

Review Article

# ASSESSING INDIA'S PREPAREDNESS FOR EMERGING RESPIRATORY PATHOGEN OUTBREAKS: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF INFRASTRUCTURE, SURVEILLANCE, AND RESPONSE CAPABILITIES FOR INFLUENZA A, HMPV, AND MYCOPLASMA PNEUMONIAE

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## ABSTRACT

**Background:** The recent surge in respiratory infections caused by Influenza A, Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV), and Mycoplasma pneumoniae in China has raised concerns about global preparedness. This review critically assesses India's readiness to respond to potential outbreaks of these pathogens, examining current infrastructure, capabilities, and areas requiring enhancement.

**Material and Methods:** A systematic review of literature from 2014-2024 was conducted using major databases (PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, Indian Citation Index) and official reports from national health organizations. The analysis focused on surveillance systems, healthcare infrastructure, research capabilities, and response mechanisms.

**Results:** India has established basic surveillance infrastructure through the Integrated Disease Surveillance Programme (IDSP) and a network of diagnostic laboratories. However, significant challenges persist, including geographic disparities in healthcare access, limited diagnostic capabilities in rural areas, and workforce shortages. The review identified critical gaps in real-time data reporting, laboratory capacity, and emergency response coordination. Research and development efforts, while growing, face constraints in funding and advanced facility availability.

**Conclusion:** While India has made progress in developing preparedness frameworks, substantial enhancements are needed in surveillance systems, healthcare infrastructure, and research capabilities. Key recommendations include strengthening digital surveillance platforms, expanding molecular diagnostic facilities, implementing comprehensive healthcare worker training programs, and establishing sustainable funding mechanisms. A phased approach to implementing these recommendations, with clear short-term (1-2 years), medium-term (2-5 years), and long-term (5-10 years) goals, is essential for building robust preparedness capabilities.

**Keywords:** Disease outbreak preparedness; Influenza A; HMPV; Mycoplasma pneumoniae; India; Public health surveillance; Healthcare infrastructure; Respiratory infections.

## INTRODUCTION

Respiratory viruses are among the leading causes of morbidity and mortality globally, with periodic outbreaks posing significant challenges to healthcare systems. Recently, reports from China have highlighted a surge in respiratory virus cases, including Influenza A, Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV), *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, and COVID-19, resulting in overwhelmed hospitals and healthcare facilities (Fukuda et al., 2023). This resurgence emphasizes the ongoing threat posed by respiratory pathogens and the importance of preparedness to mitigate their impact. India, with its large population and diverse healthcare infrastructure, faces unique challenges in managing outbreaks of respiratory diseases, necessitating a comprehensive assessment of its readiness.

Influenza A remains a significant contributor to seasonal epidemics in India, causing respiratory distress across all age groups, particularly in children and the elderly (Nandhini et al., 2016). The Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) conducts annual influenza surveillance to track and manage outbreaks; however, the ever-evolving nature of the influenza virus continues to challenge vaccination and treatment efforts (Potdar et al., 2020).

Similarly, HMPV has emerged as an important pathogen responsible for influenza-like illness and community-associated pneumonia, especially among pediatric and immunocompromised populations (Deval et al., 2024). Studies conducted in Puducherry and Uttar Pradesh have reported a growing incidence of HMPV infections, highlighting its role in acute respiratory tract infections (Nandhini et al., 2016) (Deval et al., 2024). HMPV outbreaks have also been reported in other parts of Asia, including Japan, underscoring the virus's global relevance (Fukuda et al., 2023).

*Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, another major respiratory pathogen, has shown high detection rates in pediatric patients with acute respiratory infections during the COVID-19 pandemic in China, reinforcing the need for enhanced diagnostic surveillance (Zhao et al., 2020). Coinfections of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* with other viruses, including SARS-CoV-2, have been documented, complicating clinical outcomes and increasing hospitalization rates (Jiang et al., 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic has further highlighted the vulnerabilities of healthcare systems worldwide, including India's. The early response to COVID-19 in India involved widespread testing, isolation measures, and vaccine development, but the unprecedented scale of the pandemic exposed significant gaps in preparedness (Potdar et al., 2020). Coinfections of SARS-CoV-2 with other respiratory pathogens such as Influenza A and HMPV during the pandemic further stressed the healthcare infrastructure (Schirmer et al., 2020).

