#### REVIEW



Check for updates

# A brief review of influenza virus infection

<sup>1</sup>Infectious Diseases and Tropical Medicine Research Center, Health Research Institute, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Babol, Iran

<sup>2</sup>Student Research Committee, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Babol, Iran

<sup>3</sup>Cheshire and Merseyside Health Protection Team, Public Health England North West, Liverpool, UK

<sup>4</sup>Scientist, Department of Analytical Biotechnology, MedImmune/AstraZeneca, Gaithersburg, Maryland, 20878, USA

<sup>5</sup>Department of General Medicine, Rangaraya Medical College, NTR University of Health Sciences, Vijayawada, Andhra Pradesh, India

#### Correspondence

Soheil Ebrahimpour, PhD, Infectious Diseases and Tropical Medicine Research Center, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Ganjafrooz Blvd., Babol, Mazandaran, Iran.

Email: drsoheil1503@yahoo.com

#### **Abstract**

Influenza is an acute viral respiratory infection that affects all age groups and is associated with high mortality during pandemics, epidemics, and sporadic outbreaks. Nearly 10% of the world's population is affected by influenza annually, with about half a million deaths each year. Influenza vaccination is the most effective method for preventing influenza infection and its complications. The influenza vaccine's efficacy varies each season based on the circulating influenza strains and vaccine uptake rates. Currently, three antiviral drugs targeting the influenza virus surface glycoprotein neuraminidase are available for treatment and prophylaxis of disease. Given the significant burden of influenza infection globally, this review is focused on the latest findings in the etiology, epidemiology, transmission, clinical manifestation, diagnosis, prevention, and treatment of influenza.

## KEYWORDS

antiviral agents, epidemiology, influenza virus, treatment

# 1 | INTRODUCTION

Influenza is a contagious viral infection in seasonal epidemics, usually in winter.<sup>1-4</sup> Depending on the climatic and geographical situations, seasonal epidemic, and sporadic outbreaks can occur during winter or other seasons. Influenza virus can affect any organs and manifests as an acute febrile illness with variable degrees of systemic and respiratory symptoms.<sup>5</sup> Complications of influenza infection can be severe or life-threatening in high-risk individuals or groups.<sup>6</sup> Symptoms of influenza include fever, feeling chills, headache, weakness, red eyes, sore throat, dry cough, and nasal discharge.<sup>7</sup> Influenza viruses evolve quickly by frequent antigenic variation. Antigenic drift and shift are terms used to describe how the virus mutates and results in new strains. There is a significant change in the virus's genome in antigenic shift resulting in new hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA) protein expression.8 Antigenic shift rarely occurs, but its role in contributing to and causing pandemics has been confirmed.<sup>2</sup> Due to antigenic shift, influenza infection continues to be an important global communicable disease despite significant

improvements in the prevention, control, and management of cases. This review aims to highlight updated information on human influenza (etiology, epidemiology, transmission, clinical manifestation, diagnosis, prevention, and treatment), considering the importance of this infection in causing morbidity and mortality and the general concern and anxiety of health communities regarding future outbreaks, epidemics, and pandemics.

#### 2 | ETIOLOGY

Influenza viruses belong to the family of *Orthomyxoviridae* of RNA viruses. The influenza virus is an enveloped virus with a genome consisting of a segmented, single negative-strand RNA encoding surface glycoproteins of HA and NA.  $^{10,11}$  The influenza virus infects the host by attaching to the host cell and penetrating the membrane. The HA attaches to cell surface receptors and initiates virus entry into these cells. NA is an enzyme that helps in viral replication and enables the virus to be released from the host cell. Thus, viral

.0969071, 2021, 8, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jmv.26990 by Universidade Do Minho, Wiley Online Library on [19/03/2024]. See the Terms and Condition

) on Wiley Online Library for rules

of use; OA articles are governed

by the applicable Creative Commons

glycoproteins play an essential role in the virulence and pathogenesis of the influenza virus.

Influenza virus strains are categorized as Types A, B, C, and D<sup>14</sup> (Table 1). The majority of influenza epidemics are caused by one or two types of influenza virus. Influenza A is the most common influenza infection during the flu season and causes mild to severe illness and affects humans and animals. <sup>15,16</sup> Type B influenza infection is highly contagious and can sometimes cause serious illness. Influenza B virus is reported to cause minor localized outbreaks. <sup>17</sup> Type B influenza is less common during the flu season than influenza A. <sup>18</sup> Type C viruses primarily infect humans and cause illness in some animals, such as swine. <sup>19</sup> Influenza C viruses cause mild upper respiratory symptoms, sporadic cases, and minor localized outbreaks. <sup>20</sup> The Type D viruses mainly affect pigs and cattle and are not known to cause humans infection. <sup>21</sup>

Type A viruses can be classified based on the antigenic variation in HA and NA antigens. So far, 16 antigenic variants of HA and nine antigenic variants of NA have been identified. Moreover, several HA and NA combinations are possible as subtypes (e.g., H1N1, H5N1, H7N9). In contrast to influenza A viruses, type B viruses are not classified into subtypes.

## 3 | EPIDEMIOLOGY

Influenza may occur as pandemics, epidemics, outbreaks, and as isolated sporadic cases. Seasonal epidemics often occur in winter in temperate regions in the northern and southern hemispheres. <sup>22</sup> In tropical areas, influenza outbreaks can occur in all seasons. 10,23 The World Health Organization has estimated that annual influenza epidemics result in about 4 million severe infection cases and about half of million deaths each year.<sup>24</sup> The infection's epidemiologic pattern reflects the virus's changing antigenic properties, resulting in new viral strains that change, the virus's capability to transmit, and the population's susceptibility. An antigenic shift occurs when quick and significant changes in surface glycoproteins (particularly HA of Influenza A virus) occur due to a genetic transfer from some animal strains to human strains.<sup>25</sup> Antigenic shift is very rare, but it is a potential cause of pandemics and epidemics. Antigenic drift refers to minor antigenic changes that occur commonly within HA or NA of the influenza virus, and this is usually associated with localized outbreaks.<sup>26</sup> For Influenza Type B infection, only antigenic drifts in the HA have been recognized. Influenza infection occurs in people in any age group, though the risks of severe complications, hospital admission, and death are higher among people over the age of 65 years.<sup>27</sup> The complications from influenza during pregnancy, such as pneumonia, can be associated with mortality rates and more disabilities in mothers.<sup>28</sup>

