Preterm prelabour rupture of the membranes (PPROM) is not associated with presence of viral genomes in the amniotic fluid


Keywords: Pregnancy, Premature rupture of membranes, Amniotic fluid, Viral genomes, Pregnancy outcome

Background: The role of viral infections in preterm prelabour rupture of the membranes (PPROM) is not established. Studies on the presence of viral genomes in the amniotic fluid (AF) collected in pregnancies complicated by PPROM show contradictory outcomes.

Objectives: To investigate AF samples of PPROM pregnancies for the presence of viral genomes.

Study design: AF samples from patients with PPROM were collected during a 4-year (2008–2012) observational study. 174 women were included with selection criteria of singleton pregnancy, PPROM, and maternal age of 18 years and above. PCR was used for detection of human cytomegalovirus (HCMV), herpes simplex virus (HSV), parvovirus B19, human adenoviruses (HAdV), enteroviruses (EV) and human parechovirus (HPeV). The selection of these viral targets was based on literature regarding screening of AF for presence of viral genomes.

Results: Only a single sample was positive out of the 174 tested AFs, HCMV DNA was detected.

Conclusions: PPROM is not associated with active viral infections.

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established fetal and/or perinatal viral pathogens parvovirus B19, human cytomegalovirus (HCMV) and herpes simplex virus (HSV), also viruses for which a relationship with the pregnancy outcome is uncertain like human papilloma viruses (HPV), respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), influenza virus, Epstein–Barr virus (EBV), human herpes virus-6 (HHV-6), HADV, AAV and enteroviruses (EV). The significance of detecting genomes of the latter viruses in AF is unclear and remains a subject of debate warranting further investigation [15–22].

A potential role of viruses in PPROM pregnancies has not extensively been investigated. Their presence could provide an explanation for cases where so far no MIAC was detected. The aim of the present investigation was to study well-defined AF samples from PPROM pregnancies for the presence of viral genomes of HCMV, HSV, parvovirus B19, HADV, EV, HPeV. The selection of most targets was based on existing literature regarding screening of AF for viral genomes. HPeV was added because of its relatedness to EV.

2. Study design

2.1. Patients and samples

Two hundred twenty two pregnant women at gestational ages between 24+0 and 36+6 weeks with PPROM admitted to the Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University Hospital Hradec Kralove, Czech Republic between May 2008 and May 2012 have been considered for this study. Selection criteria were singleton pregnancy, PPROM, and maternal age ≥18 years. PPROM was defined as the leakage of AF prior to the onset of labor, which was diagnosed as described before [7,8,12].

Exclusion criteria were clinical chorioamnionitis, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, preeclampsia, signs of fetal growth restriction, the presence of either congenital or chromosomal fetal abnormalities, signs of fetal hypoxia, or significant vaginal bleeding. Moreover, women with ultrasound markers of subclinical infections (intraamniotic and/or fetal inflammatory response) were excluded but not women with potential signs of infection such as small fetal thymus or pulsatile flow pattern in fetal splenic vein. In all pregnancies, the gestational age was established based on first trimester ultrasound evaluation.

Forty-eight women had incomplete data or inadequate samples for histopathology and/or PCR analysis: the remaining 174 women were included into the study.

In the Czech Republic, women with PPROM at least 34 weeks of gestation are treated with corticosteroids for the induction of lung maturation, tocolytics for 48 h, and antibiotics, whereas no treatment except antibiotics is initiated to delay delivery after 34 weeks. Management of PPROM women in the Czech Republic differs substantially from most clinical guidelines. Details have been reviewed by a single perinatal pathologist (HH), blinded to the clinical status of the women.

Written informed consent was obtained from all subjects. Ninety-three samples from the present study group had been examined in one of our previous reports on the intraamniotic inflammatory response in a subgroup of women with PPROM [12].

2.2. Detection of targeted viral genomes

The viruses selected for real time PCR testing were HCMV, HSV1, HSV2, Parvovirus B19, HADV, EV and HPeV. Total RNA/DNA was purified from 174 selected AF samples, each spiked with 5 μl of the isolation control Equine Arthritis virus (EAV) and Phocine Herpes virus (PhHV), which served as internal controls. Total nucleic acid (NA) isolation was performed on the MagNA Pure 96 System, using the MagnaPure Pure 96 DNA and Viral NA Small Volume Kit (Roche Diagnostics) and the Viral NA Plasma SV protocol. The input and elution volumes were set at 200 μl and 50 μl respectively. A negative control sample (195 μl PBS) was included in each run. RNAs were reverse transcribed by TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagents kit (Applied Biosystems, Nieuwerkerk aan den IJssel, The Netherlands) in a 50 μl reaction mix containing 20 μl of NA isolate and random hexamers as primers, as per manufacturer’s instructions. All reverse transcription (RT) reactions included a negative RT control (PCR grade H2O instead of template RNA) and a positive RT control (EAV RNA). Real-time PCR mixes (50 μl) consisted of 25 μl of 2x LightCycler®480 Probes Master (Roche), 0.5 μM of each primer and 0.1 μM of each probe, and 5 μl of cDNA or extracted DNA. Real-time PCR was performed on the Roche LightCycler®480 system, with following conditions for all viral targets: 10 min denaturing and hot-start at 95 °C, followed by 50 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C and 15 s at 55 °C, and 20 s at 72 °C. Each real-time reaction included one negative PCR control sample (5 μl of PCR grade H2O), and one positive control sample (purified plasmid preparations of the respective PCR products).

