

A Literature Review and Survey of Childhood Pneumonia Etiology Studies: 2000–2010

Zunera Gilani,¹ Yuenting D. Kwong,² Orin S. Levine,³ Maria Deloria-Knoll,³ J. Anthony G. Scott,^{4,5} Katherine L. O'Brien,³ and Daniel R. Feikin^{3,6}

¹Department of Epidemiology, Bloomberg School of Public Health, ²School of Medicine, ³Department of International Health, International Vaccine Access Center, Bloomberg School of Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland; ⁴KEMRI–Wellcome Trust Research Programme, Kilifi, Kenya; ⁵Nuffield Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Oxford, United Kingdom; and ⁶Division of Preparedness and Emerging Infections, National Center for Emerging and Zoonotic Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia

The Pneumonia Etiology Research for Child Health (PERCH) project is the largest multicountry etiology study of childhood pneumonia since the Board on Science and Technology in International Development studies of the 1980s. However, it is not the only recent or ongoing pneumonia etiology study, and even with seven sites, it cannot capture all epidemiologic settings in the developing world. Funding providers, researchers and policymakers rely on the best available evidence to strategically plan programs, new research directions and interventions. We aimed to describe the current landscape of recent pneumonia etiology studies in children under 5 years of age in the developed and developing world, as ascertained by a literature review of relevant studies with data since the year 2000 and a survey of researchers in the field of childhood pneumonia. We collected information on the study population, study design, case definitions, laboratory samples and methods and identified pathogens. A literature review identified 88 studies with child pneumonia etiology results. As of June 2010, our survey of researchers identified an additional 65 ongoing and recently completed child pneumonia etiology studies. This demonstrates the broad existing context into which the PERCH study must be placed. However, the landscape analysis also reveals a multiplicity of case definitions, levels of clinician involvement, facility types, specimen collection, and laboratory techniques. It reinforces the need for the standardization of methods and analyses for present and future pneumonia etiology studies in order to optimize their cumulative potential to accurately describe the microbial causes of childhood pneumonia.

Each year, approximately 1.6 million children die from pneumonia [1]. The Pneumonia Etiology Research for Child Health (PERCH) study is the largest multisite study of childhood pneumonia since the Board of Science and Technology for International Development (BOSTID) studies were done in the 1980s [2]. The goal of PERCH is to identify the expected etiologies of pneumonia in 2015, a time when the burden of the major causes of bacterial pneumonia in the developing

world, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib), will likely be significantly reduced by widespread introduction and use of conjugate vaccines. Moreover, PERCH capitalizes upon new molecular diagnostic techniques that were not available 2 decades ago when the BOSTID studies were carried out. Another salient difference between PERCH and the BOSTID studies is that the 7 sites participating in PERCH will follow a highly standardized protocol, which includes standardization of enrollment criteria, specimen collection, and laboratory testing.

Although PERCH is the largest multicountry, childhood pneumonia etiology study in developing countries that has been conducted in the past 2 decades, it is not the only contemporary pneumonia etiology study, and cannot capture the entire complexity of all epidemiologic settings. In recent years, many developed and developing country sites have initiated pneumonia studies that provide etiology data. These studies will

Correspondence: Zunera Gilani, MPH, International Vaccine Access Center, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, 855 No. Wolfe St, Ste 600, Rangos Bldg, Baltimore, MD 21205 (zgilani@jhsph.edu).

Clinical Infectious Diseases 2012;54(S2):S102–8

© The Author 2012. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Infectious Disease Society of America. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs licence (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>), which permits non-commercial reproduction and distribution of the work, in any medium, provided the original work is not altered or transformed in any way, and that the work properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com.

DOI: 10.1093/cid/cir1053

provide useful complementary data to the PERCH study that will more fully define and characterize the causes of childhood pneumonia throughout the world. Yet, because the clinical, laboratory and statistical analysis approaches of these studies vary significantly, collating the results of multiple etiology studies will likely prove challenging. Differences in observed etiology can arise not only from epidemiologic differences in the sites and populations studied, which are biologic and epidemiologic attributes relevant to public health decision making, but also from variability in study design. Consideration of how study design can affect the results of etiologic studies is crucial to interpreting such studies in the context of PERCH.

In this paper, we describe the global landscape of sites that are currently studying pneumonia etiology or have recently studied it in the developed and developing world as ascertained by a literature review of studies with data since the year 2000 and a survey of pneumonia researchers. We did not aim to conduct a systematic review of the literature or a meta-analysis of study results. Furthermore, we did not undertake a critical evaluation of the methods or results from the studies we identified. The purpose of this project is limited to a landscape analysis to better describe the breadth of available data on child pneumonia etiology.

