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HUMAN BOCAVIRUSES: COMMON BUT NOT WIDELY KNOWN

Syventävien opintojen kirjallinen työ

Kevätlukukausi 2020

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Kliininen laitos

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Syventävien opintojen kirjallinen työ, 21 s., 1 liites.

Lastentautioppi

Helmikuu 2020

Human bocavirus 1 (HBoV1), belonging to the *Parvoviridae* family was discovered in 2005 in nasopharyngeal samples from children with respiratory tract infections (RTIs). Three additional bocaviruses, HBoV2-4, were discovered in 2009-2010. These viruses have mainly been found in faecal samples, and their role in human diseases is still uncertain. HBoV1 causes a wide spectrum of respiratory diseases in children including common cold, acute otitis media, pneumonia, bronchiolitis and asthma exacerbations. HBoV1 DNA can persist in airway secretions for months after an acute infection. Consequently, acute HBoV1 infection cannot be diagnosed with standard DNA PCR; quantitative PCR and serology are better diagnostic approaches. Because of their high clinical specificity, diagnostic developments such as HBoV1 mRNA and antigen detection have shown promising results. This review summarizes the knowledge on human bocaviruses, with special focus on HBoV1.

Key words: human bocavirus, respiratory tract infection

KESTI, OLLI: Ihmisen bokavirukset: yleisiä, mutta huonosti tunnettuja

Syventävien opintojen kirjallinen työ, 21 s., 1 liites.

Lastentautioppi
Helmikuu 2020

Ihmisen bokavirus 1 (hBoV1), joka kuuluu Parvovirusten sukuun, löydettiin vuonna 2005 ylähengitystieinfektioita sairastaneiden lasten nenänielunäytteistä. Kirjallisuuskatsaus tiivistää ajankohtaista tietoa bokaviruksien genomista ja rakenteesta, epidemiologiasta, esiintyvyydestä muiden virusinfektioiden yhteydessä, transmissiosta, patogeenisistä, persistenssistä, diagnostiikasta, kliinisestä kuvasta, vakavan hBoV1-infektion riskitekijöistä sekä hoidosta.

Katsaus on jatkoa työryhmän aiemmalle kirjallisuuskatsaukselle, jossa tarkastelun kohteena olivat ennen 23.5.2011 ilmestyneet bokavirusta koskevat julkaisut. Tämä tutkielma perustuu 508:aan aikavälillä 23.5.2011–30.4.2018 julkaistuun PubMed-tietokannassa oleviin englanninkieliseen artikkeliin, jotka löydettiin hakusanalla ”bokavirus”. Näistä artikkeleista valikoitiin merkittävät molekyylitason tutkimukset, jotka sisälsivät uutta tietoa bokaviruksen biologiasta tai diagnostiikasta. Lisäksi katsaukseen sisällytettiin kliiniset tutkimukset, joissa otoskoko oli vähintään 100 tai tutkimus sisälsi muuten arvokasta tietoa, kuten ainutlaatuisia tutkimusmenetelmiä tai potilasryhmiä.

Katsaukseen valikoituneista tutkimuksista ilmenee, että hBoV1 on yleinen ylähengitystieinfektioiden aiheuttaja lapsilla. hBoV2-4 löydettiin vuosina 2009–2010. Näitä viruksia esiintyy pääasiassa ulostenäytteissä ja niiden merkitys sairauksien aiheuttajana on vielä epäselvä. hBoV1 aiheuttaa lapsilla useita eri hengitystieinfektioiden taudinkuvia, joihin kuuluvat tavallinen flunssa, akuutti välikorvatulehdus, keuhkokuume, bronkioliitti, toistuva uloshengitysvaikeus ja astman pahenemisvaihe. hBoV1-DNA:ta voi esiintyä hengitysteiden eritteissä kuuksia akuutin infektion jälkeen. Tämän vuoksi akuutin hBoV1-infektion diagnosoinnissa ei voida käyttää tavallista DNA-PCR-menetelmää. Diagnostiikassa tarkempia menetelmiä ovat kvantitatiivinen PCR sekä serologia. Uusilla tutkimusmenetelmillä, kuten hBoV1-mRNA -tunnistuksella ja hbov1-antigeenintunnistuksella on saatu lupaavia tuloksia. Menetelmien kliininen spesifisyys on tarkempi.

Akuutin hBoV1-infektion diagnosoimiseksi suositellaan kirjallisuuskatsauksen perusteella, että ainakin kahden seuraavista kriteereistä tulisi täyttyä: suuri DNA-määrä tai mRNA:n esiintyminen nenänielueritteissä sekä positiivinen IgM, matala IgG-aviditeetti tai nelinkertainen IgG-tason kasvu pariseeruminäytteissä.

Avainsanat: Bokavirus, ylähengitystieinfektio

Human bocaviruses: common but not widely known

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Funding: The Sigrid Jusélius Foundation and the Life and Health Medical Grant Association, Helsinki, Finland

Keywords: Parvovirus; human bocavirus; infection; parvovirus; respiratory tract infection

Summary

Human bocavirus 1 (HBoV1), belonging to the *Parvoviridae* family was discovered in 2005 in nasopharyngeal samples from children with respiratory tract infections (RTIs). Three additional bocaviruses, HBoV2-4, were discovered in 2009-2010. These viruses have mainly been found in faecal samples, and their role in human diseases is still uncertain. HBoV1

causes a wide spectrum of respiratory diseases in children including common cold, acute otitis media, pneumonia, bronchiolitis and asthma exacerbations. HBoV1 DNA can persist in airway secretions for months after an acute infection. Consequently, acute HBoV1 infection cannot be diagnosed with standard DNA PCR; quantitative PCR and serology are better diagnostic approaches. Because of their high clinical specificity, diagnostic developments such as HBoV1 mRNA and antigen detection have shown promising results. This review summarizes the knowledge on human bocaviruses, with special focus on HBoV1.

Key messages

- Human bocaviruses (HBoVs) are common in humans
- Four types of designated HBoV have been described HBoV1-4
- HBoV1 is associated with respiratory tract infections in children
- HBoV2-4 are mainly detected in fecal samples and their pathogenic potential is uncertain
- HBoV1 infection should not be diagnosed on the basis of HBoV1 DNA detection alone
- Quantitative HBoV1 DNA analysis, serology or HBoV1 mRNA detection are recommended diagnostic approaches

Introduction

Human bocavirus 1 (HBoV1) was discovered in 2005, in nasopharyngeal aspirates from children with respiratory tract infections, and belongs to the *Parvoviridae* family. The closest relatives to HBoV1 are found in animals, whereas the well-known human parvovirus B19 is more distantly related.¹ Accumulating evidence, since 2005, has been obtained in support of HBoV1 being a genuine human pathogen causing mild to severe respiratory tract infections in children.²⁻¹³ Because of the absence of animal models for HBoV1 infection, the evidence is mainly epidemiological and clinical, including both case-control and longitudinal studies using stringent diagnostic criteria based on serology, quantitative PCR, HBoV1 mono-infection, or HBoV1 mRNA detection.¹⁴ HBoV1 can be detected in airway samples from up to a quarter of children with upper or lower respiratory tract infections (appendix).

Since 2009, three additional bocaviruses designated HBoV2–4 have been discovered.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ These viruses have mainly been detected in faecal samples with detection ranging from 1% to more than 40% in children both with and without gastrointestinal illnesses (appendix). HBoV DNA has also been detected in serum, cerebrospinal fluid, urine, tonsillar tissue, tumour

tissue and even in sewage and river water.^{2,18-24} Clinical implications of these non-respiratory findings are uncertain.

