

Review

An Old Acquaintance. Could Adenovirus be our Next Pandemic Threat?

Gustavo Saint-Pierre Contreras^{1,2}, Daniel Conei Valencia³, Luis Lizama¹, Daniela Vargas Zuñiga¹, Luis Fidel Avendaño Carvajal¹, Sandra Ampuero Llanos¹.

1. Programa de Virología, ICBM, Facultad de Medicina Universidad de Chile, Independencia 1027, 8380453, Independencia, Santiago, Chile.

2. Unidad Microbiología, Hospital Barros Luco Trudeau, Servicio de Salud Metropolitano Sur, 8900000, San Miguel, Santiago, Chile.

3. Departamento de Ciencias de la Salud, Universidad de Aysén, Coyhaique 5951537, Chile.

* Correspondence: Gsaintpierre@ug.uchile.cl

Abstract: Human adenoviruses are one of the most important pathogens detected in acute respiratory diseases in pediatrics and immunocompromised patients. In 1953, Wallace Rowe described it for the first time in oropharyngeal lymphatic tissue. To date, more than 85 types of HAdV have been described, with different cellular tropisms. They can cause respiratory and gastrointestinal symptoms, even urinary tract inflammation, although most infections are asymptomatic. However, there is a population at risk that can develop serious and even lethal conditions. These viruses have a double-stranded DNA genome, 25-48 kbp, 90 nm in diameter, without a mantle, stable in the environment, and resistant to fat-soluble detergents. Currently the diagnosis is made with lateral flow immunochromatography or molecular biology through a polymerase chain reaction. The objective of this review is to recognize the variability of HAdV, the pandemic potential that a recombinant could present between HAdV-3 and 7 viral types, known to produce aggressive outbreaks in health facilities. The review determined the characteristics of HAdV, from the infection to treatment, vaccine development and the evaluation of the social determinants of health associated with HAdV, guiding the necessary measures for future sanitary control, and preventing disasters such as the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic.

Keywords: Infections; Human Adenovirus; Social Determinants of Health; Adenovirus Vaccine; Genotype; Molecular Diagnostic Testing

1. Introduction

Human adenovirus (HAdV) and respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) are recognized pathogens in pediatric patients and in elderly patients. Significant public health expenditures are generated annually. In 1953, Wallace Rowe described it for the first time in oropharyngeal lymphatic tissue. (1,2) Subsequently, HAdV was described as a virus that produces malignant tumors in newborn rodents. Various studies on the pathogenesis and replicative cycle of HAdV allowed us to describe all the events related to viral replication and oncogenesis in rodents (3,4,5,6). HAdV was eventually shown to have no role in human cancer (7). The results derived from these investigations have had a great impact to understand the expression of adenovirus genes in mammals and its use as a platform in the development of vaccines (1,8).

Unlike the respiratory syncytial virus and influenza viruses, which have a clear seasonal predominance, respiratory HAdV generates outbreaks continuously throughout the year, as the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has behaved up to now (1,9,10).

HAdV is associated with a wide range of diseases ranging from mild respiratory conditions such as pharyngitis or conjunctivitis to more serious conditions such as gastroenteritis with dehydration, severe acute respiratory infections, hemorrhagic cystitis, meningoencephalitis (11,12,13). HAdV can cause severe and fatal disease in both

immunocompetent and immunocompromised hosts, particularly in the pediatric population under 6 years of age. Adenoviruses cause 5% to 10% of all febrile illnesses in infants and preschool-age patients. The infection is usually self-limiting, but persistent viral excretion has been described for 4 weeks, even up to 18 months in the preschool population and immunosuppressed patients (14,15). In some studies, they have postulated that this mechanism would be the source of endemic circulation and sometimes of epidemic outbreaks in certain closed populations (9,16). A high prevalence of HAdV has been described in some populations, particularly type 5, one of the most studied in humans. Zhang *et al.* in 2013, detected a 73.1% seroprevalence in the adult population from various regions of China (17). Other studies have described the same serological evidence in the pediatric population, for example, in the Chengxi district, between 4 and 7 years of age, the HAdV-5 seroprevalence was 73% (1,18,19,20,21). In the US, in 1963, they detected a 71% prevalence for HAdV-4 in Washington D.C. in the adult female population, and in other states, there was a range between 12 and 29% (22).

Transmission of HAdV in swimming pools by fecal-oral mechanism has been documented in the literature, in waters contaminated with stools from patients carrying HAdV, mainly in non-chlorinated swimming pools (23). It has been shown that HAdV can be transmitted between people with poor hand hygiene since this virus can replicate in epithelial cells of the gastrointestinal and respiratory tracts, ocular conjunctiva, and even in the bladder (9,24).

HAdVs are double-stranded DNA viruses, are highly stable in the environment, non-enveloped viruses, and resistant to fat-soluble detergents (9,24). The spread of HAdV through local spread (outbreaks) in orphanages, daycare centers, schools, and even in summer camps or closed communities such as military camps and prisons is characteristic (9,16,25,26). Among immunocompromised patients, infection is most frequently described in hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients (HSCT) and solid organ transplant (SOT) recipients (27). HAdV infection continues to be a prevalent disease worldwide, the admission of patients to the ICU has been described, including death in specific populations, for this reason, it is necessary to recognize its pathogenesis, perform the differential diagnosis in both respiratory and gastrointestinal conditions, especially in the pediatric population and immunocompromised patients. The main focus of this review will be to recognize the role of adenovirus as a potential producer of future pandemics during the 21st century, as well as its use as a viral vector vaccine in the control of other pandemics.

2. History of HAdVs

In 1953, Wallace Rowe and collaborators observed that the fluid secreted by the adenoidal tissue (lymph nodes and palatine tonsils) in the upper airway, when inoculated into HeLa cell cultures, these degenerated spontaneously. They observed clusters of rounded cells followed by cytoplasmic inclusions (28). As a consequence, this group identifies a new virus that was called Adenovirus, due to the adenoidal tissue where it was found (1,28). They were unaware of the pathogenic role of HAdV, even postulating in their article: "Further research is underway to determine the agent's relationship with adenoids and to study its possible role in human disease; particularly upper respiratory tract infections" (28).

In 1955, Berge *et al.* would be the first to describe HAdV as the cause of respiratory disease in humans, particularly in military personnel in the US (29).

In 1962, HAdVs were the first human viruses to be associated with the development of cancer in other species, but this has never been demonstrated in humans. These studies were originally done in newborn hamsters but were later replicated in other rodent models. Finally, it was also replicated in baboons (7,30,31). Subsequently, human papillomaviruses (HPV), polyomaviruses, and adenoviruses were collectively classified as small-DNA tumor viruses, based on their small double-stranded DNA genome sizes and their ability to induce cancer in experimental systems or animal models and humans (7). During the same year, 1962, at the VIII International Congress of Microbiology, the virology

subcommittee, dependent on the international nomenclature committee, decided to classify Adenoviruses based on criteria previously established by Rowe and his collaborators in 1955. Among others, resistance to ether, the behavior of HAdV in cell culture lines, and specific soluble antigens for adenovirus groups, generating 6 subgroups according to the affected species (human, simian, bovine, canine, murine, avian), these were later reclassified as species maintaining currently recognized alphabetical order (32).

Interventionary studies involving animals or humans, and other studies that require ethical approval, must list the authority that provided approval and the corresponding ethical approval code.

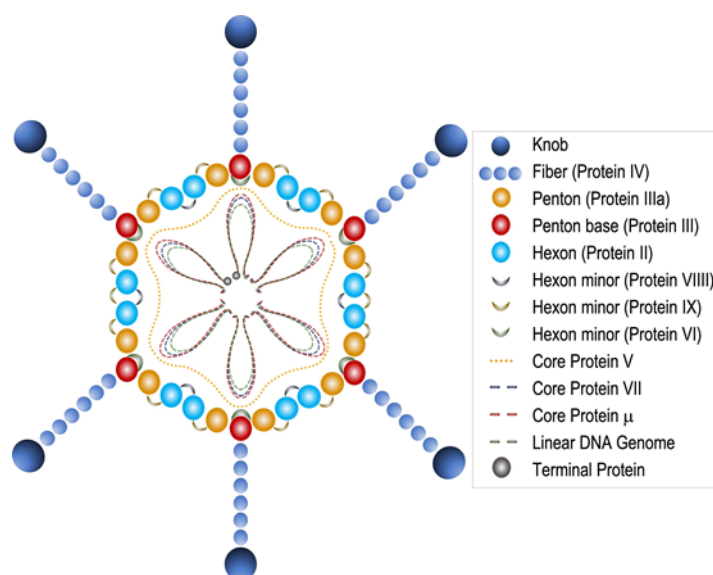
3. HAdV Classification (Types)

According to the latest update of the International Committee on Viral Taxonomy (ICTV) on the virus taxonomy profile of the year 2022, the demarcation of genus and species is based mainly on phylogenetic criteria, but also on the organization of the genome and the biological characteristics within the genera are described as follows: Genus Mastadenovirus: >500 types (members that infect mammals); Aviadenovirus: >14 types (infection in birds); Atadenovirus: >9 types (reptiles, birds, ruminants, and marsupials); Siadenovirus: >7 types (birds, frogs, and turtles); Ichtadenovirus: 1 type (white sturgeon); Testadenovirus: 1 type (red-eared slider turtle) (33). HAdVs are members of the family *Adenoviridae* and Genus Mastadenovirus. There are currently more than 85 types of HAdV reported (33,34,35) but the pathogenicity of many of them is unknown (9,34). HAdVs are classified into seven species (A–G), with multiple types in each of them (36).

4. Virological characteristics of HAdV and its pathogenesis

HAdV, linear double-stranded DNA, 25-48 kbp in length, are very stable in the environment, do not have a lipid envelope, and are less vulnerable to lipid-soluble detergents (9,24). HAdV can remain for weeks in the environment and when frozen at -20°C it survives for years, which generates a comparative advantage over other viruses to remain stable on surfaces, which is also advantageous for researchers to carry out studies with samples frozen for years (9,37).

Other recognized morphological characteristics of the virion are: 90 nm in diameter, icosahedral type capsid, with 240 capsomeres without vertex (hexons) and 12 capsomeres with vertex (pentons), from the latter the fibers stand out, which are homotrimers of protein IV, consisting of three structural domains, the tail, which is attached to the base of the penton, the axis of characteristic length, and the distal bulge) (24,33) (Figure 1 (A,B and C)).



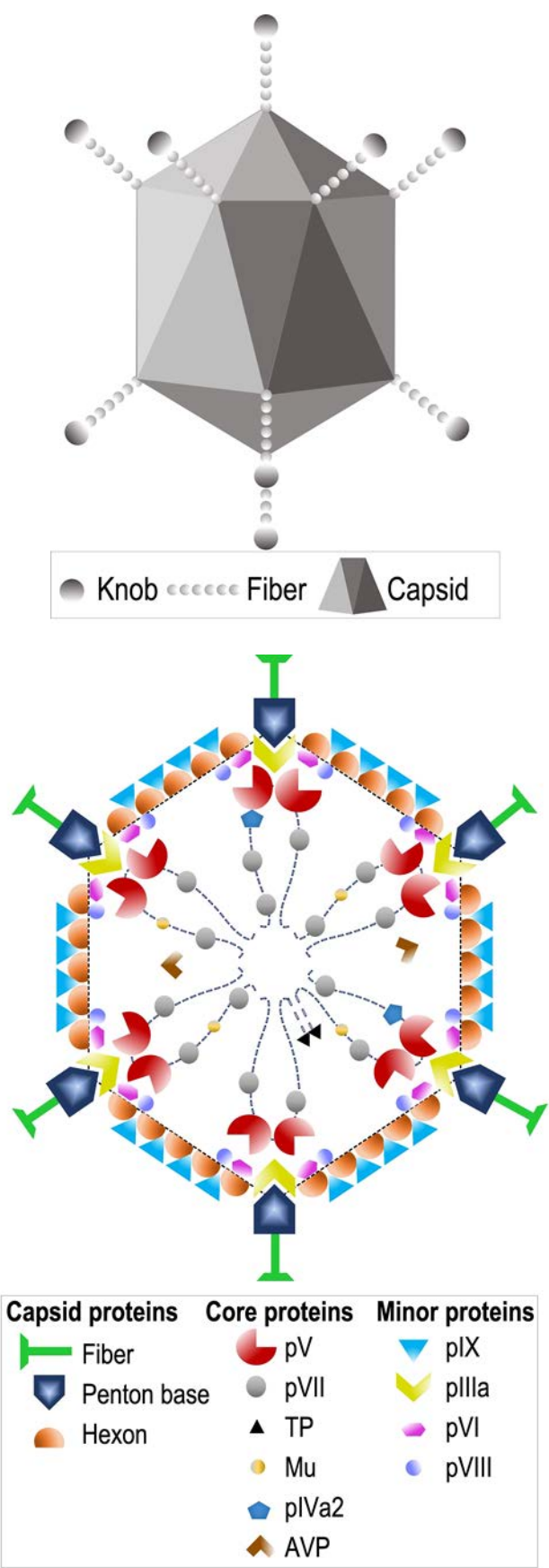


Figure 1. 1A. Adenovirus scheme. The HAdV structure is observed, with its major and minor proteins forming the icosahedral capsid. IX minor protein, located on the outer surface of the virion. III, VI, VIII are the minor proteins found inside the capsid. VI protein and the μ (core protein) within

the capsid. 1 B. HAdV-5 virion external schematic. 1 C. Schematic image of the DNA and protein structure within the viral capsid. (Benkő et al.) (33).

The adenoviral genome (Figure 2) includes four early genes (E1-E4) and five late genes (L1-L5) that are transcribed before and after viral DNA replication, respectively (38,39). Early genes encode proteins that activate transcription of other viral genes and mediate viral DNA replication, while late genes encode primarily viral structural proteins (38). The immediately early gene (E1A) is expressed for the first time after HAdV infection and is the most important transcriptional activator for subsequent viral gene expression, other early genes act in the synthesis of proteins responsible for blocking anti-apoptotic pathways such as E1B (E1BK19 protein). Late genes encode structural/capsid viral proteins (penton, hexon, and fiber) and core viral protein (eg, protein VII and protease). Finally, at both ends of the genome, there are inverted terminal repeats (ITR) of 145 bases in length, which flank two open reading frames (ORF), E1 and E4. The ITRs constitute the viral sequences required in cis for DNA replication and encapsidation (40).

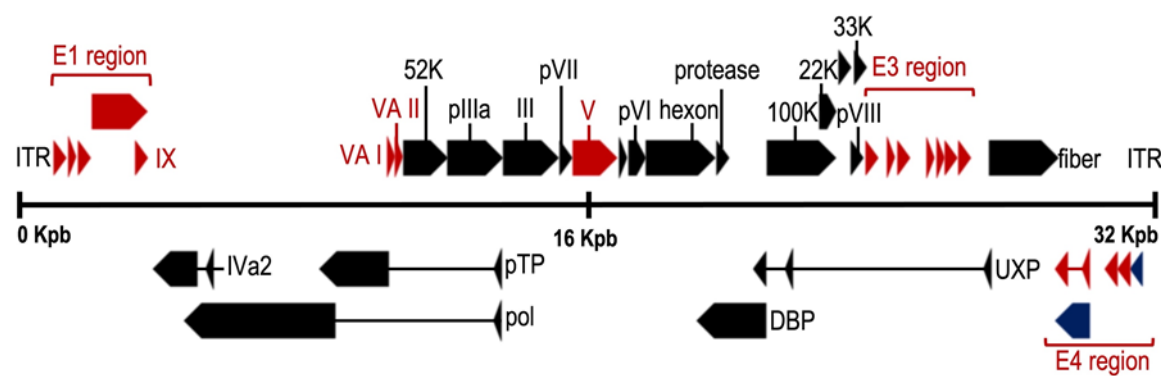


Figure 2. Genome organization of the mastadenovirus human adenovirus 5 (HAdV-5). Coloured arrows depict genes conserved in all genera (black), present in more than one genus (blue) or restricted to mastadenoviruses (red). Rectangles mark the inverted terminal repeats. (NCBI Reference Sequence: AC_000008.1) (33)

Regarding the replicative cycle, HAdV causes a lytic infection in epithelial cells, being the entry gate cells of the upper respiratory epithelium, such as tonsils and lymphoid tissue; at the same time, a cycle of latent infection in lymphoid cells of the gastrointestinal tract has been recognized (9,41,42)

This virus is transmitted by air through droplets, but also by aerosols (43,44), being transmission by sneezing or coughing the most frequently recognized; however, transmission by the fecal-oral route and/or direct contact with secretions has also been demonstrated. Its spread is recognized in the literature through local outbreaks (45) or closed communities as previously mentioned (16,25,26,46). It can also generate deadly cases in intra-hospital outbreaks, for which isolation in an individual room is required, with ventilation to the outside, use of contact precautions and additional precautions described by the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), to avoid contagion to other patients or healthcare workers (24,47,48,49). In addition, it is recommended not to isolate in a cohort with other HAdV cases due to the possibility of cross-contagion with other genotypes, including genetic recombination between them, as occurred with HAdV-D53, a recombinant of other HAdVs previously known to cause viral keratoconjunctivitis (9,50,51).