METHODS

Literature Review

We conducted a literature review to identify studies with pneumonia etiology data. All searches were conducted in June 2010 using the PubMed database and entering search terms that were key words, MeSH terms, synonyms or truncations. Eight separate search strategies were conducted. Titles and abstracts were screened to identify potential studies with pneumonia etiology data in children under five years old. Eligible studies were abstracted by two trained abstractors (ZG, YDK). Information abstracted included study population, study design, case definitions, body fluid samples, laboratory methods and identified pathogens. The studies were grouped by category, and summary statistics were described using Stata version 10 (College Station, TX); no statistical testing was undertaken on the data.

The inclusion criteria for studies were as follows:

- Study of acute community-acquired pneumonia or acute lower respiratory tract infection (ALRI).
- Consistent testing for at least one specific etiology in enrolled patients.
- Enrollment of children <5 years old (can also include older persons).
- Published between June 2005 and June 2010.
- Data collection from the year 2000 onwards.
- ≥ 10 pneumonia/ALRI cases.
- ≥ 1 calendar year of surveillance.
- English language.

The exclusion criteria were as follows:

- Exclusive enrollment of bronchiolitis patients.
- Exclusive enrollment of patients with a specific complication or sequelae of pneumonia (eg, empyema or parapneumonic effusions).
- Inability to distinguish the etiology of pneumonia cases from other syndromes (eg, pneumonia cases within a study of invasive pneumococcal disease).
- Etiology inferred from the upper airway carriage alone.
- Focus only on antibiotic resistance among pneumococcal isolates.
- Exclusive enrollment of hospital-acquired pneumonia patients.

Our aim was to identify sites and studies, not publications. When more than one publication was identified from the same study, we designated the publication with the most comprehensive etiology results or methodology details, longest surveillance period, or the oldest reference, as the “main publication.” Results from additional publications supplemented data when possible. When publications referred to a particular surveillance network that included sites in multiple countries, we included a result for the entire surveillance network and individual results for each country if they were published separately.

When studies encompassed other disease syndromes other than pneumonia, such as meningitis and sepsis, we limited results to pneumonia-specific information when possible. Clinical trials were only included if they described methods for etiological diagnoses.

Survey of Pneumonia Researchers

A Web-based survey of researchers who may have conducted pneumonia etiology research was created to capture information regarding unpublished ongoing and recently completed pneumonia etiology studies among children less than five years old (Survey Monkey, Palo Alto, California). This survey was circulated by email on 12 April 2010 to approximately 5000 pneumonia community members that belonged to the email address list of PneumoFOCUS [3], a monthly bulletin providing news about pneumonia, pneumococcal disease, and pneumococcal vaccines that is written and produced by our team at Johns Hopkins School of Public Health. We also contacted researchers who had submitted letters of intent in response to the PERCH Request for Proposals (RFP) for sites, researchers at sites selected to be part of the PERCH study, other known pneumonia surveillance researchers (eg, US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention’s International Emerging Infection Program sites) and researchers identified through word of mouth. We individually contacted researchers to clarify and confirm certain responses. We followed up by email with known

pneumonia researchers if they did not respond to our initial survey request.

The survey included questions about the study population, study design, case definitions, body fluid samples, laboratory methods, and identified pathogens. Separate surveys were filled out for each study if more than one study took place in a given geographic site. The studies were grouped by category and summary statistics were described; no statistical testing was undertaken on the data.

RESULTS

Literature Review

Of 2511 titles and abstracts reviewed, 2311 were excluded because they did not meet eligibility criteria. The full text of 200 publications was reviewed, and 88 studies with child pneumonia etiology results were included [4–10] [11–18] [19–25] [26–30] [31–38] [39–43] [44–51] [52–61] [62–71] [72–80] [81–91]. Studies ranged in size from 10 to 21 239 pneumonia patients (median 260 patients). We identified studies in 52 countries (Supplementary Figure 1). Multiple studies were done in 26 countries. Of these, 8 studies were identified in the United States; 7 in each of Bangladesh and India; 6 in Thailand; 5 in South Africa; 4 in each of Brazil, Philippines and Taiwan; 3 in each of China, Hong Kong, Kenya, Korea, Japan, Nepal, Nigeria, and Vietnam; and 2 in each of Argentina, Ethiopia, Finland, Guatemala, Italy, Mexico, Mozambique, Pakistan, Yemen and Zambia. Three studies (3%) in 5 countries (Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, United States and Zambia) reported collecting postmortem specimens [29, 31, 69], and 5 (6%) in 10 countries (Bangladesh, Ecuador, the Gambia, India, Malawi, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Africa and Yemen) reported collecting lung aspirates [11, 26, 35, 51, 63]. Seven studies used asymptomatic controls [6, 17, 19, 30, 79, 83, 89]. Additional study characteristics are summarized in Supplementary Table 1.