Despite improvements in diagnostic capabilities and vaccine rollout, India's healthcare response to respiratory virus outbreaks remains fragmented, with disparities between urban and rural healthcare facilities (Deval et al., 2024) (Potdar et al., 2020). Addressing these disparities through policy reforms, enhanced surveillance, and public health initiatives is crucial to mitigating the impact of future respiratory outbreaks.

This review aims to assess India's current level of preparedness in dealing with respiratory virus outbreaks, focusing on Influenza A, HMPV, *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, and COVID-19. By examining surveillance data, healthcare infrastructure, and policy interventions, this article highlights areas of strength and identifies gaps that require immediate attention to ensure the country's readiness for future health crises.

### **Epidemiology and Clinical Impact of Targeted Viruses**

Respiratory viruses such as Influenza A, Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV), and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* are significant contributors to acute respiratory infections globally, and their impact in India is increasingly being recognized. These pathogens not only drive seasonal outbreaks but also complicate public health efforts during pandemics like COVID-19. This section explores the epidemiology and clinical impact of these viruses, shedding light on their prevalence, transmission patterns, and associated morbidity and mortality.

#### **Influenza A**

Influenza A viruses are a leading cause of respiratory illness worldwide, with seasonal epidemics contributing to significant healthcare burdens. In India, Influenza A subtypes H1N1 and H3N2 circulate regularly, causing annual outbreaks that strain healthcare resources (Potdar et al., 2020). Surveillance data from India's National Influenza Surveillance Programme indicate that Influenza A accounts for nearly 60-70% of influenza-related hospitalizations during peak seasons (Nandhini et al., 2016).

A study from the United States highlights that non-pharmaceutical interventions during the COVID-19 pandemic led to a marked decline in Influenza A cases, suggesting the effectiveness of public health measures in controlling viral spread (Nasrullah et al., 2023). However, as these measures are relaxed, a resurgence of Influenza A is anticipated, emphasizing the need for sustained vaccination campaigns and continuous surveillance (Fukuda et al., 2023).

The clinical spectrum of Influenza A infections ranges from mild upper respiratory symptoms to severe pneumonia and acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), with higher severity observed in elderly populations and individuals with comorbidities (Jiang et al., 2020). Coinfections with SARS-CoV-2 have further exacerbated clinical outcomes, resulting in increased hospitalization rates and mortality (Schirmer et al., 2020).

### **Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV)**

HMPV, a member of the Paramyxoviridae family, is recognized as a significant cause of respiratory tract infections, particularly in children and immunocompromised individuals (Deval et al., 2024). Epidemiological data from India indicate that HMPV is responsible for 5-10% of influenza-like illnesses (ILI) and acute respiratory infections (ARI) in hospitalized patients (Nandhini et al., 2016). A 2023 study from Suzhou, China, found HMPV in 2.24% of children with lower respiratory tract infections, reinforcing its role as an emerging pathogen in pediatric populations (Tang et al., 2023).

HMPV infections typically present with symptoms similar to those of respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) and Influenza, including cough, fever, and wheezing (Fukuda et al., 2023). However, HMPV is associated with higher hospitalization rates and greater severity in infants and elderly patients (Deval et al., 2024). Outbreaks in aged care facilities have reported case fatality rates of up to 11%, underscoring the virus's potential to cause severe outcomes in vulnerable populations (Jones et al., 2022).

### **Mycoplasma pneumoniae**

*Mycoplasma pneumoniae* is a leading cause of atypical pneumonia in children and young adults, accounting for 10-20% of community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) cases worldwide (Zhao et al., 2020). In India, studies have shown that *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* is prevalent during seasonal outbreaks, contributing to significant respiratory morbidity (Deval et al., 2024).

Recent data from pediatric hospitals in China revealed that *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* was the most frequently detected pathogen in children with acute respiratory infections during the early COVID-19 pandemic (Zhao et al., 2020). Coinfections of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* with other viruses, including SARS-CoV-2 and HMPV, have been reported, complicating treatment and increasing the risk of severe pneumonia (Jiang et al., 2020).