It is important to note that the birds make up an essential reservoir of the influenza virus. Subtypes H5, H7, and H9 have all caused avian influenza epidemics in humans. Among these strains, H5N1 has a high mortality rate of around 50%, resulting in many hospitalizations and mortalities.<sup>29</sup> In 2013, there was reported an outbreak of the novel H7N9 influenza virus, despite fewer pathogenic in avian species, resulted in 36 deaths in humans. Therefore, given that the H7N9 pandemic in the human population is possible due to its rapid transmissibility, it is vital to pay more attention to such diseases as future threats to human health.<sup>30,31</sup>

#### 4 | TRANSMISSION

The influenza virus is commonly transmitted from person to person by sneezing and coughing. <sup>32,33</sup> The most important transmission routes are through (1) direct contact with infected individuals, (2) contact with contaminated objects, and/or (3) inhalation of virus-laden aerosols. Respiratory transmission through aerosols containing viral particles can happen during coughing, sneezing, speaking, singing, and even normal breathing. <sup>33,34</sup> Following infection, viral shedding occurs about 24–48 h before symptoms onset. <sup>35,36</sup> Controlling the virus spread through covering the nose and mouth during coughing and sneezing and washing hands with soap, alcohol-based cleaner, or solutions are essential to prevent viral transmission. <sup>37</sup>

## 5 | CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS

The standard incubation period for influenza is between 18 and 72 h, although it may vary from case to case. Influenza symptoms often appear suddenly with typical symptoms: high fever and chills, headache, generalized weakness, severe aches in muscles and joints, red eyes, and respiratory signs such as sore throat, dry cough, and

TABLE 1 Different types of influenza virus

Type of influenza	Symptoms	Affect	Subgroups	Epidemiology
Α	Mild to severe	Animal and human	Divided based on the antigenic properties (16 hemagglutinin and 9 neuraminidase)	Widespread
В	Mild	Only human	Not classified by subtype	Not cause pandemics
С	Mild	Human and some animals	Not classified by subtype	Not cause epidemics
D	Mild	Animals, unknown in human	Not classified by subtype	Not widespread

rhinitis.<sup>38</sup> The systemic symptoms usually last up to 7 days, but weakness and cough may last for weeks.<sup>27</sup> In adults, fever (38–41°C) typically lasts about 3 days.<sup>9,39</sup> A severe generalized, usually a frontal lobe headache, is common with influenza, worsening with sudden head movement.<sup>40</sup> Influenza cases usually recover from uncomplicated infection after a few days, but prolonged or on-going symptoms may indicate complications. For example, a headache with persistent fever may be due to sinusitis.<sup>41</sup> Ocular symptoms such as pain in eye motion and photophobia may develop in many patients; the eyes can become red, watery, and congested.<sup>42</sup> A sore throat due to influenza usually lasts about 5 days.<sup>38</sup> The symptoms of influenza in children are very similar to those of adults, although children may present with additional symptoms such as nausea, stomach pain, otitis media, and vomiting.

Pneumonia is recognized as the most critical influenza complication, especially in the elderly. Complicated influenza infection frequently manifests as primary viral pneumonia, secondary bacterial pneumonia, and/or combined viral and bacterial pneumonia. Primary influenza pneumonia symptoms include high fever, dry cough, headache, sore throat, fatigue, dyspnea, and cyanosis.

Secondary bacterial pneumonia may occur from *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus pneumonia*, *Haemophilus influenza*, and other gram-negative bacilli infections. <sup>45,46</sup> Secondary staphylococcal pneumonia usually develops 3 days after the initial presentation of primary influenza pneumonia. <sup>47</sup> The most severe secondary bacterial pneumonia effects include hypoxemia, productive cough, high white blood cell count, and chest radiography may show multiple cavitary infiltrates. Complex viral and bacterial coinfections are the most common pulmonary complications of influenza. <sup>48</sup>

The diagnosis of bacterial coinfection with influenza can be challenging or difficult due to high false-negative rates and sample collection timing. These false-negative rates may not usually coincide when the influenza viruses replicate in the lower respiratory tract.

Along with influenza pneumonia, children and adults at high risk can develop some nonpulmonary complications such as heart problems, myositis, myoglobinuria, sinusitis, and ear infections. <sup>49,50</sup> Neurologic complications of influenza include Reye's syndrome, aseptic meningitis, encephalomyelitis, and Guillain-Barré syndrome (GBS). <sup>51</sup> Studies show an association of influenza infections with myocarditis and pericarditis. <sup>52,53</sup> Influenza A and B and enteroviruses are the most commonly reported viruses associated with rare myositis. <sup>54,55</sup>

Myoglobinuria infrequently occurs following acute infection with symptoms suggesting an upper respiratory infection (URI) and has been associated with influenza, adenovirus, and parainfluenza. <sup>56–59</sup> Reye's syndrome is an uncommon and potentially life-threatening disease, distinguished by hepatic encephalopathy. <sup>60</sup> This syndrome's symptoms usually begin after viral infections, particularly Influenza B URI and, less frequently, influenza A infection. Long-term use of aspirin in children is another well-recognized risk factor for Reye's syndrome. <sup>61</sup> GBS is another rare disorder that causes acute flaccid paralysis and is preceded by gastrointestinal and URI (such as influenza) in about 60% of GBS patients. <sup>62</sup>

## 6 | DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis of influenza is frequently made on clinical grounds, laboratory testing, epidemiology information, and influenza infection symptoms. Cough and fever are the most critical symptomatic predictors of influenza infection, that is, before laboratory confirmation. As the accuracy of clinical diagnosis in outbreaks is high, during an epidemic situation, most cases of influenza are diagnosed on clinical grounds. Laboratory methods include rapid influenza diagnostic tests, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), nucleic acid amplification tests, and virus culture (Table 2).

Reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) assay is a rapid (<80 min), sensitive, and specific method to diagnose influenza and its subtypes and detect antiviral resistance.<sup>66</sup> RT-PCR is now the first-choice laboratory test for influenza infection because of its high sensitivity and specificity.<sup>67</sup> Nasopharyngeal washes and swab samples are the best specimens for diagnosing the virus by RT-PCR.<sup>68</sup> RT-PCR and other molecular assays may not provide an immediate diagnosis within the limited timeframe of clinical decision making, and RT-PCR assay is not approved for lower respiratory tract samples.

Among the molecular tests, the Loop-mediated isothermal amplification has high accuracy and very quick (about 30 min) to deliver results but is costly.<sup>69</sup> A multiplex real-time PCR assay has been developed in recent years to detect Types A and B influenza strains.<sup>70</sup>

Immunoassays such as rapid antigen tests have been developed to detect the Influenza A and B viral antigens in respiratory specimens. Rapid antigen tests are straightforward to perform and take a short time to complete (<30 min). The specificity of rapid antigen

**TABLE 2** Diagnostic methods for identification of influenza virus

Tests	Influenza virus type detected	Samples acceptable	Time needed for test
Rapid influenza diagnostic methods	A and B	Throat swab, nasopharyngeal swab, nasal swab,	<30 min
Reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) assay	A and B	Throat swab, nasopharyngeal swab, nasal aspirate, sputum	<80 min
Nucleic acid amplification tests	A and B	Nasopharyngeal swab	<30 min
Culture	A and B	Throat swab, nasal swab or wash, sputum	>3 days

tests is high, and false-positive results from the tests are attributed to lower infection activity. However, they have poor sensitivity (about 70% for Type A and <30% for Type B) in comparison to molecular assays and viral culture methods. The sensitivity of rapid antigen tests depends on the disease's course, delivering high sensitivity to 2 days from the symptoms' onset. Nasopharyngeal samples also deliver high sensitivity to the test. Because of the poor sensitivity, rapid antigen tests may not be suitable for making diagnostic and treatment decisions. The sensitivity and the test of the poor sensitivity to the test of the poor sensitivity.

A viral culture may be performed on endotracheal aspirates, nasopharyngeal, and sputum samples. Samples that have dried out are not appropriate for influenza virus isolation. These tests take a long time to detect the virus. Thus, influenza viral isolation does not provide a timely diagnosis to support clinical decision-making. Shell vial culture findings take about 3 days to deliver results, while many traditional tissue-cell viral cultures may take about 10 days. 66,73 The advantage of viral cultures is that they aid strain typing and specific diagnosis of influenza infection. Other types of routine laboratory tests do not help in the specific diagnosis of influenza infection. For example, leukocytosis may indicate the presence of a bacterial infection with influenza. 74 Complete blood count and electrolyte levels or thrombocytopenia are nonspecific but helpful in diagnosing influenza. The differential diagnosis of influenza infection includes acquired immune deficiency syndrome, Legionnaires' disease, dengue fever, and other URIs.

## 7 | PREVENTION

Influenza vaccination is one of the best public health interventions to prevent infection. <sup>10</sup> Individual and population protection from influenza vaccination depends on vaccine coverage/uptake and the match between the antigen (vaccine strain) and the circulating influenza strains in the particular influenza year/season. Some studies have shown up to 60% efficacy of influenza vaccine against infection with Types A and B viruses. <sup>75</sup> Currently available vaccines for influenza include inactivated influenza vaccine (IIV), live attenuated influenza vaccine (LAIV), and recombinant influenza vaccine (Table 3). The majority of trivalent vaccines available for 2019-2020 contain antigens from two strains of Influenza A (A/Brisbane/02/2018 [H1N1] pdm09-like virus and A/Kansas/14/2017 [H3N2]-like virus) and one

strain of Influenza B (B/Colorado/06/2017-like virus as a B/Victoria/2/87 lineage). The quadrivalent vaccines have an extra B virus (B/Phuket/3073/2013-like virus as a B/Yamagata lineage). Influenza vaccinations are safe for anyone aged over 6 months old. Both adjuvanted trivalent influenza vaccine (aTIV) or vaccines without an adjuvant were approved for individuals aged over 65.

The quadrivalent influenza vaccines without adjuvant are approved for anyone over 6 months old. A recombinant quadrivalent influenza vaccine is recommended for individuals over 18 years old. A quadrivalent cell-based influenza vaccine containing viruses grown in cell culture is approved for individuals over 4 years old. A quadrivalent LAIV4 is approved for use in healthy persons aged 2–49 years old. It has been reported that this vaccine is effective in 90% of children unless specifically contraindicated. However, the vaccine is not safe to use during pregnancy or in the case with immunodeficiencies. Figure 17.7 Given that the influenza season runs from October to May in the northern hemisphere, it is recommended that people get vaccinated in the early autumn to ensure protection. Nonetheless, it is recommended, especially for the previously unvaccinated individuals, vaccination even at a later time may be of benefit.

Pregnant women should get IIV even if they were vaccinated during a previous pregnancy. Vaccination of pregnant women can prevent severe illness in the mother during pregnancy and their babies during the first 6 months of life.