From a clinical perspective, HBoV1 seems to be the most important of the human bocaviruses and should be part of a standard test repertoire for respiratory tract infections in children admitted to hospital. However, detection of HBoV1 DNA in nasopharyngeal aspirates from healthy children is also common, which leads to a low clinical specificity for the widely used HBoV1 DNA PCR method.^{2,7,13,25} Therefore, accurate diagnosis of HBoV1 infections should not be based on qualitative PCR alone. During the past 10 years, improved diagnostic approaches based on serology, quantitative DNA analysis, mRNA detection, and antigen detection have been developed.^{2,8,11,12,26} Despite the high prevalence of paediatric HBoV1 infections, the virus is still not recognised by many clinicians. In this Review, we give an overview of the knowledge regarding human bocaviruses with an emphasis on clinical features and diagnostic implications. The epidemiology, basic virology, and pathogenesis of bocaviruses are briefly discussed.

Search strategy and selection criteria

We searched the PubMed database for articles published in English between May 23, 2011, and April 30, 2018, with “bocavirus” as a search term (508 hits). Of those articles, we only included major molecular studies (new data on the bocavirus biology or diagnostics) and clinical studies (sample size over 100 cases unless otherwise valuable ie, unique diagnostics or patient groups). For an overview of literature published before May 23, 2011, we refer mainly to previous reviews on human bocaviruses.^{14,27}

Virus genome and structure

Parvoviruses are small (approximately 25 nm) non-enveloped viruses, with icosahedral T=1 capsid symmetry and a linear single-stranded DNA genome of 4-6 kb in length, with palindromic hairpin structures at both ends. One full-length HBoV1 genome (including hairpin ends) has been sequenced and it is 5543 nucleotides (nt) long with non-identical terminal hairpins of 140 nt and 122 nt (GenBank number JQ923422).²⁸ Most of the encapsidated HBoV1 DNA strands have a negative polarity.²⁹

The HBoV1 genome contains two main reading frames, the left (3') half of the negative-strand genome encoding the non-structural NS1-4 proteins, and the right (5') half encoding the structural capsid proteins VP1-3, where VP3 is the major capsid protein (figure 1).^{14,30-33} Unlike other parvoviruses, bocaviruses also have a smaller third middle reading frame encoding a unique nuclear protein, NP1, important in viral DNA replication and mRNA processing.^{34,35} HBoV1 has been shown to express a 140 nt non-coding RNA (Boca SR) at the right-hand side of the negative-sense genome that is required for NS protein expression.³⁶ Intraspecies recombination has been shown for all four human bocaviruses,¹⁷ and a recombination event between HBoV1 and a common ancestor of HBoV2 and HBoV4 might have led to the formation of HBoV3.³⁷

The HBoV1 capsid follows the typical parvovirus structure comprising 60 copies of the major capsid protein motif. The capsid structure has been determined to 2.9Å resolution by cryo-electron microscopy and three dimensional image reconstruction.³⁸ The inner core of the capsid is formed by an α -helix and an eight-stranded β -barrel structure, typical of parvoviruses.³⁹ Long amino acid loops between the β -strands shape the surface of the capsid. Some features of this topology are shared with many other parvoviruses, including an open channel at the 5-fold axes with a surrounding depression, another depression at the 2-fold axes and protrusions at the 3-fold axes. The 5-fold channel is used for externalisation of VP1u, packaging, and uncoating of viral DNA. HBoV1-specific variable-loop regions, which are important for infectivity and antigenicity have also been identified on the capsid.³⁸ The viral capsid surface is involved in many processes, including host tropism, cell recognition, intracellular trafficking, genome packaging and the immune response.^{38,39}

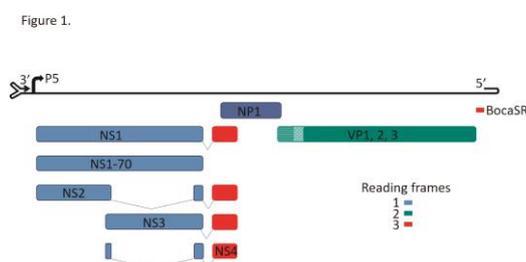


Figure 1: Human bocavirus 1 genome structure

The 5543 nucleotide human bocavirus 1 linear negative-sense single-stranded DNA genome with hairpin termini is depicted as a black line, with the P5 promoter as a black arrow. Below the genome, open reading frames are depicted in blue and red boxes for the non-structural

(NS1-4 and NP1) genes and in green for the overlapping structural (VP1-3) genes, expressed in a ratio of 1:1:10. The non-coding RNA (Boca SR) is depicted in red. Spliced introns are indicated as thin lines.

Epidemiology

In several worldwide clinical studies, HBoV1 has been one of the most commonly detected respiratory viruses in young children with respiratory tract infections (figure 2). By using qualitative PCR analysis of respiratory tract secretions, HBoV1 DNA has been detected in 0.7-25% of children with upper respiratory tract infections and 0.8-23% with lower lower respiratory tract infections (appendix). However, because of the persistence of the virus, some studies have also detected HBoV1 DNA at a similar prevalence in healthy controls.^{7,13,25,40,41} HBoV1 DNA has mainly been detected in children younger than 5 years old, both with and without respiratory tract infections.^{13,25,42,43} HBoV1 appears throughout the year, and no clear seasonality has been observed in epidemiological studies that controlled for sampling frequency.^{7,13} In adults with respiratory illness, HBoV1 has been detected in less than 10% of cases, and in most studies, less than 1% of cases (appendix).

HBoV2-4 DNA has been detected mainly in faecal samples (Appendix). However, the prevalence of human bocaviruses in patients without diarrhoea is similar to that in patients with gastrointestinal diseases.⁴⁴ Importantly, HBoV2 DNA has been shown to be present in faecal samples for months, possibly explaining the similar prevalence.⁸ HBoV1 has also been detected in faeces, presumably representing the intestinal passage of the viruses secreted from the respiratory tract in children either with or without accompanying respiratory symptoms.⁴⁴

The prevalence of acute HBoV1 infections could only be determined after the development of serodiagnosis. In one study, maternal antibodies were shown to be present in 90% of children younger than 3 months old, after which seropositivity decreased, reaching low antibody detection when the child was between 6 and 12 months.⁴⁵ After infancy, HBoV seroprevalence increases until age 6 years, by which time 90-100 % of children have circulating antibodies against at least one of the four human bocaviruses.^{8,46} HBoV1 IgG antibody concentrations remain high during adulthood, probably because of the immunity boost caused by circulating HBoV1 or by an infection of related HBoV2, HBoV3, or both.^{8,9,46,47} Antibody cross-reactivity can occur between the different bocaviruses, but this problem can be overcome by blocking the antibodies recognising common epitopes by a competition enzyme immune-assay.^{8,46} At age 6 years, the seroprevalence of HBoV1 is already around 80%, for HBoV2 it is 50%, for HBoV3 10%, and for HBoV4 it is close to

zero, when cross reactivity is controlled for.^{8,46} However, immunological so-called original antigenic sin results in further complication by giving an underestimate of the seroprevalence. If a child has encountered an HBoV2 infection before the HBoV1 infection, a specific antibody response will not always be induced to HBoV1, but instead the child will show a boosted HBoV2 response.^{8,48} An estimation can be made that no more than 20-25% of patients positive for HBoV1 DNA have an acute infection on the basis of serodiagnosis.^{2,8}