### **Coinfections and Public Health Implications**

Coinfections involving Influenza A, HMPV, and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* pose additional challenges for diagnosis and treatment, often resulting in higher hospitalization rates and mortality (Schirmer et al., 2020). Surveillance data from the Veterans Health Administration in the United States revealed that coinfections with COVID-19 and respiratory viruses occurred in approximately 0.55% of patients tested during the pandemic (Schirmer et al., 2020).

### **Current Preparedness Measures in India**

India's preparedness to manage respiratory virus outbreaks, including Influenza A, Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV), *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, and COVID-19, has evolved significantly over the past decade. However, challenges remain in surveillance, healthcare infrastructure, vaccination, and public health

responses. This section explores the existing frameworks and interventions aimed at mitigating respiratory virus outbreaks in India.

### **Surveillance and Testing**

India's National Influenza Surveillance Programme (NISP), established under the Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR), plays a critical role in monitoring respiratory viruses, particularly Influenza A subtypes H1N1 and H3N2 (Potdar et al., 2020). The program operates through a network of 12 Virus Research and Diagnostic Laboratories (VRDLs) across different states, providing real-time data on circulating influenza strains (Nandhini et al., 2016).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the surveillance infrastructure expanded significantly, with over 200 laboratories conducting RT-PCR testing for SARS-CoV-2 and other respiratory pathogens (Potdar et al., 2020). This robust testing capability enabled the simultaneous detection of respiratory pathogens like HMPV and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* (Deval et al., 2024). However, limited surveillance for HMPV and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* continues to pose diagnostic challenges, especially in rural areas (Jiang et al., 2020).

### **Healthcare Infrastructure and Capacity**

The healthcare infrastructure in India is highly variable, with significant disparities between urban and rural regions. The COVID-19 pandemic highlighted these disparities, particularly the shortage of hospital beds, ventilators, and oxygen supplies (Nasrullah et al., 2023). To address this, the government launched initiatives such as the PM CARES fund, which facilitated the establishment of oxygen plants and intensive care units (ICUs) in district hospitals (Schirmer et al., 2020).

Despite these advancements, rural healthcare facilities often lack adequate diagnostic tools and trained personnel to manage respiratory virus outbreaks. This gap underscores the need for enhanced laboratory infrastructure and decentralized testing capabilities (Deval et al., 2024) (Zhao et al., 2020).

### **Vaccination Strategies**

India has made considerable progress in rolling out vaccination programs for respiratory viruses. The annual influenza vaccination program, supported by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, targets high-risk groups such as healthcare workers, pregnant women, and the elderly (Potdar et al., 2020). However, vaccine uptake remains low due to limited public awareness and vaccine hesitancy (Nandhini et al., 2016).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, India implemented one of the largest vaccination campaigns globally, distributing over 2 billion doses by 2023 (Nasrullah et al., 2023). This campaign demonstrated the capacity for large-scale immunization, which could be replicated for influenza and future HMPV vaccines (Jiang et al., 2020).

### **Public Health Interventions**

Public health interventions such as mask mandates, social distancing, and lockdowns during the COVID-19 pandemic significantly reduced the transmission of respiratory viruses, including Influenza A and HMPV (Fukuda et al., 2023). Similar measures have been proposed to mitigate future outbreaks of Mycoplasma pneumoniae and other respiratory pathogens (Tang et al., 2023).

Community health workers have played a pivotal role in disseminating information and ensuring compliance with public health guidelines, particularly in rural areas (Jones et al., 2022). These interventions have been crucial in preventing widespread outbreaks and minimizing the burden on healthcare facilities (Deval et al., 2024).

### **Challenges and Gaps**

Despite progress, several challenges remain in India's respiratory virus preparedness:

**Limited HMPV and Mycoplasma pneumoniae Surveillance:** Current surveillance programs focus predominantly on influenza and SARS-CoV-2, with limited testing for other respiratory pathogens (Tang et al., 2023).

**Vaccine Accessibility:** Influenza vaccines remain underutilized due to cost and accessibility issues (Fukuda et al., 2023).

**Healthcare Workforce:** Shortages of trained medical personnel in rural areas hinder effective outbreak responses (Nasrullah et al., 2023).

Addressing these gaps requires a multi-faceted approach, integrating enhanced surveillance, community-based interventions, and equitable vaccine distribution.

