. It is mainly a sexually transmitted disease but can be transmitted transplacentally [41]. Children with congenital syphilis can have hepatosplenomegaly, snuffles, lymphadenopathy, mucocutaneous lesions, pneumonia, osteochondritis and pseudo-paralysis. As per the WHO data, 2 million pregnancies are infected annually. Infection of pregnant women results in 17–40% still births, 10–23%

neonatal deaths and 10–30% congenital syphilis infection [42, 43].

#### **Diagnosis**

The diagnosis can be made by VDRL, TPHA or ELISA tests done on mother's blood or by dark field microscopic examination of the exudates from the lesion on the genitalia or in the CSF and indirectly by serological tests [44].

# **Conclusions**

The antenatal diagnosis of TORCH group of infections is very important for minimizing or preventing the devastating and long-lasting ill-effects on the newborn.

#### References

- Nahmias AJ, Walls KW, Stewart JA, Herrmann KL, Flynt WJ. The ToRCH complex-perinatal infections associated with toxoplasma and rubella, cytomegol- and herpes simplex viruses. Pediatr Res. 1971;5(8):405-6.
- Singhal P, Naswa S, Marfatia YS. Pregnancy and sexually transmitted viral infections. Indian J Sex Transm Dis AIDS. 2009;30(2):71–8.
- Neu N, Duchon J, Zachariah P. TORCH infections. Clin Perinatol. 2015;42(1):77–103.
- Sen MR, Shukla BN, Tuhina B. Prevalence of serum antibodies to TORCH infection in and around Varanasi, Northern India. J Clin Diagn Res. 2012;6(9):1483–5.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Practice Bulletin No. 151. Obstet Gynecol. 2015;125(6):1510–25.
- Singh S. Congenital toxoplasmosis: clinical features, outcomes, treatment, and prevention. Trop Parasitol. 2016;6(2):113–22.
- 7. Chaudhry SA, Gad N, Koren G. Toxoplasmosis and pregnancy. Can Fam Physician. 2014;60(4):334–6.
- 8. Wang Z-D, Liu H-H, Ma Z-X, Ma H-Y, Li Z-Y, Yang Z-B, et al. *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in immunocompromised patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Front Microbiol. 2017;8:389.
- Valdès V, Legagneur H, Watrin V, Paris L, Hascoët J-M. Congenital toxoplasmosis secondary to maternal infection during pregnancy. Pediatr Arch. 2011;18(7):761–3.
- Remington JS, McLeod R, Christopher CB, Desmonts G (2011) Toxoplasmosis. In: Remington JS, Klein JO, Wilson CB, Nizet V, Maldonado YA (eds) Infectious diseases of the fetus and newborn infant, 7th edn. Elsevier, pp 918–1041
- McAuley JB. Congenital toxoplasmosis. J Pediatric Infect Dis Soc. 2014;3(Suppl 1):S30–5.
- Singh S. Laboratory techniques for prenatal diangosis of maternal-fetal infections of fetal/neonatal TORCH infections. In: Deepika D, editor. Congenital intrauterine TORCH infections. JP Brothers Medical Publisghers (P) Ltd: New Delhi; 2011. p. 321–7.
- Singh S, Munawwar A, Rao S, Mehta S, Hazarika NK. Serologic prevalence of *Toxoplasma gondii* in Indian women of child bearing age and effects of social and environmental factors. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2014;8(3):e2737.