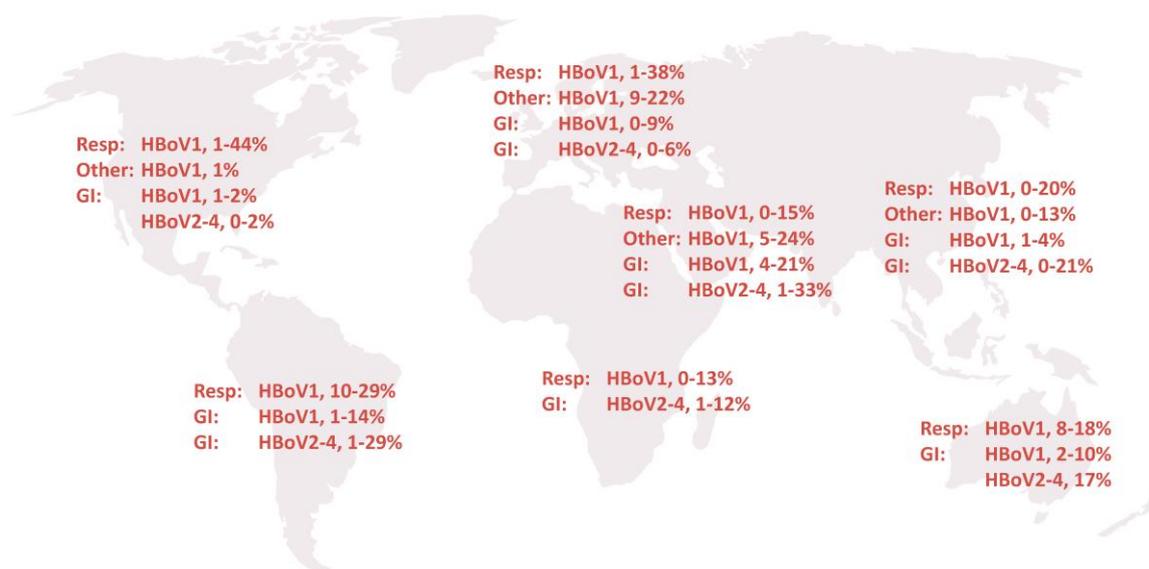


Figure 2: Geographical distribution of HBoV1-4 detected in patients with respiratory, gastrointestinal, and other diseases

HBoV=human bocavirus. Other diseases include encephalitis, hepatitis, tonsillitis, and malignant tumours. Values indicate percentages of each virus detected in each disease group for each region.

Co-detections

Multiple viral detections are common in the respiratory tract of young children, and HBoV1 is frequently detected together with other respiratory viruses (appendix). In as many as three quarters of HBoV1 DNA-positive respiratory samples, at least one other respiratory pathogen can be detected.^{13,40,49-51} Prolonged shedding, lasting for months after the primary infection, has been demonstrated in a number of studies.^{7,9,40,41,52,53} Additionally, according to one longitudinal study of saliva in infants, a third of the first encounters with HBoV1 might occur without associated new-onset cough or rhinorrhoea. However, whether those encounters were acute primary infections, saliva contaminations of other day-care infants, or whether these children had maternal antibodies protecting them from disease was not verified.⁷ Given the prolonged shedding of HBoV1 and the fact that children younger than age 2 years can have

from six to ten respiratory infections per year,⁵⁴ DNA from HBoV1 might frequently be co-detected with other infections and also be observed in asymptomatic children.

However, even in respiratory samples containing actively transcribing HBoV1, other viruses have been detected in almost 60% of the cases.¹² This detection raises the question of whether HBoV1 also has a more active or synergetic role in multiple respiratory infections. A few on HBoV1 have been published;^{2,13,43,49,55,56} however, investigating the interactions between respiratory viruses is demanding because large patient and control groups are needed to get enough samples containing each virus combination in question. Good evidence supporting the hypothesis that other viruses would modify HBoV1 symptomatology by acting either synergistically or antagonistically has not been provided. However, one study showed that HBoV1 suppressed rhinovirus-associated immune responses.⁵⁵ In the study, HBoV1 was associated with a reduction of rhinovirus' potential to cause new wheezing episodes for up to 2 years after the acute infection. This finding could be valuable and warrants further study.

Detection of other gastrointestinal viruses in HBoV2-positive and HBoV3-positive faecal samples from children with gastroenteritis have also been shown (appendix). In 44-100% of the samples, at least one other gastrointestinal virus has been detected. However, the prolonged shedding of HBoV2 in faecal samples could be interfering with the interpretation of results.⁸ The occurrence of HBoV4 in studies done so far has been too low for any conclusions to be drawn.

Transmission

HBoV1 DNA has primarily been detected in samples from the respiratory tract and is most likely transmitted through the respiratory route (appendix). Conversely, HBoV2-4 has been detected in faecal samples and spread most likely faecal-oral route (appendix). Vertical transmission of human bocaviruses from mother to fetus has not been shown. HBoV DNA has been detected in plasma from healthy children and adults (including blood donors);⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ however, whether this detection represents transmissible viruses or circulating non-infectious HBoV DNA remains to be determined. In another study, HBoV DNA was not detected in any of 48 batches of coagulation factor products.⁶⁰

Pathogenesis

Because of the difficulty of culturing replicative viruses with cell lines, and the absence of experimental animal models to mimic infection, the pathogenesis of human bocaviruses has been poorly studied.²⁷ However, studies have identified the mechanisms of HBoV1 infection in human cells. HBoV1 has been shown to disrupt epithelial barrier function^{28,61} and induce a DNA damage response in in-vitro polarised airway epithelia cultures.⁶² HBoV1 infection induces NLRP3 inflammasome activation and caspase 1-induced cell death mediated by pyroptosis. Additionally, epithelial cells produce high amounts of interleukin (IL)-1 α and IL-18 throughout the course of infection, which also leads to the death of bystander cells. Anti-apoptotic genes *BIRC6* and *IFI6* are upregulated in epithelial cells upon HBoV1 infection. The skewing of cells into pyroptosis as opposed to apoptosis has been postulated as a mechanism for HBoV1 to establish a persistent infection.⁶³

Patients with infections caused by HBoV1 show elevated concentrations of interferon (IFN)- γ , IL-2 and IL-4.⁶⁴ In-vitro stimulation of CD4 T cells with HBoV1 virus-like particles causes increased secretion of IL-10, IFN- γ and IL-13. On the other hand, the induction of T-helper-2 cytokines and pro-inflammatory molecules upon HBoV1 infection has been suggested as a factor contributing to asthma exacerbations.^{65,66} On the other hand, HBoV1 has also been associated with markedly reduced rhinovirus-induced T-helper-1 and T-helper-2 proinflammatory responses.⁵⁵

Persistence

HBoV1 DNA has been detected in the nasopharynx of children up to 12 months after the primary infection.⁷ However, whether HBoV1 can establish latency by integration into the host cell genome or as an episome remains unknown.⁶⁷ As mentioned previously, the prolonged presence of the virus in the airways is a possible explanation for the high detection among healthy children observed in most clinical studies. Prolonged and intermittent HBoV1 excretion after primary infection has been documented in both immunocompetent and immunocompromised children.^{7,52,53,68-70} The mechanisms of persistency, reactivation and reinfection of HBoV1 are poorly understood. However, a few studies have shown that HBoV1 DNA is common in tonsillar tissue from children with hypertrophic tonsils.^{23,71,72} These

findings indicate that tonsils, and adenoids might be the source of prolonged HBoV1 shedding and that they are interesting targets for future studies on HBoV1 persistence.

Diagnosis

The diagnosis of acute viral respiratory tract infections usually relies on qualitative PCR-based assays detecting virus genomes in respiratory samples. However, for the diagnosis of HBoV1 infections, use of such assays is not feasible as the prolonged persistence of HBoV1 DNA in the airways complicates the interpretation of a positive test result.^{7,9,40,41,52,53} The detection of HBoV1-specific IgM and of an increase or seroconversion of IgG provides a higher specificity than qualitative PCR-based assays.² Serological tests could have low sensitivity during acute infections because of late seroconversion (figure 3). However, a positive IgM together with low IgG avidity, or a 4-fold increase of IgG titre, in paired serum samples, are criteria ensuring a specific diagnosis of acute HBoV1 infection.^{2,73} However, two caveats interfere with serodiagnosis of HBoV1-4: cross-reactivity and original antigenic sin, both of which need to be taken into consideration when doing HBoV1 serodiagnosis.^{8,48}

Some studies have focused on the clinical value of a high HBoV1 DNA load (a load more than 10^4 or 10^6 copies per mL) in respiratory secretion, but their results have been conflicting.^{2,4,7,13,40,49} The conflict results can be explained by confounding effects of varying frequencies of co-detections in the patient and control groups, type of diagnostic reference method, sample type, or varying quantitative PCR test performances. Studies that use HBoV1 serology or mRNA detection as reference standard have reached more consistent results and can provide a basis for defining a clinical cut-off quantity.^{2,11,12,74} Concentrations from 10^4 to 10^8 HBoV1 DNA copies per mL of nasopharyngeal secretions have been suggested to indicate acute HBoV1 infection.^{2,7,11,12,74} With HBoV1 mRNA as the reference for the performance of quantitative PCR ($>10^6$ copies per mL), sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 93 – 99% and positive predictive values (PPV) of 56-87% have been reported.^{12,74} With serodiagnosis as standard, the performances of quantitative PCR sensitivity was 81%, specificity was 92%, and PPV was 87%.⁷⁴ Moreover, in another study, eight (38%) of 21 symptomatic children with HBoV1 DNA loads less than 10^4 copies per mL had a serologically confirmed acute infection, compared with 27 (96%) of 28 children with DNA loads more than 10^4 copies per mL.² Therefore, the clinical sensitivity of measuring high HBoV1 DNA loads seems to be moderate.