3. Results

Table 1 shows the demographics and characteristics of the 174 women with PPROM. PPROM pregnancies were divided in categories with HCA and without HCA. Based on histology of placenta and membranes, 109/174 (63%) of the cases had a diagnosis of HCA (data derived from previous studies) [7,8,12].

In only 44/109 (40%) cases with HCA, microbes could be detected in the AF (MIAC) providing an explanation for the intrauterine inflammation. MIAC was detected by culture for aerobic and anaerobic bacteria and PCR for genital mycoplasmas and Chlamydia trachomatis as reported previously [7]. The 65 HCA-negative cases could be further subdivided in cases with (n = 19), or without evidence for MIAC (n = 46). Overall there were 111/174 (64%) patients without MIAC: 65/111 (59%) had the signs of HCA; the remaining 46/111 (41%) were negative for both HCA and MIAC (Table 2).

All 174 AF samples have been tested by a sensitive real-time PCR for presence of HCMV, HSV, parvovirus B19, HADV, EV and HPeV. Only one sample was positive: CMV-DNA was detected with a load of 5 copies/ml.

4. Discussion

Association between spontaneous preterm delivery and infections has been mainly focused on indigenous bacteria normally present in the vagina, or present due to bacterial vaginoses, and furthermore on genital mycoplasmas and/or Chlamydia trachomatis infections. Asymptomatic bacteremia has been considered another route of MIAC and evidence therefore was sought in the
In spite of the et al. [22]. In their own study of 729 AF samples derived from low-risk pregnancies for AV, AAV, HPV, HSV, and HCMV. In total, 44% of samples were positive in the order of occurrence AAV, HPV and HCMV. HAdV and HSV genomes were not detected. The authors reported an association of AAV with PPROM but were cautious about a causal relationship [15]. In a series of studies, all based on molecular assays designed by the Department of Human Genetics, Baylor College Houston, Texas, viral genomes, mainly of HAdV, were detected in 6–8% of AF samples [16–21]. In most of these studies, detection of viral genomes in AF was not associated with an adverse pregnancy outcome [16–18,20], but a significant association (mainly for HAdV genomes) was reported in two of the studies (one prospective and one retrospective in design), a difference that remains unexplained [19,21].

These and additional studies have been reviewed by Gervasi et al. [22]. In their own study of 729 AF samples derived from low-risk pregnancies they detected HHV6, HCMV, parvovirus B19 and EBV in frequency order. Overall 2% of AF samples were positive and there was no association with pregnancy outcome [22]. HAdV genomes were not detected, which contradicts the previously mentioned studies wherein HAdV genomes were the most commonly detected viral genomes in AF [16–21]. A recently published study detected no viral genomes in AF from 13 women with PPROM [26]. In line with the negative studies we did not find viral genomes in a well-defined cohort of 174 PPROM cases, except for a single AF sample that was positive for HCMV DNA at a low concentration of 5 copies/ml of which interpretation is uncertain. The AF sample was furthermore positive for Ureaplasma urealyticum. On follow-up the child was healthy. In retrospect, cord blood was tested and showed a fetal inflammatory response with an IL-6 level of 1810 pg/ml and a HCMV DNA load of 100 copies/ml which was found which is still of uncertain significance.

Published literature and our own results show a heterogeneous picture suggesting different categories: (i) low-risk pregnancies without viral genomes detected [14], (ii) low-risk (at the time of AF-sampling) pregnancies with positivity ranging between 2 and 41%, a variation that partly depended on the viruses selected for study [15–22], (iii) high-risk pregnancies (PPROM) without detectable viruses or a single positive sample, so far in one study [26], and (iv) pregnancies with high suspicion of a viral infection and a correspondingly high percentage (41%) of AF samples that were virus PCR positive [27]. Variations in the viruses investigated and patient selection hampers a serious comparison. A majority of AF samples were drawn in the second trimester and without suspicion of an infection or fetal abnormalities. Particularly for HAdV the results were contradictory. Furthermore, our and some of the other studies observed a poor correlation between amniotic inflammation and detection of virus genomes [16,22].