Contraindications to the influenza vaccine are previous anaphylactic reactions to influenza vaccines, a history of GBS within 6 weeks of receiving an influenza vaccine, and concurrent infectious illness resulting in fever. <sup>77,81</sup>

There is a potential for influenza antiviral agents to lower the effectiveness of LAIV. Therefore, it is preferable not to use antiviral medicines for at least 2 weeks after receiving the LAIV. For the same reason, LAIV should not be administered within 2 days after discontinuation of influenza antivirals.<sup>82</sup>

#### 8 | TREATMENT

In uncomplicated influenza and low-risk cases, symptomatic and supportive treatment should be offered. Hydration is imperative to replace body fluid loss that usually occurs with a fever. Nonsteroidal

TABLE 3 Recommended influenza vaccines

Vaccine types	Ages	Types of influenza strains protected
Adjuvanted trivalent influenza vaccine (aTIV) or without adjuvant	Adults aged ≥65 years old	3
Quadrivalent influenza vaccines without adjuvant	Persons aged ≥6 months old	4
Quadrivalent cell-based influenza vaccine	Persons aged ≥4 years old	4
Recombinant quadrivalent influenza vaccine	Persons aged ≥18 years old	4
live-attenuated quadrivalent influenza vaccine	Nonpregnant persons aged 2-49 years old	4

.0969071, 2021, 8, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jmv.26990 by Universidade Do Minho, Wiley Online Library on [19/03/2024]. See the Terms

by the applicable Creative Commons I

anti-inflammatory drugs like aspirin, naproxen, diclofenac sodium, and ibuprofen can be given to reduce symptoms, including fever, headache, and aches in the muscles.<sup>83</sup> Controlling fever can protect the patient from other symptoms such as shivering, myalgia, and tachycardia.

Various antiviral influenza medications are available for the treatment and prevention of influenza infection. Among the antivirals, currently, only four have been approved and recommended for use in chemoprophylaxis and treatment of influenza: oseltamivir (Tamiflu), zanamivir (Relenza), peramivir (Rapivab), and baloxavir marboxil (Xofluza)<sup>84,85</sup> (Table 4). These antivirals have demonstrated a good level of effectiveness and efficacy against influenza Types A and B viruses. Three (oseltamivir, zanamivir, peramivir) of these four antivirals are neuraminidase inhibitors (NAIs) and act by blocking the NA enzyme's function and preventing the virus from leaving the infected cells.<sup>86</sup>

Oseltamivir is an orally administered antiviral medication recommended to treat uncomplicated acute influenza up to 48 h after the onset of symptoms in adults and children over 2 weeks old. Oseltamivir is also recommended for chemoprophylaxis in adults and children over 1 year old.<sup>87</sup> Some studies confirmed that treatment with oseltamivir initiated 36 h after onset of symptoms resulted in a 40% reduction in the illness's severity.<sup>88</sup> Some adverse effects reported for oseltamivir include nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, rash, delirium, and anemia.

Inhaled zanamivir is recommended for treating uncomplicated acute influenza within 2 days after the onset of symptoms in adults and children aged over 7 years old and for chemoprophylaxis of influenza in adults and children aged over 5 years old. <sup>89</sup> Zanamivir is contraindicated in severe milk protein allergy. Early therapy of uncomplicated influenza with zanamivir resulted in a reduction in duration (by up to 2 days) and severity of symptoms. Reported side effects of zanamivir include; cough, headache, bronchospasm, nausea, vomiting, fever, and myalgia. <sup>90</sup>

Intravenous peramivir is recommended for treating uncomplicated acute influenza within 48 h of symptoms onset in

patients aged over 18 years old. <sup>91</sup> This antiviral agent has been approved for therapy in adults as an alternative to oral and inhaled medications. Peramivir has not yet been approved for use in children or prophylaxis. Studies in the early administration of a single dose of peramivir reported a decrease in the severity of symptoms and reduced symptoms duration. Adverse effects reported for peramivir include diarrhea, constipation, insomnia, and hypertension. <sup>92</sup> Influenza A has mutated some amino acids, remarkably R292K, N294S, I222V, H274Y, H275Y, and E119V, in NA site activation to need the resistance to NAIs. <sup>93</sup> Such changes modify the condition of the active NA site and decrease NAIs linkage many times. <sup>94</sup> It is important to note that the most common mutation conferring resistance to oseltamivir and peramivir in NA of the H5N1 and H1N1 subtypes was H274Y. <sup>95</sup>

Before 2007, oseltamivir resistance was rarely seen (low resistance rates of <5%), however, oseltamivir-resistant H1N1 started to emerge in the 2007–2008 flu season. In 2009, the H1N1 strain was introduced all over the world. However, in many human cases (lower than 1.5% resistances), continued oseltamivir susceptible primarily. Consequently, in the 2010–2011 influenza seasons in some regions of the world, a growing number of human cases resistant to oseltamivir were recognized. A recent study of three patients of oseltamivir-resistant H1N1 pdm09 in the 2018–2019 influenza seasons revealed that two of the cases recovered with oseltamivir despite wholegenome sequencing, disclosing H275Y mutations in 44% and 100% of the virus population, respectively. The third patient revealed mild clinical improvement with 2 weeks of oseltamivir, after which she was switched to intravenous zanamivir.

Baloxavir marboxil is a cap-dependent endonuclease inhibitor. Baloxavir interferes with viral RNA transcription and inhibits viral replication, stopping the virus from multiplying. <sup>97</sup> A single oral dose of Baloxavir is recommended for the treatment of acute uncomplicated influenza cases up to 48 h after the onset of symptoms in adults and children over 12 years old. <sup>85</sup> Baloxavir has not yet been approved for prophylaxis. Reported adverse events of Baloxavir

**TABLE 4** Antiviral medications recommended for influenza

Drug	Use	Recommended for	Dosage
Oral Oseltamivir (Tamiflu)	Therapy	Individuals aged ≥2 weeks	Adults: 75 mg bid for 5 days Children 1–12 years: 30–75 mg bid, depending on weight for 5 days
	Prophylaxis	Individuals aged ≥1 year old	Adults: 75 mg/d Children ≥1 year: 30-75 mg/d, depending on weight
Inhaled Zanamivir (Relenza)	Therapy	Persons aged ≥7 years old	Adults and children ≥7 years: 10 mg bid for 5 days
	Prophylaxis	Persons aged ≥5 years old	Adults and children ≥ 5 years: 10 mg/d
Intravenous Peramivir (Rapivab)	Therapy	Patients aged ≥18 years old	Adult: 600 mg once
	Prophylaxis	-	-
Oral Baloxavir marboxil (Xofluza)	Therapy	Patients aged ≥12 years old	Adults: 80 mg once Children ≥12 years and <80 kg: 40 mg once
	Prophylaxis	-	-

