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Influenza and common cold viruses in critically ill adults

van Someren Gréve, F.

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SCOPING INTRODUCTION AND THESIS OUTLINE

EVOLVING INSIGHTS IN THE PATHOGENICITY OF COMMON COLD VIRUSES IN ADULTS

Traditionally, common cold viruses besides influenza virus were not regarded as clinically relevant by the physician on the adult Intensive Care Unit (ICU), except perhaps for severely immunocompromised patients. Pathogens such as respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus (RV), seasonal human coronavirus (hCoV), parainfluenzavirus (PIV), adenovirus (AdV) and human metapneumovirus (hMPV) were generally assumed to be only associated with mild disease, whilst their diagnostic detection was time consuming, costly and of no clinical consequence. During the last few decades however, there has been increasing attention for the role of these viruses as causes of severe disease in adults. This paradigm shift has been accelerated by the advent of nucleic acid amplification techniques (NAAT) such as real time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), which made detection of respiratory viruses rapid, sensitive and more affordable.

Accumulating case series and cohort studies have indicated that the pathogenicity of common cold viruses in adults is not restricted to severely immunocompromised patients. Illustrative are reports of outbreaks among elderly nursing home residents, for example involving RSV¹⁻⁴, RV⁵⁻⁸, hCoV⁹⁻¹¹, PIV¹²⁻¹⁴, AdV¹⁵⁻¹⁷ and hMPV¹⁸⁻²⁵, often associated with severe lower respiratory tract disease and fatal outcome. Also, PIV and AdV have long been known to cause outbreaks among previously healthy adults in institutional living conditions, such as military recruits and students, occasionally resulting in severe and even fatal pneumonia²⁶⁻³². In hospitalized adults, in depth case series of, for example, hMPV infections with histopathological assessment of lung tissue, or careful assessments of the likelihood of diagnosed hMPV infections as the reason for respiratory failure and ICU admission, have indicated the potential of this virus to cause severe lower respiratory tract infections (RTIs) in patients without significant comorbidities or immunosuppression^{33,34}. Larger epidemiological studies in hospitalized adults have shown that community acquired pneumonia (CAP) or severe acute respiratory infections (SARI) are associated with common cold viruses in 9-49% of cases³⁵⁻⁴⁹, as also described in **Chapter 1**. In addition, these viruses are well-known causes of exacerbations of chronic cardiopulmonary disease⁵⁰⁻⁵², and are implicated in health-care associated or hospital acquired pneumonia (HAP)^{36,53}, bacterial co- or super-infections⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶, and acute respiratory failure (ARF) as an umbrella syndrome⁵⁷⁻⁶⁰. Based on these evolving insights, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in the United States of America (USA) have adjusted their clinical information sheets to indicate RSV, RV, PIV and hMPV as possible causes of severe disease in adults, particularly in the elderly and those with underlying medical conditions⁶¹⁻⁶⁴.

Disease burden is most accurately monitored for influenza viruses: in the USA there are an estimated 9-41 million cases annually, 140.000-170.000 hospitalizations and 12.000-52.000 influenza-related deaths⁶⁵. Globally, the estimated respiratory

attributable mortality rate of influenza is between 291.000-646.000 deaths each year, with approximately 72.000 of these in the European region⁶⁶. Similar efforts are increasingly conducted for RSV in adults, with estimates in the USA ranging between 60.000-160.000 hospitalizations and 6.000-10.000 deaths each year for those over 65 years old⁶⁷⁻⁷³. Apart from these viruses and and SARS-CoV-2, the disease burden of severe infections for other common cold viruses is still ill-defined.

CHALLENGES RELATING TO COMMON COLD VIRUSES IN CRITICALLY ILL ADULTS

As discussed in **Chapter 1**, in the adult ICU setting there also is increasing attention for the role of common cold viruses in critical illness. However, challenges remain regarding disease burden estimates, routine diagnostic practices, interpretation of NAAT results and clinical management of viral respiratory tract infections, as discussed below.

Estimating disease burden

While disease burden estimates for influenza and RSV are based on careful modelling using, amongst others, national influenza and RSV surveillance data and death certificates, several limitations remain. For example, estimates are only provided for respiratory illness, therefore likely underestimating the true influenza burden which includes non-respiratory disease such as exacerbation of chronic cardiopulmonary disease^{74,75}. Also, these models typically use virus surveillance data of either non-hospitalized patients and/or retrospective test results from routine care in hospitalized patients, which likely suffer from a large testing bias as discussed in the next paragraph. For other common cold viruses such as RV, hCoV, PIV and hMPV, there is very limited aggregated data for estimates of total cases, attributable hospitalizations and associated deaths. In the adult ICU setting, as discussed in **Chapter 1**, most prospective epidemiological studies are also limited by small sample sizes, incomplete diagnostic work up, and crude mortality estimates without adjustment for confounders.