Presence of HBoV1 DNA in plasma or serum (DNAemia) seems to be specific for acute HBoV1 infections. DNAemia is rarely detected in controls,^{2,8,13} although it has been detected in healthy blood donors.^{57,58} The clinical sensitivity of this test is uncertain and in one study was found to be lower than the sensitivity for HBoV1 mRNA detection.¹² The duration of DNAemia during the acute infection is short.^{2,9}

Other promising diagnostic approaches are the detection of HBoV1 mRNA by RT-PCR or HBoV1 antigen by immunodetection.^{12,26} Studies on the HBoV1 mRNA test have shown high specificity for children with upper or lower respiratory tract infections.^{10-12,74} The clinical sensitivity of the test depends on the duration of HBoV1 mRNA expression in the nasopharynx, and follow-up studies to address this question are needed. Antigen tests generally have lower sensitivities than tests based on nucleic acid detection. However, antigen tests are simple and robust tests that are well suited for outpatient use. Considering the very low specificity of HBoV1 DNA PCRs, antigen tests might provide an overall improvement, even with a lower sensitivity. An automated HBoV1 antigen test was released in 2014, and further investigation regarding the test's sensitivity and specificity are underway.²⁶

We recommend that at least two of the following five factors should be present for the diagnosis of an acute primary HBoV1 infection: high DNA load by quantitative PCR ($>10^6$ HBoV1 DNA copies per mL of nasopharyngeal secretions), HBoV1 mRNA in nasopharyngeal secretions, positive IgM, low IgG avidity, or a 4-fold increase or more of IgG levels in paired serum samples. Since the role of HBoV2-4 in gastrointestinal diseases has not yet been clarified, diagnostic recommendations cannot be given for these viruses.

Clinical features

The clinical manifestations of a respiratory tract infection caused by HBoV1 are very similar to those of respiratory tract infections caused by other respiratory viruses, the most common being cough, fever, common cold, dyspnoea, diarrhoea and vomiting.^{7,41} In hospital-based studies, the most frequent diagnoses have been rhinitis, acute otitis media, pneumonia, bronchiolitis and asthma exacerbations.^{13,49,51,75} In case-control studies, statistically significant associations have been found between HBoV1 (DNAemia, monoinfection, or high HBoV1 DNA load in nasopharyngeal aspirate) and lower respiratory tract infections.^{13,49,75} Population-based studies with control groups have shown associations between HBoV1 (high

HBoV1 load or serodiagnosis) and symptoms of upper respiratory tract infections such as cough and rhinorrhoea, and the diagnosis of acute otitis media.⁷⁻⁹

In studies comparing HBoV1 infections with respiratory syncytial virus infections, bronchiolitis seems to be more common among children infected with respiratory syncytial virus, and pneumonia among children infected with HBoV1.^{2,43,51} These differences might occur because of differences in patient age. HBoV1-induced bronchiolitis ranks third after respiratory syncytial virus and rhinovirus-induced bronchiolitis, and disease severity appears similar when age differences are adjusted for.² 17 cases of severe, life-threatening and even fatal respiratory HBoV1 infections have been reported.⁷⁶⁻⁸⁵ Most of these studies have been done in children younger than 2 years old with lower respiratory tract infections and respiratory failure. Ten of the children were born prematurely and seven had no known previous illnesses or risk factors. HBoV1 was the sole virus detected in all cases, and in four cases the diagnosis was confirmed by serology.^{78,80,83,84} The most common clinical manifestation was an obstructive lower respiratory tract infection (figure 4). Two of the children died from respiratory failure. Furthermore, HBoV1 can exacerbate chronic pulmonary diseases like asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and cystic fibrosis.^{86,87}

C-reactive protein concentrations and white blood cell counts are usually within normal concentrations or only slightly elevated during acute HBoV1 infections.^{2,43,49} Chest radiography frequently shows peribronchial or interstitial infiltrates, hyperinflation or atelectasis.^{43,51,75} In one study, interstitial infiltrates were observed in 75% of children hospitalised with lower respiratory tract infections that were associated with serologically confirmed HBoV1 infections.⁸⁸

In controlled studies on adults and patients older than 65 years, HBoV1 DNA has rarely been detected in respiratory samples from patients with or without a respiratory tract infection (appendix). Additionally, sample sizes have been too small for conclusions to be drawn on the clinical significance of the results.

HBoV2-4 DNA has been detected almost exclusively in faecal samples, but their causal role in gastrointestinal disease is uncertain. For HBoV2 and 3, equal prevalence has been found in asymptomatic children and in children with gastroenteritis (appendix). Additionally, studies investigating viral DNA load and serology have not shown associations with gastrointestinal disease.^{44,89} Diagnostic challenges similar to those described for respiratory tract infections

are present because of persisting viruses. Further studies based on serology, viral DNA load, and parameters for viral gene expression are needed for elucidating the full role of human bocaviruses in gastroenteritis. For HBoV4, detection has been too low for any conclusions to be drawn on disease associations.

A few case reports have been published describing encephalitis, hepatitis, and myocarditis in patients infected with HBoV1 – 3.^{18-22,90} Although no studies have proved a causal relation, the cases of encephalitis are especially intriguing because HBoV1 – 3 were the only infectious agents detected in cerebral spinal fluid.^{18,20,21} In one study, whole parvovirus particles were detected in cerebral spinal fluid by electron microscopy.¹⁸ HBoV1 DNA has been detected in tissue from hypertrophic tonsils or adenoids in children.^{23,71,72} The pathogenic role of the viruses in these tissues remains uncertain.

Due to the high prevalence of HBoV antibodies in adulthood, primary infections are probably extremely rare in pregnancy. HBoV infection has not been detected in stillborn children or hydrops fetalis.^{91,92}

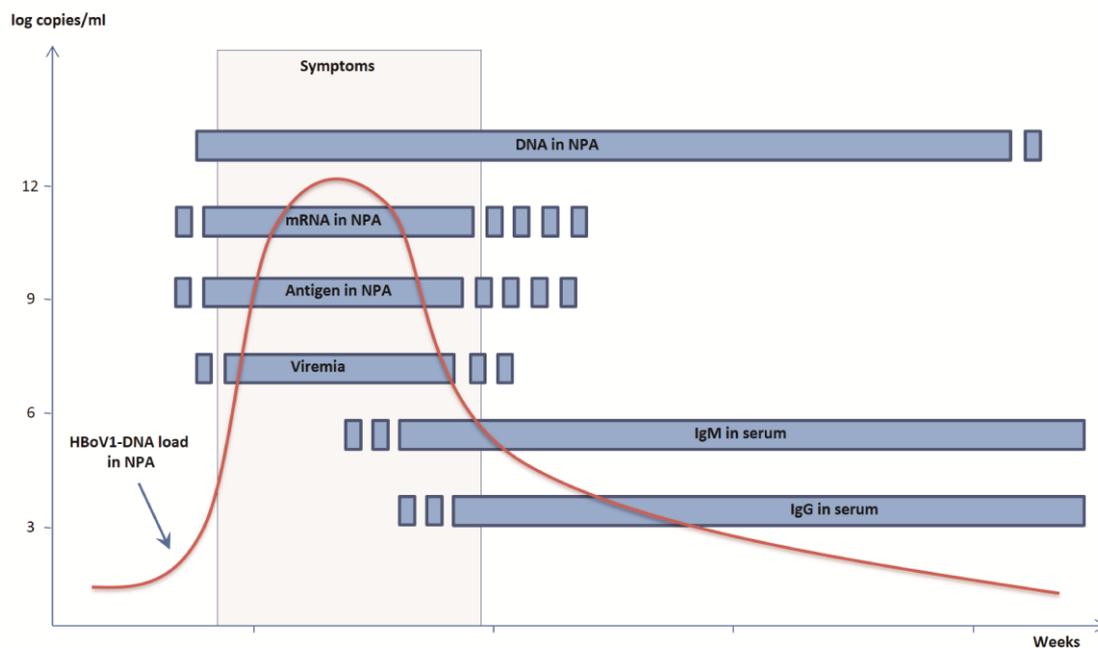


Figure 3: Temporal pattern of clinically relevant variables through the course of an acute primary HBoV1 infection