Other antivirals like adamantanes (amantadine and rimantadine) target the M2 ion channel protein of type influenza. However, adamantanes are no longer recommended for the prophylaxis and treatment of influenza due to reports of a high degree of resistance. 99,100 In general, antiviral treatment is recommended for severe influenza cases hospitalized and at high risk of severe infection or complications. 101 Antiviral treatment can reduce the fever and illness duration and the rate of complications associated with influenza infection. Oseltamivir is recommended for severe infection and complicated influenza cases that have not been admitted to hospitals or people in the community. 102 Antivirals have a significant beneficial impact for groups at high-risk infection or of complications: children under 4 years of age; people over 65 years of age; immunosuppressed individuals; patients with cancer, stroke, chronic conditions such as cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, neurologic disorders; pregnant women; women who have delivered infants (postpartum) less than 14 days ago; patients under 19 years old receiving long-term aspirin therapy; individuals with obesity (body mass index ≥40); and residents of care homes <sup>103</sup> (Table 5).

It is necessary to mention that broadly neutralizing antibodies against several viruses have been documented, such as dengue, hepatitis C virus, respiratory syncytial virus, and influenza. Notably, antibodies against the sialic binding pocket and stem of influenza HA have been recognized. <sup>104,105</sup> In other words, some influenza virusneutralizing antibodies bind to the HA and block the interaction between the viral sialic acid receptors and the host cells. Numerous

**TABLE 5** Individuals at the highest risk of influenza complications

Adults aged 65 years and older

Children aged 4 years old and younger

Women who have delivered babies ≤14 days ago

Pregnant women during influenza season

Residents of long-term care facilities

People with cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, and neurologic disorders

Individuals with a weakened immune system due to HIV or AIDS and cancers

Children 6 months to 18 years old receiving long-term aspirin medications

Persons with a body mass index (BMI) over 40 or more

Alaska Natives and American Indians

Abbreviations: AIDS, acquired immune deficiency syndrome; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus.

studies have found that these antibodies targeting the influenza virus's conserved epitopes can provide alternative medicine. 106

#### 9 | CONCLUSION

Influenza is a contagious respiratory disease and is preventable. Influenza can cause severe complications and death in healthy individuals of all ages. It is challenging to distinguish influenza from other viral or bacterial respiratory infections within antivirals' effectiveness, leading to delays in treatment with antivirals. Influenza vaccine remains the most effective means of preventing influenza disease and complications. However, in addition to antivirals, more effective interventions are needed in older people, in whom the burden of influenza is highest, and vaccine effectiveness against a severe outcome is lowest.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The authors thank the Department of Infectious Diseases of Babol University of Medical Sciences.

#### CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that there are no conflict of interests.

#### **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

Mostafa Javanian and Soheil Ebrahimpour were involved in review concepts, design, and critical revision for important intellectual content. Mohammad Barary, Sam Ghebrehewet, Veerendra Koppolu, VeneelaKrishnaRekha Vasigala, and Soheil Ebrahimpour performed the literature search and drafted the manuscript. Mohammad Barary and Soheil Ebrahimpour were involved critical revision of the manuscript.

## PEER REVIEW

The peer review history for this article is available at https://publons.com/publon/10.1002/jmv.26990

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All data are available upon reasonable request to the corresponding author.

## ORCID

Mostafa Javanian http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2771-4578
Mohammad Barary http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8733-9370
Veerendra Koppolu https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9141-9058
VeneelaKrishnaRekha Vasigala https://orcid.org/0000-0003-

Soheil Ebrahimpour ib http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3204-0448

#### **REFERENCES**

 Weinstein RA, Bridges CB, Kuehnert MJ, Hall CB. Transmission of influenza: implications for control in health care settings. Clin Infect Dis. 2003;37(8):1094-1101.

- 2. Morens DM, Taubenberger JK. Making universal influenza vaccines: lessons from the 1918 pandemic. J Infect Dis. 2019; 219(Suppl 1):S5-S13.
- Babazadeh A, Mohseni Afshar Z, Javanian M, et al. Influenza vaccination and Guillain-Barré syndrome: reality or fear. J Transl Int Med. 2019;7(4):137-142.
- Ebrahimpour S, Babazadeh A, Sadeghi-Haddad-Zavareh M, Bayani M, Vasigala VKR, Javanian M. Outcomes of patients with definitive diagnosis of influenza a (H1N1) virus infection admitted to affiliated hospitals of Babol University of Medical Sciences. 2015-2016. Acta facultatis medicae Naissensis. 2019;36(4):356-364.
- Krammer F, Smith GJD, Fouchier RAM, et al. influenza. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2018:4(1):3.
- Clohisey S, Baillie JK. Host susceptibility to severe influenza A virus infection. Crit Care. 2019;23(1):303.
- Nakagawa H, Noma H, Kotake O, Motohashi R, Yasuda K, Shimura M. Optic neuritis and acute anterior uveitis associated with influenza A infection: a case report. Int Med Case Rep J. 2017;
- Kim H, Webster RG, Webby RJ. Influenza virus: dealing with a drifting and shifting pathogen. Viral Immunol. 2018;31(2):174-183.
- Paules C, Subbarao K. Influenza. Lancet (London, England). 2017; 390(10095):697-708.
- 10. Paules CI, Fauci AS. Influenza vaccines: good, but we can do better. J Infect Dis. 2019;219(Suppl 1):S1-S4.
- 11. Te Velthuis AJ, Fodor E. Influenza virus RNA polymerase: insights into the mechanisms of viral RNA synthesis. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2016:14(8):479-493.
- 12. Byrd-Leotis L, Cummings RD, Steinhauer DA. The interplay between the host receptor and influenza virus hemagglutinin and neuraminidase. Int J Mol Sci. 2017;18(7):1541.
- 13. Shtyrya YA, Mochalova LV, Bovin NV. Influenza virus neuraminidase: structure and function. Acta Naturae. 2009;1(2):26-32.
- 14. Bouvier NM, Palese P. The biology of influenza viruses. Vaccine. 2008;26(Suppl 4 Suppl 4):D49-D53.
- Yoo SJ, Kwon T, Lyoo YS. Challenges of influenza A viruses in humans and animals and current animal vaccines as an effective control measure. Clin Exp Vaccine Res. 2018;7(1):1-15.
- Yu X, Wang C, Chen T, et al. Excess pneumonia and influenza mortality attributable to seasonal influenza in subtropical Shanghai, China. BMC Infect Dis. 2017;17(1):756.
- 17. Koutsakos M, Nguyen TH, Barclay WS, Kedzierska K. Knowns and unknowns of influenza B viruses. Future Microbiol. 2016;11(1): 119-135.
- 18. Chen G-W, Shih S-R, Hsiao M-R, et al. Multiple genotypes of influenza B viruses cocirculated in Taiwan in 2004 and 2005. J Clin Microbiol. 2007;45(5):1515-1522.
- 19. Hause BM, Ducatez M, Collin EA, et al. isolation of a novel swine influenza virus from Oklahoma in 2011 which is distantly related to human influenza C viruses. PLoS Pathog. 2013;9(2):e1003176.
- Njouom R, Monamele GC, Ermetal B, et al. Detection of Influenza C virus infection among hospitalized patients, Cameroon. Emerg Infect Dis. 2019;25(3):607-609.
- 21. Foni E, Chiapponi C, Baioni L, et al. Influenza D in Italy: towards a better understanding of an emerging viral infection in swine. Sci Rep. 2017;7(1):11660.
- Tamerius J, Nelson MI, Zhou SZ, Viboud C, Miller MA, Alonso WJ. Global influenza seasonality: reconciling patterns across temperate and tropical regions. Environ Health Perspect. 2011;119(4):439-445.
- Sagripanti JL, Lytle CD. Inactivation of influenza virus by solar radiation. Photochem Photobiol. 2007;83(5):1278-1282.
- Clayville LR. Influenza update: a review of currently available vaccines. P T. 2011;36(10):659-684.
- Shao W, Li X, Goraya MU, Wang S, Chen J-L. Evolution of Influenza A virus by mutation and re-assortment. Int J Mol Sci. 2017;18(8):1650.