Survey

We received 81 responses to the survey. A total of 65 studies were identified once we removed responses that did not meet our study criteria. Of the 16 studies excluded from analysis, the reasons for exclusion were the following: the study was not a pneumonia etiology study, the study did not include children less than five years of age or multiple responses were received describing the same study. Studies ranged in size from 12 to 27 778 pneumonia patients (median 780 patients). Among the 65 pneumonia etiology studies, 41 countries were represented (Supplementary Figure 1). There were 16 countries that reported multiple studies. Of these, 6 studies were being conducted in Bangladesh; 5 in each of Brazil, India and Nepal; 4 in Indonesia; 3 in each of Kenya, Mozambique, South Africa, the

United States, Australia, Thailand and Spain; and 2 in each of Jordan, Guatemala, China and Israel. Two studies reported that they obtained approval to collect postmortem specimens in their protocols, but neither site had collected any post-mortem specimens as of March 2011. Additional study characteristics are reported in Supplementary Table 1.

DISCUSSION

The results of the literature review and survey reveal that many child pneumonia etiology studies have been and are taking place throughout the world since the year 2000, which enable an understanding of PERCH data in the context of a global landscape of ongoing pneumonia research. The large quantity and great depth of the available data highlight the challenges in interpreting various pneumonia etiology studies, particularly when comparing or combining results. Different studies employ different case definitions, levels of clinician involvement, facility types, specimens collected and laboratory tests. The use of a common protocol in a multisite study with broad geographic and epidemiologic representation will enable inferences to be drawn about the similarities and differences from other studies.

Our landscape analysis identified several gaps in the availability of data regarding childhood pneumonia etiology. First, there were few studies identified in Latin America (outside of Brazil, Chile and Argentina), in west and particularly central Africa, and in the Middle East. No studies were identified from Russia or China. This gap may be due in part to our English language inclusion criterion. It is important to have data from places where child pneumonia mortality is the highest [92]. South Asia and parts of Africa, which are regions of the world with the greatest burden of childhood pneumonia deaths, are well-represented in pneumonia etiology studies. Nonetheless, the 5 countries with the highest burden of child pneumonia deaths—India, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Afghanistan [1]—are not proportionally represented in our literature review. Our literature review identified only 7 studies conducted in India, 3 in Nigeria, 2 in Pakistan and none in the DRC or Afghanistan. Second, there needs to be more pneumonia etiology studies in countries that have or are currently introducing both the Hib and pneumococcal conjugate vaccines. Such studies will help define the new distribution of pneumonia-causing etiologies in these settings, which will likely have important implications for diagnosis and empiric treatment algorithms. Third, there are few studies that report postmortem results. It is important to understand the spectrum of etiologies for the most severe cases of pneumonia, which will be critical in reducing the still high burden of childhood pneumonia mortality in the world [93]. Although

technically and culturally challenging, postmortem studies reveal a different and complementary picture of etiology that is otherwise underestimated or forgotten. This applies particularly to tuberculosis, HIV-associated conditions (eg, lymphocytic interstitial pneumonia, *Pneumocystis jiroveci* (*carinii*) pneumonia and cytomegalovirus disease), and to other pathogenic processes that produce a clinical syndrome that mimics pneumonia (eg, severe anemia with heart failure or interstitial lung disease).

Variation in the methods employed by different pneumonia etiology studies can lead to differences in the identified etiologies. For example, the case definition used can influence the distribution of microbial etiologies. Case definitions based on radiologic (eg, alveolar consolidation) and laboratory definitions (eg, left-shift of polymorphonuclear neutrophils) are likely to identify more bacterial than viral pneumonia cases. Alternatively, a simple clinical case definition based on tachypnea (eg, nonsevere pneumonia defined by the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness) or a definition that included wheeze might lead to the identification of relatively more viral infections. Given the association between clinical severity and etiology, the target population and facility type can also determine the spectrum of etiologies. Thus, studies in community-based settings, health centers or outpatient wards may find different ranges of etiologies than studies in referral hospitals. Age is an influential variable and studies that exclude older children and focus on infants are likely to identify more RSV infection, which predominates in infancy. Neonates, in particular, have a distinct set of pneumonia pathogens [92, 94].

Other factors that varied across studies were the type of body fluid specimens collected and the type of laboratory testing done. Detection of bacterial pneumonia is dependent to a large extent on blood culture. While a majority of studies performed blood culture, it is likely that there was considerable variation in the sensitivity of the tests, particularly for *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, which is a fastidious organism requiring optimal collection and laboratory conditions. There are other factors that may result in an over-representation of viral causes of pneumonia. It was notable that the use of PCR as a diagnostic tool was higher in the studies reported on the survey (68%) than in those already published in the literature (46%). As molecular diagnostics become more widely used, it will be important to disaggregate temporal trends in the epidemiology of viral pneumonia from trends in laboratory practice. The findings of PCR testing of nasopharyngeal and oropharyngeal swabs will need to be interpreted judiciously. The presence of viral nucleic acids in the pharynx does not necessarily mean that the virus is acutely causing pneumonia in the lungs [79, 95]. As PCR use increases, strategies must be used to help interpret these findings. One such strategy is to include control children (ie, those without pneumonia) in

whom similar body fluids are collected and tested, which will allow for improved ability to interpret the PCR results [95].