HBoV1=human bocavirus 1. NPA= nasopharyngeal aspirate. Development of HBoV1 DNA load in NPA is shown by the red curve. All other parameters are represented qualitatively by blue bars. Dotted ends of the blue bars indicate variation or uncertainty.

Risk factors

Risk factors for severe HBoV1-associated illness are similar to those for respiratory viral infections: underlying chronic medical conditions such as cardiac or pulmonary disease, prematurity with chronic lung disease, cancer or immunosuppression. Many cases of severe illness associated with HBoV1 have been published in these patient groups.^{68,69,93,94} As HBoV1 infections seem to produce a long-lasting, high-avidity IgG antibody response,^{2,73} a suppressed B-cell immunity would expectedly increase the risk of HBoV1 infection. In immunocompromised patients, the detection of HBoV1 DNA in respiratory samples has been reported to be associated with fever, lower respiratory symptoms, seizures, encephalitis, hepatitis, and gastrointestinal symptoms.^{69,70,95,96} However, HBoV1 DNA has also been detected in the blood of asymptomatic immunocompromised children,⁹⁷ and one patient showed a prolonged DNAemia for more than 4 weeks. Further studies are needed to clarify the role of both acute and persistent HBoV infections in immunocompromised patients. Young age can be considered a risk factor for infection with HBoV1, as these infections occur most commonly in children younger than 2 years old.^{7,13,27} However, maternal antibodies can protect children younger than 6 months old.⁴⁵ Other risk factors for HBoV1-induced respiratory illness among children younger than 1 year old are maternal smoking, winter birth time, and a family history of asthma.⁴¹ Atopy (allergen-specific sensitisation) is not associated with HBoV1 infection among wheezing children.⁹⁸ Human bocaviruses have also been detected in sewage and river water, thus raising the question of whether proximity to sewage could be a further risk factor.²⁴ The clinical implications of these findings have not yet been elucidated.



Figure 4: Chest radiograph of 10-month-old girl with bocavirus-induced pneumonia

A 10-month-old girl who had bocavirus-induced pneumonia was an A-gemini born at gestational week 28 and 6 days. Her weight at birth was 1115 g and neonatal period was non-complicated. She received propranolol hydrochloride medication to treat small skin hemangiomas. The illness started with symptoms of the common cold (stuffy nose, cough) a day before admission to the pediatric emergency room of Turku University Hospital, Turku, Finland. At examination her general condition was good and oxygen saturation 97%, but respiratory rate was at the upper limit (48 breaths per min). Human bocavirus 1 (HBoV1) was detected by using a rapid antigen detection test (Maripoc, Turku, Finland). The mild respiratory distress was relieved by salbutamol inhalation and she was discharged. However, she came back to the emergency room later that day. Lung mucus viscosity was increased, she was tired, and the respiratory distress was advanced (respiratory rate 60 breaths per min, obstructive lung auscultation). Her C-reactive protein 1 mg/L and blood leukocyte count $10.4 \times 10^9/l$. Salbutamol helped only partially and she was admitted to the regular ward. The next day her general condition collapsed, she was hypotonic, and reporting breathing difficulties. She was admitted to the pediatric intensive care unit where her venous blood pH was 7.22, partial pressure of carbon dioxide was 7.3, base excess -5, bicarbonate was 19.3. A chest radiograph was suggestive of viral pneumonia. The complete respiratory virus panel was tested from nasopharyngeal sample with PCR in the Department of Virology, University of Turku, Turku, Finland. HBoV1 (high concentration) was the only positive finding. She was stabilized by continuous salbutamol inhalation, intravenous corticosteroid, and discontinuation of propranolol hydrochloride. HBoV1 was also detected in her plasma by PCR. After 2 days she was relocated back to regular ward where she received regular salbutamol inhalations and amoxicillin for acute otitis media infection. Finally, 2 days later, she was discharged from the hospital. In the follow-up call 3 days later, the patient appeared to have improved. Propranolol hydrochloride was continued and she did not relapse.

Treatment

HBoV infections do not yet have an approved specific treatment, and no comparative studies on antiviral drugs have been done. Prednisolone was not found effective in a pos-hoc analysis of a randomised controlled trial on wheezing children with serologically confirmed HBoV1 infection.⁹⁹ Therefore, the treatment of choice is supportive care and the most important types are bronchodilation and respiratory support for children with severe bronchiolitis, wheezing, or pneumonia. Although HBoV1 has been associated with acute respiratory infections, the

disease is often self-limiting and uncomplicated. No specific preventive measures are available.

Further research

Good progression has been made regarding the epidemiology and diagnostics of HBoV1 infections; however, several areas remain for which relatively little is known. No exact data regarding transmission of the virus or incubation time exists. Reports concerning HBoV1 pathogenesis are scarce and partly contradictory, and cell tropism, cytokine responses, immunogenicity, tissue persistence, and role in asthma development remain unknown. To learn whether HBoV1 can truly modify responses of other virus infections, and via which mechanisms, is of crucial importance. Prolonged respiratory shedding of HBoV1 is clearly common, but the mechanisms and form of its persistence are not known. Although HBoV1 can cause severe and even fatal lower respiratory tract infections, specific treatment or prophylaxis remains unavailable.

Conclusions

Increasingly evidence shows that HBoV1 is an important respiratory pathogen. Overall, a substantial amount of data are now available regarding HBoV1, whereas relatively little is known about other human bocaviruses. Although most studies have been based on PCR detection of HBoV1 in respiratory tract secretions, only few have confirmed the HBoV1 diagnosis with more specific procedures. Application of more stringent diagnostic methods and criteria will be crucial for the future. Our recommendation is that at least two of the following five factors should be present in diagnosing acute primary HBoV1 infection: high DNA load in nasopharyngeal secretions, mRNA present in nasopharyngeal secretions, positive IgM, low IgG avidity, or 4-fold increase in IgG titre in paired serum samples.

Contributors

All authors participated in the critical evaluation of literature search and in writing the Review.

Declaration of interests

CAA reports grants from Allergopharma, grants from Actellion, grants from Swiss National Science Foundation, grants from Christine Kühne-Center for Allergy Research and Education, from European Commission's Horizon's 2020 Framework Programme, Cure, (outside the submitted work).

TJ reports grants from The Sigrid Jusélius Foundation during the conduct of the study.

AC, OK, VE, ALE, HD, CA and MSV have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by the Sigrid Jusélius Foundation and the Life and Health Medical Grant Association, Helsinki, Finland.

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Appendix

Major studies on human bocavirus respiratory tract infections in children using qPCR, published May 23, 2011 to April 30, 2018 (see Jartti et al 2011 for an overview of earlier publications). References are listed below in supplementary.