- Stellrecht KA. The drift in molecular testing for influenza: mutations affecting assay performance. J Clin Microbiol. 2018;56(3): e01531-01517.
- Taubenberger JK, Morens DM. The pathology of influenza virus infections. Annu Rev Pathol. 2008;3:499-522.
- Mertz D, Geraci J, Winkup J, Gessner BD, Ortiz JR, Loeb M. Pregnancy as a risk factor for severe outcomes from influenza virus infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. Vaccine. 2017;35(4):521-528.
- Neumann G. H5N1 influenza virulence, pathogenicity and transmissibility: what do we know? Future Virol. 2015;10(8):971-980.
- Poovorawan Y, Pyungporn S, Prachayangprecha S, Makkoch J. Global alert to avian influenza virus infection: from H5N1 to H7N9. Pathog Glob Health. 2013;107(5):217-223.
- Sivanandy P, Zi Xien F, Woon Kit L, Tze Wei Y, Hui En K, Chia Lynn L. A review on current trends in the treatment of human infection with H7N9-avian influenza A. J Infect Public Health. 2019; 12(2):153-158.
- Javanian M, Babazadeh A, Ebrahimpour S, Shokri M, Bayani M. Clinical and laboratory findings of patients with the possible diagnosis of influenza hospitalized in affiliated hospitals of Babol University of Medical Sciences. 2015-2016. Current Issues in Pharmacy and Medical Sciences. 2018;31(3):113-116.
- Cowling BJ, Ip DKM, Fang VJ, et al. Aerosol transmission is an important mode of influenza A virus spread. Nat Commun. 2013;4: 1935
- Killingley B, Greatorex J, Digard P, et al. The environmental deposition of influenza virus from patients infected with influenza A (H1N1)pdm09: Implications for infection prevention and control. J Infect Public Health. 2016;9(3):278-288.
- Patrozou E, Mermel LA. Does influenza transmission occur from asymptomatic infection or prior to symptom onset? Public Health Rep. 2009;124(2):193-196.
- Cannell JJ, Zasloff M, Garland CF, Scragg R, Giovannucci E. On the epidemiology of influenza. Virol J. 2008;5(1):29.
- Killingley B, Nguyen-Van-Tam J. Routes of influenza transmission. Influenza Other Respir Viruses. 2013;7:42-51.
- Gibson SB, Majersik JJ, Smith AG, Bromberg MB. Three cases of acute myositis in adults following influenza-like illness during the H1N1 pandemic. J Neurosci Rural Pract. 2013;4(1):51-54.
- Chughtai AA, Wang Q, Dung TC, Macintyre CR. The presence of fever in adults with influenza and other viral respiratory infections. Epidemiol Infect. 2017;145(1):148-155.
- Popescu CP, Florescu SA, Lupulescu E, et al. Neurologic complications of influenza B virus infection in adults, Romania. Emerg Infect Dis. 2017;23(4):574-581.
- Milne M, Mokoena T, Du Toit J, Dlamini Z, Schellack N. Influenza, hay fever and sinusitis: Know the differences. SA Pharmaceutical Journal. 2018;85(6):19-26.
- Kong W. Influenza virus associated with ocular complications. Lancet Infect Dis. 2018;18(6):602-603.
- Rello J, Pop-Vicas A. Clinical review: primary influenza viral pneumonia. Crit Care. 2009;13(6):235.
- Wilhelm M. Influenza in older patients: a call to action and recent updates for vaccinations. Am J Manag Care. 2018;24(2 Suppl): S15-S24.
- van der Sluijs KF, van der Poll T, Lutter R, Juffermans NP, Schultz MJ. Bench-to-bedside review: bacterial pneumonia with influenza - pathogenesis and clinical implications. Crit Care. 2010; 14(2):219.
- Morris DE, Cleary DW, Clarke SC. Secondary bacterial infections associated with influenza pandemics, Front Microbiol, 2017:8:1041.
- Mulcahy ME, McLoughlin RM. Staphylococcus aureus and Influenza A Virus: Partners in Coinfection. mBio. 2016;7(6). http://doi. org/10.1128/mbio.02068-16