5. Microbiological diagnosis

The most frequent sample analyzed for the study of respiratory viruses is naso-oro-pharyngeal secretion obtained through swabbing or secretion aspiration. Before the H1N1pdm09 influenza virus pandemic (2009), the etiological diagnosis of respiratory viruses was made with desquamated cells from the upper airway by direct

immunofluorescence (IF). This technique uses specific antibodies against viral antigens of the HAdV species expressed in epithelial cells and marked with fluorescent dyes whose positivity is analyzed through fluorescence microscopy (52,53,54). Although this technique is still used in healthcare centers, many have begun to apply molecular biology techniques for its diagnosis, due to the low sensitivity of the direct immunofluorescence test in the clinical setting 41.7% (95% specificity) (55).

On the other hand, for some authors, the enzyme immunoassay (EIA) is the method of choice for the analysis of soluble adenovirus antigens in feces and respiratory secretions. These assays may be directed against a common hexon antigen, being capable of detecting any known adenovirus serotype, or simply a serotype-specific antigen. However, genotypic variants could not be diagnosed or classified by this technique. The value for specificity is 90-95% and sensitivity is 60-85% compared to the most complex and complete isolation techniques in cell culture (56,57). A method that combines EIA with lateral flow immunochromatography has recently appeared and seems to be more sensitive and specific, with results in 10 minutes (72% sensitivity and 100% specificity when compared to cell culture). Despite the good results, an argument against it is its high costs compared to other techniques. Currently, in some countries it is more convenient to perform real time-PCR on Multiplex Platforms for the Identification of Respiratory pathogens (multiplex-PCR). This is due to the fact that the respiratory syndromic study must also consider the diagnosis of influenza, parainfluenza, metapneumovirus, SARS-CoV-2, and RSV antigens, which increases total costs and decreases the opportunity for implementation. However, in situations of community, intra-hospital or indoor outbreaks, it would have a recommended use due to its easy implementation (56,57).

Viral isolation through the infection of cell culture is still considered the definitive technique (gold standard) to demonstrate the presence of adenovirus in certain samples due to its high specificity (100% according to some studies) (57). However, it is possible to obtain false negative results, due to the quality of the sample, the types of cell cultures used and the incubation time, all factors that influence the sensitivity of the technique. Classically, continuous cell lines derived from epithelial carcinomas such as HEp2, HeLa and KB have been used, with similar results. Primary human embryonic kidney cultures perform better but, in practice, they are not used, given the difficulty of having this type of cells continuously available. Viral reproduction and propagation are detected by the appearance of a cytopathic effect that is recognizable without the need to stain the culture. This consists of a cellular rounding with a notable increase in refringence and a certain tendency towards a fusion between the cells. However, the confirmatory diagnosis must be made using a complementary technique. Direct IF is usually performed with monoclonal antibodies directed against common HAdV antigens, but PCR with specific primers could also be performed. Due to the complexity and special requirements for performing cell cultures, viral isolation is a technique that is difficult to apply in hospital clinical diagnosis (56).

From 2015 onwards and particularly due to the implementation of more massively used techniques associated with the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, in Chile and worldwide, virological diagnosis was consolidated through nucleic acid amplification techniques (NAAT), prevailing over other techniques, the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was the most used during the pandemic. In the case of HAdV, there are various commercial tests available on the market, based on Multiplex-PCR. These methods allow the recognition of various viruses in a single microbiological study with results in a couple of hours and the evaluation of respiratory syndromic symptoms in critically ill patients in the emergency department and critical patient units (58,59,60). According to a study by Raty *et al.*, who compared different diagnostic techniques for HAdV the results obtained by PCR were much higher (94% sensitivity compared to culture as the gold standard) and comparatively superior to those of IF (46% sensitivity) and EIA (53% sensitivity), all compared with viral isolation (56,61). Currently, the use of these molecular techniques has become widespread in large public and private medical centers in Chile. However, the cost of its implementation generates objections in public hospital management due to the high cost,

around 100-150 dollars, so diagnostic algorithms with syndromic profiles should be developed in patients who may benefit from a study for respiratory pathogens (Multiplex-PCR) (62,63).

6. Application of HAdV Genotyping

HAdVs are classified into 7 species (A-G) as mentioned above. Within each species, HAdV are subclassified into serotypes and/or genotypes (64). The initial 51 serotypes were determined by neutralization assays or complement fixation assays, while genotypes 52 onwards have been described by bioinformatic analysis of whole genome sequences (64,65). In the same serotype, genomic variants could be discriminated by restriction enzyme assays (64,66) At present, the new classification is done through genotyping, known as typing or “viral typing”, using whole genome sequencing analysis. For typing purposes, the hexon gene is one of the most common targets to amplify and sequence, but fiber, penton base, and polymerase genes are also used (67,68).

Genomic variants had traditionally been detected by analyzing the electrophoretic patterns obtained after digestion with endonucleases. This methodology allowed to know and establish the genetic variability of the HAdV (69). Today, the use of PCR amplification and sequencing has made it possible to establish phylogenetic relationships with possibilities of application in diagnosis at the clinical level. However, with this methodology it is not possible to distinguish between recombinants (70). Various types of conventional or Realtime-PCR have been developed to establish genotypes. Some of them are genus-specific or species-specific and by subsequent sequencing, the specific genotype is established, usually directed to the hexon gene (71). Specific genotype assays have also been described for HAdV-1 and HAdV-2 (72,73). Other groups perform nested PCR with two pairs of amplification primers before sequencing the hexon gene (73,74). Quantitative Realtime-PCR have been developed for types 3, 4, 7, 14, and 21 (75) and 1, 2, 5, and 6 (76). Recently, Wu *et al.* described a molecular characterization based on three pairs of universal primers directed against hexon, penton base and fiber genes (viral capsid proteins), allowing typing within species B, C, D, E, F including recombinant viruses, which in recent years have been considered part of the evolution of HAdV (77). However, this methodological approach requires post-amplification sequencing to establish the viral type (74,77).

7. Viral type and disease association

Table 1 describes the association between HAdV types and reported diseases or infections. The most frequent types associated with pediatric respiratory infection are HAdV-1, HAdV-2, and HAdV-5 (species C) and types HAdV-3 and HAdV-7 (species B). The HAdV-4 type (species E) is also associated with respiratory infections, but mainly among military recruits, and in this group, HAdV-7 also appears. Noting that HAdV-4 occurs with low frequency in the general population (9,78,79) (Table 1).

Table 1. Infection and HAdV Type. HAdV in the reported literature, illness and severity.

Oncogenic potencial							
Species	Hemagglutination Groups	Types	Tumors in animals	Transformation in cell culture	% GC	Associated disease	Severe or deadly diseases (Reported)
HAdV-A	IV (little or none)	12,18,31	High	Positive	46-47	Cryptic enteric infection	Unknown
HAdV-B	I (Complete for monkey erythrocytes)	3,7,11,14,16,21,34,35,50	Moderate	Positive	49-51	Conjunctivitis, Acute respiratory disease, Hemorrhagic cystitis, Central nervous system	Type 3 and 7
HAdV-C	II (Partial for rat erythrocytes)	1,2,5,6	Low or none	Positive	55	Endemic infection, Respiratory symptoms	Type 5
HAdV-D	III (Complete for rat erythrocytes)	8,9,10,13,15,17,19,20,22-30,32,33,36-39,42-49,51,53,54	Low or none (Mammary tumors)	Positive	55-57	Keratoconjunctivitis in immunocompromised and AIDS patients	Unknown

HAdV-E	III	4	Low or none	Positive	58	Conjunctivitis, Acute respiratory disease	Unknown
HAdV-F	III	40,41	Unknown	Negative	51	Infantile diarrhea	Unknown
HAdV-G	Unknown	52	Unknown	Unknown	55	Gastroenteritis	Unknown

(Source: LF Avendaño. (9).

In the adult population, HAdVs that have been associated with disease in humans include species C (HAdV-1, HAdV-2, and HAdV-5), species B (HAdV-3 and HAdV-7), species E (HAdV-4) and the F species (HAdV-41) predominantly in gastrointestinal pathology (80,81,82).

After primary infection, species C genotypes can establish latent infections and are capable of long-term persistence in lymphoid cells (83,84). Therefore, asymptomatic people can shed infectious virus in the stool for many years (14,82).

8. HAdV genetic variability

In recent years, new HAdV genotypes have been discovered as in birds (85,86). It has been previously demonstrated that adenovirus has a higher mutation rate than another dsDNA (87). HAdVs have an unstable genome and are subject to genetic variations, being able to have mutations by insertion, substitution, or deletion of nucleotides; in addition, HAdVs can also undergo genomic recombination processes, first described during the 1970s and 1980s, between different viral strains in the same individual (82,88,89,90). These findings were confirmed by Dhingra *et al.*, who demonstrated that multiple recombination events between E1 and E4 gene regions were possible, as part of the evolutionary process of HAdV-C (91). Other authors have similarly described this recombination for HAdV-16, currently poorly characterized, but it was shown recombination events with HAdV-4 type and some simian adenoviruses (92).

In 2008, Lukashev's laboratory described that part of the phylogenetic evolution of HAdV is due to recombination between strains in the same individual (93). They even postulated an association between the severity of the infection and the recombination between HAdV strains. Lukashev proposed that recombination processes between capsid genes (penton, hexon, fiber) could alter cell tropism. The E3 protein involved in the host's immune control, could be related to events associated with more serious infections. Many of the new genotypes described in the last decade exhibit heterotypic penton base, hexon, and fiber genes, presenting intermediate seroneutralization phenotypes (Table 2) (94). In 2019, a study in China postulated that certain recombinant HAdV strains could explain why some patients had more severe respiratory symptoms (95). It appears that the new recombinants would have synergistic mutations. Since the original HAdV strains were not particularly virulent, but after recombination, the novel adenoviruses would have been associated with more severe symptoms, as described for a case of severe pneumonia in a pediatric patient in 2016 (36,93,96). To date, only a few studies have succeeded in linking factors or molecular characteristics that make it possible to define a greater virulence of this pathogen, or that relate the viral tropism of some HAdV genotypes with parenchyma (9,64). It has also been sought to find an association with severity in the symptoms. Therefore, it would be important to evaluate in the future the role of these recombinant HAdVs associated with severity in symptomatology and which molecular factors could influence increased virulence, which will be discussed later (9,64).

Table 2. Genbank accession number to recombinant genotypes recently described in the literature. Year of publication, origin of the recombinant gene for penton base, hexon and fiber. (Source: Human Adenovirus working group) (98)

HAdV Genotype	Name	Accession #	Year (Publication)	Penton base	Hexon	Fiber
HAdV-B55	P14H11F14/2006/CHN	FJ643676	2009	14	11	14
HAdV-B66	P66H7F3/1987/ARG	JN860676	2012	66	7	3
HAdV-B68	P16H3F16/2004/ARG	JN860678	2011	16	3	16
HAdV-B77	P35H34F7/1985/DEU	KF268328	2013	35	34	7
HAdV-B78	P11H11F7/2013/USA	KT970441	2016	11	11	7
HAdV-C89	P89H2F2/2015/DEU	MH121097	2019	89	2	2

HAdV-C104	P1H1F2/2017/CHN	MH558113	2021	1	1	2
HAdV-C108	P1H2F2	N/A	2014	1	2	2

In 2018, Cheng et al analyzed an isolate of HAdV-55, a recombinant resulting from HAdV-B11 with renal tropism and HAdV-14 with upper airway tropism, which has been present in outbreaks of severe pneumonia in the pediatric population in China since 2006 (97). Table 2 shows viral types identified since 2009, these HAdVs have emerged based on recombination of previously reported viral types. In Table 2, we have described the percentage similarity between HAdV-55 proteins compared to other human HAdV proteins. All these HAdVs had been described in the literature as causal agents of pathologies. We observed the similarity with HAdV-14, except for the hexon genes, which are highly like HAdV-11, which would confirm the existence of recombination between them (Table 2 and 3) (98). Unfortunately, because of these findings, it is not feasible to carry out the identification at the level of the viral type using specific primers only for the hexon gene, since the discovery of new recombinants could not be observed. Therefore, it is recommended to evaluate the viral type by detecting the penton, hexon and fiber genes (97).

Table 3. Percent amino acid sequence identity of recombinant HAdV-55 proteins compared to other circulating human Adenovirus species B. (Adapted from Zetao Cheng *et al*) (97)

Protein	E1A 29.1 kDa	E1B 20 kDa	E2B DNA poly- merase	L1 pIIIa	L2 Penton base	L3 Hexon	E2A DBP	L4 pVIII	E3 11.7 kDa	L5 Fiber	E4 ORF 6
HAdV-B35	95.8	98.3	93.2	99.5	98.6	94.4	62.9	99.1	99.1	62.1	97.7
HAdV-B34	97.7	99.4	98.7	99.3	95.3	91.3	99.4	99.1	98.1	62.2	97.7
HAdV-B14	97.7	100.0	99.7	99.8	99.5	92.2	99.8	99.6	99.1	99.1	99.3
HAdV-B11	96.6	98.3	93.0	99.3	98.4	98.4	99.2	99.1	98.1	92.3	98.0
HAdV-B7	79.4	87.8	89.9	92.7	85.3	86.6	82.6	94.3	90.6	91.1	96.7
HAdV-B3	79.0	87.2	89.9	93.0	85.5	86.3	83.8	94.3	89.6	56.7	97.3

9. Association of genotypes (Types), infected tissues and severity of the infection

For this review, we have not found multicenter studies with a considerable number of cases that have evaluated genotypes of the virus associated with severe disease. There are also no evaluations of large populations with surveillance of HAdV genotypes associated with heightened virulence or with description of more severe symptoms (requirement of intensive care or use of mechanical ventilation). Despite the above, we found few studies that have shown an association between certain genotypes and infectious diseases. One of the first reports was in 2016 in China, at the Zhujiang hospital, HAdV-7 caused a longer duration of fever, greater tachypnea, dyspnea, pleural effusion, diarrhea, hepatosplenomegaly, altered states of consciousness, as well as higher rates of pneumonia, mechanical ventilation, and higher mortality rate (28.6%) than other types such as HAdV-2 and HAdV-3 (99). In 2021, a study in Turkey evaluated respiratory samples through nasopharyngeal swabs received by a national reference center (Public Health Institute of Turkey), finding an association with HAdV-F in two cases with respiratory symptoms. Previously, only F-species adenoviruses had been described in pathologies associated with intestinal tissue. HAdV species B, C, D and F were found in the overall result, with a predominance of species C. Moreover, a high percentage of lower respiratory samples with HAdV-B7 was detected, a re-emerging pathogen in that country (100). In 2019, the diagnosis by RT-qPCR carried out on nasopharyngeal aspirates samples from a pediatric hospital in China, found 5.64% of HAdV in children under 6 years old, with symptoms suggestive of pneumonia in 86.11%. of the cases, without predominance of one species over others. In this study, the most frequent pneumonia genotypes were types 2, 3, and 7. The relationship to severe disease was not analyzed with any of the genotypes described (101). Among the few studies that have highlighted the association of genotypes and disease severity, it was found that HAdV-B3 has been identified as the pathogen causing

outbreaks of severe acute respiratory diseases in Korea (102), Brazil (103) and Taiwan (104).

10. Relevant characteristics of the HAdV genome

With the use of the whole genome sequencing (WGS) technique the viruses have been studied at the molecular level more frequently, evaluating the possible impact of proteins associated with cell tropism or disease severity (80, 105, 106). WGS makes it possible to carry out a phylogenetic analysis to recognize outbreaks in progress, especially in hemato-oncology patient units or rooms for immunosuppressed patients, to take corrective measures in health institutions (107). With this methodology, researchers have been able to study the HAdVs detected in outbreaks associated with health care, and the epidemiological links between hospital or in special facilities (shelters, prisons, orphanages) (16, 106).

Despite the extensive development of WGS in HAdV, few proteins have been associated with severe disease. As well as, the immune regulation proteins associated with the E3 region, which codes for 6 to 9 proteins depending on the HAdV species, with different roles within the regulation of the immune response, such as downregulation of MHC I or sequestration of immune system proteins among others (108,109,110)

Within human adenoviruses, particular proteins have been studied in HAdV-19 in search of a role in viral pathogenesis. This viral type induces the production of certain proteins. Windheim et al reported a unique resistance system, HAdV-19 encodes a protein secreted by infected cells (sec49K), which selectively blocks the CD45 protein, one of the key regulatory molecules of leukocytes, a member of the receptor protein family tyrosine phosphatase (RPTP) (111).