1st author	Study site	Study year	n	Age (years)	Symptoms	HBoV DNA +, n (%)	Copy number (copies/ml)	HBoV1 Serodiagnosis n (%)	Viruses tested	Total viral co-detections %	HBoV co-detections with other viruses, n (%)	Total viral detections %
Nunes ¹	South-Africa	2000 – 2002	943	<2	LRTI	125 (13.3)	NA	ND	16	28.7 *	93 (74.4)	54
Nascimento-Carvalho ²	Brazil	2003 – 2005	268	<5	CAP	62 (23)	26 > 10 ⁴ , 36 (low load)	21 (8) ††	17 †	NA	NA	NA
Nokso-Koivisto ³	USA	2003 – 2007	707	6 – 35 months	URTI and AOM	HBoV1: 172 (24)	2.7 x 10 ¹⁰	ND	15	44.1 *	128 (74.4) *	77
Pettigrew ⁴	USA	2003 – 2007	640	6 months – 3 years	AOM	157 (25)	3.23x10 ³ – 1.73x10 ¹²	ND	3	21.5 *	NA	51.0
Pogka ⁵	Greece	2005 – 2008	1272	≤ 18	ILI	81 (6.4) *	LOD: 15	ND	16	21.3 *	48 (59.3) *	64
Honkinen ⁶	Finland	2006 – 2007	76	6 months – 15 years	CAP	14 (18)	NA	ND	18	41.8 *	11 (79)	72
Deng ⁷	China	2006 – 2009	186	23.4 months (mean)	LRTI	31 (16.7) *	< 500 – 1x10 ⁹	ND	11	NA	19 (61.3)	67.7 *
Rodrigues da Silva ⁸	Brazil	2007	260	<3	LRTI	27 (10.4)	NA	ND	13	65	25 (92.6)	85

Ursic⁹	Slovenia	2007 – 2009	891	≤ 17	ARTI	HBoV1: 164 (18·4)	2·0x10 ³ – 9·1x10 ¹⁰	ND	11	24·7	98 (59·8)	75
Chonmaitree¹⁰	USA	2008 - 2013	394	≤ 1	URTI	3 (0·8) *	2·85x10 ⁵ (median viral load among all viruses)	ND	13	39·8 *	NA	76
Akinloye¹¹	Nigeria	2009	246	children	ARTI	6 (2·4) *	NA	ND	12	16	5 (83·3)	77
Hao¹²	China	2009 – 2011	846	≤ 16	RTI	HBoV1: 112 (13·2)	NA	ND	8	72·2 ¶	67 (59·8)	NA
Liu¹³	China	2009 – 2012	4242	≤ 14	ARTI	125 (2·9) *	NA	ND	17 †	21·3 †	57 (45·6) †	55·7 †
Chen¹⁴	China	2009 – 2012	7626	< 14	LRTI	502 (6·6)	NA	ND	10 †	11·1 *, †	146 (29·1) †	45·8 †
Zhao¹⁵	China	2009 – 2012	554	< 5	LRTI	HBoV1: 39 (7·0)	1·4x10 ³ - 5·0x10 ⁹	ND	19	13·7 *	19 (48·7)	61·2 *
Feng¹⁶	China	2009 - 2013	5298	<6 months	ALRI	126 (2·4) *	NA	‡‡	7	23·1 *	413 (75) ‡	48·5 *
			3333	6 – 11 months	ALRI	110 (3·3) *	NA	‡‡	7	25·3 *		50·4 *
			3337	12 – 23 months	ALRI	137 (4·1) *	NA	‡‡	7	23·5 *		48·8 *
			5159	2 – 4	ALRI	116 (2·2) *	NA	‡‡	7	17·7 *		42·8 *
			2618	5 – 9	ALRI	29 (1·1) *	NA	‡‡	7	14·7 *		30·4 *

			892	10 – 14	ALRI	7 (0.8) *	NA	‡‡	7	17.2 *		23.4 *
Zhou¹⁷	China	2009 – 2013	1229	1 – 203 months	RTI	HBoV1: 127 (10.3) *	<500 – 3.8x10 ¹¹	ND	15	40.8 *	61 (48)	53.1
Cui¹⁸	China	2010 - 2011	1074	< 16	ARTI	78 (7.3) *	NA	ND	21	46.9 *	54 (69.2) *	82.3
Kaida¹⁹	Japan	2010 – 2011	1044	<6	ARTI	HBoV1: 176 (16.9) *	NA	ND	19	43.5	152 (86.4)	85.3
Xu²⁰	China	2010 – 2011	1686	≤ 15	ARTI	HBoV1: 52 (3.08)	NA	ND	12	8.8 *,‡	16 (30.8)	41.6
Proenca-Modena²¹	Brazil	2010 – 2012	172	1 – 13	Chronic adeno-tonsillar disease	53 (31.1)	NA	ND	9	62.2	NA	87
Karadag-Oncel²²	Turkey	2011 – 2012	200	<18	ILI	3 (1.5) *	NA	ND	NA	0.9	1 (33.3)	51
Ju²³	China	2011 – 2013	461	≤ 4	ILI	13 (2.8) *	NA	ND	14	11.2 *	11 (84.6) *	57.92
			135	5 – 14	ILI	1 (0.7) *	NA	ND	14	7.6 *	1 (100)	48.96
Kenmoe²⁴	Cameroon	2011 - 2013	347	≤ 15	SARI	37 (10.6)	NA	ND	17	29.5	24 (64.9) *	65.4
Rhedin²⁵	Sweden	2011 – 2014	121	≤ 5	CAP	14 (12)	NA	ND	15	38.8 *	NA	81
			240	≤ 5	Control	50 (21)	NA	ND	15	37.3 *	NA	56

Zar²⁶	South-Africa	2012 – 2014	284	3 – 9 months	Pneumonia	37 (13)	NA	ND	33 †	NA	NA	97 †
			418	2 – 8 months	Control	32 (7·8) *	NA	ND	33 †	NA	NA	97 †
Obuchi²⁷	Japan	2013 – 2014	104 **	< 12	ARTI	HBoV1: 21 (20·2) *	1x10 ³ – 4·3x10 ⁸ copies/swab	ND	21	9·1 *	7 (33)	85
Jiang²⁸	China	2013 – 2014	7393	6 – 24 months	LRTI	654 (8·85)	< 10 ³ – 3·97 × 10 ⁹	ND	9	NA	321 (49)	NA
Aktürk²⁹	Turkey	2013 – 2014	178	2 – 16	URTI / LRTI	8 (4·5) *	NA	ND	21	2·9 *	3 (37·5) *	78·6
Finianos³⁰	Lebanon	2013 – 2014	236	≤ 16	ARTI	36 (15)	NA	ND	17	37	28 (78)	70
Goktas³¹	Turkey	2014 – 2015	309	0 – 15	ARTI	35 (11)	NA	ND	22 †	27·2 †	(64·8) †, ‡	75·1 †

* Percentage re-calculated, † including bacteria, ‡ including all subgroups, § from 760 children, ¶ of all subjects (not virus positive), || number of specimens, ** number of specimens negative for influenza by a rapid test kit, †† different number of serum samples than reported in n number, ‡‡ serodiagnosis done but data not shown in the publication, ALRI = acute lower respiratory infection, AOM = acute otitis media, ARTI = acute respiratory tract infection, ILI = influenza like illness, LOD = limit of detection, LRTI = lower respiratory tract infection, NA = not available, ND = not done, RTI = respiratory tract infection, SRTI = severe respiratory tract infection, URTI = upper respiratory tract infection, SARI = severe acute respiratory infection

Major studies on human bocavirus detections in gastrointestinal illness, published May 23, 2011 to April 30, 2018 (see Jartti et al 2011 for an overview of earlier publications). References are listed below in supplementary.