- Prasso JE, Deng JC. Postviral complications: bacterial pneumonia. Clin Chest Med. 2017;38(1):127-138.
- Akturk H, Uysalol M, Salman N, et al. Benign acute childhood myositis associated with influenza: a cluster of cases from a single centre in the 2013-2014 cold season. Hong Kong Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2016;23:186-191.
- Odio CD, Mandimika C, Jabuonski TA, Malinis M. Severe Influenza A(H1N1) Virus infection complicated by myositis, refractory rhabdomyolysis, and compartment syndrome. Case Rep Med. 2019; 2019:1540761-1540763.
- Manjunatha N, Math SB, Kulkarni GB, Chaturvedi SK. The neuropsychiatric aspects of influenza/swine flu: a selective review. *Ind Psychiatry J.* 2011;20(2):83-90.
- Pandey Y, Hasan R, Joshi KP, Habash FJ, Jagana R. Acute influenza infection presenting with cardiac tamponade: a case report and review of literature. *Perm J.* 2019;23:18-104.
- Roto D, Malnoske ML, Winters S, Georas SN. A fatal case of influenza B myocarditis with cardiac tamponade. Case Rep Crit Care. 2018:2018:8026314.
- Tabbutt S, Leonard M, Godinez RI, et al. Severe influenza B myocarditis and myositis. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2004;5(4): 403-406.
- Crum-Cianflone NF. Nonbacterial myositis. Curr Infect Dis Rep. 2010;12(5):374-382.
- Zamkoff K, Rosen N. Influenza and myoglobinuria in brothers. Neurology. 1979;29(3):340-345.
- Meshkinpour H, Vaziri ND. Association of myoglobinuria with adenovirus infection. West J Med. 1982;137(2):130-132.
- You J, Lee J, Park YS, Lee JH. Virus-associated Rhabdomyolysis in children. Child Kidney Dis. 2017;21(2):89-93.
- Henrickson KJ. Parainfluenza viruses. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2003; 16(2):242-264.
- Noor A, Gradidge E. A case of reye syndrome caused by influenza A virus. Ochsner J. 2018;18(4):425-427.
- Schror K. Aspirin and Reye syndrome: a review of the evidence. Paediatr Drugs. 2007;9(3):195-204.
- Lehmann HC, Hartung HP, Kieseier BC, Hughes RA. Guillain-Barre syndrome after exposure to influenza virus. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2010; 10(9):643-651.
- Binnicker MJ, Espy MJ, Irish CL, Vetter EA. Direct detection of influenza A and B viruses in less than 20 minutes using a commercially available rapid PCR assay. J Clin Microbiol. 2015;53(7): 2353-2354.
- 64. Anderson KB, Simasathien S, Watanaveeradej V, et al. Clinical and laboratory predictors of influenza infection among individuals with influenza-like illness presenting to an urban Thai hospital over a five-year period. PLoS One. 2018;13(3):e0193050.
- 65. Ghebrehewet S, MacPherson P, Ho A. Influenza. *BMJ*. 2016;355: i6258
- Vemula SV, Zhao J, Liu J, Wang X, Biswas S, Hewlett I. Current approaches for diagnosis of influenza virus infections in humans. Viruses. 2016;8(4):96.
- 67. World Health Organization. The use of PCR in the surveillance and diagnosis of influenza. Vol. June. WHO; 2011:1-10. https://www.who.int/influenza/gisrs\_laboratory/final\_who\_pcr\_meeting\_report aug 2011 en.pdf
- Li L, Chen Q-Y, Li Y-Y, Wang Y-F, Yang Z-F, Zhong N-S. Comparison among nasopharyngeal swab, nasal wash, and oropharyngeal swab for respiratory virus detection in adults with acute pharyngitis. BMC Infect Dis. 2013;13:281.
- Mahony J, Chong S, Bulir D, Ruyter A, Mwawasi K, Waltho D. Multiplex loop-mediated isothermal amplification (M-LAMP) assay for the detection of influenza A/H1, A/H3 and influenza B can provide a specimen-to-result diagnosis in 40 min with single genome copy sensitivity. J Clin Virol. 2013;58(1):127-131.