Who to test and how

While international influenza guidelines encourage clinicians to test all hospitalized adults with fever and respiratory symptoms for influenza viruses during the respiratory season⁷⁶, current Dutch national guidelines as well as international guidelines on CAP prior to studies of this thesis refrain from recommendations on diagnostic testing for influenza^{77,78}. Furthermore, no recommendations for influenza testing are provided for patients with other clinical syndromes such as HAP⁷⁹. Other common cold viruses are not mentioned in any of these guidelines, neither for the hospital or ICU setting, nor for specific risk groups. It remains challenging to define the clinical profile of which patients

to test: symptoms of influenza-like illness may be mild, non-specific or even absent in hospitalized patients with influenza or hMPV, including the absence of fever⁸⁰⁻⁸³, and there is no clinical algorithm to clearly distinguish the microbiological cause of pneumonia without microbiological testing⁸⁴. Furthermore, while there are indications that viral RTIs will be missed when relying only on upper airway sampling⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷, guidelines remain unclear whether only upper airway samples suffice for virus testing, or whether lower airway samples should also be considered when available. Modelling studies suggest that we may miss up to 90% of predicted influenza cases in hospitalized adults⁸⁸, but there is no prospective data on how many viral RTIs are missed in adults.

Interpretation of NAAT results

In contrast to bacteria, common cold viruses need host cells to replicate, and therefore a positive NAAT indicates an active or recent infection. There is however a large spectrum of disease severity, and community- and healthy volunteer challenge studies have shown that asymptomatic infections can occur, even for influenza viruses⁸⁹⁻⁹². It is therefore likely that epidemiological studies in the critically ill are affected by a background prevalence of intercurrent mild or asymptomatic infections unrelated to the direct cause of ICU admission. Studies with proper control groups to estimate the prevalence of coincidental mild infections in critically ill patients are lacking, complicating estimates of disease burden.

Clinical management

Diagnosing viral infections in the critically ill can have important implications for infection control measures, in addition to the rapid initiation of antiviral and/or immunomodulatory therapy in case of (suspected) influenza or COVID-19. However, there are large differences in national and international guidelines on whether and which infection control measures to implement for patients infected with the different common cold viruses⁹³⁻⁹⁶, and it appears that evidence on transmission routes and impact is translated into policy and practice very slowly, if at all⁹⁷. Also, decisions on the duration of infection control measures are complicated in the ICU setting. Normally, precautions are continued until 'clinical resolution of symptoms', but this is difficult to assess during invasive mechanical ventilation. A meta-analysis on influenza virus A(H1N1)pdm09 infections indicated that disease severity is associated with longer duration of shedding⁹⁸. However, there is a paucity of data regarding virus shedding of seasonal influenza viruses and other respiratory viruses in the ICU setting, especially from the lower airways. Here it also remains challenging to distinguish replicating infectious virus from DNA or RNA remnants still detectable by RT-PCR. Regarding treatment of influenza, it remains unclear for how long treatment with neuraminidase inhibitors should be continued in the critically ill. The standard duration of 5 days originates from oseltamivir registration trials that were primarily performed in non-hospitalized patients with uncomplicated

influenza⁹⁹. International, but not Dutch national treatment guidelines recommend to consider longer treatment in patients with severe influenza^{78,100}, however current data on viral shedding limits guidance on treatment decisions.

OUTLINE OF THIS THESIS

The general aim of this thesis is to gain further insights into the role of influenza and common cold viruses in adult critically ill patients, to advance estimates of disease burden, and guide diagnostics, treatment and infection control measures.

Chapter 3 describes the clinical practice of diagnostic testing for respiratory viruses in patients admitted to Dutch ICUs with suspected CAP or HAP. Also, the prevalence rates of viral RTIs from routine care test are reported, and the impact of these test results on antiviral treatment decisions.

In **Chapter 4**, the design and rationale of the COURSE study, a multicenter prospective observational cohort study in critically ill patients receiving IMV, are described. Results of this study are described in **Chapters 5 to 8**.

In **Chapter 5** we describe how many viral RTI were missed by comparing routine care virus testing to systematic screening for viruses during the feasibility period of the COURSE study.

Chapter 6 describes the prevalence of and clinical outcomes associated with viral RTI's in the COURSE study. Patients admitted because of a SARI are compared to a control group of those admitted because of other reasons (non-SARI), and diagnostic yield of upper and lower respiratory tract samples is assessed.

Viral RNA shedding dynamics in the upper and lower respiratory tract of RV, hCoV and RSV in COURSE participants are assessed in **Chapter 7**, while in **Chapter 8** the shedding dynamics of influenza viruses are studied in a combined cohort of influenza patients from the COURSE study and from a similar study in Hong Kong. In both chapters, shedding dynamics between SARI patients and non-SARI patients are compared, as well as between survivors and non-survivors, in order to explore differences in pathophysiology.

In **Chapter 9**, the findings of this thesis, and directives and future perspectives are discussed.

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