Our landscape analysis had several limitations. In spite of employing multiple search strategies, we likely missed identifying some studies. Of note, we only searched the English language literature and only utilized one literature database (PubMed). This likely biased our findings by excluding studies from certain geographic regions such as China, Spanish-speaking Latin America, Russia and the Middle East where there may be a substantial body of evidence in local language publications. We did not search Embase and thus did not include conference abstracts unless researchers directed us to specific abstracts. Second, some published studies lacked sufficient detail to provide information on particular aspects of the study design that were of interest. Notable missing data were case definitions, facility types, and eligibility determination. Our survey likely suffered from similar limitations as far as incompleteness of data that was provided for some studies. Similarly, we only reached out to researchers who were already identified in the field, which might have led to gaps in those contacted. Third, not all identified studies were intended to be pneumonia etiology studies. Several had other primary objectives, such as to study invasive pneumococcal disease or influenzalike illness, and in that process identified children with pneumonia. As such, these studies are by design not comparable to studies that identify multiple pneumonia pathogens in that their case definitions and patient mix would likely differ. Finally, we were unable to verify survey responses.

In conclusion, the review of the literature and the survey of studies illustrate the context within which the PERCH study will be interpreted. Pneumonia etiologies are likely to continue to evolve as more countries introduce Hib and pneumococcal conjugate vaccines. Vaccines for other major causes of childhood pneumonia such as influenza will likely become more widely used across the globe or may be successfully developed (eg, RSV) over the next decade, and therefore, will further influence the pneumonia burden and remaining etiologies. Improvement in global socioeconomic conditions will also influence the pneumonia etiologic spectrum in the future. One of the goals of PERCH is to create a reference standard for the design, conduct and analysis of pneumonia etiology studies. This will provide a framework within which valid between-site comparisons can be drawn and integrated models can be extended geographically. PERCH will also contribute to a refinement of the case definition of pneumonia and provide evidence for the utility of certain body fluid specimens and laboratory tests. We hope that the definition of a standard, and the publication of the validation processes that were undertaken to create that standard, will encourage investigators to analyze existing studies and design future

studies with reference to this standard in order to optimize the epidemiological value of the results.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary materials are available at *Clinical Infectious Diseases* online (http://www.oxfordjournals.org/our_journals/cid/). Supplementary materials consist of data provided by the authors that are published to benefit the reader. The posted materials are not copyedited. The contents of all supplementary data are the sole responsibility of the authors. Questions or messages regarding errors should be addressed to the authors.

Notes

Disclaimer. The findings and conclusions are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Financial support. This work was supported by grant 48968 from The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation to the International Vaccine Access Center, Department of International Health, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health.

Supplement sponsorship. This article was published as part of a supplement entitled “Pneumonia Etiology Research for Child Health,” sponsored by a grant from The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation to the PERCH Project of Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland.

Potential conflicts of interest. All authors: No reported conflicts.