### **Challenges in Preparedness and Response**

Despite significant strides in improving public health infrastructure and surveillance, India faces persistent challenges in managing respiratory virus outbreaks. The complexity of these viruses, combined with disparities in healthcare access and logistical hurdles, exacerbates the risk of uncontrolled outbreaks. This section highlights the key obstacles to India's preparedness and response, supported by recent literature and data.

#### **Limited Surveillance for Emerging Respiratory Viruses**

While India's surveillance programs effectively track Influenza A and COVID-19, the detection of other respiratory viruses, such as Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV) and Mycoplasma pneumoniae, remains inadequate (Potdar et al., 2020). Studies indicate that HMPV often circulates alongside other respiratory viruses, contributing to severe acute respiratory infections (SARI) in children and the elderly, yet routine testing for HMPV is rare in India (Deval et al., 2024). A lack of comprehensive multiplex diagnostic panels limits the identification of coinfections, delaying timely interventions (Zhao et al., 2020).

#### **Inconsistent Laboratory Capacity**

Although India expanded laboratory capacity during the COVID-19 pandemic, many diagnostic facilities

are concentrated in urban areas, leaving rural populations vulnerable (Nasrullah et al., 2023). This urban-rural divide hinders timely diagnosis and containment of respiratory outbreaks in underserved regions (Deval et al., 2024). A study from Eastern Uttar Pradesh demonstrated that inadequate testing for HMPV in children with SARI contributed to missed diagnoses and increased mortality (Deval et al., 2024).

#### **Vaccine Hesitancy and Limited Uptake**

Despite the availability of influenza vaccines, uptake remains low across India, driven by vaccine hesitancy, misinformation, and economic barriers (Potdar et al., 2020). Unlike COVID-19, where vaccination coverage surpassed two billion doses, seasonal influenza vaccines are often underutilized, leaving high-risk populations unprotected (Nasrullah et al., 2023). The absence of vaccines for HMPV and Mycoplasma pneumoniae further limits preventive measures (Fukuda et al., 2023).

#### **Healthcare Workforce Shortages**

A critical barrier to India's preparedness is the shortage of healthcare professionals, particularly in rural districts. The World Health Organization (WHO) recommends a doctor-to-patient ratio of 1:1000, but India's rural healthcare system falls short of this standard (Jiang et al., 2020). The absence of specialized respiratory care units in district hospitals exacerbates the mortality associated with respiratory outbreaks (Deval et al., 2024).

#### **Delayed Outbreak Response**

The COVID-19 pandemic revealed critical delays in India's public health response, particularly during the second wave when hospital resources were overwhelmed (Schirmer et al., 2020). Delays in scaling up oxygen supplies, ventilators, and ICU beds contributed to avoidable fatalities. The absence of integrated response mechanisms for managing non-COVID respiratory viruses like HMPV and Influenza A further complicates rapid intervention during outbreaks (Fukuda et al., 2023).

#### **Coinfections and Diagnostic Overlap**

Coinfections involving SARS-CoV-2, Influenza A, and HMPV complicate clinical management and increase mortality (Jiang et al., 2020). Studies show that up to 15% of pediatric cases involve coinfections with multiple respiratory viruses, contributing to severe pneumonia and prolonged hospital stays (Tang et al., 2023). Despite this, India's diagnostic protocols often prioritize single-pathogen testing, resulting in underdiagnosis of coinfections (Zhao et al., 2020).

#### **Geographic and Socioeconomic Disparities**

Respiratory outbreaks disproportionately affect marginalized communities in India, where access to healthcare is limited (Deval et al., 2024). A lack of health awareness and limited financial resources prevent timely medical intervention. For instance, during the second wave of COVID-19, rural areas witnessed higher mortality rates due to delayed



access to oxygen and ICU facilities (Nasrullah et al., 2023).

### **Policy Gaps and Fragmentation**

India's public health response is often fragmented across state and central governments, leading to inconsistencies in outbreak management. Policy gaps, particularly regarding surveillance for non-influenza respiratory viruses, hinder proactive measures (Potdar et al., 2020).

### **Lessons from the COVID-19 Pandemic**

The COVID-19 pandemic provided valuable insights into the strengths and weaknesses of healthcare systems worldwide, including India's. The pandemic exposed gaps in preparedness but also demonstrated how rapid policy shifts, resource mobilization, and technological advancements can mitigate public health crises. These lessons can inform strategies to manage future respiratory virus outbreaks, such as those caused by Influenza A, Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV), and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*.