Ist author	Study site	Study year	n	Age (years)	Symptoms	HBoV	Total HBoV DNA + n (%) and n (%) of HBoV1-4/HBoV	HBoV qPCR reported	Copy number (copies/ml)	HBoV Serodiagnosis n (%)	Viruses tested	Total viral co-detections %	HBoV co-detections with other viruses, n (%)	Total viral detections %
Levicán ⁴⁸	Chile	1985	462	≤ 5	AGE	HBoV	89 (19.3)	No	NA	ND	1	NA	NA	NA
		–				HBoV1	65 (73.0) *							
		1986, 1997				HBoV2	18 (20.2) *							
		–				HBoV3	6 (6.7) *							
2004, 2009														
–														
2010														
Teixeira de Sousa ⁴⁹	Brazil	1994	762	< 5	AGE	HBoV	44 (5.8)	No	NA	ND	6 §	NA	14 (31.8)	NA
		–				HBoV1	11 (91.7) *,							
		1996, 1998				HBoV3	1 (8.3) *,							
–														
2004														
Proenca-Modena ⁵⁰	Paraguay	2004	349	< 5	AGE (non-bacterial)	HBoV1	37 (10.6)	Yes	1.88×10 ⁴ (median)	ND	3 ‡	NA	15 (40.5)	NA
Mitui ⁵¹	Turkey	2004	150	< 5	Acute diarrhea	HBoV	13 (8.7)	No	NA	ND	5	20.7	10 (76.9) *	58
		–				HBoV1	1 (7.7)							
		2005				HBoV2A	7 (53.8)							
						HBoV3	4 (30.8)							

						HBoV4	1 (7·7)							
	Bangladesh	2005 – 2006	138	< 5	Acute diarrhea	HBoV	87 (63·0)	No	NA	ND	5	76·4	81 (91·0) *	89·1
						HBoV1	29 (38·7)							
						HBoV2A	36 (48·0)							
						HBoV3	8 (10·7)							
						HBoV4	2 (2·7)							
Wang⁵²	China	2006 – 2007	366	≤ 13	AGE	HBoV	44 (12·0)	No	NA	ND	6 §	NA	35 (79·5) *	NA
						HBoV1	9 (20·5) *						9 (100) *	
						HBoV2	33 (75) *						24 (72·7) *	
						HBoV3	2 (4·5) *						2 (100) *	
Cashman⁵³	Ireland	2006 – 2008	155	All ages	Non-bacterial GE	HBoV	12 (7·7)	No	NA	ND	4	NA	12 (100)	100
						HBoV1	2 (16·7)*,					100		
						HBoV2	4 (33·3)*,					100		
						HBoV3	2 (16·7)*,					100		
						Recombinations	4 (33·3) *,					100		
Jin⁵⁴	China	2006 – 2008	632	< 5	AGE	HBoV	162 (25·6) *	Yes	NA	ND	5	NA	NA	58·2
						HBoV1	27 (16·7) *		NA				20 (74·1) *	
						HBoV2	129 (79·6) *		42·3 (mean)				94 (72·9)	
						HBoV3	6 (3·7) *		NA				6 (100)	
			162	< 5	Control	HBoV	24 (14·8) *	Yes	NA	ND	5	NA	NA	19·1 *

						HBoV1	4 (16·7) *		NA					
						HBoV2	20 (83·3) *		54·3 (mean)					
Risku⁵⁵	Finland	2006 – 2008	878	< 15	AGE	HBoV	85 (9·7)	No	NA	ND	7 §	NA	69 (81·2) *	NA
						HBoV1	49 (57·0) *						42 (85·7)	
						HBoV2	29 (33·7) *						21 (72·4)	
						HBoV3	8 (9·3) *						7 (87·5)	
			112	< 15	Control	HBoV	6 (5·4)	No	NA	ND	7 §	NA	0 (0)	NA
						HBoV1	2 (33·3) *							
						HBoV2	2 (33·3) *							
						HBoV3	2 (33·3) *							
Chhabra⁵⁶	USA	2008 – 2009	782	< 5	AGE	HBoV	11 (1·4)	Yes	NA	ND	8	13·1	7 (21·2) *, †	40·8 †
			499	< 5	Control	HBoV	12 (2·4)	Yes	NA	ND	8	1·3		
Medici⁵⁷	Italy	2008 – 2009	712	< 154 months	AGE	HBoV	23 (3·2)	No	NA	ND	3 ‡	1·8 *	1 (4·3) *	7·7 *
						HBoV1	5 (21·7)							
						HBoV2	10 (43·5)							
						HBoV3	8 (34·8)							
Rimoldi⁵⁸	Italy	2008 – 2009	154	≤ 252 months	AGE	HBoV	21 (13·6)	Yes	NA	ND	12 ‡‡	13·1 *, ‡‡	7 (33·3) *	64·3
Romani⁵⁹	Iran	2008 –	227	< 18	AGE	HBoV	24 (10·57)	No	NA	ND	1	NA	NA	NA
			67	> 18	AGE	HBoV	3 (4·48)	No	NA	ND	1	NA	NA	NA

		2010				HBoV1	3 (17.6) *,							
						HBoV2	13 (76.5) *, 							
						HBoV3	1 (5.9) *,							
Alam⁶⁰	Pakistan	2009	365	< 5	AGE	HBoV	47 (13)	Yes	NA	ND	2	12.9 *	46 (98)	97.8 *
						HBoV1	26 (94)							
						HBoV2	1 (3)							
						HBoV3	1 (3)							
Khamrin⁶¹	Japan	2009	177	< 5	AGE	HBoV	11 (6.2)	No	NA	ND	12	NA	9 (81.8)	NA
		– 2010				HBoV1	7 (63.6) *							
						HBoV2A	4 (36.4) *							
Lasure⁶²	India	2009	418	≤ 5	AGE	HBoV	24 (5.7)	No	NA	ND	6	NA	5 (21)	NA
		– 2011				HBoV1	15 (62)							
						HBoV2	4 (17)							
						HBoV3	2 (8)							
						HBoV4	3 (12)							
Paloniemi⁶³	Finland	2009	172	Children	AGE	HboV	14 (8.1) *	Yes	NA	10 (33.3) *, †, **	1	NA	12 (85.7) *	NA
		– 2011				HBoV1	3 (21.4) *						2 (66.7) *	
						HBoV2	10 (71.4) *						9 (90.0) *	
						HBoV3	1 (7.1) *						1 (100) *	

			238	Children	AGE+ARTI	HBoV	37 (15.5) *	Yes	NA	10 (33.3) *, †, **	1	NA	7 (18.9) *	NA
						HBoV1	22 (59.5) *						NA	
						HBoV2	13 (35.1) *						5 (38.5) *	
						HBoV3	2 (5.4) *						2 (100) *	
Babkin ⁶⁴	Russia	2010 – 2011	1781	≤ 3	AGE	HBoV	34 (1.9)	No	NA	ND	4	11.5 *	15 (44.1) *	39.7
						HBoV1	11 (32.4) *						5 (45.5) *	
						HBoV2	23 (67.6) *						10 (43.5) *	
Monavari ⁶⁵	Iran	2010 – 2011	200	1-5	AGE	HBoV	16 (8)	Yes	NA	ND	6 ††	NA	0 (0)	NA
Thongprachum ⁶⁶	Japan	2010 – 2012	751	≤ 15	AGE	HBoV	48 (6.4)	No	NA	ND	14	26.7 *	38 (79.2) *	70.3
Tymentsev ⁶⁷	Russia	2010 – 2012	5250	≤ 5	AGE (hospitalized)	HBoV	62 (1.2)	No	NA	ND	11 ††	NA	28 (45.2) *	NA
						HBoV1	24 (38.7)						13 (54.2) *	
						HBoV2	35 (56.5)						14 (40) *	
						HBoV3	1 (1.6)						0 (0)	
						HBoV4	2 (3.2)						1 (50) *	
			252	≤ 5	Control	HBoV	1 (0.3)	No	NA	ND	11 ††	NA	NA	NA
Zhang ⁶⁸	China	2010 – 2012	1128	< 14	Diarrhea	HBoV1	17 (1.5)	Yes	NA	ND	6	11.1 *	4 (23.5)	32.8
Khamrin ⁶⁹	Thailand	2011	222	< 5	Diarrhoea	HBoV	17 (7.7)	No	NA	ND	12 §	NA	10 (58.8)	NA