All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

References

1. Black RE, Cousens S, Johnson HL, et al. Global, regional, and national causes of child mortality in 2008: a systematic analysis. *Lancet* **2010**; 375:1969–87.
2. Selwyn BJ. The epidemiology of acute respiratory tract infection in young children: comparison of findings from several developing countries. Coordinated Data Group of BOSTID Researchers. *Rev Infect Dis* **1990**; 12(Suppl 8):S870–88.
3. PneumoACTION. PneumoFOCUS. **2011** Available at: <http://pneumoadip.idfive.com/news/pneumofocus/>. Accessed 5 January 2012.
4. Addo-Yobo E, Chisaka N, Hassan M, et al. Oral amoxicillin versus injectable penicillin for severe pneumonia in children aged 3 to 59 months: a randomised multicentre equivalency study. *Lancet* **2004**; 364:1141–8.
5. Agarwal J, Awasthi S, Rajput A, Tiwari M, Jain A. Atypical bacterial pathogens in community-acquired pneumonia in children: a hospital-based study. *Trop Doct* **2009**; 39:109–11.
6. Al-Ghizawi GJ, Al-Sulami AA, Al-Taher SS. Profile of community- and hospital-acquired pneumonia cases admitted to Basra General Hospital, Iraq. *East Mediterr Health J* **2007**; 13:230–42.
7. Al-Kaabi N, Solh Z, Pacheco S, Murray L, Gaboury I, Le Saux N. A Comparison of group A *Streptococcus* versus *Streptococcus pneumoniae* pneumonia. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2006**; 25:1008–12.
8. Andrade A, Oliveira R, Vieira M, et al. Active surveillance of invasive pneumococcal disease (IPD) and chest radiograph-confirmed pneumonia (CXR+Pn) in infants and young children in Goiânia, Brazil. In: International Symposium on Pneumococci and Pneumococcal Diseases. Tel Aviv, Israel: ISPPD, **2010**.
9. Anh DD, Kilgore PE, Slack MP, et al. Surveillance of pneumococcal-associated disease among hospitalized children in Khanh Hoa Province, Vietnam. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S57–64.
10. Arifeen SE, Saha SK, Rahman S, et al. Invasive pneumococcal disease among children in rural Bangladesh: results from a population-based surveillance. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S103–13.
11. Asghar R, Banajeh S, Egas J, et al. Chloramphenicol versus ampicillin plus gentamicin for community acquired very severe pneumonia among children aged 2–59 months in low resource settings: multi-centre randomised controlled trial (SPEAR study). *BMJ* **2008**; 336:80–4.
12. Azzari C, Moriondo M, Indolfi G, et al. Molecular detection methods and serotyping performed directly on clinical samples improve diagnostic sensitivity and reveal increased incidence of invasive disease by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in Italian children. *J Med Microbiol* **2008**; 57:1205–12.
13. Baggett HC, Peruski LF, Olsen SJ, et al. Incidence of pneumococcal bacteremia requiring hospitalization in rural Thailand. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S65–74.
14. Bamba M, Jozaki K, Sugaya N, et al. Prospective surveillance for atypical pathogens in children with community-acquired pneumonia in Japan. *J Infect Chemother* **2006**; 12:36–41.
15. Banajeh SM. Nutritional rickets and vitamin D deficiency—association with the outcomes of childhood very severe pneumonia: a prospective cohort study. *Pediatr Pulmonol* **2009**; 44:1207–15.
16. Baqui AH, Rahman M, Zaman K, et al. A population-based study of hospital admission incidence rate and bacterial aetiology of acute lower respiratory infections in children aged less than five years in Bangladesh. *J Health Popul Nutr* **2007**; 25:179–88.
17. Baqui AH, El Arifeen S, Saha SK, et al. Effectiveness of *Haemophilus influenzae* type B conjugate vaccine on prevention of pneumonia and meningitis in Bangladeshi children: a case-control study. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2007**; 26:565–71.
18. Batuwanthudawe R, Karunaratne K, Dassanayake M, et al. Surveillance of invasive pneumococcal disease in Colombo, Sri Lanka. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S136–40.
19. Berkley JA, Munywoki P, Ngama M, et al. Viral etiology of severe pneumonia among Kenyan infants and children. *JAMA* **2010**; 303:2051–7.
20. Bharaj P, Sullender WM, Kabra SK, et al. Respiratory viral infections detected by multiplex PCR among pediatric patients with lower respiratory tract infections seen at an urban hospital in Delhi from 2005 to 2007. *Virology* **2009**; 6:89.
21. Bii CC, Kose J, Taguchi H, et al. Pneumocystis jirovecii and microbiological findings in children with severe pneumonia in Nairobi, Kenya. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis* **2006**; 10:1286–91.
22. Bravo L, Gonzales M, Lim A, et al. Active hospital-based epidemiological surveillance to estimate the burden of invasive pneumococcal disease (IPD) in children in Metro Manila, Philippines. In: International Symposium on Pneumococci and Pneumococcal Diseases. Tel Aviv, Israel: ISPPD, **2010**.
23. Broughton S, Sylvester KP, Fox G, et al. Lung function in prematurely born infants after viral lower respiratory tract infections. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2007**; 26:1019–24.
24. Bruce N, Weber M, Arana B, et al. Pneumonia case-finding in the RESPIRE Guatemala indoor air pollution trial: standardizing methods for resource-poor settings. *Bull World Health Organ* **2007**; 85:535–44.
25. Capeding M, Brooks D, Gray S, et al. Active hospital-based epidemiological surveillance of invasive pneumococcal disease (IPD) in children in Muntinlupa, Philippines. In: World Society for Pediatric Infectious Diseases. Buenos Aires, Argentina: WSPID, **2009**.
26. Carrol ED, Guiver M, Nkhoma S, et al. High pneumococcal DNA loads are associated with mortality in Malawian children with invasive pneumococcal disease. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2007**; 26:416–22.
27. Cevy-Macherel M, Galetto-Lacour A, Gervais A, et al. Etiology of community-acquired pneumonia in hospitalized children based on WHO clinical guidelines. *Eur J Pediatr* **2009**; 168:1429–36.