11. Social determinants of health and their impact on HAdV

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines Social Determinants of Health (SDOH) as the circumstances under which people are born, grow, work, live and age, including the broader set of forces and systems that influence the lives of people (112,113). These conditions can be very different for different groups in a population and can lead to differences in health outcomes (10). Although the SDOH were considered for chronic pathologies such as T2DM, obesity and high blood pressure (HBP) with SARS-CoV-2, a preponderant role was noted in the different state policies, observing that the SDOH influenced infections (10,114). In Stockholm, Sweden the SARS-CoV-2 infection rate was 3 to 4 times higher in some socioeconomically disadvantaged residential areas compared to the country average (115).

The social and economic consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic affected the entire world population, but the socioeconomic groups with the fewest resources were particularly affected, who had more deleterious consequences as a result of infections in family outbreaks (116,117). As a result of mobility restrictions, quarantines, and the perception of population risk, there was an increase in unemployment, particularly in jobs without a contract and in jobs performed by undocumented migrants, who also have more complex access to healthcare facilities (116,117,118). Despite the fact that several countries have provided financial aid to reduce the basic needs of the population, their effective support has been questioned. A study carried out with data from New Zealand, found that the subsidies only prevented 6.5% of unemployment, with a heterogeneity in the statistics, since in the young adult population it could save 17.2% of the jobs in the pandemic period, on the other hand, in the population over 50 years old, it was only able to protect 2.6% of jobs (119). The risk of unemployment is higher among those who have atypical and precarious working conditions. The negative impact of unemployment on people's health is well known and includes mental health disorders, increased alcohol and substance abuse, and family violence (domestic abuse) (120).

Overcrowding has been considered a promoter and disseminator of respiratory viruses, including HAdV (121,122,123). HAdV has been recognized as a predominantly

asymptomatic infection-producing virus. After primary infection, HAdV-C DNA can persist in a latent state in lymphoid cells, being excreted intermittently in feces for many years in immunosuppressed individuals despite being asymptomatic. Therefore, in overcrowded populations, the risk of generating outbreaks increases, especially in areas without basic environmental sanitation (non-drinking water, electricity, refrigeration) (91,124,125).

It is important to know the population at risk of acquiring HAdV, since it is generally associated with SDOH. Infants, preschoolers, older adults, and immunocompromised individuals are more likely to become infected and develop severe pneumonia (126,127). Infants and preschoolers spend a lot of time in daycare centers, where outbreaks can occur due to the production of droplets and aerosols with respiratory viruses among infants, in a group where control and the use of face masks are difficult (128,129). In older adults, particularly in nursing homes, the same context can occur, generating intradomiciliary outbreaks, which can cause severe sequelae and death in these centers (130).

One of the elements that make it possible to reduce the gaps in health inequity (131) is universal access to vaccines (132,133). In this case, there are live attenuated adenovirus vaccines for oral use, developed for HAdV-4 and HAdV-7, however, they are only available for military use in some countries. Moreover, the FDA authorized it for exclusive Military use in the US since 1980 (134,135). In COVID-19, various articles have commented on inequity in access to vaccines, another social determinant in health that generates an imbalance between countries with high purchasing power and countries with lower Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The number of injected doses per population was 69 times higher in developed countries than in developing countries (136,137).

If an eventual HAdV pandemic is to be prevented, it would be advisable to reconsider access to a vaccine that is already available and with proven efficiency (138). In the 2000s, there was a suspension in vaccine production due to lack of government support in the US, however, a study by Gray *et al.* predicted that the loss of the adenovirus vaccine would be responsible for 10,650 preventable infections, 4,260 medical evaluations and 852 hospitalizations among the approximately 213,000 U.S. Army, Navy, and Marine Corps active duty and reserve recruits enrolled each year (139). Therefore, in the second decade of the 21st century, vaccination was reincorporated, this time for HAdV-4 and HAdV-7, this was authorized by the FDA for military personnel between 17 and 50 years of age. This measure made it possible to considerably reduce outbreaks in military recruits (140). It is expected that in the future there will be vaccines available in the general population, given that multiple studies are developing inactivated vaccines or protein portions with demonstrated antigenicity (141,142,143,144). These vaccines could reduce these already highlighted inequality gaps and eliminate some of the social determinants associated with vaccination. Therefore, universal access to those already available could be rethought, or at least in previously exposed risk groups (preschoolers, older adults, and immunosuppressed people) (143,144).

12. Treatment

HAdV is recognized as a self-limiting pathology in infants, children, and adults, with few episodes associated with mortality (9). However, there are recognized groups where the symptoms can evolve to severe pneumonia with requirements for critical care units, ventilatory support, and even death of patients (16,26,45). That is why various drugs have been studied to be used in the treatment of HAdV. Currently, the use of drugs remains controversial since there are no randomized prospective therapeutic trials in the medical literature (134).

Cidofovir (CDV) is a cytosine nucleotide analog that inhibits DNA polymerase, it has the highest in vitro activity against HAdV among currently available antiviral agents and it is the currently preferred therapeutic agent (134,145,146,147). Only available intravenously (134). Regimens (dose, frequency, and period) are variable. Standard doses include 5 mg/kg every 1 or 2 weeks or 1 mg/kg twice a week, both in the pediatric and in the adult

population. Its use is recommended in immunosuppressed patients with solid organ transplantation and hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, who have infected with HAdV. In immunocompetent patients who require critical care units, particularly mechanical ventilation and extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) could be used (134,147,148,149).

On the clinicaltrials.gov platform, which we reviewed on October 10th, 2022, when we searched with the terms “HadV” and “Treatment”, 212 research protocols were found, only eighteen have been finalized with results available for evaluation. Three were adenovirus as a vaccine model for the Marburg Virus and Ebola, one for HIV. Only three studies on the platform refer to HadV treatment itself. In these three studies, they used Brincidofovir drug (BCV) (Phase II study) (150).

BCV is a new antiviral agent in early clinical trials, initially created to protect smallpox virus mutants as a bioterrorism agent (151). CDV was its origin molecule, but due to its recognized nephrotoxicity, scientists decided to generate a prodrug with fewer side effects. In addition, it was observed that BCV was between 25 to 150 times more effective against smallpox (152). During its development, it was observed that it had a potent activity against other double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) viruses, particularly against HAdV (153).

BCV is a lipid conjugate, that covalently binds to CDV, mimicking lysophosphatidylcholine, which is capable of using the natural pathway of lysophosphatidylcholine uptake in the small bowel (153). BCV is a prodrug that can be used orally but, unlike typical prodrugs, remains within infected target cells. Once at the destination site, BCV is converted to CDV after cleavage of its lipid moiety, then CDV undergoes phosphorylation via the intracellular kinase pathway to form active cidofovir diphosphate (CDV-pp). CDV-pp can function as a competitive inhibitor of DNA polymerase. This drug decreases DNA synthesis, thus generating early termination of nucleotide chain elongation (154,155).

One of the phase III studies evaluated 60-day all-cause mortality in hematopoietic cell transplant recipients treated with BCV with disseminated human adenovirus (156). Results are not yet published, but interim reports showed that in 66% of HAdV-positive patients, post-brincidofovir treatment, no viral genome was detected in plasma, urine, feces, or respiratory secretions in the majority of cases. Mortality was 37% at day 75 of follow-up, compared to a previously reported 50-80% mortality with other treatments such as cidofovir or without medical treatment (157). It is expected that the next few months will provide information on the other Phase III studies of this drug and its use in HAdV and other dsDNA viruses.

13. HAdV as a SARS-CoV-2 prevention strategy

HAdV have been used as viral vectors that produce antigenic proteins within host cells, potentially being a safe platform for the development of vaccines for multiple pathogens, for example: HIV (158,159,160), Zika virus (161), *Plasmodium falciparum* (malaria) (162), SARS-CoV-2 (163,164,165,166,167). The first antecedents were described in the mid-1990s. One of these articles was carried out by de Imler *et al.* demonstrating how the virus can express heterologous proteins in vitro, allowing the formation of recombinant viruses with high immunogenic power, these viruses are capable of expressing a wide variety of antigens (168). In 1995, Juillard *et al.* demonstrated that recombinant adenovirus vaccines with defective replication, that is, unable to produce a protein with a quaternary structure, therefore they do not generate assembly and production of new virions, had the capacity to induce a humoral response even after 6 months of administration with a single dose (169). In this type of recombinant model, an AdV (both human and simian) was used, this AdV was incompetent to replicate in the host, which carries one or more genes of the antigenic proteins that are to be expressed, for example SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. In this case, the recombinant virus is inoculated into specific cell cultures, so that during their replication they can express the protein on the viral surface. (170,171,172). HAdV must

have the ability to interact with the host's immune cells, allowing an antigen-antibody interaction to develop an effective cellular and humoral immune response (172).

The advances in the development of this model described in the early 1990s, allowed some primary evaluations to be made in animal models in 2008 to combat eventual SARS-CoV epidemic outbreaks. This virus had caused an epidemic in the Asian continent in previous years, with hundreds of deaths (2003) (173,174). This study also compared the humoral immune response through inoculation of recombinant HAdV in intranasal versus intramuscular mouse vaccine models (174). In 2012, the first tests of recombinant adenovirus vaccines with SARS-CoV were carried out. Byoung-Shik and his collaborators were pioneers in the development of an adenoviral vector that was shown to generate an immune response in mice, with an eventual protective effect through the measurement of plasmatic levels of antibodies against the SARS-CoV variants described. (175). Indubitably, these investigations allowed important scientific advances, allowing the development of vaccines for MERS-CoV (176) and Ebolavirus (177). The safety profile of recombinant AdV vaccines has been demonstrated in a variety of clinical trials with different viral models (163,164,174,175,176,177,178).

These investigations allowed us to have basic knowledge, which explains that in a short period of time, new researchers were able to implement clinical studies on recombinant adenoviral vaccines against SARS-CoV-2. Countries like Russia (179), England (180), USA (181), China (182) developed their own models using different adenoviruses, both human and simian in their development (171). Vaccine studies for the prevention of COVID-19, using an AdV vector, proved to be a safe model, with few adverse events. Various studies reported adverse events such as pain at the injection site, fatigue, and fever during the first 24 hours; these symptoms were reported even less frequently in adults older than 55 years. Therefore, this demonstrated that these vaccines were safe to implement as a pharmacological model of pandemic control. A vaccine model with 25 years of research (168,183,184).

14. Strategies for the prevention of HAdV

Effective control of infectious disease outbreaks is an important public health goal (185). Without a doubt, the first strategy that a scientific team would like to develop to control a pandemic is the complete eradication of this virus. For this, wild reservoirs (zoonosis) should be considered. Without its eradication, no vaccine for human use would have an impact on viral elimination. Unfortunately, primary prevention through mass vaccination to eradicate viruses such as HAdV, influenza or SARS-CoV-2 is currently unfeasible. However, there are multiple strategies that allow control and eventually stop the spread of respiratory viruses. In 2007, Handel *et al.* proposed the necessary strategies for the control of new pandemics, using the SARS-CoV model (185). They suggest that it is necessary to focus on different intervention measures, such as travel restrictions, school closures, early treatment of symptomatic cases, isolation and quarantine of positive cases and their exposed contacts, pharmacological prophylaxis for exposed patients in case of availability of drugs that decrease virus spread. Theoretically, these measures could allow us to control disease outbreaks, such as SARS, pandemic influenza, and other viral diseases (185). Aledort *et al.* conducted a review of the evidence for the control of pandemic influenza through non-pharmaceutical measures. They analyzed more than 2,556 scientific articles available on search engines (186). In that review, the authors stated that it would not be convenient to base preventive strategies only on mass vaccination of the population or antiviral drugs in prophylactic therapy, since these drugs would be limited in their access, since mass production by the pharmaceutical industry is not feasible. Therefore, nations with greater purchasing power would monopolize the bid for these drugs. Accordingly, the focus of nations should be to promote control in non-pharmacological measures, such as preventive isolation of cases, quarantine of close contacts, education in the proper use of the mask (187), hand hygiene and Respiratory Hygiene/ Cough Etiquette (188,189). Limitations on Human Mobility and the movement of people between

cities, countries, or continents. The use of a mask on planes, ships and other means of transport that make long journeys. Understanding that these non-pharmacological measures have economic implications that must be evaluated. During the pandemic, there were countries with restrictions on the entry of tourists for a long pandemic period, such as China and New Zealand. In the case of China, it continued with the zero COVID strategy until mid-2022. It is estimated that up to 1 million deaths could be avoided with this strategy of restriction, quarantine, and travel limitation. The advantages of this strategy were the reduced number of deaths (2 cases from May 15th 2020 to February 15th 2022). A better balance in the distribution of resources between COVID-19 and other diseases, a better balance between COVID-19 and other economic problems (190). Disadvantages such as deterioration in mental health, distance in social relationships, decrease in face-to-face school activities, limitation of travel outside the territory of residence (190). But in countries whose main economic source is tourism, such as the Dominican Republic, they were forced to eliminate mobility restrictions early. In February 2022, all restrictions on the entry of tourists into the country were lifted, to maintain the entry of foreign currency. Tourism is one of the main sources of income for the resident population (186,191). Unfortunately, Aledort *et al* did not find strong evidence for specific non-pharmacological measures. However, some measures did have an impact in reducing epidemic outbreaks; hand washing, cough etiquette (192), case investigation and contact tracing, isolation of patients (193) and rapid viral diagnosis at point of care (194,195). In 2007, this group already recommended the use of masks in symptomatic patients and healthcare workers (186,196,197).

According to the review by Aledort *et al* (2007), it was interesting to observe that within their recommendations they explicitly suggested not limiting physical distancing, because of the inconclusive information obtained in the reviewed articles. They suggest that the cross-evidence was limited and contradictory. Despite the propensity of influenza epidemics to spread in elementary schools, data on the effectiveness of school closures in reducing community transmission in the reviewed literature were conflicting (198,199). This information can currently be refuted with more than 15,000 articles that have evaluated physical distancing in some way in the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic (200). Glogowsky *et al* studied the effect of physical distancing in Germany during COVID-19. They demonstrated that because of physical distancing there was a decrease in 84% of the cases compared to what was expected with mathematical modeling. Similar results were obtained with the decrease in deaths by 66%. These data were confirmed by various subsequent studies (201,202,203,204).

In 2006, Gostin *et al* studied community restraint measures. They recommended evaluating the restrictions according to the evolution of community infections. At the same time, the restrictions can only be used for limited times, to avoid discontent among the population (205,206). Unlike what was documented in the SARS-CoV-2 studies. The states put sanitary measures above individual liberties. The world authorities assumed this risk, to avoid a total health crisis and the collapse of health systems (204,207,208). According to the literature evaluated in 2007, experts argued that generalized detection of travelers would be impractical and inefficient, as long as it is not feasible to detect asymptomatic excretion from infected patients (186). However, 13 years later, the measure was implemented in various airports around the world. Delimited quarantines, study through Realtime-PCR or study of SARS-CoV-2 viral antigen were indicated. Scientific groups positively evaluated these measures. They described them as having a high epidemiological impact for controlling the entry of infected cases to the various countries. For example, in Toronto, all passengers over the age of 18 coming from abroad were tested. This group detected up to 2/3 of the cases that became symptomatic for COVID-19 within 14 days (209,210). Other studies have shown that free tests against COVID-19 massed at airports decreased public spending on health, since they cut the infection chain upon entry to countries (209,210,211).

In summary, after two pandemics in the last 15 years (Influenza H1N1 pdm09 and SARS-CoV-2), we can see that non-pharmacological measures are essential to control the

situation in periods of maximum stress in the health system. However, there is insufficient scientific evidence to ensure which are the appropriate measures. While scientists have not reached a consensus on non-pharmacological measures, the opinion of experts and the WHO guidelines will be the alternative to follow. Among these measures, the most efficient demonstrated are: 1) Hand washing; 2) respiratory protection (cough etiquette and use of a mask); 3) critical analysis of the scientific literature. In 15 years, a change in scientific judgment of non-pharmacological measures has been observed, from not limiting travel, to active border surveillance, with shortened isolation in travelers, massive studies with molecular tests for the detection of respiratory viruses. Use the new technologies available to trace population movement through GPS, mobile networks such as 5G technology, including applications for self-reporting of symptoms in travelers (186,208,212).