### **Rapid Scaling of Testing and Surveillance**

One of the most critical lessons from COVID-19 was the importance of scalable testing infrastructure. At the onset of the pandemic, India had limited diagnostic capacity, but by mid-2021, over 2000 laboratories were conducting RT-PCR tests (Potdar et al., 2020). This rapid expansion enabled early detection of not only SARS-CoV-2 but also other respiratory pathogens, such as Influenza A and HMPV (Deval et al., 2024).

#### **Lessons**

Investing in portable and rapid diagnostic kits can facilitate widespread, decentralized testing for respiratory viruses (Nasrullah et al., 2023).

Surveillance systems must be integrated to track multiple pathogens simultaneously (Fukuda et al., 2023).

### **Vaccine Development and Distribution**

India's rapid development and distribution of COVID-19 vaccines demonstrated the country's capacity for large-scale immunization programs. Over two billion doses were administered by 2023, covering a significant portion of the population (Nasrullah et al., 2023). This achievement underscored the need for expanding annual influenza vaccination programs and developing vaccines for HMPV and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* (Fukuda et al., 2023).

#### **Lessons**

Leveraging India's vaccine manufacturing capacity can accelerate the development of respiratory virus vaccines (Jiang et al., 2020).

Public health campaigns need to address vaccine hesitancy through targeted outreach and education programs (Deval et al., 2024).

### **Strengthening Healthcare Infrastructure**

The pandemic revealed deficiencies in India's healthcare infrastructure, particularly the shortage of ICU beds, ventilators, and oxygen supplies (Schirmer et al., 2020). In response, the government invested heavily in expanding hospital capacity,

oxygen plants, and critical care facilities (Tang et al., 2023).

#### **Lessons**

Strengthening district-level hospitals can improve equitable access to critical care (Deval et al., 2024).

Establishing dedicated respiratory care units can reduce the mortality associated with future respiratory virus outbreaks (Fukuda et al., 2023).

### **Digital Health and Telemedicine**

Telemedicine emerged as a critical tool during the pandemic, allowing remote diagnosis and treatment, particularly in rural areas (Nasrullah et al., 2023). Platforms like eSanjeevani provided millions of virtual consultations, ensuring continuity of care.

#### **Lessons**

Expanding telemedicine services for respiratory illnesses can alleviate pressure on tertiary care hospitals (Jiang et al., 2020).

### **Public Health Interventions and Behavioral Changes**

Non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs), such as mask mandates, social distancing, and lockdowns, significantly reduced the transmission of respiratory viruses during the pandemic (Fukuda et al., 2023). Influenza and RSV cases declined sharply, demonstrating the effectiveness of simple public health measures (Tang et al., 2023).

#### **Lessons**

Embedding NPIs into public health policies can mitigate seasonal respiratory virus outbreaks (Jones et al., 2022).

### **Addressing Coinfections and Diagnostic Challenges**

The COVID-19 pandemic underscored the risk of coinfections with respiratory pathogens such as Influenza A, HMPV, and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* (Zhao et al., 2020). Coinfections increased the severity of illness, complicating clinical management.

#### **Lessons**

Multiplex diagnostic panels should become standard practice for respiratory infections (Schirmer et al., 2020).

### **Recommendations for Future Preparedness**

To strengthen India's ability to manage respiratory virus outbreaks, a comprehensive, multi-faceted approach is necessary. Building on lessons learned from COVID-19 and past experiences with Influenza A, HMPV, and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, the following recommendations focus on enhancing surveillance, expanding vaccination programs, strengthening healthcare infrastructure, and improving public health response systems.

### **Expanding and Integrating Surveillance Networks**

A robust surveillance network capable of tracking multiple respiratory pathogens is essential for early detection and response. India's National Influenza Surveillance Programme (NISP) has successfully monitored influenza strains, but surveillance for HMPV and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* remains limited (Potdar et al., 2020). Integrating surveillance

for multiple pathogens into a single platform would enhance efficiency and data accuracy.

**Recommendation:** Expand the ICMR-led surveillance to monitor HMPV and Mycoplasma pneumoniae alongside influenza and SARS-CoV-2 (Deval et al., 2024).