- Zhang H, Wang Y, Porter E, et al. Development of a multiplex realtime RT-PCR assay for simultaneous detection and differentiation of influenza A, B, C, and D viruses. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2019; 95(1):59-66.
- Trombetta VK, Chan YL, Bankowski MJ. Are rapid influenza antigen tests still clinically useful in today's molecular diagnostics world? Hawaii J Med Public Health. 2018;77(9):226-230.
- 72. World Health Organization. WHO recommendations on the use of rapid testing for influenza diagnosis. Vol. July. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO; 2005:1-16. https://www.who.int/influenza/resources/documents/RapidTestInfluenza\_WebVersion.pdf
- 73. Leland DS, Ginocchio CC. Role of cell culture for virus detection in the age of technology. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2007;20(1):49-78.
- 74. McCullers JA. Insights into the interaction between influenza virus and pneumococcus. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2006;19(3):571-582.
- Hovden A-O, Cox RJ, Haaheim LR. Influenza: the virus and prophylaxis with inactivated influenza vaccine in "at risk" groups, including COPD patients. Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis. 2007;2(3): 229-240.
- Xu X, Blanton L, Elal AlA, et al. Update: influenza activity in the United States during the 2018-19 season and composition of the 2019-20 influenza vaccine. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2019; 68(24):544-551.
- Grohskopf LA, Alyanak E, Broder KR, Walter EB, Fry AM, Jernigan DB. Prevention and control of seasonal influenza with vaccines: recommendations of the advisory committee on immunization practices—United States, 2019-20 Influenza Season. MMWR Recomm Rep. 2019;68(3):1-21.
- Cruz-Valdez A, Valdez-Zapata G, Patel SS, et al. MF59-adjuvanted influenza vaccine (FLUAD®) elicits higher immune responses than a non-adjuvanted influenza vaccine (Fluzone®): a randomized, multicenter, Phase III pediatric trial in Mexico. Hum Vaccin Immunother. 2018;14(2):386-395.
- Montomoli E, Torelli A, Manini I, Gianchecchi E. Immunogenicity and safety of the new inactivated quadrivalent influenza vaccine vaxigrip tetra: preliminary results in children ≥6 months and older adults. Vaccines (Basel). 2018;6(1):14.
- 80. Dunkle LM, Izikson R, Patriarca PA, Goldenthal KL, Cox M, Treanor JJ. Safety and immunogenicity of a recombinant influenza vaccine: a randomized trial. *Pediatrics*. 2018;141(5):e20173021.
- Yang H-J. Safety of influenza vaccination in children with allergic diseases. Clin Exp Vaccine Res. 2015;4(2):137-144.
- Grohskopf LA, Sokolow LZ, Olsen SJ, Bresee JS, Broder KR, Karron RA. Prevention and control of influenza with vaccines: recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices, United States, 2015–16 influenza season. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2015;64(30):818-825.
- Eyers S, Weatherall M, Shirtcliffe P, Perrin K, Beasley R. The effect on mortality of antipyretics in the treatment of influenza infection: systematic review and meta-analysis. J R Soc Med. 2010;103(10): 403-411.
- 84. Duwe S. Influenza viruses—antiviral therapy and resistance. GMS Infect Dis. 2017;5:Doc04.
- 85. Ng KE. Xofluza (Baloxavir Marboxil) for the treatment of acute uncomplicated influenza. *P T.* 2019;44(1):9-11.
- Kosik I, Yewdell JW. Influenza hemagglutinin and neuraminidase: Yin-Yang proteins coevolving to thwart immunity. Viruses. 2019; 11(4):346.
- 87. McLean HQ, Belongia EA, Kieke BA, Meece JK, Fry AM. Impact of Late Oseltamivir Treatment on Influenza Symptoms in the Outpatient Setting: Results of a Randomized Trial. *Open Forum Infect Dis.* 2015;2(3):ofv100.
- 88. Dutkowski R. Oseltamivir in seasonal influenza: cumulative experience in low- and high-risk patients. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2010;65(Suppl 2 Suppl 2):ii11-ii24.

- 89. Eiland LS, Eiland EH. Zanamivir for the prevention of influenza in adults and children age 5 years and older. Ther Clin Risk Manag. 2007:3(3):461-465.
- 90. Heneghan CJ, Onakpoya I, Thompson M, Spencer EA, Jones M, Jefferson T. Zanamivir for influenza in adults and children: systematic review of clinical study reports and summary of regulatory comments. BMJ. 2014;348:g2547.
- Wester A, Shetty AK. Peramivir injection in the treatment of acute influenza: a review of the literature. Infect Drug Resist. 2016;9: 201-214.
- Alame MM, Massaad E, Zaraket H. Peramivir: a novel intravenous neuraminidase inhibitor for treatment of acute influenza infections. Front Microbiol. 2016:7:450.
- McKimm-Breschkin JL. Influenza neuraminidase inhibitors: antiviral action and mechanisms of resistance. Influenza Other Respir Viruses. 2013;7(Suppl 1 Suppl 1):25-36.
- Lampejo T. Influenza and antiviral resistance: an overview. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2020;39(7):1201-1208.
- Hussain M, Galvin HD, Haw TY, Nutsford AN, Husain M. Drug resistance in influenza A virus: the epidemiology and management. Infect Drug Resist. 2017;10:121-134.
- 96. Tang JW, Kennedy M, Lackenby A, Ellis J, Lam T. Transmitted and acquired oseltamivir resistance during the 2018-2019 influenza season. J Infect. 2019;79(6):612-625.
- 97. Locke SC, Splawn LM, Cho JC. Baloxavir marboxil: a novel capdependent endonuclease (CEN) inhibitor for the treatment of acute uncomplicated influenza. Drugs of today (Barcelona, Spain: 1998), 2019:55(6):359-366,
- Uehara T, Hayden FG, Kawaguchi K, et al. Treatment-emergent influenza variant viruses with reduced baloxavir susceptibility: impact on clinical and virologic outcomes in uncomplicated influenza. J Infect Dis. 2020;221(3):346-355.

- Jalily PH, Duncan MC, Fedida D, Wang J, Tietjen I. Put a cork in it: Plugging the M2 viral ion channel to sink influenza. Antiviral Res. 2020:178:104780.
- 100. Wang J, Li F, Ma C. Recent progress in designing inhibitors that target the drug-resistant M2 proton channels from the influenza A viruses. Biopolymers. 2015;104(4):291-309.
- 101. Chow EJ, Doyle JD, Uyeki TM. Influenza virus-related critical illness: prevention, diagnosis, treatment. Crit Care. 2019; 23(1):214.
- Choi WS, Baek JH, Seo YB, et al. Severe influenza treatment guideline. Korean J Intern Med. 2014;29(1):132-147.
- 103. Moghadami M. A narrative review of influenza: a seasonal and pandemic disease. Iran J Med Sci. 2017;42(1):2.
- Ekiert DC, Wilson IA. Broadly neutralizing antibodies against influenza virus and prospects for universal therapies. Curr Opin Virol. 2012;2(2):134-141.
- 105. Benjamin E, Wang W, McAuliffe JM, et al. A broadly neutralizing human monoclonal antibody directed against a novel conserved epitope on the influenza virus H3 hemagglutinin globular head. J Virol. 2014;88(12):6743-6750.
- Lee C-C, Yang C-Y, Lin L-L, et al. An effective neutralizing antibody against influenza virus H1N1 from human B cells. Sci Rep. 2019; 9(1):4546.

How to cite this article: Javanian M, Barary M, Ghebrehewet S, Koppolu V, Vasigala V, Ebrahimpour S. A brief review of influenza virus infection. J Med Virol. 2021;93:4638-4646. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.26990

of use; OA