28. Charkaluk ML, Kalach N, Mvogo H, et al. Assessment of a rapid urinary antigen detection by an immunochromatographic test for diagnosis of pneumococcal infection in children. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* **2006**; 55:89–94.
29. Chintu C, Mudenda V, Lucas S, et al. Lung diseases at necropsy in African children dying from respiratory illnesses: a descriptive necropsy study. *Lancet* **2002**; 360:985–90.
30. Choi SH, Park EY, Jung HL, et al. Serum vascular endothelial growth factor in pediatric patients with community-acquired pneumonia and pleural effusion. *J Korean Med Sci* **2006**; 21:608–13.
31. Chong DC, Raboni SM, Abujamra KB, et al. Respiratory viruses in pediatric necropsies: an immunohistochemical study. *Pediatr Dev Pathol* **2009**; 12:211–16.
32. Chisti MJ, Ahmed T, Faruque AS, Abdus Salam M. Clinical and laboratory features of radiologic pneumonia in severely malnourished infants attending an urban diarrhea treatment center in Bangladesh. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2010**; 29:174–7.
33. Cilla G, Onate E, Perez-Yarza EG, Montes M, Vicente D, Perez-Trallero E. Viruses in community-acquired pneumonia in children aged less than 3 years old: high rate of viral coinfection. *J Med Virol* **2008**; 80:1843–9.
34. Coles CL, Bose A, Moses PD, et al. Infectious etiology modifies the treatment effect of zinc in severe pneumonia. *Am J Clin Nutr* **2007**; 86:397–403.
35. Cutts FT, Zaman SM, Enwere G, et al. Efficacy of nine-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine against pneumonia and invasive pneumococcal disease in The Gambia: randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet* **2005**; 365:1139–46.
36. Dare RK, Fry AM, Chittaganpitch M, Sawanpanyalert P, Olsen SJ, Erdman DD. Human coronavirus infections in rural Thailand: a comprehensive study using real-time reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction assays. *J Infect Dis* **2007**; 196:1321–8.
37. Deerojanawong J, Prapphal N, Suwanjutha S, et al. Prevalence and clinical features of mycoplasma pneumoniae in Thai children. *J Med Assoc Thai* **2006**; 89:1641–7.
38. Don M, Fasoli L, Paldanius M, et al. Aetiology of community-acquired pneumonia: serological results of a paediatric survey. *Scand J Infect Dis* **2005**; 37:806–12.
39. Eun BW, Kim NH, Choi EH, Lee HJ. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* in Korean children: the epidemiology of pneumonia over an 18-year period. *J Infect* **2008**; 56:326–31.
40. Falade AG, Lagunju IA, Bakare RA, Odekanmi AA, Adegbola RA. Invasive pneumococcal disease in children aged <5 years admitted to 3 urban hospitals in Ibadan, Nigeria. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S190–6.
41. Freitas M, Castelo A, Petty G, Gomes CE, Carvalho E. Viridans streptococci causing community acquired pneumonia. *Arch Dis Child* **2006**; 91:779–80.
42. Gerber JS, Coffin SE, Smathers SA, Zaoutis TE. Trends in the incidence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infection in children's hospitals in the United States. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 49:65–71.
43. Hakansson S, Kallen K. Impact and risk factors for early-onset group B streptococcal morbidity: analysis of a national, population-based cohort in Sweden 1997–2001. *BJOG* **2006**; 113:1452–8.
44. Hamano-Hasegawa K, Morozumi M, Nakayama E, et al. Comprehensive detection of causative pathogens using real-time PCR to diagnose pediatric community-acquired pneumonia. *J Infect Chemother* **2008**; 14:424–32.
45. Hon KL, Leung E, Tang J, et al. Premorbid factors and outcome associated with respiratory virus infections in a pediatric intensive care unit. *Pediatr Pulmonol* **2008**; 43:275–80.
46. Hsieh SC, Kuo YT, Chern MS, Chen CY, Chan WP, Yu C. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*: clinical and radiographic features in 39 children. *Pediatr Int* **2007**; 49:363–7.