- Singh S, Pandit AJ. Incidence and prevalence of Toxoplasmosis in Indian pregnant women: a prospective study. Am J Reprod Immunol. 2004;52(4):276–83.
- Singh S. Mother-to-child transmission and diagnosis of *Toxo-plasma gondii* infection during pregnancy. Indian J Med Microbiol. 2003;21(2):69–76.
- Deka D, Rustgi R, Singh S, Roy KK, Malhotra N. Diagnosis of acute rubella infection during pregnancy. J Obstet Gynecol India. 2006;56(1):44–6.
- 17. WHO | Rubella and Congenital Rubella Syndrome (CRS) [Internet]. WHO. World Health Organization; 2019 [cited 2019 Jun 18]. https://www.who.int/immunization/monitoring\_surveillance/burden/vpd/surveillance\_type/passive/rubella/en/.
- Dewan P, Gupta P. Burden of congenital rubella syndrome (CRS) in India: a systematic review. Indian Pediatr. 2012;49(5):377–99.
- McLean HQ, Fiebelkorn AP, Temte JL, Wallace GS, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Prevention of measles, rubella, congenital rubella syndrome, and mumps, 2013: summary recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP). MMWR Recomm Rep. 2013;62(RR-04):1–34.
- Munawwar A, Singh S. Human Herpes viruses as co-pathogens of HIV infection, their role in HIV transmission, and disease progression. J Lab Physicians. 2016;8(1):5–18.
- Cannon MJ, Hyde TB, Schmid DS. Review of cytomegalovirus shedding in bodily fluids and relevance to congenital cytomegalovirus infection. Rev Med Virol. 2011;21(4):240–55.
- Cannon MJ, Schmid DS, Hyde TB. Review of cytomegalovirus seroprevalence and demographic characteristics associated with infection. Rev Med Virol. 2010;20(4):202–13.
- Rawlinson WD, Boppana SB, Fowler KB, Kimberlin DW, Lazzarotto T, Alain S, et al. Congenital cytomegalovirus infection in pregnancy and the neonate: consensus recommendations for prevention, diagnosis, and therapy. Lancet Infect Dis. 2017;17(6):e177–88.
- 24. Dollard SC, Staras SAS, Amin MM, Schmid DS, Cannon MJ. National prevalence estimates for cytomegalovirus IgM and IgG Avidity and association between high IgM antibody titer and low IgG avidity. Clin Vaccine Immunol. 2011;18(11):1895–9.
- Chakravarti A, Kashyap B, Matlani M. Cytomegalovirus infection: an Indian perspective. Indian J Med Microbiol. 2009;27(1):3–11.
- Lanzieri TM, Dollard SC, Bialek SR, Grosse SD. Systematic review of the birth prevalence of congenital cytomegalovirus infection in developing countries. Int J Infect Dis. 2014;22:44–8.
- Ayoub HH, Chemaitelly H, Abu-Raddad LJ. Characterizing the transitioning epidemiology of herpes simplex virus type 1 in the USA: model-based predictions. BMC Med. 2019;17(1):57.
- Corey L, Wald A. Maternal and neonatal herpes simplex virus infections. N Engl J Med. 2009;361(14):1376–85.
- Leone P. Reducing the risk of transmitting genital herpes: advances in understanding and therapy. Curr Med Res Opin. 2005;21(10):1577–82.
- Whitley R, Arvin A, Prober C, Burchett S, Corey L, Powell D, et al. A controlled trial comparing vidarabine with acyclovir in neonatal herpes simplex virus infection. N Engl J Med. 1991;324(7):444–9.

- 31. Looker KJ, Magaret AS, Turner KME, Vickerman P, Gottlieb SL, Newman LM. Global estimates of prevalent and incident herpes simplex virus type 2 infections in 2012. PLoS One. 2015;10(1):114989 (Halford WP, editor).
- 32. Munawwar A, Gupta S, Sharma SK, Singh S. Seroprevalence of HSV-1 and 2 in HIV-infected males with and without GUD: study from a tertiary care setting of India. J Lab Physicians. 2018;10:326–31.
- 33. Cowan FM, French RS, Mayaud P, Gopal R, Robinson NJ, de Oliveira SA, et al. Seroepidemiological study of herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2 in Brazil, Estonia, India, Morocco, and Sri Lanka. Sex Transm Infect. 2003;79(4):286–90.
- 34. Brown K. Parvovirus infections. In: Kasper DL, Fauci ASHS, et al., editors. Harrison's principles of internal medicine, 20e | AccessMedicine. 19th ed. New York: Mc Graw Hill; 2015.
- 35. Heegaard ED, Brown KE. Human parvovirus B19. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2002;15(3):485–505.
- Kimberlin D, Brady M, Jackson Mary LS, editors. RED BOOK 2015 Report of the Committee on Infectious Diseases<sup>®</sup>. 30th ed. Itasca: American Academy of Pediatrics; 2015.
- Viswanathan R, Tandale BV, Tamayachekar MS, Jadhav SM, Khutwad KA, Munne KR. Seroepidemiology of parvovirus B19 among different age groups & pregnant women in India. Indian J Med Res. 2017;146(1):138–40.
- 38. Abraham M, Rudraraju R, Kannangai R, George K, Cherian T, Daniel D, et al. A pilot study on the seroprevalence of parvovirus B19 infection. Indian J Med Res. 2002;115:139–43.
- 39. Wong SF, Chan FY, Cincotta RB, Tilse M, Fean WS, Yee CF. Human parvovirus B19 infection in pregnancy: should screening be offered to the low-risk population? Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol. 2002;42(4):347–51.
- Crane J, Mundle W, Boucoiran I, Gagnon R, Bujold E, Basso M, et al. Parvovirus B19 infection in pregnancy. J Obs Gynaecol Can. 2014;36(12):1107–01116.
- Syphilis—CDC Fact Sheet. [Internet]. [cited 2019 Jun 18]. https://www.cdc.gov/std/syphilis/Syphilis-June-2017.pdf.
- 42. Frieden TR, Stephens JW, Thacker SB, Shaw FE, LaPete MA, Spriggs SR, et al. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention MMWR Editorial and Production Staff MMWR Editorial Board MMWR Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report [Internet]. [cited 2019 Jun 18]. www.cdc.gov/nchs/births.htm.
- 43. The global elimination of congenital syphilis: rationale and strategy for action WHO Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2019 Jun 18]. https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/43782/9789241595858\_eng.pdf;jses sionid=3B976C78A0B575758CB4D022281D296E?sequence=1.
- 44. Ratnam S. The laboratory diagnosis of syphilis. Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol. 2005;16(1):45–51.

**Publisher's Note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