						HBoV1	11 (64.7)							
						HBoV2A	3 (17.6) *							
						HBoV3	2 (11.8) *							
						HBoV4	1 (5.9) *							
Rovida⁷⁰	Italy	2011 – 2012	689	≤ 96	GI symptoms	HBoV	17 (2.5) *	No	NA	ND	12	22.3 *	12 (70.6) *	35.7
Soares Campos⁷¹	Brazil	2012	105	≤ 5	AGE	HBoV	44 (42)	No	NA	ND	4	18.1	12 (27)	68.6 *
						HBoV1	3 (30)							
						HBoV2A	7 (70)							
Tang⁷²	Taiwan	2012 – 2013	110	≤ 18	AGE	HBoV	4 (3.5)	No	NA	ND	1	NA	NA	NA
Zhou⁷³	China	2012 – 2013	346	< 6	AGE	HBoV	60 (17.34)	No	NA	ND	6	NA	26 (43.33)	35.3
						HBoV1	9 (56.3)*,							
						HBoV2	7 (43.8)*,							
La Rosa⁷⁴	Albania	2013 – 2015	142	Children	AGE	HBoV	13 (9.2) *	No	NA	ND	3 §	NA	13 (100)	NA
						HBoV1	12 (92.3) *							
						HBoV2	1 (7.7)*							
Lee⁷⁵	South Korea	2015	155	< 6	GE symptoms	HBoV1	10 (6.5)	No	NA	ND	4 §	NA	3 (30) *	NA
Nawaz⁷⁶	U.K	NA	2256	all ages	GE	HBoV	149 (6.6)	Yes	4.56x10 ³	ND	1	NA	88 (59.1)	NA

			4·56x10 ⁴									
			HBoV1	6 (12·0) *								
			HBoV2	34 (68·0) *								
			HBoV3	10 (20·0) *								
2124	all ages	Control	HBoV	175 (8·2)	Yes	4·56x10 ³	ND	1	NA	87 (49·7)	NA	
						–						
						4·56x10 ⁴						
			HBoV1	25 (42·4) *								
			HBoV2	20 (33·9) *								
			HBoV3	14 (23·7) *								

* Percentages re-calculated, † in the whole study population, ‡ previously tested negative for certain pathogens, § Samples previously tested for certain pathogens, ¶, AGE = acute gastroenteritis, || percentages calculated out of total typed HBoV (not all HBoVs typed), ** different number of serum samples than reported in n number, †† only co-infections with other viruses tested, ‡‡ including bacteria, ARTI = acute respiratory tract infection, GE = gastroenteritis, GI = gastrointestinal, NA = not available, ND = not done

Major studies on human bocavirus respiratory tract infections in adults, published May 23, 2011 to April 30, 2018 (see Jartti et al 2011 for an overview of earlier publications). References are listed below in supplementary.

Ist author	Study site	Study year	n	Age (years)	Diagnosis	HBoV DNA, n (%)	Viruses tested	Copy number	qPCR reported	HBoV-1 Serodiagnosis n (%)	Total viral co-detections %	HBoV co-detections with other viruses, n (%)	Total viral detections (%)
Aronen ³²	Finland	2007 – 2009	438	65 – 100	Respiratory symptoms	HBoV1: 2 (0.5) *, §	16	NA	No	No acute HBoV1 - 4 infection in 396 episodes	13.8 *	NA	37
			200	65 – 100	Respiratory symptoms with dyspnea	HBoV1: 1 (0.6) *, §	16	NA	No		15.8 *	NA	38
			238	65 – 100	Respiratory symptoms without dyspnea	HBoV1: 1 (0.5) *, §	16	NA	No		11.4 *	NA	37
			291	65 – 100	No respiratory symptoms	HBoV1: 0 (0) *, §	16	NA	No		20.9 *	NA	23
Guido ³³	Italy	2008 – 2009	22	15 – 64	ILI	HBoV1: 10 (45.5) *	4	NA	No	ND	26.7 *, ‡	(49.1) ‡	67.2 ‡
			42	>64	ILI	HBoV1: 14 (33.3) *	4	NA	No	ND			
Memish ³⁴	Saudi Arabia	2009	172	41 (mean)	Healthcare workers	0 (0)	18	NA	No	ND	NA	0 (0)	12.8
Paño-Pardo ³⁵	Spain	2009	45	Pregnant	ILI	1 (2.2) *	12	NA	No	ND	2.2 *	0 (0)	66.58

Liu³⁶	China	2009 - 2010	1014	≥ 18	ARTI	4 (0·4)	16 †, ¶	NA	Yes	ND	NA	1 (25)	NA
Lu³⁷	China	2009 – 2010	266	14 – 25	URTI	27 (10·15)	11	NA	No	ND	17·5 *	12 (44·4) *	42·86
			303	26 – 65	URTI	21 (6·93)	11	NA	No	ND	7·2 *	6 (28·6) *	36·63
			27	≥ 66	URTI	1 (3·70)	11	NA	No	ND	0	0 (0)	22·22
Pilorge³⁸	France	2009 – 2010	78	Pregnant	ILI	1 (1·3) *	16	NA	Yes	ND	0	0 (0)	65
Dia³⁹	Senegal	2009 - 2011	232	≥50	ILI	1 (0·4) *	16	NA	Yes	ND	11·4 *	NA	56·9
Lu⁴⁰	China	2009 - 2011	981 ¶	14 – 91	URTI	2 (0·2)	15	NA	No	ND	NA	NA	41·1 *
Feng¹⁶	China	2009 – 2013	2629	15 – 49	ALRI	9 (0·3) *	7	NA	Yes	ND	7·1 *	(75) ‡	19·8 *
			1790	50 – 64	ALRI	6 (0·3) *	7	NA	Yes	ND	7·8 *		16·4 *
			3313	≥ 65	ALRI	11 (0·3) *	7	NA	Yes	ND	5·8 *		14·7 *
Serin⁴¹	Turkey	2010	50	≥ 18	CAP	0 (0)	26	NA	No	ND	10 *	0 (0)	36
Ghietto⁴²	Argentina	2010	19	≥ 16	LRTI	HBoV1: 5 (26·3) *	8 ¶	NA	No	ND	NA	0 (0)	NA
Xu²⁰	China	2010 – 2011	1774	>15	ARTI	HBoV1: 6 (0·37)	12	NA	Yes	ND	8·8 *, ‡	4 (60)	38·7
Koul⁴³	India	2011 – 2012	233	40 – 100	AECOPD	1 (0·4)	18	NA	Yes	ND	8·7 *	0 (0)	19·7

Noh⁴⁴	South-Korea	2011 – 2012	1983	≥18	ILI	0 (0)	17	NA	No	ND	5·6	0 (0)	52·1
Ju²³	China	2011 – 2013	135	15 – 24	ILI	1 (0·7)*	14	NA	Yes	ND	12·2 *	1 (100)	36·30
			167	25 – 59	ILI	1 (0·60)	14	NA	Yes	ND	13·1 *	0 (0)	36·53
			42	≥ 60	ILI	1 (2·4)*	14	NA	Yes	ND	21·4 *	1 (100)	33·33
Remolina⁴⁵	Colombia	2012	91	≥ 18	SRTI	26 (28·6)	19	NA	No	ND	41·3	15 (57·7) *	69·2
Ye⁴⁶	China	2012 – 2015	967	> 60	ARTI	0 (0)	17	NA	No	ND	9·8 *	0 (0)	31·64
Dai⁴⁷	China	2014	81	71±10	AECOPD	6 (7·4)	18	NA	No	ND	31·6 *	NA	38·3 *
Goktas³¹	Turkey	2014 – 2015	536	> 15	ARTI	56 (10·4) *	22 †	NA	Yes	ND	34·5 †	(64·8) †, ‡	70·9 †

* Percentages re-calculated, † Including bacteria, ‡ in all subgroups, § not all samples tested for HBoV, ¶ Only bocavirus positive specimens tested, || number of specimens, AECOPD = acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, ALRI = acute lower respiratory infection, ARTI = acute respiratory tract infection, CAP = community acquired pneumonia, COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, ILI = influenza like illness, LRTI = lower respiratory tract infection, NA = not available, ND = not done, SRTI = severe respiratory tract infection, URTI = upper respiratory tract infection

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