How can these inconsistencies be explained? Infection of the fetus with HCMV and parvovirus B19 can undisputedly have serious adverse effects: upon vertical transmission, HCMV can cause fetal damage, intra-amniotic inflammation, premature birth and sequelae that develop post-partum [28]. Parvovirus B19 is a cause of adverse pregnancy outcome with, e.g. miscarriage and fetal hydrops [29]. Both viruses can, however, cause asymptomatic infection of the fetus and both can cause latency in the mother from which viral DNA can leak into the circulation [30,31]. Thus, a positive PCR in AF or cord blood may not be sufficient evidence of fetal infection. A formal proof of congenital infection requires probably additional postpartum investigations.
Table 3
An overview of virus studies in the amniotic fluids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Source of AF</th>
<th>Gestational age of sampling (weeks)</th>
<th>Relationship of virus in AF to pregnancy/fetal pathology by respective authors</th>
<th>Total samples/patients</th>
<th>DNA viruses</th>
<th>RNA viruses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>McLean et al. [14]</td>
<td>gAMC with low risk for fetal infection.</td>
<td>12–32</td>
<td>Related to possibility of fetal infection</td>
<td>AF 0/243</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van den Veyver et al. [27]</td>
<td>Women with fetuses at risk for intrauterine viral infection.</td>
<td>15–35</td>
<td>Related to fetal pathology</td>
<td>303&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt; AF-95/253</td>
<td>9 (3%)&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wenstrom et al. [16]</td>
<td>Women with unexplained abortion within 30 days after gAMC.</td>
<td>14–22</td>
<td>Unrelated to pregnancy loss</td>
<td>AF 154</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controls: gAMC with low risk for fetal infection.</td>
<td>Second trimester Exact week NA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burguete et al. [15]</td>
<td>gAMC.</td>
<td>14–25</td>
<td>No conclusive pathological deduction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baschat et al. [17]</td>
<td>gAMC without structural and chromosomal abnormalities.</td>
<td>18 ± 2 (mean ± SD)</td>
<td>Viral genomes maybe present in normal sonography Related to fetal abnormalities</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baschat et al. [18]</td>
<td>gAMC with low risk for fetal infection yielding normal karyotype.</td>
<td>15–27</td>
<td>Related to fetal abnormalities</td>
<td>1090</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reddy et al. [19]</td>
<td>gAMC yielding normal karyotype.</td>
<td>19 ± 3 and 20 ± 5 (mean ± SD)</td>
<td>Related to fetal abnormalities</td>
<td>423&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller et al. [20]</td>
<td>gAMC with low risk for fetal infection and normal fetal anatomy and karyotype.</td>
<td>15–23</td>
<td>Viral infection not related to pregnancy outcome</td>
<td>686&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adams et al. [21]</td>
<td>AMC for karyotyping and viral PCR testing for history or ultrasound based indication.</td>
<td>16–28</td>
<td>Viral infections related to few fetal abnormalities</td>
<td>1191</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gervasi et al. [22]</td>
<td>Second trimester AMC for clinical indications.</td>
<td>16–20</td>
<td>Not associated with pregnancy outcome</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naresh and Simhan [26]</td>
<td>PPROM.</td>
<td>24–34</td>
<td>Unrelated to PPROM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* All presented percentages are rounded to nearest decimal.
* Van den Veyver et al. [26] show % PCR positives calculated as positives (shown in table) of 303 patients samples. Total 253 AF of which 95 were positive.
* Reddy et al. [19] did not give actual numbers only percentages.
* Miller et al. [20] have calculated the % of positive amniotic fluids for only 1 virus (n = 37).
Further consideration that a positive PCR can be the result of viral latency in cells, either in the form of episomes or after integration into the host genome, has explicitly been discussed for HHV-6 [22], but it holds also for most of the other viruses studied in AF: for AAV, as was already suggested by Bruguette et al. [15], for EBV which is latently present as episomes in B-lymphocytes [32], and for HADV for which latency has been reported in T-lymphocytes [33]. Latency has even been reported for EV in peripheral blood mononuclear cells [34]. Consequently, the presence of viral genomes in AF may be the by-product of a physiological cell turn over and of pathological conditions as placental insufficiency and/or inflammation [31,35]. Even more trivial explanations as method of sample collection and handling of material or the primers that are selected for virus detection may explain incongruent outcomes [32]. Of course, the presence of viral genomes in AF may also point to an active infection but that has to be proven by post-natal investigation.

We conclude that in most cases PPROM is not associated with presence of viral genomes and that HCA without detectable MIAC is not explained by an active viral infection. Our hypothesis that detection of viral genomes in AF can reflect latency without any clinical consequence for the fetus requires additional study. This is highly warranted, because it may fundamentally change the interpretation of future AF studies.

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**References**