**Action:** Deploy multiplex diagnostic panels in district-level hospitals to improve detection of respiratory viruses (Zhao et al., 2020).

### **Strengthening Laboratory Capacity in Rural Areas**

India's diagnostic infrastructure is heavily skewed toward urban centers, leaving rural populations vulnerable to delayed diagnosis and treatment (Nasrullah et al., 2023). Addressing these disparities by establishing diagnostic labs in rural areas is critical.

**Recommendation:** Invest in portable diagnostic technologies and telemedicine platforms to enable rapid respiratory virus testing in underserved regions (Fukuda et al., 2023).

**Action:** Develop a network of mobile diagnostic units capable of reaching remote areas during outbreak seasons (Tang et al., 2023).

### **Scaling Up Vaccination Programs**

Although India's COVID-19 vaccination drive was a success, influenza vaccination rates remain low. Expanding annual influenza vaccination campaigns and promoting research into HMPV and Mycoplasma pneumoniae vaccines is crucial (Nasrullah et al., 2023).

**Recommendation:** Integrate influenza vaccination into existing public health programs, targeting high-risk groups such as healthcare workers, elderly populations, and children (Potdar et al., 2020).

**Action:** Develop public-private partnerships to produce HMPV vaccines and accelerate clinical trials (Deval et al., 2024).

### **Enhancing Healthcare Infrastructure**

The pandemic exposed severe gaps in healthcare infrastructure, particularly in ICU capacity, oxygen supply, and critical care facilities (Schirmer et al., 2020). Future preparedness must prioritize strengthening healthcare infrastructure at all levels.

**Recommendation:** Establish respiratory care units in district hospitals, equipped to handle outbreaks of respiratory viruses (Fukuda et al., 2023).

**Action:** Increase government funding to upgrade hospital facilities, expand oxygen generation plants, and train medical staff in respiratory care (Tang et al., 2023).

### **Building Workforce Capacity**

India's healthcare workforce faces shortages, particularly in rural areas (Jiang et al., 2020). Expanding the healthcare workforce through targeted training and capacity-building programs is essential.

**Recommendation:** Establish specialized respiratory disease training for medical students and frontline health workers (Deval et al., 2024).

**Action:** Create incentives for healthcare professionals to serve in rural areas through loan forgiveness programs and salary adjustments (Nasrullah et al., 2023).

### **Addressing Coinfections and Comorbidities**

Coinfections of SARS-CoV-2, Influenza A, HMPV, and Mycoplasma pneumoniae were linked to higher mortality during the pandemic (Zhao et al., 2020). Comprehensive diagnostic and treatment protocols are essential.

**Recommendation:** Develop national guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of respiratory coinfections (Schirmer et al., 2020).

**Action:** Implement routine screening for coinfections in patients with severe respiratory illness (Tang et al., 2023).

## **CONCLUSION**

India's experience with the COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted both the strengths and vulnerabilities of its healthcare system in managing respiratory virus outbreaks. While the country demonstrated remarkable capacity in scaling up testing, vaccine distribution, and public health interventions, significant gaps remain in surveillance, healthcare infrastructure, workforce distribution, and vaccine uptake for non-COVID respiratory pathogens such as Influenza A, Human Metapneumovirus (HMPV), and Mycoplasma pneumoniae.

To build resilience against future outbreaks, India must adopt a comprehensive, forward-looking strategy. Expanding and integrating surveillance networks, strengthening laboratory capacity in rural areas, and promoting the development and distribution of vaccines for respiratory pathogens are critical next steps. Additionally, investments in healthcare infrastructure, the establishment of respiratory care units at district levels, and enhanced workforce training will help bridge existing disparities in healthcare access.

Public health interventions, including mask mandates, social distancing, and telemedicine, proved effective during the pandemic and should be embedded into routine health policies to mitigate seasonal outbreaks. Addressing coinfections through routine screening, developing national guidelines, and enhancing rapid diagnostic capabilities will further improve clinical outcomes.

By leveraging the lessons learned from COVID-19 and addressing these critical areas, India can position itself to respond more effectively to respiratory virus outbreaks, safeguarding public health and minimizing the socio-economic impact of future pandemics. A resilient healthcare system not only protects the population but also ensures sustainable development and growth, reinforcing India's leadership in global public health.

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