47. Hsieh WY, Chiu NC, Chi H, Huang FY, Hung CC. Respiratory adenoviral infections in Taiwanese children: a hospital-based study. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect* **2009**; 42:371–7.
48. Huang HH, Zhang YY, Xiu QY, et al. Community-acquired pneumonia in Shanghai, China: microbial etiology and implications for empirical therapy in a prospective study of 389 patients. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* **2006**; 25:369–74.
49. Ingarfield SL, Celenza A, Jacobs IG, Riley TV. The bacteriology of pneumonia diagnosed in Western Australian emergency departments. *Epidemiol Infect* **2007**; 135:1376–83.
50. Jaspan HB, Huang LC, Cotton MF, Whitelaw A, Myer L. Bacterial disease and antimicrobial susceptibility patterns in HIV-infected, hospitalized children: a retrospective cohort study. *PLoS One* **2008**; 3:e3260.
51. Johnson AW, Osinusi K, Aderole WI, Gbadero DA, Olaleye OD, Adeyemi-Doro FA. Etiologic agents and outcome determinants of community-acquired pneumonia in urban children: a hospital-based study. *J Natl Med Assoc* **2008**; 100:370–85.
52. Kumar M, Biswal N, Bhuvanewari V, Srinivasan S. Persistent pneumonia: underlying cause and outcome. *Indian J Pediatr* **2009**; 76:1223–6.
53. Kuypers J, Martin ET, Heugel J, Wright N, Morrow R, Englund JA. Clinical disease in children associated with newly described coronavirus subtypes. *Pediatrics* **2007**; 119:e70–6.
54. Lahti E, Peltola V, Waris M, et al. Induced sputum in the diagnosis of childhood community-acquired pneumonia. *Thorax* **2009**; 64:252–7.
55. Lehtinen P, Jartti T, Virkki R, et al. Bacterial coinfections in children with viral wheezing. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* **2006**; 25:463–9.
56. Lindblade KA, Arvelo W, Gray J, et al. A comparison of the epidemiology and clinical presentation of seasonal influenza A and 2009 pandemic influenza A (H1N1) in Guatemala. *PLoS One* **2010**; 5:e15826.
57. Liu FC, Chen PY, Huang F, Tsai CR, Lee CY, Wang LC. Rapid diagnosis of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* infection in children by polymerase chain reaction. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect* **2007**; 40:507–12.
58. Lochindarat S, Suwanjutha S, Prapphal N, et al. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* and *Chlamydia pneumoniae* in children with community-acquired pneumonia in Thailand. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis* **2007**; 11:814–19.
59. Lucero MG, Nohynek H, Williams G, et al. Efficacy of an 11-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine against radiologically confirmed pneumonia among children less than 2 years of age in the Philippines: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2009**; 28:455–62.
60. Madhi SA, Klugman KP. A role for *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in virus-associated pneumonia. *Nat Med* **2004**; 10:811–13.
61. Martinez MA, Millan F, Gonzalez C. Chlamydia trachomatis genotypes associated with pneumonia in Chilean infants. *Scand J Infect Dis* **2009**; 41:313–16.
62. Mathisen M, Strand TA, Sharma BN, et al. RNA viruses in community-acquired childhood pneumonia in semi-urban Nepal; a cross-sectional study. *BMC Med* **2009**; 7:35.
63. McNally LM, Jeena PM, Gajee K, et al. Effect of age, polymicrobial disease, and maternal HIV status on treatment response and cause of severe pneumonia in South African children: a prospective descriptive study. *Lancet* **2007**; 369:1440–51.
64. Moreno L, Krishnan JA, Duran P, Ferrero F. Development and validation of a clinical prediction rule to distinguish bacterial from viral pneumonia in children. *Pediatr Pulmonol* **2006**; 41:331–7.
65. Mudhune S, Wamae M. Report on invasive disease and meningitis due to *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* from the network for surveillance of pneumococcal disease in the East African region. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S147–52.