15. Why is genomic surveillance of HAdV important? Establishment of SARS-CoV-2 Genomic Surveillance

Genomic surveillance overview

In 1952, the World Influenza Surveillance Network was created, an initiative created by the WHO (213). Since the 1990s, systematic surveillance of various respiratory viruses has been described in several countries. In 1992, Germany set up its first routine influenza surveillance network. Initially the samples were cultured in the Clinical Reference Laboratory for diagnostic confirmation (214). In 2002, the virus search was through Realtime-PCR for influenza virus (215). In parallel, the interconnected computer surveillance directed by the WHO emerged in 1998. An interconnected network of centers that centralized their data through the Internet. This network allowed the detection of outbreaks in 54 centers affiliated to the software around the world (216). From 2006 to 2009, the scientists observed that the pattern of annual cases was increasing and was not the characteristic profile of the southern hemisphere. In China, it was observed that there were two peak cases (2006, 2009). Influenza had an unusual behavior in the population. This surveillance network observed this event and alerted the WHO authorities. It was observed that in the surveillance period there was initially an increase in cases of influenza in South-east Asia before the spread before in other regions of the world (217).

Every time a new variant of SARS-CoV-2 emerges, it is cause for concern. The scientific community tries to understand the virological characteristics. Is this variant less or more transmissible than the original virus? Can this variant evade the immune response? Does this variant cause new symptoms? Which patients will be the most affected? Which immunocompromised people are at higher risk for severe COVID-19? For scientists to be able to answer these questions, we need to recognize the sequencing of the variants in order to carry out genetic studies and identify the modifications in the genome that can produce these alterations. Therefore, it is essential that worldwide surveillance of respiratory viruses continue, ideally WGS should be carried out, so that genome modifications can be recognized that can be associated with greater viral pathogenicity, generating alterations to the immune response in the population. This technique is proving to be important for understanding transmission patterns and potential host-virus interactions. These analyzes cannot be performed with the diagnostic technique of Realtime-PCR or CRISPR (218,219).

Surveillance in HAdV

In the case of HAdV, there are few reports on global surveillance in humans. Since 2003, the US CDC systematically initiated HAdV surveillance. During the first years, surveillance was carried out with cell culture and serotyping, currently using molecular methods. The arguments for carrying out surveillance are several: 1. Determine patterns of circulation for individual HAdV types in the US; 2. Recognize outbreaks associated with circulating ADVH types; 3. Guide the development of new diagnostic tests, therapies, and vaccines (220). In the United States there are two institutions that complement

this surveillance. The first institution led by the US Department of Defense (DoD), the Global Emerging Infection Surveillance and Response System (GEIS). Network established in 1997 as part of the Armed Forces Health Surveillance Branch (AFHSB) to conduct laboratory surveillance of respiratory diseases among military populations. The second institution is also part of the CDC, but with a passive surveillance system that collects data from different virological diagnostic centers in the US. Its objective is to carry out temporal and geographical surveillance of different respiratory viruses (221).

HAdV Surveillance in Wastewater

Viral surveillance in wastewater allows the evaluation of viral behavior in certain populations. The objective is to evaluate the population load of pathogens in the water, studying genetic material from the sewage system (home, hospital, and industrial water). A study in Taiwan demonstrated the increase of HAdV genetic material in wastewater, also evaluated samples obtained in seamarkets near the Sewage treatment (oysters and bivalve shellfish) (222). SARS-CoV-2 surveillance in wastewater has proven to be a sensitive tool for studying spatial and temporal trends in virus circulation in the population (223,224). Through metagenomics, the circulating virome and the behavior of different respiratory and enteric viruses and even circulating zoonotic viruses in large cities around the world were studied (225,226).

Surveillance and Monitoring of Zoonoses

Given the background information on genomic surveillance, research institutions and governments should consider virus surveillance in the animal kingdom a priority. In this way, the appearance of new pandemic viruses or the resurgence of old acquaintances could be recognized early. Constant evaluation of circulating zoonotic viruses is required (213). The ECDC has been conducting avian influenza surveillance for several years, publishing reports three times a year. In the last report published in September 2022, an unusual increase in cases of highly pathogenic avian influenza is reported. 47.7 million birds were culled, with a total of 2,467 reported outbreaks. In addition, two A(H5N6), two A(H9N2) and one A(H10N3) human infections were documented in China. The risk of infection is assessed as low for the general population and low to medium for persons occupationally exposed to poultry (227). Birds are also being monitored for avian adenovirus (AdVA). In poultry, AdVA has fatal consequences, which can cause productive loss in poultry companies (228,229).

With the background exposed in the reviewed literature. Mainly studies related to influenza and SARS-CoV-2 surveillance, both public and private surveillance initiatives, is that it should be considered necessary to increase the search and sequencing of other viruses of human importance. At the same time, in the case of zoonotic viruses, animal reservoirs should be included in the study to recognize eventual pandemic events early (230,231,232).

16. Future projections of HAdV study in the 21st century

The SARS-CoV-2 Pandemic made it possible to study a Multidisciplinary Approach virus. With this virus it was possible to analyze in real time the necessary requirements to avoid a disaster in the collapsed health system in developing countries (233). In 2015, Murthy et al. exposed the deficit of ICU beds in low-income countries. These countries had an average of 8 critical beds per hospital (1.5%) (234). In 2022, the deficit of critical beds persists, and the decreased doctor-nurse-patient ratio is added in many of them (235). Strengthening multisectoral engagement for health security was corroborated with the COVID-19 pandemic. At least the joint work of scientists, academics, health institutions, health personnel, the pharmaceutical industry, international organizations, and government institutions together is required. WHO organized itself in a multisectoral way with its One Health initiative for the study and management of antimicrobials (236,237). Universal access to vaccines, variations in surveillance systems, virological diagnostic tests,

and a combination of measures to protect vulnerable groups have managed to keep the number of SARS-CoV-2 cases at an affordable level for hospitals and health institutions. The effect of these policies allowed a decrease in the circulation of other respiratory viruses in the first months of the pandemic, reducing the overload of health systems (218,238,239,240).

To avoid a HAdV pandemic, all the groups described above are required to act together, using the tools acquired by the recent COVID-19 pandemic. The development of vaccines, genomic surveillance in sentinel centers, web pages with scientific dissemination in real time, free access to genomic sequences and multisectoral coordination, to recognize early unusual increase in cases of infection that could be important for human health and zoonosis control (123,218).

→*Universal vaccination for SARS-CoV-2 with recombinant vaccines. What will be the effect on circulating AdVH in the community?*

The use of the vaccine in the military was previously described (241). During the period in which HAdV vaccination was suspended, there was an unusual increase in cases, including fatal outbreaks in some US military units (139). Several studies suggest that the use of HAdV-vectored vaccines may have little role in protective immunity, due to earlier recognition of immunity from constant lifetime exposure to these viruses (242). In HIV vaccine studies, a risk situation was observed. In preliminary studies, there was an increased risk of acquiring HIV in the population vaccinated with HAdV-5/HIV vectored vaccines, apparently due to previous immunity against adenovirus (243). In studies of Ebola and Influenza, they observed that using high doses of HAdV-5 viral particles, an adequate immune response was generated despite the pre-existence of antibodies in patients previously exposed to wild type HAdV-5 (244). These data are very interesting for the study of HAdV. Since they demonstrated that previous immunity to the virus would not influence the use of HAdV as a vector for other viral proteins (245). Could it be that the use of vectored vaccines for SARS-CoV-2 indirectly increases protection against HAdV? Or will new types simply be selected that have no antigenic response against the vaccines? To date, there are no studies that have evaluated changes in the circulation of viral types in recent years after the massive use of HAdV as a vaccine vector for other viruses (123). This question can only be resolved with the massive use of HAdV vector vaccines. One of the safeguards in the research will be to evaluate the cross-protection that these vaccines could provide against HAdV-5 and eventually other viral types associated with species C. This could generate changes in the circulation of viral types that are not previously recognized by the immune system, generating selective pressure for new circulating viral types. By decreasing the viral load of the HAdV-5 population, a type of HAdV with global circulation and high seroprevalence in adult patients (73%) (244,245). This could create new recombinants in previously vaccinated immunosuppressed patients (246), who, by presenting concomitant exposures of different adenoviral types, could potentially generate more aggressive recombinants. If the environmental and host conditions are adequate, recombinant pandemic precursor strains could be generated. For this reason, the future analysis will be to evaluate the epidemiological modifications in the circulation of HAdV in populations with frequent use of vector vaccines. We observed that current adenoviral vectors suppress the E1A and E1B genes, key proteins for effective viral replication. However, HAdV maintain the rest of the genetic machinery, therefore, they have the capacity to synthesize their capsid and HAdV antigenic proteins. That is, the antigens will be recognized by the immune system as HAdV proteins and therefore, a subsequent immune response will be generated. We will only know the final effect with mass vaccination with adenoviral vectors and population immune response analysis (serology) through measurement of neutralizing antibodies against HAdV-5 (171). In the process of evaluating next-generation adenoviral vector vaccines, modifications to the viral capsid proteins are being reviewed, including alterations in structural proteins to

evade immunological recognition of HAdV antigens and allow the antigenic proteins of the recombinant virus to modulate the immune response (247,248).

→ *HAdV as a Vector for Other Vaccine Models*

As previously explained in this article, the AdV model as a recombinant vector vaccine has been tested in multiple virus models at different stages of production. The maximum development of these recombinant vectors was achieved with COVID-19, where the vaccines have been approved by the FDA for use in pandemics (249). This successful model of recombinant vector vaccines could be quickly implemented if necessary, in new viral pandemics. However, its use in gene therapy for cancer treatment has also been evaluated. In the case of gene therapy, the virus could express certain antigens to be subsequently recognized by immune cells, similar to the mechanism used as a recombinant virus (250). The success of vaccination with SARS-CoV-2 proposes this platform as a safe vaccine, a vaccine tested on a massive scale and with a recognized immune response against it (250,251). Another novel investigation presents the development of vaccines for Influenza, with a recombinant HAdV-4 in a capsule for oral use. This vaccine in initial studies demonstrated circulation of neutralizing antibodies in the study subjects up to 2 years after vaccination, high levels of IgA in mucous membranes were also observed in the study period (252). There is currently a vaccine under development with an adenoviral vector for H2N2, an avian influenza virus that circulated in humans from 1957 to 1968, a virus that caused 4 million deaths during that period (253).

→ *Utility of recognizing HAdV genotypes. One more step towards genomic surveillance.*

At present, the clinical characteristics associated with the severity of the infection classified by HAdV types have not been sufficiently explored. Risk factors, clinical features, circulating AdVH species, treatment, and prognosis require correct viral typing (254). The different types of HAdV show different tissue tropisms that correlate with the clinical manifestations of the infection. The predominant rates circulating at a given time differ between countries or regions and change over time (134). In 2016, Wang et al. one of the first groups to describe the association between recombinant HAdV-C species and symptom severity in pediatric patients (36). In 2021, a meta-analysis conducted in China analyzed data obtained from the Pubmed and Embase library for case reports of ADV infection. They assessed the clinical features of the disease in 228 patients. In conclusion, the authors reported that prior solid organ transplantation, hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, and hematologic malignancy were risk factors for disseminated HAdV infection. Corticosteroid use was significant for HAdV urinary tract infection. Different species were correlated with different clinical features of infection. Adenoviral types within species A, B, D, E were diagnosed more frequently in disseminated disease (with involvement of various tissues or organs) in immunosuppressed patients over F and C ($p = 0.001$), in the case of pneumonia the association was with species A, C, D, and E to a greater extent than with species B and F ($p = 0.002$). However, this study did not assess differentiation in severity between types of HAdV. Fu et al, described at Chongqing Medical University Children's Hospital, that HAdV-7 cases were associated with most severe and fatal cases in pediatrics over HAdV-3. In the results found, there was an increase in severe pneumonia, toxic encephalopathy, leukopenia, and thrombocytopenia when compared with HAdV-3. In cell culture HAdV-7 replicates at higher levels than HAdV-3 ($p < 0.005$), increased production of C3a ($p < 0.05$) and proinflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1 β , IFN- γ and IL -6) ($p = P < 0.05$, 0.01, and 0.001, respectively) (11). Previously, in 2018, an association with symptom severity had already been described in HAdV-7. However, since there is no integrated genomic surveillance worldwide, it has not been possible to identify which factors affect severity in HAdV-7 or other types such as HAdV-55 (255). A new HAdV-C, postulated as HAdV-104, was recently described using current typing nomenclature. It would come from the recombination of parental viruses harboring the HAdV-1 penton and hexon gene and the HAdV-2 fiber gene. This novel recombinant was

discovered in a hospitalized pneumonia patient with no description of serious illness. This article reinforces what was previously evaluated. We consider recombinant HAdVs as part of the evolutionary process of HAdV-C, therefore we believe that continuous genomic surveillance with viral typing is necessary, due to previous reports that would indicate an increase in the severity of clinical symptoms in recombinants of the HAdV-C species (256,257). Kajon and her laboratory commented in a review that typing is not usually performed for the majority of diagnosed cases of HAdV respiratory infection. Only large outbreaks or cases of unusual severity have prompted detailed molecular, etiologic, or epidemiologic investigations (94). We believe that, as it was implemented for Influenza, later in SARS-CoV-2, genomic surveillance should be integrated into the various respiratory viruses with pandemic potential, in the case of HAdV, typing should be included, recognition of modifications in their antigenic proteins, infectious power (viral tropism) and severity of symptoms.

→ *Genomic surveillance*

The articles evaluated demonstrate the need to establish genomic surveillance worldwide, by performing complete genome sequencing, not only the viral type can be studied, but also the modifications in fundamental proteins that can predict evolutionary success, with a potential producer of a pandemic under conditions known as the epidemiological triangle (virus, environment, host). Genomic surveillance would make it possible to evaluate circulating patterns in different regions of the world, document the evolution of outbreaks, and focus diagnosis, new vaccines, and drug therapies directed to specific targets (220). The advantage of this active surveillance of cases would allow us to anticipate unusual increases in cases associated with influenza.

17. Conclusion

The pandemic of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 raised the question: What other respiratory viruses could cause a pandemic?

Over the past 50 years we have seen an increase in the frequency of respiratory epidemics (Asian flu, Hong Kong flu). Just since 2000, we have had 4 respiratory viruses associated with major epidemics (SARS-CoV, Influenza H1N1 pdm09, MERS, SARS-CoV-2) (123). As we have observed in this review, HAdV could perfectly generate a pandemic if the factors associated with the virus, host, and environment were aligned (123)

For the control of respiratory viruses, it is necessary to evaluate non-pharmacological control strategies (200), have adequate distribution plans of personal protection elements to healthcare workers (258) and symptomatic patients (186); access to rapid-result diagnostic tests at the bedside; border control, especially at airports (209); isolation of cases and quarantine of contacts, among others, would reduce the population viral load, thus reducing transmission.

Future projections are on the way. Genomic surveillance of the various respiratory viruses, particularly HAdV, would make it possible to evaluate the circulating types and focus vaccination strategies on limited groups (220).

Finally, we want to confirm the prominent role of HAdV in the production of recombinant vaccines, which will be very necessary if the conditions for the appearance of new pandemics continue to exist, where a rapid production of vaccines and HAdV vectorized vaccine will need to be generated. It is positioned as a known model, with proven success in the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, but will this model not affect the circulation of other adenoviruses that are not prevalent under current ecological conditions?

Supplementary Materials: Not applicable.

Acknowledgments: Thank Dr. Gisella Castiglione for authorizing the study commission that allowed the development of this research. Dr. Mauricio Moreno, thank you for your deep and knowledgeable revision of this manuscript.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, G.S., S.A., L.A.; Writing—Original Draft Preparation, G.S., D.C. D.V.; Writing—Review and Editing, G.S., S.A., L.L., L.A., Funding acquisition, G.S., D.C. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: The authors received no specific funding for this work.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: Not Applicable.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors have declared that there are no competing interests.