66. Naheed A, Saha SK, Breiman RF, et al. Multihospital surveillance of pneumonia burden among children aged <5 years hospitalized for pneumonia in Bangladesh. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S82–9.
67. Nascimento-Carvalho CM, Ribeiro CT, Cardoso MR, et al. The role of respiratory viral infections among children hospitalized for community-acquired pneumonia in a developing country. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2008**; 27:939–41.
68. Ngeow YF, Suwanjutha S, Chantarojanasiri T, et al. An Asian study on the prevalence of atypical respiratory pathogens in community-acquired pneumonia. *Int J Infect Dis* **2005**; 9:144–53.
69. Paddock CD, Sanden GN, Cherry JD, et al. Pathology and pathogenesis of fatal *Bordetella pertussis* infection in infants. *Clin Infect Dis* **2008**; 47:328–38.
70. Perez A, Herranz M, Segura M, et al. Epidemiologic impact of blood culture practices and antibiotic consumption on pneumococcal bacteraemia in children. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* **2008**; 27: 717–24.
71. Rahman M, Hossain S, Baqui AH, et al. *Haemophilus influenzae* type-b and non-b-type invasive diseases in urban children (<5 years) of Bangladesh: implications for therapy and vaccination. *J Infect* **2008**; 56:191–6.
72. Robertson SE, Roca A, Alonso P, et al. Respiratory syncytial virus infection: denominator-based studies in Indonesia, Mozambique, Nigeria and South Africa. *Bull World Health Organ* **2004**; 82:914–22.
73. Roca A, Sigauque B, Quinto L, et al. Invasive pneumococcal disease in children <5 years of age in rural Mozambique. *Trop Med Int Health* **2006**; 11:1422–31.
74. Rutman MS, Bachur R, Harper MB. Radiographic pneumonia in young, highly febrile children with leukocytosis before and after universal conjugate pneumococcal vaccination. *Pediatr Emerg Care* **2009**; 25:1–7.
75. Samransamruajkit R, Hiranrat T, Chiochansin T, et al. Prevalence, clinical presentations and complications among hospitalized children with influenza pneumonia. *Jpn J Infect Dis* **2008**; 61:446–9.
76. Sandora TJ, Desai R, Miko BA, Harper MB. Assessing quality indicators for pediatric community-acquired pneumonia. *Am J Med Qual* **2009**; 24:419–27.
77. Shah AS, Knoll MD, Sharma PR, et al. Invasive pneumococcal disease in Kanti children's hospital, Nepal, as observed by the South Asian pneumococcal alliance network. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S123–8.
78. Shah AS, Nisarga R, Ravi Kumar KL, Hubler R, Herrera G, Kilgore PE. Establishment of population-based surveillance for invasive pneumococcal disease in Bangalore, India. *Indian J Med Sci* **2009**; 63: 498–507.
79. Singleton RJ, Bulkow LR, Miernyk K, et al. Viral respiratory infections in hospitalized and community control children in Alaska. *J Med Virol* **2010**; 82:1282–90.
80. Sung RY, Chan PK, Tsen T, et al. Identification of viral and atypical bacterial pathogens in children hospitalized with acute respiratory infections in Hong Kong by multiplex PCR assays. *J Med Virol* **2009**; 81:153–9.
81. Tajima T, Nakayama E, Kondo Y, et al. Etiology and clinical study of community-acquired pneumonia in 157 hospitalized children. *J Infect Chemother* **2006**; 12:372–9.
82. Tregnaghi M, Ceballos A, Ruttimann R, et al. Active epidemiologic surveillance of pneumonia and invasive pneumococcal disease in ambulatory and hospitalized infants in Cordoba, Argentina. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2006**; 25:370–2.
83. Tumgor G, Celik U, Alabaz D, et al. Aetiological agents, interleukin-6, interleukin-8 and CRP concentrations in children with community- and hospital-acquired pneumonia. *Ann Trop Paediatr* **2006**; 26:285–91.
84. van Woensel JB, Bos AP, Lutter R, Rossen JW, Schuurman R. Absence of human metapneumovirus co-infection in cases of severe respiratory syncytial virus infection. *Pediatr Pulmonol* **2006**; 41: 872–4.
85. Walter ND, Taylor TH, Shay DK, et al. Influenza circulation and the burden of invasive pneumococcal pneumonia during a non-pandemic period in the United States. *Clin Infect Dis* **2010**; 50:175–83.
86. Watanabe K, Anh DD, Huong Ple T, et al. Drug-resistant pneumococci in children with acute lower respiratory infections in Vietnam. *Pediatr Int* **2008**; 50:514–18.
87. Williams EJ, Thorson S, Maskey M, et al. Hospital-based surveillance of invasive pneumococcal disease among young children in urban Nepal. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 48(Suppl 2):S114–22.
88. Williams JV, Edwards KM, Weinberg GA, et al. Population-based incidence of human metapneumovirus infection among hospitalized children. *J Infect Dis* **2010**; 201:1890–8.
89. Wolf DG, Greenberg D, Shemer-Avni Y, Givon-Lavi N, Bar-Ziv J, Dagan R. Association of human metapneumovirus with radiologically diagnosed community-acquired alveolar pneumonia in young children. *J Pediatr* **2010**; 156:115–20.
90. Xatzipsalti M, Kyrana S, Tsolia M, et al. Rhinovirus viremia in children with respiratory infections. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* **2005**; 172:1037–40.
91. Zhang HY, Li ZM, Zhang GL, Diao TT, Cao CX, Sun HQ. Respiratory viruses in hospitalized children with acute lower respiratory tract infections in Harbin, China. *Jpn J Infect Dis* **2009**; 62:458–60.
92. World Health Organization. Conclusions from the WHO multicenter study of serious infections in young infants. The WHO Young Infants Study Group. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **1999**; 18(Suppl 10):S32–4.
93. Turner G, Wonodi C, Levine O, Scott JA, Murdoch D. Methodological and practical challenges in post-mortem studies of pneumonia etiology. *Clin Infect Dis* **2012**; In Press.
94. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Division of bacterial diseases bulletin. **2010**; Winter 2010. Available at: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncird/downloads/dbd-bull-winter10-508.pdf>. Accessed 27 July 2011.
95. Ruuskanen O, Lahti E, Jennings LC, Murdoch DR. Viral pneumonia. *Lancet* **2011**; 377:1264–75.