References

- Burrell, C.J.; Howard, C.R. Chapter 18 - Adenoviruses, Fenner and White's Medical Virology (5th Edition), 263-271, Burrell, C.J.; Howard, C.R.; Murphy, F.A. Academic Press, 2017, ISBN: 9780123751560, <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-375156-0.00018-7>.
- Ginsberg H. S. The life and times of adenoviruses. *Advances in virus research* (1999), 54, 1–13. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0065-3527\(08\)60363-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0065-3527(08)60363-2)
- Slifkin, M., Merkow, L., & Rapoza, N. P.. Tumor induction by simian adenovirus 30 and establishment of tumor cell lines. *Cancer research* (1968), 28(6), 1173–1179.
- Tsetlin EM, Levenbuk IS, Al'tshtein AD. Onkogennost' adenovirusa obez'ian SA7(C8) dlia myshei i krysa [Oncogenicity of simian adenovirus SA7(C8) for mice and rats]. *Vopr Onkol.* 1972;18(9):37-42.
- Irlin IS, Ter-Grigorov VS, Al'tshtein AD, Dodonova NN, Biriulina TI. Induktsiia opukholei pecheni u myshei adenovirusom SA (C8) obez'ian [Induction of liver tumors in mice by simian adenovirus SA (C8)]. *Vopr Onkol.* 1971;17(9):76-80.
- Nishida T, Mukai N, Solish SP. Complement-dependent cytotoxicity in rats bearing human adenovirus type 12-induced primary retinoblastoma-like tumor in the eye. *Curr Eye Res.* 1981;1(1):53-55. doi:10.3109/02713688109019973
- Tessier TM, Dodge MJ, MacNeil KM, Evans AM, Prusinkiewicz MA, Mymryk JS. Almost famous: Human adenoviruses (and what they have taught us about cancer). *Tumour Virus Res.* 2021;12:200225. doi:10.1016/j.tvr.2021.200225
- Lion T. Adenovirus persistence, reactivation, and clinical management. *FEBS Lett.* 2019;593(24):3571-3582. doi:10.1002/1873-3468.13576
- Avendaño C, L. F. Infeccion respiratoria por adenovirus en pediatria: de ayer a hoy. *Neumología Pediátrica* 2019, 14(1), 12–18. <https://doi.org/10.51451/np.v14i1.86>
- Parra-Lucares A, Segura P, Rojas V, Pumarino C, Saint-Pierre G, Toro L. Emergence of SARS-CoV-2 Variants in the World: How Could This Happen?. *Life* (Basel). 2022;12(2):194. Published 2022 Jan 28. doi:10.3390/life12020194
- Fu, Y., Tang, Z., Ye, Z., Mo, S., Tian, X., Ni, K., Ren, L., Liu, E., & Zang, N. (2019). Human adenovirus type 7 infection causes a more severe disease than type 3. *BMC infectious diseases*, 19(1), 36. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-018-3651-2>
- Kumthip K, Khamrin P, Ushijima H, Maneekarn N. Enteric and non-enteric adenoviruses associated with acute gastroenteritis in pediatric patients in Thailand, 2011 to 2017. *PLoS One.* 2019;14(8):e0220263. Published 2019 Aug 1. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0220263
- Vidal LR, de Almeida SM, Cavalli BM, et al. Human adenovirus meningoencephalitis: a 3-years' overview. *J Neurovirol.* 2019;25(4):589-596. doi:10.1007/s13365-019-00758-7
- Adrian T, Schäfer G, Cooney MK, Fox JP, Wigand R. Persistent enteral infections with adenovirus types 1 and 2 in infants: no evidence of reinfection. *Epidemiol Infect.* 1988 Dec;101(3):503-9. doi: 10.1017/s0950268800029393. PMID: 2850936; PMCID: PMC2249408
- Proenca-Modena JL, de Souza Cardoso R, Criado MF, et al. Human adenovirus replication and persistence in hypertrophic adenoids and palatine tonsils in children. *J Med Virol.* 2019;91(7):1250-1262. doi:10.1002/jmv.25441
- Parcell BJ, McIntyre PG, Yirrell DL, et al. Prison and community outbreak of severe respiratory infection due to adenovirus type 14p1 in Tayside, UK. *J Public Health (Oxf).* 2015;37(1):64-69. doi:10.1093/pubmed/fdu009
- Zhang S, Huang W, Zhou X, Zhao Q, Wang Q, Jia B. Seroprevalence of neutralizing antibodies to human adenoviruses type-5 and type-26 and chimpanzee adenovirus type-68 in healthy Chinese adults. *J Med Virol.* 2013;85(6):1077-1084. doi:10.1002/jmv.23546
- Schilham MW, Claas EC, van Zaane W, et al. High levels of adenovirus DNA in serum correlate with fatal outcome of adenovirus infection in children after allogeneic stem-cell transplantation. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2002;35(5):526-532. doi:10.1086/341770
- Lion T. Adenovirus infections in immunocompetent and immunocompromised patients. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2014;27(3):441-462. doi:10.1128/CMR.00116-13
- Akello, J. O., Kamgang, R., Barbani, M. T., Suter-Riniker, F., Leib, S. L., & Ramette, A. (2020). Epidemiology of Human Adenoviruses: A 20-Year Retrospective Observational Study in Hospitalized Patients in Bern, Switzerland. *Clinical epidemiology*, 12, 353–366. <https://doi.org/10.2147/CLEP.S246352>

21. Yang, W. X., Zou, X. H., Jiang, S. Y., Lu, N. N., Han, M., Zhao, J. H., Guo, X. J., Zhao, S. C., & Lu, Z. Z. (2016). Prevalence of serum neutralizing antibodies to adenovirus type 5 (Ad5) and 41 (Ad41) in children is associated with age and sanitary conditions. *Vaccine*, 34(46), 5579–5586. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2016.09.043>
22. Mennechet FJD, Paris O, Ouoba AR, et al. A review of 65 years of human adenovirus seroprevalence. *Expert Rev Vaccines*. 2019;18(6):597-613. doi:10.1080/14760584.2019.1588113
23. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention . Adenovirus transmission. National Center for Immunization and Respiratory Diseases, Division of Viral Diseases; Atlanta, GA, USA: 2018. Available online: <https://www.cdc.gov/adenovirus/about/transmission.html> [(accessed on 26th november 2022)].
24. Crenshaw BJ, Jones LB, Bell CR, Kumar S, Matthews QL. Perspective on Adenoviruses: Epidemiology, Pathogenicity, and Gene Therapy. *Biomedicines*. 2019;7(3):61. Published 2019 Aug 19. doi:10.3390/biomedicines7030061
25. Centros para el Control de Enfermedades (CDC) Brote de fiebre faringoconjuntival en un campamento de verano—Carolina del Norte, 1991. *MMWR Morb. Mortal. Semanal. Rep.* 1992; 41 :342–344.
26. Payne SB, Grilli EA, Smith AJ, Hoskins TW. Investigation of an outbreak of adenovirus type 3 infection in a boys' boarding school. *J Hyg (Lond)*. 1984;93(2):277-283. doi:10.1017/s0022172400064809
27. Ison MG, Hayden RT. Adenovirus. *Microbiol Spectr*. 2016;4(4):10.1128/microbiolspec.DMIH2-0020-2015. doi:10.1128/microbiolspec.DMIH2-0020-2015
28. Rowe WP, Huebner RJ, Gilmore LK, Parrott RH, Ward TG. Isolation of a cytopathogenic agent from human adenoids undergoing spontaneous degeneration in tissue culture. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med*. 1953;84(3):570-573. doi:10.3181/00379727-84-20714
29. Berge TO, England B, Mauris C, Shuey HE, Lennette EH. Etiology Of Acute Respiratory Disease Among Service Personnel At Fort Ord, California. *Am J Hyg*. 1955;62(3):283-294. Doi:10.1093/Oxfordjournals.Aje.A119779
30. Yabe Y, Samper L, Bryan E, Taylor G, Trentin JJ. Oncogenic Effect Of Human Adenovirus Type 12, In Mice. *Science*. 1964;143(3601):46-47. doi:10.1126/science.143.3601.46
31. Mukai N., Kalter SS, Cummins LB, Matthews VA, Nishida T., Nakajima T. Retinal tumor induced in the babuino by human adenovirus 12. *Science*. 1980; 210 :1023–1025. doi: 10.1126/ciencia.7434012
32. Pereira HG, Huebner RJ, Ginsberg HS, Van Der Veen J. A Short Description Of The Adenovirus Group. *Virology*. 1963;20:613-620. Doi:10.1016/0042-6822(63)90286-1
33. Benkő M, Aoki K, Arnberg N, et al. ICTV Virus Taxonomy Profile: Adenoviridae 2022. *J Gen Virol*. 2022;103(3):001721. doi:10.1099/jgv.0.001721
34. Crenshaw BJ, Jones LB, Bell CR, Kumar S, Matthews QL. Perspective on adenoviruses: epidemiology, pathogenicity, and gene therapy. *Biomedicines* 2019; 7:61. doi: 10.3390/biomedicines7030061.
35. Hanaoka N, Hazama M, Fukushima K, Fujimoto T. Sensitivity of Human Mastadenovirus, the Causal Agent of Pharyngoconjunctival Fever, Epidemic Keratoconjunctivitis, and Hemorrhagic Cystitis in Immunocompromised Individuals, to Brincidofovir. *Microbiol Spectr*. 2022;10(1):e0156921. doi:10.1128/spectrum.01569-21
36. Wang Y, Li Y, Lu R, et al. Phylogenetic evidence for intratypic recombinant events in a novel human adenovirus C that causes severe acute respiratory infection in children. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:23014. Published 2016 Mar 10. doi:10.1038/srep23014
37. Ganime AC, Carvalho-Costa FA, Santos M, Costa Filho R, Leite JP, Miagostovich MP. Viability of human adenovirus from hospital fomites. *J Med Virol*. 2014;86(12):2065-2069. doi:10.1002/jmv.23907
38. Watanabe M, Nishikawaji Y, Kawakami H, Kosai KI. Adenovirus Biology, Recombinant Adenovirus, and Adenovirus Usage in Gene Therapy. *Viruses*. 2021;13(12):2502. Published 2021 Dec 14. doi:10.3390/v13122502
39. Gingeras TR, Sciaky D, Gelinas RE, et al. Nucleotide sequences from the adenovirus-2 genome. *J Biol Chem*. 1982;257(22):13475-13491.
40. Tessier J, Chadeuf G, Nony P, Avet-Loiseau H, Moullier P, Salvetti A. Characterization of adenovirus-induced inverted terminal repeat-independent amplification of integrated adeno-associated virus rep-cap sequences. *J Virol*. 2001 Jan;75(1):375-83. doi: 10.1128/JVI.75.1.375-383.2001.
41. Furuse Y., Ornelles D.A., Cullen B.R. Persistently adenovirus-infected lymphoid cells express micrnas derived from the viral vai and especially vaii rna. *Virology*. 2013;447:140–145. doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2013.08.024
42. Radke JR, Cook JL. Human adenovirus infections: update and consideration of mechanisms of viral persistence. *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2018 Jun;31(3):251-256. doi: 10.1097/QCO.0000000000000451. PMID: 29601326; PMCID: PMC6367924.
43. Tseng CC, Chang LY, Li CS. Detection of airborne viruses in a pediatrics department measured using real-time qPCR coupled to an air-sampling filter method. *J Environ Health*. 2010;73(4):22-28.
44. Wang CC, Prather KA, Sznitman J, et al. Airborne transmission of respiratory viruses. *Science*. 2021;373(6558):eabd9149. doi:10.1126/science.abd9149
45. Outbreak of pharyngoconjunctival fever at a summer camp--North Carolina, 1991. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 1992;13(8):499-500.
46. Payne SB, Grilli EA, Smith AJ, Hoskins TW. Investigation of an outbreak of adenovirus type 3 infection in a boys' boarding school. *J Hyg (Lond)*. 1984;93(2):277-283. doi:10.1017/s0022172400064809
47. Siegel JD, Rhinehart E, Jackson M, Chiarello L, and the Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee, 2007 Guideline for Isolation Precautions: Preventing Transmission of Infectious Agents in Healthcare Settings <https://www.cdc.gov/infectioncontrol/guidelines/isolation/index.html>
48. Chughtai AA, Khan W. Use of personal protective equipment to protect against respiratory infections in Pakistan: A systematic review. *J Infect Public Health*. 2020;13(3):385-390. doi:10.1016/j.jiph.2020.02.032

49. Dai M, Wu Y, Tan H, et al. Cross-infection of adenovirus among medical staff: A warning from the intensive care unit in a tertiary care teaching hospital in China. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2020;98:390-397. doi:10.1016/j.ijid.2020.06.103
50. Walsh MP, Chintakuntlawar A, Robinson CM, et al. Evidence of molecular evolution driven by recombination events influencing tropism in a novel human adenovirus that causes epidemic keratoconjunctivitis. *PLoS One.* 2009;4(6):e5635. Published 2009 Jun 3. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0005635
51. Gonzalez G, Yawata N, Aoki K, Kitaichi N. Challenges in management of epidemic keratoconjunctivitis with emerging recombinant human adenoviruses. *J Clin Virol.* 2019;112:1-9. doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2019.01.004
52. Corvalán L P, Arias B G, Morales S P, González M R, Inostroza S J, Fuenzalida I L. Inmunofluorescencia indirecta versus reacción de polimerasa en cadena para el diagnóstico de virus respiratorios en niños ingresados en un hospital de la Región Metropolitana [Indirect immunofluorescence technique versus polymerase chain reaction for the diagnosis of respiratory viruses in children admitted to a hospital in the Metropolitan Region]. *Rev Chilena Infectol.* 2019;36(1):26-31. doi:10.4067/S0716-10182019000100026
53. Wood SR, Sharp IR, Caul EO, et al. Rapid detection and serotyping of adenovirus by direct immunofluorescence. *J Med Virol.* 1997;51(3):198-201. doi:10.1002/(sici)1096-9071(199703)51:3<198::aid-jmv9>3.0.co;2-1
54. Ko G, Cromeans TL, Sobsey MD. Detection of infectious adenovirus in cell culture by mRNA reverse transcription-PCR. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2003;69(12):7377-7384. doi:10.1128/AEM.69.12.7377-7384.2003
55. Takimoto S, Grandien M, Ishida MA, et al. Comparison of enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, indirect immunofluorescence assay, and virus isolation for detection of respiratory viruses in nasopharyngeal secretions. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1991;29(3):470-474. doi:10.1128/jcm.29.3.470-474.1991
56. Calico-Bosch I, Servicio de Microbiología. Ciutat Sanitària Vall d'Hebron, Barcelona, España, Diagnóstico De Las Infecciones Por Adenovirus, Control Calidad SEIMC.
57. Tsutsumi H, Ouchi K, Ohsaki M, et al. Immunochromatography test for rapid diagnosis of adenovirus respiratory tract infections: comparison with virus isolation in tissue culture. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1999;37(6):2007-2009. doi:10.1128/JCM.37.6.2007-2009.1999
58. Murphy CN, Fowler R, Balada-Llasat JM, et al. Multicenter Evaluation of the BioFire FilmArray Pneumonia/Pneumonia Plus Panel for Detection and Quantification of Agents of Lower Respiratory Tract Infection. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2020;58(7):e00128-20. Published 2020 Jun 24. doi:10.1128/JCM.00128-20
59. Leber AL, Everhart K, Daly JA, et al. Multicenter Evaluation of BioFire FilmArray Respiratory Panel 2 for Detection of Viruses and Bacteria in Nasopharyngeal Swab Samples. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2018;56(6):e01945-17. Published 2018 May 25. doi:10.1128/JCM.01945-17
60. Beckmann C, Hirsch HH. Comparing Luminex NxTAG-Respiratory Pathogen Panel and RespiFinder-22 for multiplex detection of respiratory pathogens. *J Med Virol.* 2016;88(8):1319-1324. doi:10.1002/jmv.24492
61. Rätty R, Kleemola M, Melén K, Stenvik M, Julkunen I. Efficacy of PCR and other diagnostic methods for the detection of respiratory adenoviral infections. *J Med Virol.* 1999;59(1):66-72.
62. Marcone DN, Carballal G, Ricarte C, Echavarría M. Diagnóstico de virus respiratorios utilizando un sistema automatizado de PCR múltiples (FilmArray) y su comparación con métodos convencionales [Respiratory viral diagnosis by using an automated system of multiplex PCR (FilmArray) compared to conventional methods]. *Rev Argent Microbiol.* 2015;47(1):29-35. doi:10.1016/j.ram.2014.12.003
63. Pinsky BA, Hayden RT. Cost-Effective Respiratory Virus Testing. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2019;57(9):e00373-19. Published 2019 Aug 26. doi:10.1128/JCM.00373-19
64. Marcone DN, Culasso ACA, Reyes N, et al. Genotypes and phylogenetic analysis of adenovirus in children with respiratory infection in Buenos Aires, Argentina (2000-2018). *PLoS One.* 2021;16(3):e0248191. Published 2021 Mar 8. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0248191
65. de Jong JC, Osterhaus AD, Jones MS, Harrach B. Human adenovirus type 52: a type 41 in disguise?. *J Virol.* 2008;82(7):3809-3810. doi:10.1128/JVI.02457-07
66. Wadell G, Varsányi TM, Lord A, Sutton RN. Epidemic outbreaks of adenovirus 7 with special reference to the pathogenicity of adenovirus genome type 7b. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1980;112(5):619-628. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a113034
67. Sarantis H, Johnson G, Brown M, Petric M, Tellier R. Comprehensive detection and serotyping of human adenoviruses by PCR and sequencing. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2004;42(9):3963-3969. doi:10.1128/JCM.42.9.3963-3969.2004
68. Lu X, Erdman DD. Molecular typing of human adenoviruses by PCR and sequencing of a partial region of the hexon gene. *Arch Virol.* 2006;151(8):1587-1602. doi:10.1007/s00705-005-0722-7
69. Allard A, Albinsson B, Wadell G. Rapid typing of human adenoviruses by a general PCR combined with restriction endonuclease analysis. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2001;39(2):498-505. doi:10.1128/JCM.39.2.498-505.2001
70. Wu X, Zhang J, Lan W, et al. Molecular Typing and Rapid Identification of Human Adenoviruses Associated With Respiratory Diseases Using Universal PCR and Sequencing Primers for the Three Major Capsid Genes: Penton Base, Hexon, and Fiber. *Front Microbiol.* 2022;13:911694. Published 2022 May 12. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2022.911694
71. Okada M, Ogawa T, Kubonoya H, Yoshizumi H, Shinozaki K. Detection and sequence-based typing of human adenoviruses using sensitive universal primer sets for the hexon gene. *Arch Virol.* 2007;152(1):1-9. doi:10.1007/s00705-006-0842-8
72. Kattareeya K, Pattara K, Hiroshi U, Niwat M. Enteric and non-enteric adenoviruses associated with acute gastroenteritis in pediatric patients in Thailand, 2011 to 2017. *PLoS ONE.* 2019;14(8):e0220263. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0220263.

73. Huang D, Wang Z, Zhang G, Sai L. Molecular and epidemiological characterization of human adenoviruses infection among children with acute diarrhea in Shandong Province, China. *Virol J.* 2021;18(1):195. Published 2021 Sep 27. doi:10.1186/s12985-021-01666-1
74. Moyo SJ, Hanevik K, Blomberg B, et al. Prevalence and molecular characterisation of human adenovirus in diarrhoeic children in Tanzania; a case control study. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2014;14:666. Published 2014 Dec 12. doi:10.1186/s12879-014-0666-1
75. Lu X, Trujillo-Lopez E, Lott L, Erdman DD. Quantitative real-time PCR assay panel for detection and type-specific identification of epidemic respiratory human adenoviruses. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2013;51(4):1089-1093. doi:10.1128/JCM.03297-12
76. Lu X, Erdman DD. Quantitative real-time PCR assays for detection and type-specific identification of the endemic species C human adenoviruses. *J Virol Methods.* 2016;237:174-178. doi:10.1016/j.jviromet.2016.05.020
77. Wu X, Zhang J, Lan W, et al. Molecular Typing and Rapid Identification of Human Adenoviruses Associated With Respiratory Diseases Using Universal PCR and Sequencing Primers for the Three Major Capsid Genes: Penton Base, Hexon, and Fiber. *Front Microbiol.* 2022;13:911694. Published 2022 May 12. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2022.911694
78. Echavarría M. Adenoviruses in immunocompromised hosts. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2008;21(4):704-715. doi:10.1128/CMR.00052-07
79. Esposito S, Zampiero A, Bianchini S, Mori A, Scala A, Tagliabue C, et al. Epidemiology and Clinical Characteristics of Respiratory Infections Due to Adenovirus in Children Living in Milan, Italy, during 2013 and 2014. *PLOS ONE.* 2016;11: e0152375. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0152375
80. Ylihäsälä M, Harju E, Arppe R, et al. Genotyping of clinically relevant human adenoviruses by array-in-well hybridization assay. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2013;19(6):551-557. doi:10.1111/j.1469-0691.2012.03926.x
81. Barrero PR, Valinotto LE, Tittarelli E, Mistchenko AS. Molecular typing of adenoviruses in pediatric respiratory infections in Buenos Aires, Argentina (1999-2010). *J Clin Virol.* 2012;53(2):145-150. doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2011.11.001
82. Akello, JO, Kamgang, R, Barbani, MT et al. Genomic analyses of human adenoviruses unravel novel recombinant genotypes associated with severe infections in pediatric patients. *Sci. Rep.* 2021; 11, 24038. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-03445-y>
83. Garnett CT, Talekar G, Mahr JA, et al. Latent species C adenoviruses in human tonsil tissues. *J Virol.* 2009;83(6):2417-2428. doi:10.1128/JVI.02392-08
84. Kosulin K, Geiger E, Vécsei A, et al. Persistence and reactivation of human adenoviruses in the gastrointestinal tract. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2016;22(4):381.e1-381.e8. doi:10.1016/j.cmi.2015.12.013
85. Houldcroft CJ, Beale MA, Sayeed MA, Qadri F, Dougan G, Mutreja A. Identification of novel adenovirus genotype 90 in children from Bangladesh. *Microb Genom.* 2018;4(10):e000221. doi:10.1099/mgen.0.000221
86. Kaján GL, Affranio I, Tóthné Bistyák A, Kecskeméti S, Benkő M. An emerging new fowl adenovirus genotype. *Heliyon.* 2019;5(5):e01732. Published 2019 May 25. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2019.e01732
87. Risso-Ballester J, Cuevas JM, Sanjuán R. Genome-Wide Estimation of the Spontaneous Mutation Rate of Human Adenovirus 5 by High-Fidelity Deep Sequencing. *PLoS Pathog.* 2016;12(11):e1006013. Published 2016 Nov 8. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1006013
88. Williams J, Grodzicker T, Sharp P, Sambrook J. Adenovirus recombination: physical mapping of crossover events. *Cell.* 1975;4(2):113-119. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(75)90117-8
89. Boursnell ME, Mautner V. Recombination in adenovirus: crossover sites in intertypic recombinants are located in regions of homology. *Virology.* 1981;112(1):198-209. doi:10.1016/0042-6822(81)90625-5
90. Mautner V, Mackay N. Recombination in adenovirus: analysis of crossover sites in intertypic overlap recombinants. *Virology.* 1984;139(1):43-52. doi:10.1016/0042-6822(84)90328-3
91. Dhingra A, Hage E, Ganzenmueller T, et al. Molecular Evolution of Human Adenovirus (HAdV) Species C. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9(1):1039. Published 2019 Jan 31. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-37249-4
92. Tian X, Wu H, Zhou R. Molecular evolution of human adenovirus type 16 through multiple recombination events. *Virus Genes.* 2019;55(6):769-778. doi:10.1007/s11262-019-01698-4
93. Lukashev AN, Ivanova OE, Eremeeva TP, Iggo RD. Evidence of frequent recombination among human adenoviruses. *J Gen Virol.* 2008;89(Pt 2):380-388. doi:10.1099/vir.0.83057-0
94. Kajon AE, Lamson DM, St George K. Emergence and re-emergence of respiratory adenoviruses in the United States. *Curr Opin Virol.* 2019;34:63-69. doi:10.1016/j.coviro.2018.12.004
95. Yang J, Mao N, Zhang C, et al. Human adenovirus species C recombinant virus continuously circulated in China. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9(1):9781. Published 2019 Jul 5. doi:10.1038/s41598-019-46228-2
96. Lichtenstein DL, Toth K, Doronin K, Tollefson AE, Wold WS. Functions and mechanisms of action of the adenovirus E3 proteins. *Int Rev Immunol.* 2004;23(1-2):75-111. doi:10.1080/08830180490265556
97. Cheng Z, Yan Y, Jing S, et al. Comparative Genomic Analysis of Re-emergent Human Adenovirus Type 55 Pathogens Associated With Adult Severe Community-Acquired Pneumonia Reveals Conserved Genomes and Capsid Proteins. *Front Microbiol.* 2018;9:1180. Published 2018 Jun 5. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.01180
98. HAdV Working Group. Available online: <http://hadvwg.gmu.edu/> (accessed on 28th November, 2022)
99. Yu Z, Zeng Z, Zhang J, et al. Fatal Community-acquired Pneumonia in Children Caused by Re-emergent Human Adenovirus 7d Associated with Higher Severity of Illness and Fatality Rate. *Sci Rep.* 2016;6:37216. Published 2016 Nov 16. doi:10.1038/srep37216
100. Bastug A, Altas AB, Koc BT, et al. Molecular characterization of human adenoviruses associated with respiratory infection in Turkey. *APMIS.* 2021;129(1):23-31. doi:10.1111/apm.13088
101. Yao LH, Wang C, Wei TL, Wang H, Ma FL, Zheng LS. Human adenovirus among hospitalized children with respiratory tract infections in Beijing, China, 2017-2018. *Virol J.* 2019;16(1):78. Published 2019 Jun 13. doi:10.1186/s12985-019-1185-x

102. Kim YJ, Hong JY, Lee HJ, et al. Genome type analysis of adenovirus types 3 and 7 isolated during successive outbreaks of lower respiratory tract infections in children. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2003;41(10):4594-4599. doi:10.1128/JCM.41.10.4594-4599.2003
103. Moura FE, Mesquita JR, Portes SA, Ramos EA, Siqueira MM. Caracterización antigénica y genómica de adenovirus asociados a infecciones respiratorias en niños residentes en el Nordeste de Brasil. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz.* 2007; 102 (8):937-941. doi: 10.1590/S0074-02762007000800008. [
104. Lin KH, Lin YC, Chen HL, et al. A two decade survey of respiratory adenovirus in Taiwan: the reemergence of adenovirus types 7 and 4. *J Med Virol.* 2004;73(2):274-279. doi:10.1002/jmv.20087
105. Arnberg N. Adenovirus E3 protein modulates leukocyte functions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2013;110(50):19976-19977. doi:10.1073/pnas.1319937110
106. Houldcroft CJ, Roy S, Morfopoulou S, et al. Use of Whole-Genome Sequencing of Adenovirus in Immunocompromised Pediatric Patients to Identify Nosocomial Transmission and Mixed-Genotype Infection. *J Infect Dis.* 2018;218(8):1261-1271. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiy323
107. Miro E, Del Cuerpo M, Rubio M, et al. Whole-genome analysis to describe a human adenovirus D8 conjunctivitis outbreak in a tertiary hospital. *J Med Virol.* 2021;93(8):4840-4845. doi:10.1002/jmv.26850
108. Li Y, Kang J, Friedman J, et al. Identification of a cell protein (FIP-3) as a modulator of NF-kappaB activity and as a target of an adenovirus inhibitor of tumor necrosis factor alpha-induced apoptosis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 1999;96(3):1042-1047. doi:10.1073/pnas.96.3.1042
109. Elsing A, Burgert HG. The adenovirus E3/10.4K-14.5K proteins down-modulate the apoptosis receptor Fas/Apo-1 by inducing its internalization. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 1998;95(17):10072-10077. doi:10.1073/pnas.95.17.10072
110. Tollefson AE, Scaria A, Hermiston TW, Ryerse JS, Wold LJ, Wold WS. The adenovirus death protein (E3-11.6K) is required at very late stages of infection for efficient cell lysis and release of adenovirus from infected cells. *J Virol.* 1996;70(4):2296-2306. doi:10.1128/JVI.70.4.2296-2306.1996
111. Windheim M, Southcombe JH, Kremmer E, et al. A unique secreted adenovirus E3 protein binds to the leukocyte common antigen CD45 and modulates leukocyte functions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2013;110(50):E4884-E4893. doi:10.1073/pnas.1312420110
112. Vidal D, Chamblas I, Zavala M, Muller R, Rodriguez MC, Chavez A, Social Determinants Of Health And Lifestyles In Adult Population Concepción, Chile. *CIENCIA Y ENFERMERIA* 2014; 20(1): 61-74. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0717-95532014000100006>
113. Braveman P, Gottlieb L. The social determinants of health: it's time to consider the causes of the causes. *Public Health Rep.* 2014;129 Suppl 2(Suppl 2):19-31. doi:10.1177/00333549141291S206.
114. Shi Q, Herbert C, Ward DV, et al. COVID-19 Variant Surveillance and Social Determinants in Central Massachusetts: Development Study. *JMIR Form Res.* 2022;6(6):e37858. Published 2022 Jun 13. doi:10.2196/37858
115. Burström B, Tao W. Social determinants of health and inequalities in COVID-19. *Eur J Public Health.* 2020;30(4):617-618. doi:10.1093/eurpub/ckaa095
116. Anderson G, Frank JW, Naylor CD, Wodchis W, Feng P. Using socioeconomics to counter health disparities arising from the covid-19 pandemic. *BMJ.* 2020;369:m2149. Published 2020 Jun 8. doi:10.1136/bmj.m2149
117. Pagel C. There is a real danger that covid-19 will become entrenched as a disease of poverty. *BMJ.* 2021;373:n986. Published 2021 Apr 19. doi:10.1136/bmj.n986
118. Bahar Özvarış Ş, Kayı İ, Mardin D, et al. COVID-19 barriers and response strategies for refugees and undocumented migrants in Turkey. *J Migr Health.* 2020;1-2:100012. Published 2020 Dec 7. doi:10.1016/j.jmh.2020.100012
119. Graham J, Ozbilgin M. Age, industry, and unemployment risk during a pandemic lockdown. *J Econ Dyn Control.* 2021;133:104233. doi:10.1016/j.jedc.2021.104233
120. Ahdam N, Rapid Response: Poverty predisposes populations to contracting COVID-19, *BMJ* 2021;373:n986. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n986>
121. Wang M, Barasheed O, Rashid H, et al. A cluster-randomised controlled trial to test the efficacy of facemasks in preventing respiratory viral infection among Hajj pilgrims. *J Epidemiol Glob Health.* 2015;5(2):181-189. doi:10.1016/j.jegh.2014.08.002
122. Shieh WJ. Human adenovirus infections in pediatric population - An update on clinico-pathologic correlation. *Biomed J.* 2022;45(1):38-49. doi:10.1016/j.bj.2021.08.009
123. Kremer EJ. What is the risk of a deadly adenovirus pandemic?. *PLoS Pathog.* 2021;17(9):e1009814. Published 2021 Sep 2. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1009814
124. Yoshitomi H, Sera N, Gonzalez G, Hanaoka N, Fujimoto T. First isolation of a new type of human adenovirus (genotype 79), species Human mastadenovirus B (B2) from sewage water in Japan. *J Med Virol.* 2017;89(7):1192-1200. doi:10.1002/jmv.24749
125. Jiang SC. Human adenoviruses in water: occurrence and health implications: a critical review. *Environ Sci Technol.* 2006;40(23):7132-7140. doi:10.1021/es060892o
126. Pfortmueller CA, Barbani MT, Schefold JC, Hage E, Heim A, Zimmerli S. Severe acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) induced by human adenovirus B21: Report on 2 cases and literature review. *J Crit Care.* 2019;51:99-104. doi:10.1016/j.jcrc.2019.02.019
127. Xu N, Chen P, Wang Y. Evaluation of Risk Factors for Exacerbations in Children with Adenoviral Pneumonia. *Biomed Res Int.* 2020;2020:4878635. Published 2020 Jul 31. doi:10.1155/2020/4878635
128. Li D, Zhou JN, Li H, et al. An outbreak of epidemic keratoconjunctivitis caused by human adenovirus type 8 in primary school, southwest China. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2019;19(1):624. Published 2019 Jul 15. doi:10.1186/s12879-019-4232-8

129. Rebelo-de-Andrade H, Pereira C, Gíria M, et al. Outbreak of acute respiratory infection among infants in Lisbon, Portugal, caused by human adenovirus serotype 3 and a new 7/3 recombinant strain. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2010;48(4):1391-1396. doi:10.1128/JCM.02019-09
130. Esparcia Rodríguez Ó, Gómez Martínez A, Martínez Nieto MJ, Salmerón Cifuentes MS, Rodolfo Saavedra R, de la Cruz de Julián I. Brote de queratoconjuntivitis epidémica por adenovirus humano serotipo 8 en una residencia de mayores [Outbreak of epidemic keratoconjunctivitis caused by human adenovirus serotype 8 in a nursing home.]. *Rev Esp Salud Publica.* 2020;94:e202009100. Published 2020 Sep 8.
131. Glatman-Freedman A, Nichols K. The effect of social determinants on immunization programs. *Hum Vaccin Immunother.* 2012;8(3):293-301. doi:10.4161/hv.19003
132. Boyce T, Gudorf A, de Kat C, Muscat M, Butler R, Habersaat KB. Towards equity in immunisation. *Euro Surveill.* 2019;24(2):1800204. doi:10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2019.24.2.1800204
133. Valentine NB, Koller TS, Hosseinpoor AR. Monitoring health determinants with an equity focus: a key role in addressing social determinants, universal health coverage, and advancing the 2030 sustainable development agenda. *Glob Health Action.* 2016;9:34247. Published 2016 Dec 16. doi:10.3402/gha.v9.34247
134. Lynch JP 3rd, Kajon AE. Adenovirus: Epidemiology, Global Spread of Novel Serotypes, and Advances in Treatment and Prevention. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med.* 2016;37(4):586-602. doi:10.1055/s-0036-1584923
135. Chen S, Tian X. Vaccine development for human mastadenovirus. *J Thorac Dis.* 2018;10(Suppl 19):S2280-S2294. doi:10.21037/jtd.2018.03.168
136. Bayati M, Noroozi R, Ghanbari-Jahromi M, Jalali FS. Inequality in the distribution of Covid-19 vaccine: a systematic review. *Int J Equity Health.* 2022;21(1):122. Published 2022 Aug 30. doi:10.1186/s12939-022-01729-x
137. Pilkington V, Keestra SM, Hill A. Global COVID-19 Vaccine Inequity: Failures in the First Year of Distribution and Potential Solutions for the Future. *Front Public Health.* 2022;10:821117. Published 2022 Mar 7. doi:10.3389/fpubh.2022.821117
138. Chen S, Tian X. Vaccine development for human mastadenovirus. *J Thorac Dis.* 2018;10(Suppl 19):S2280-S2294. doi:10.21037/jtd.2018.03.168
139. Gray GC, Goswami PR, Malasig MD, et al. Adult adenovirus infections: loss of orphaned vaccines precipitates military respiratory disease epidemics. For the Adenovirus Surveillance Group. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2000;31(3):663-670. doi:10.1086/313999
140. Radin JM, Hawksworth AW, Blair PJ, et al. Dramatic decline of respiratory illness among US military recruits after the renewed use of adenovirus vaccines. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2014;59(7):962-968. doi:10.1093/cid/ciu507
141. Hoke CH Jr, Snyder CE Jr. History of the restoration of adenovirus type 4 and type 7 vaccine, live oral (Adenovirus Vaccine) in the context of the Department of Defense acquisition system. *Vaccine.* 2013;31(12):1623-1632. doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2012.12.029
142. Yu B, Dong J, Wang C, et al. Characteristics of neutralizing antibodies to adenovirus capsid proteins in human and animal sera. *Virology.* 2013;437(2):118-123. doi:10.1016/j.virol.2012.12.014
143. Su X, Tian X, Jiang Z, et al. Human Adenovirus Serotype 3 Vector Packaged by a Rare Serotype 14 Hexon. *PLoS One.* 2016;11(6):e0156984. Published 2016 Jun 21. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0156984
144. Gupta A, Ahmed KA, Ayalew LE, et al. Immunogenicity and protective efficacy of virus-like particles and recombinant fiber proteins in broiler-breeder vaccination against fowl adenovirus (FAdV)-8b. *Vaccine.* 2017;35(20):2716-2722. doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2017.03.075
145. Naesens L, Lenaerts L, Andrei G, et al. Antiadenovirus activities of several classes of nucleoside and nucleotide analogues. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2005;49(3):1010-1016. doi:10.1128/AAC.49.3.1010-1016.2005
146. Gavin PJ, Katz BZ. Intravenous ribavirin treatment for severe adenovirus disease in immunocompromised children. *Pediatrics.* 2002;110(1 Pt 1):e9. Doi:10.1542/peds.110.1.e9
147. Morfin F, Dupuis-Girod S, Mundweiler S, et al. In vitro susceptibility of adenovirus to antiviral drugs is species-dependent. *Antivir Ther.* 2005;10(2):225-229.
148. Ganapathi L, Arnold A, Jones S, et al. Use of cidofovir in pediatric patients with adenovirus infection. *F1000Res.* 2016;5:758. Published 2016 Apr 26. doi:10.12688/f1000research.8374.2
149. Le TK, Brown BK, Namtu KC, Berman DM, Kiskaddon AL. Use of cidofovir with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation to treat adenovirus-associated acute respiratory distress syndrome in paediatric patients- a case series. *J Clin Pharm Ther.* 2020;45(6):1505-1510. doi:10.1111/jcpt.13244
150. Clinical Trials Available online: https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/results?term=treatment&cond=Adenovirus+Disease&Search=Apply&recrs=e&age_v=&gndr=&type=&rslt=With (accessed on 28th November, 2022)
151. Florescu DF, Keck MA. Development of CMX001 (Brincidofovir) for the treatment of serious diseases or conditions caused by dsDNA viruses. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther.* 2014;12(10):1171-1178. doi:10.1586/14787210.2014.948847
152. LeDuc JW, Damon I, Relman DA, Huggins J, Jahrling PB. Smallpox research activities: U.S. interagency collaboration, 2001. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2002;8(7):743-745. doi:10.3201/eid0807.020032
153. Alvarez-Cardona JJ, Whited LK, Chemaly RF. Brincidofovir: understanding its unique profile and potential role against adenovirus and other viral infections. *Future Microbiol.* 2020;15:389-400. doi:10.2217/fmb-2019-0288
154. Painter W, Robertson A, Trost LC, Godkin S, Lampert B, Painter G. First pharmacokinetic and safety study in humans of the novel lipid antiviral conjugate CMX001, a broad-spectrum oral drug active against double-stranded DNA viruses. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2012;56(5):2726-2734. doi:10.1128/AAC.05983-11

155. James SH, Price NB, Hartline CB, Lanier ER, Prichard MN. Selection and recombinant phenotyping of a novel CMX001 and cidofovir resistance mutation in human cytomegalovirus. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2013;57(7):3321-3325. doi:10.1128/AAC.00062-13
156. Clinical Trials Available online: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02087306> (accessed on 28th November, 2022)
157. Wold WS, Toth K. New drug on the horizon for treating adenovirus. *Expert Opin Pharmacother.* 2015;16(14):2095-2099. doi:10.1517/14656566.2015.1083975
158. Tatsis N, Ertl HC. Adenoviruses as vaccine vectors. *Mol Ther.* 2004;10(4):616-629. doi:10.1016/j.ymthe.2004.07.013
159. Alhashimi M, Elhashif A, Sayedahmed EE, Mittal SK. Nonhuman Adenoviral Vector-Based Platforms and Their Utility in Designing Next Generation of Vaccines for Infectious Diseases. *Viruses.* 2021;13(8):1493. Published 2021 Jul 29. doi:10.3390/v13081493
160. Baden LR, Stieh DJ, Sarnecki M, et al. Safety and immunogenicity of two heterologous HIV vaccine regimens in healthy, HIV-uninfected adults (TRAVVERSE): a randomised, parallel-group, placebo-controlled, double-blind, phase 1/2a study. *Lancet HIV.* 2020;7(10):e688-e698. doi:10.1016/S2352-3018(20)30229-0
161. Bullard BL, Corder BN, Gordon DN, Pierson TC, Weaver EA. Characterization of a Species E Adenovirus Vector as a Zika virus vaccine. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10(1):3613. Published 2020 Feb 27. doi:10.1038/s41598-020-60238-5
162. Yusuf Y, Yoshii T, Iyori M, et al. Adeno-Associated Virus as an Effective Malaria Booster Vaccine Following Adenovirus Priming. *Front Immunol.* 2019;10:730. Published 2019 Apr 5. doi:10.3389/fimmu.2019.00730
163. Zhu FC, Li YH, Guan XH, et al. Safety, tolerability, and immunogenicity of a recombinant adenovirus type-5 vectored COVID-19 vaccine: a dose-escalation, open-label, non-randomised, first-in-human trial. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10240):1845-1854. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)31208-3
164. Lundstrom K. Viral Vectors for COVID-19 Vaccine Development. *Viruses.* 2021;13(2):317. Published 2021 Feb 19. doi:10.3390/v13020317
165. Sadoff J, Le Gars M, Shukarev G, et al. Interim Results of a Phase 1-2a Trial of Ad26.COV2.S Covid-19 Vaccine. *N Engl J Med.* 2021;384(19):1824-1835. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2034201
166. Soraci L, Lattanzio F, Soraci G, et al. COVID-19 Vaccines: Current and Future Perspectives. *Vaccines (Basel).* 2022;10(4):608. Published 2022 Apr 13. doi:10.3390/vaccines10040608
167. Lundstrom K. Application of Viral Vectors for Vaccine Development with a Special Emphasis on COVID-19. *Viruses.* 2020;12(11):1324. Published 2020 Nov 18. doi:10.3390/v12111324
168. Imler JL. Adenovirus vectors as recombinant viral vaccines. *Vaccine.* 1995;13(13):1143-1151. doi:10.1016/0264-410x(95)00032-v
169. Juillard V, Villefroy P, Godfrin D, Pavirani A, Venet A, Guillet JG. Long-term humoral and cellular immunity induced by a single immunization with replication-defective adenovirus recombinant vector. *Eur J Immunol.* 1995;25(12):3467-3473. doi:10.1002/eji.1830251239
170. Abbink P, Maxfield LF, Ng'ang'a D, et al. Construction and evaluation of novel rhesus monkey adenovirus vaccine vectors. *J Virol.* 2015;89(3):1512-1522. doi:10.1128/JVI.02950-14
171. Mendonça SA, Lorincz R, Boucher P, Curiel DT. Adenoviral vector vaccine platforms in the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. *NPJ Vaccines.* 2021;6(1):97. Published 2021 Aug 5. doi:10.1038/s41541-021-00356-x
172. Feng L, Wang Q, Shan C, et al. An adenovirus-vectored COVID-19 vaccine confers protection from SARS-COV-2 challenge in rhesus macaques. *Nat Commun.* 2020;11(1):4207. Published 2020 Aug 21. doi:10.1038/s41467-020-18077-5
173. Stadler K, Masignani V, Eickmann M, et al. SARS--beginning to understand a new virus. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2003;1(3):209-218. doi:10.1038/nrmicro775
174. Du L, Zhao G, Lin Y, et al. Intranasal vaccination of recombinant adeno-associated virus encoding receptor-binding domain of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) spike protein induces strong mucosal immune responses and provides long-term protection against SARS-CoV infection. *J Immunol.* 2008;180(2):948-956. doi:10.4049/jimmunol.180.2.948
175. Shim BS, Stadler K, Nguyen HH, et al. Sublingual immunization with recombinant adenovirus encoding SARS-CoV spike protein induces systemic and mucosal immunity without redirection of the virus to the brain. *Virol J.* 2012;9:215. Published 2012 Sep 21. doi:10.1186/1743-422X-9-215
176. Munster VJ, Wells D, Lambe T, et al. Protective efficacy of a novel simian adenovirus vaccine against lethal MERS-CoV challenge in a transgenic human DPP4 mouse model. *NPJ Vaccines.* 2017;2:28. Published 2017 Oct 16. doi:10.1038/s41541-017-0029-1
177. Matz KM, Marzi A, Feldmann H. Ebola vaccine trials: progress in vaccine safety and immunogenicity. *Expert Rev Vaccines.* 2019;18(12):1229-1242. doi:10.1080/14760584.2019.1698952
178. Coughlan L, Kremer EJ, Shayakhmetov DM. Adenovirus-based vaccines-a platform for pandemic preparedness against emerging viral pathogens. *Mol Ther.* 2022;30(5):1822-1849. doi:10.1016/j.ymthe.2022.01.034
179. Logunov DY, Dolzhikova IV, Shcheblyakov DV, et al. Safety and efficacy of an rAd26 and rAd5 vector-based heterologous prime-boost COVID-19 vaccine: an interim analysis of a randomised controlled phase 3 trial in Russia [published correction appears in *Lancet.* 2021 Feb 20;397(10275):670]. *Lancet.* 2021;397(10275):671-681. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(21)00234-8
180. van Doremalen N, Lambe T, Spencer A, et al. ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine prevents SARS-CoV-2 pneumonia in rhesus macaques [published correction appears in *Nature.* 2021 Feb;590(7844):E24]. *Nature.* 2020;586(7830):578-582. doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2608-y
181. Sadoff J, Gray G, Vandebosch A, et al. Safety and Efficacy of Single-Dose Ad26.COV2.S Vaccine against Covid-19. *N Engl J Med.* 2021;384(23):2187-2201. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2101544

182. Zhu FC, Li YH, Guan XH, et al. Safety, tolerability, and immunogenicity of a recombinant adenovirus type-5 vectored COVID-19 vaccine: a dose-escalation, open-label, non-randomised, first-in-human trial. *Lancet*. 2020;395(10240):1845-1854. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)31208-3
183. Voysey M, Clemens SAC, Madhi SA, et al. Safety and efficacy of the ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine (AZD1222) against SARS-CoV-2: an interim analysis of four randomised controlled trials in Brazil, South Africa, and the UK [published correction appears in *Lancet*. 2021 Jan 9;397(10269):98]. *Lancet*. 2021;397(10269):99-111. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)32661-1
184. Ramasamy MN, Minassian AM, Ewer KJ, et al. Safety and immunogenicity of ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 vaccine administered in a prime-boost regimen in young and old adults (COV002): a single-blind, randomised, controlled, phase 2/3 trial [published correction appears in *Lancet*. 2021 Dec 19;396(10267):1978] [published correction appears in *Lancet*. 2021 Apr 10;397(10282):1350]. *Lancet*. 2021;396(10267):1979-1993. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)32466-1
185. Handel A, Longini IM Jr, Antia R. What is the best control strategy for multiple infectious disease outbreaks?. *Proc Biol Sci*. 2007;274(1611):833-837. doi:10.1098/rspb.2006.0015
186. Aledort JE, Lurie N, Wasserman J, Bozzette SA. Non-pharmaceutical public health interventions for pandemic influenza: an evaluation of the evidence base. *BMC Public Health*. 2007;7:208. Published 2007 Aug 15. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-7-208
187. Bartsch SM, O'Shea KJ, Chin KL, et al. Maintaining face mask use before and after achieving different COVID-19 vaccination coverage levels: a modelling study. *Lancet Public Health*. 2022;7(4):e356-e365. doi:10.1016/S2468-2667(22)00040-8
188. Jefferson T, Del Mar CB, Dooley L, et al. Physical interventions to interrupt or reduce the spread of respiratory viruses. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2011;2011(7):CD006207. Published 2011 Jul 6. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD006207.pub4
189. Brown N, Nettleton S, Buse C, Lewis A, Martin D. The coughing body: etiquettes, techniques, sonographies and spaces. *Biosocieties*. 2021;16(2):270-288. doi:10.1057/s41292-020-00196-3
190. Chen, JM., Chen, YQ. China can prepare to end its zero-COVID policy. *Nat Med* 28, 1104–1105 (2022). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-022-01794-3>
191. Bielecki M, Patel D, Hinkelbein J, et al. Air travel and COVID-19 prevention in the pandemic and peri-pandemic period: A narrative review. *Travel Med Infect Dis*. 2021;39:101915. doi:10.1016/j.tmaid.2020.101915
192. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Respiratory Hygiene/Cough Etiquette in Healthcare Settings, online: <http://www.cdc.gov/flu/professionals/infectioncontrol/resphygiene.htm> (accessed on 28th November, 2022)
193. Beigel JH, Farrar J, Han AM, et al. Avian influenza A (H5N1) infection in humans [published correction appears in *N Engl J Med*. 2006 Feb 23;354(8):884]. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;353(13):1374-1385. doi:10.1056/NEJMra052211
194. Yuen KY, Chan PK, Peiris M, et al. Clinical features and rapid viral diagnosis of human disease associated with avian influenza A H5N1 virus. *Lancet*. 1998;351(9101):467-471. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(98)01182-9
195. Ng EK, Cheng PK, Ng AY, Hoang TL, Lim WW. Influenza A H5N1 detection. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2005;11(8):1303-1305. doi:10.3201/eid1108.041317
196. Bridges CB, Kuehnert MJ, Hall CB. Transmission of influenza: implications for control in health care settings. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2003;37(8):1094-1101. doi:10.1086/378292
197. Pandemic, Committee & Policy, Board. (2006). Reusability of facemasks during an influenza pandemic: Facing the flu. 10.17226/11637.
198. Heymann A, Chodick G, Reichman B, Kokia E, Laufer J. Influence of school closure on the incidence of viral respiratory diseases among children and on health care utilization. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2004;23(7):675-677. doi:10.1097/01.inf.0000128778.54105.06
199. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Impact of seasonal influenza-related school closures on families - South-eastern Kentucky, February 2008. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2009;58(50):1405-1409.
200. Perra N. Non-pharmaceutical interventions during the COVID-19 pandemic: A review. *Phys Rep*. 2021;913:1-52. doi:10.1016/j.physrep.2021.02.001
201. Glogowsky U, Hansen E, Schächtele S. How effective are social distancing policies? Evidence on the fight against COVID-19. *PLoS One*. 2021;16(9):e0257363. Published 2021 Sep 22. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0257363
202. Woskie LR, Hennessy J, Espinosa V, et al. Early social distancing policies in Europe, changes in mobility & COVID-19 case trajectories: Insights from Spring 2020. *PLoS One*. 2021;16(6):e0253071. Published 2021 Jun 30. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0253071
203. Wellenius GA, Vispute S, Espinosa V, et al. Impacts of social distancing policies on mobility and COVID-19 case growth in the US. *Nat Commun*. 2021;12(1):3118. Published 2021 May 25. doi:10.1038/s41467-021-23404-5
204. Courtemanche C, Garuccio J, Le A, Pinkston J, Yelowitz A. Strong Social Distancing Measures In The United States Reduced The COVID-19 Growth Rate. *Health Aff (Millwood)*. 2020;39(7):1237-1246. doi:10.1377/hlthaff.2020.00608
205. Gostin L. Public health strategies for pandemic influenza: ethics and the law. *JAMA*. 2006;295(14):1700-1704. doi:10.1001/jama.295.14.1700
206. Blendon RJ, Benson JM, DesRoches CM, Raleigh E, Taylor-Clark K. The public's response to severe acute respiratory syndrome in Toronto and the United States. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2004;38:925-931. doi: 10.1086/382355.
207. Cobb JS, Seale MA. Examining the effect of social distancing on the compound growth rate of COVID-19 at the county level (United States) using statistical analyses and a random forest machine learning model. *Public Health*. 2020 Aug;185:27-29. doi: 10.1016/j.puhe.2020.04.016.
208. Talic S, Shah S, Wild H, Gasevic D, Maharaj A, Ademi Z, Li X, Xu W, Mesa-Eguiagaray I, Rostron J, Theodoratou E, Zhang X, Motee A, Liew D, Ilic D. Effectiveness of public health measures in reducing the incidence of covid-19, SARS-CoV-2 transmission, and covid-19 mortality: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2021 Nov 17;375:e068302. doi: 10.1136/bmj-2021-068302. Erratum in: *BMJ*. 2021 Dec 3;375:n2997.

209. Goel V, Bulir D, De Prophetis E, et al. COVID-19 international border surveillance at Toronto's Pearson Airport: a cohort study. *BMJ Open*. 2021;11(7):e050714. Published 2021 Jul 1. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2021-050714
210. Peña M, Ampuero M, Garcés C, Gaggero A, García P, Velasquez MS, Luza R, Alvarez P, Paredes F, Acevedo J, Farfán MJ, Solari S, Soto-Rifo R, Valiente-Echeverría F. Performance of SARS-CoV-2 rapid antigen test compared with real-time RT-PCR in asymptomatic individuals. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2021 Jun;107:201-204. doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2021.04.087.
211. Rezaei M, Razavi Bazaz S, Morshedi Rad D, et al. A Portable RT-LAMP/CRISPR Machine for Rapid COVID-19 Screening. *Bio-sensors (Basel)*. 2021;11(10):369. Published 2021 Oct 2. doi:10.3390/bios11100369
212. Burns J, Movsisyan A, Stratil JM, Biallas RL, Coenen M, Emmert-Fees KM, Geffert K, Hoffmann S, Horstick O, Laxy M, Klinger C, Kratzer S, Litwin T, Norris S, Pfadenhauer LM, von Philipsborn P, Sell K, Stadelmaier J, Verboom B, Voss S, Wabnitz K, Rehfuess E. International travel-related control measures to contain the COVID-19 pandemic: a rapid review. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2021 Mar 25;3(3):CD013717. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD013717.
213. Ziegler T, Mamahit A, Cox NJ. 65 years of influenza surveillance by a World Health Organization-coordinated global network. *Influenza Other Respir Viruses*. 2018 Sep;12(5):558-565. doi: 10.1111/irv.12570
214. Szecsenyi J, Uphoff H, Ley S, Brede HD. Influenza surveillance: experiences from establishing a sentinel surveillance system in Germany. *J Epidemiol Community Health*. 1995;49 (Suppl 1):9-13. doi: 10.1136/jech.49.suppl_1.9.
215. Lange W, Schöttler M. Real-time influenza surveillance in Germany--results of a pilot project. *Med Microbiol Immunol*. 2002;191(3-4):139-44. doi: 10.1007/s00430-002-0133-2
216. Flahault A, Dias-Ferrao V, Chaberty P, Esteves K, Valleron AJ, Lavanchy D. FluNet as a tool for global monitoring of influenza on the Web. *JAMA*. 1998 Oct 21;280(15):1330-2. doi: 10.1001/jama.280.15.1330
217. Western Pacific Region Global Influenza Surveillance and Response System. Epidemiological and virological characteristics of influenza in the Western Pacific Region of the World Health Organization, 2006-2010. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(5):e37568. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0037568
218. Adlhoch C, Gomes HC. Sustainability of surveillance systems for SARS-CoV-2. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2022;22(7):914-915. doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(22)00174-8
219. Franke KR, Isett R, Robbins A, et al. Genomic surveillance of SARS-CoV-2 in the state of Delaware reveals tremendous genomic diversity. *PLoS One*. 2022;17(1):e0262573. Published 2022 Jan 19. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0262573
220. Binder AM, Biggs HM, Haynes AK, et al. Human Adenovirus Surveillance — United States, 2003–2016. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2017;66:1039–1042. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6639a2>
221. Kajon AE, Ison MG. Severe Infections with Human Adenovirus 7d in 2 Adults in Family, Illinois, USA, 2014. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2016;22(4):730-733. doi:10.3201/eid2204.151403
222. Nagarajan V, Chen JS, Hsu GJ, Chen HP, Chao HC, Huang SW, Tsai IS, Hsu BM. Surveillance of Adenovirus and Norovirus Contaminants in the Water and Shellfish of Major Oyster Breeding Farms and Fishing Ports in Taiwan. *Pathogens*. 2022 Mar 3;11(3):316. doi: 10.3390/pathogens11030316
223. Daughton CG. Wastewater surveillance for population-wide Covid-19: The present and future. *Sci Total Environ*. 2020 Sep 20;736:139631. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139631
224. La Rosa G, Iaconelli M, Mancini P, Bonanno Ferraro G, Veneri C, Bonadonna L, Lucentini L, Suffredini E. First detection of SARS-CoV-2 in untreated wastewaters in Italy. *Sci Total Environ*. 2020 Sep 20;736:139652. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139652
225. Guajardo-Leiva S, Chnaiderman J, Gaggero A, Díez B. Metagenomic Insights into the Sewage RNA Virophere of a Large City. *Viruses*. 2020 Sep 21;12(9):1050. doi: 10.3390/v12091050.
226. Aw TG, Howe A, Rose JB. Metagenomic approaches for direct and cell culture evaluation of the virological quality of wastewater. *J Virol Methods*. 2014 Dec 15;210:15-21. doi: 10.1016/j.jviromet.2014.09.017.
227. European Food Safety Authority; European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control; European Union Reference Laboratory for Avian Influenza, et al. Avian influenza overview June - September 2022. *EFSA J*. 2022;20(10):e07597. Published 2022 Oct 11. doi:10.2903/j.efsa.2022.7597
228. Li PH, Zheng PP, Zhang TF, Wen GY, Shao HB, Luo QP. Fowl adenovirus serotype 4: Epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnostic detection, and vaccine strategies. *Poult Sci*. 2017 Aug 1;96(8):2630-2640. doi: 10.3382/ps/pex087.
229. Xia J, Yao KC, Liu YY, You GJ, Li SY, Liu P, Zhao Q, Wen Rui Wu YP, Huang XB, Cao SJ, Han XF, Huang Y. Isolation and molecular characterization of prevalent Fowl adenovirus strains in southwestern China during 2015-2016 for the development of a control strategy. *Emerg Microbes Infect*. 2017 Nov 29;6(11):e103. doi: 10.1038/emi.2017.91.
230. Western Pacific Region Global Influenza Surveillance and Response System. Epidemiological and virological characteristics of influenza in the Western Pacific Region of the World Health Organization, 2006-2010. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(5):e37568. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0037568
231. Nguyen TTK, Ngo TT, Tran PM, Pham TTT, Vu HTT, Nguyen NTH, Thwaites G, Virtala AK, Vapalahti O, Baker S, Le Van T. Respiratory viruses in individuals with a high frequency of animal exposure in southern and highland Vietnam. *J Med Virol*. 2020 Aug;92(8):971-981. doi: 10.1002/jmv.25640.
232. Geldenhuys M, Mortlock M, Epstein JH, Pawęska JT, Weyer J, Markotter W. Overview of Bat and Wildlife Coronavirus Surveillance in Africa: A Framework for Global Investigations. *Viruses*. 2021 May 18;13(5):936. doi: 10.3390/v13050936.
233. Enríquez A, Sáenz C, "Primeras lecciones y desafíos de la pandemia de COVID-19 para los países del SICA", serie Estudios y Perspectivas-Sede Subregional de la CEPAL en México, N° 189 (LC/TS.2021/38; LC/MEX/TS.2021/5), Ciudad de México, Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL), 2021.

234. Murthy S, Leligdowicz A, Adhikari NK. Intensive care unit capacity in low-income countries: a systematic review. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(1):e0116949. Published 2015 Jan 24. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0116949
235. Nawaz FA, Deo N, Surani S, Maynard W, Gibbs ML, Kashyap R. Critical care practices in the world: Results of the global intensive care unit need assessment survey 2020. *World J Crit Care Med*. 2022;11(3):169-177. Published 2022 May 9. doi:10.5492/wjccm.v11.i3.169
236. Hinton, R., Armstrong, C., Asri, E., Baesel, K., Barnett, S., Blauvelt, C., Buang, S. N. B., Bury, L., Das, J. K., Franz-Vasdeki, J., Milman, H. M., Murray, J., Palma, S., Renner, I., Roche, M., Saint, V., Simpson, S., Singh, L., McGhie, D. V., Ukhova, D., Kuruvilla, S. Specific considerations for research on the effectiveness of multisectoral collaboration: methods and lessons from 12 country case studies. *Globalization and health* 2021; 17(1), 18. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12992-021-00664-w>
237. McEwen, S. A., & Collignon, P. J. Antimicrobial Resistance: a One Health Perspective. *Microbiology spectrum*, 2018 ;6(2), 10.1128/microbiolspec.ARBA-0009-2017. <https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.ARBA-0009-2017>
238. Saint-Pierre Contreras, G., Muñoz Gomez, G., & Silva Ojeda, F. En búsqueda de otros virus respiratorios durante la pandemia COVID-19 [In search of other respiratory viruses during the COVID-19 pandemic]. *Revista clinica espanola* 2021; 221(4), 247–248. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rce.2020.10.002>
239. Oh, D. Y., Buda, S., Biere, B., Reiche, J., Schlosser, F., Duwe, S., Wedde, M., von Kleist, M., Mielke, M., Wolff, T., & Dürwald, R. Trends in respiratory virus circulation following COVID-19-targeted nonpharmaceutical interventions in Germany, January - September 2020: Analysis of national surveillance data. *The Lancet regional health. Europe* 2021, 6, 100112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lanepe.2021.100112>
240. Qiu, Z., Cao, Z., Zou, M., Tang, K., Zhang, C., Tang, J., Zeng, J., Wang, Y., Sun, Q., Wang, D., & Du, X. The effectiveness of governmental nonpharmaceutical interventions against COVID-19 at controlling seasonal influenza transmission: an ecological study. *BMC infectious diseases*, 2022; 22(1), 331. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-022-07317-2>
241. Collis, P. B., Dudding, B. A., Winter, P. E., Russell, P. K., & Buescher, E. L. Adenovirus vaccines in military recruit populations: a cost-benefit analysis. *The Journal of infectious diseases*, 1973; 128(6), 745–752. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/128.6.745>
242. Pandey A, Singh N, Vemula SV, Couëtill L, Katz JM, Donis R, et al. (2012) Impact of Preexisting Adenovirus Vector Immunity on Immunogenicity and Protection Conferred with an Adenovirus-Based H5N1 Influenza Vaccine. *PLoS ONE* 7(3): e33428. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0033428>
243. Ondondo BO. The influence of delivery vectors on HIV vaccine efficacy. *Front Microbiol*. 2014;5:439. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2014.00439.
244. Li JX, Hou LH, Meng FY, Wu SP, Hu YM, Liang Q, Chu K, Zhang Z, Xu JJ, Tang R, Wang WJ, Liu P, Hu JL, Luo L, Jiang R, Zhu FC, Chen W. Immunity duration of a recombinant adenovirus type-5 vector-based Ebola vaccine and a homologous prime-boost immunisation in healthy adults in China: final report of a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 1 trial. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2017 Mar;5(3):e324-e334. doi: 10.1016/S2214-109X(16)30367-9. Epub 2016 Dec 23. PMID: 28017642.
245. Zhu FC, Hou LH, Li JX, Wu SP, Liu P, Zhang GR, Hu YM, Meng FY, Xu JJ, Tang R, Zhang JL, Wang WJ, Duan L, Chu K, Liang Q, Hu JL, Luo L, Zhu T, Wang JZ, Chen W. Safety and immunogenicity of a novel recombinant adenovirus type-5 vector-based Ebola vaccine in healthy adults in China: preliminary report of a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 1 trial. *Lancet*. 2015 Jun 6;385(9984):2272-9. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60553-0.
246. Ji, T., Li, L., Li, W., Zheng, X., Ye, X., Chen, H., Zhou, Q., Jia, H., Chen, B., Lin, Z., Chen, H., Huang, S., Seto, D., Chen, L., & Feng, L. Emergence and characterization of a putative novel human adenovirus recombinant HAdV-C104 causing pneumonia in Southern China. *Virus evolution*, 2021; 7(1), veab018. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ve/veab018>
247. Beatty MS, Curiel DT. Chapter two--Adenovirus strategies for tissue-specific targeting. *Adv Cancer Res*. 2012;115:39-67. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-398342-8.00002-1
248. Sharma PK, Dmitriev IP, Kashentseva EA, et al. Development of an adenovirus vector vaccine platform for targeting dendritic cells. *Cancer Gene Ther*. 2018;25(1-2):27-38. doi:10.1038/s41417-017-0002-1
249. Food and Drugs Administration, Available online:<https://www.fda.gov/news-events/press-announcements/coronavirus-covid-19-update-fda-limits-use-janssen-covid-19-vaccine-certain-individuals#:~:text=To-day%2C%20the%20U.S.%20Food%20and,who%20elect%20to%20receive%20the> (accessed on 30th November, 2022)
250. Wold WS, Toth K. Adenovirus vectors for gene therapy, vaccination and cancer gene therapy. *Curr Gene Ther*. 2013 Dec;13(6):421-33. doi: 10.2174/1566523213666131125095046.
251. Mantwill K, Klein FG, Wang D, Hindupur SV, Ehrenfeld M, Holm PS, Nawroth R. Concepts in Oncolytic Adenovirus Therapy. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2021 Sep 29;22(19):10522. doi: 10.3390/ijms221910522.
252. Matsuda K, Migueles SA, Huang J, Bolkhovitinov L, Stuccio S, Griesman T, Pullano AA, Kang BH, Ishida E, Zimmerman M, Kashyap N, Martins KM, Stadlbauer D, Pederson J, Patamawenu A, Wright N, Shofner T, Evans S, Liang CJ, Candia J, Biancotto A, Fantoni G, Poole A, Smith J, Alexander J, Gurwith M, Krammer F, Connors M. A replication-competent adenovirus-vectored influenza vaccine induces durable systemic and mucosal immunity. *J Clin Invest*. 2021 Mar 1;131(5):e140794. doi: 10.1172/JCI140794.
253. Petro-Turnquist EM, Bullard BL, Pekarek MJ, Weaver EA. Adenoviral-Vectored Centralized Consensus Hemagglutinin Vaccine Provides Broad Protection against H2 Influenza a Virus. *Vaccines (Basel)*. 2022 Jun 10;10(6):926. doi: 10.3390/vaccines10060926.
254. Gu J, Su QQ, Zuo TT, Chen YB. Adenovirus diseases: a systematic review and meta-analysis of 228 case reports. *Infection*. 2021 Feb;49(1):1-13. doi: 10.1007/s15010-020-01484-7.

-
255. Xu L, Liu J, Liu C, Duan Y, Zhu Y, Xu B, Xie Z. Case-control study of the epidemiological and clinical features of human adenovirus 55 and human adenovirus 7 infection in children with acute lower respiratory tract infections in Beijing, China, 2008-2013. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2018 Dec 7;18(1):634. doi: 10.1186/s12879-018-3520-z.
 256. Mao N, Zhu Z, Rivaller P, et al. Multiple divergent Human mastadenovirus C co-circulating in mainland of China. *Infect Genet Evol.* 2019;76:104035. doi:10.1016/j.meegid.2019.104035
 257. Liu W, Qiu S, Zhang L, et al. Analysis of severe human adenovirus infection outbreak in Guangdong Province, southern China in 2019. *Virology.* 2022;37(3):331-340. doi:10.1016/j.virus.2022.01.010
 258. Griswold DP, Gempeler A, Kolias A, Hutchinson PJ, Rubiano AM. Personal protective equipment for reducing the risk of COVID-19 infection among health care workers involved in emergency trauma surgery during the pandemic: An umbrella review. *J Trauma Acute Care Surg.* 2021 Apr 1;90(4):e72-e80. doi: 10.1097/TA.0000000000003073.

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.