
NIPAH VIRUS MANAGEMENT: STRATEGIES FOR CAREGIVING, PRECAUTIONS, TREATMENT AND VACCINATION PROSPECTS

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Article Received: 28 January 2026

Article Revised: 17 February 2026

Published on: 09 March 2026

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DOI: <https://doi-doi.org/101555/ijrpa.5841>

ABSTRACT

Nipah virus (NiV) is a highly pathogenic zoonotic paramyxovirus that causes severe respiratory illness and fatal encephalitis in humans, with case-fatality rates ranging from 40% to 75%. Its epidemic potential, broad host range, and lack of licensed therapeutics or vaccines have led to its prioritization in global research and development agendas. Current management relies on early diagnosis, intensive supportive care, strict infection-prevention strategies, and a One-Health surveillance approach. Experimental antivirals, monoclonal antibodies, and multiple vaccine platforms are under development, but none are yet approved for routine clinical use. This review critically synthesizes the current evidence on caregiving

practices, hospital and community precautions, therapeutic interventions, and vaccine prospects, with emphasis on practical clinical and public-health management strategies.

KEYWORDS: Nipah virus (NiV), zoonotic paramyxovirus, encephalitis, monoclonal antibodies, public-health management.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nipah virus belongs to the genus *Henipavirus* within the family *Paramyxoviridae* and was first identified during an outbreak in Malaysia in 1998. Since then, recurrent outbreaks have been reported in South and Southeast Asia, particularly in Bangladesh and India. Fruit bats of the *Pteropus* genus serve as the natural reservoir, and transmission occurs through contaminated food, animal intermediates, or direct human-to-human contact. The high mortality, neurological involvement, and potential for nosocomial spread make NiV a major global health concern. (*World Health Organization, 2026; Gurley et al., 2017*) Clinical manifestations range from asymptomatic infection to acute encephalitis and severe respiratory distress. Rapid deterioration and long-term neurological sequelae among survivors further complicate clinical management. In the absence of approved antivirals or vaccines, prevention and supportive care remain the cornerstone of treatment. (*Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2026; Ang et al., 2018*).

2. Epidemiological and One-Health Perspective

NiV outbreaks are closely linked to ecological and anthropogenic factors such as deforestation, urbanization, and increased human–bat interaction. Consumption of raw date-palm sap contaminated by bats remains a major route of spillover in Bangladesh and India. Human-to-human transmission, particularly in healthcare settings, has been well documented. (*Luby et al., 2009; Yadav et al., 2025*) The One-Health approach integrates human, animal, and environmental surveillance to detect early spillover events and prevent outbreaks. This multidisciplinary strategy is essential for long-term control because traditional outbreak-response models alone are insufficient. (*Yadav et al., 2025*)

3. Clinical Features and Disease Progression

The incubation period typically ranges from 4 to 14 days but may extend to 45 days. Initial symptoms include fever, headache, myalgia, and vomiting, followed by rapid progression to acute encephalitis or severe pneumonia. Altered consciousness, seizures, and coma are common in severe cases. (*World Health Organization, 2026; Chong et al., 2002*) Long-term

complications such as persistent convulsions and personality changes have been reported among survivors, emphasizing the need for neurological follow-up and rehabilitation. (*Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2026*)

4. Caregiving Strategies in Clinical Settings

4.1 Early Diagnosis and Triage

Early laboratory confirmation using RT-PCR and serological assays is critical for patient isolation and timely supportive therapy. Prompt recognition reduces secondary transmission and improves survival outcomes. (*Lo et al., 2012; WHO, 2026*)

4.2 Supportive Clinical Management

There is no specific antiviral therapy; therefore, management focuses on:

- Maintenance of airway, breathing, and circulation
- Mechanical ventilation for respiratory failure
- Control of intracranial pressure
- Fluid and electrolyte balance
- Nutritional support
- Management of secondary infections

High-quality intensive care significantly improves survival in severe cases. (*WHO, 2026; Chandni et al., 2016*)

4.3 Long-Term Rehabilitation

Post-encephalitic neurological deficits require multidisciplinary rehabilitation involving neurologists, psychiatrists, and physiotherapists. (*Sejvar et al., 2007*)

5. Infection-Prevention and Control Precautions

5.1 Standard and Transmission-Based Precautions

Healthcare workers are at high risk due to exposure to respiratory secretions and body fluids.

Recommended precautions include:

- Single-patient isolation rooms
- Use of PPE (N95 respirators, gloves, gowns, eye protection)
- Airborne precautions during aerosol-generating procedures
- Safe handling of clinical specimens

These measures are essential to prevent nosocomial outbreaks. (*WHO, 2026; CDC, 2026*)

5.2 Environmental and Waste Management

Regular disinfection with appropriate chlorine solutions and safe biomedical waste disposal are mandatory in NiV treatment facilities. (*Chandni et al., 2016*)

5.3 Community-Level Preventive Measures

Community awareness plays a vital role in outbreak control:

- Avoidance of raw date-palm sap
- Washing and peeling fruits
- Avoiding contact with bats and sick animals
- Hand hygiene after caregiving

These behavioral interventions have successfully reduced transmission in endemic regions. (*Luby et al., 2009; WHO, 2026*)

Table 1. Comprehensive Scientific Profile of Nipah Virus (NiV).

Category	Key Parameters	Scientific Details & Evidence-Based Findings
Epidemiology & One-Health	Transmission Dynamics	Spillover: Bat-to-human via raw date-palm sap or contaminated fruit; Bat-to-animal (pigs). Human-to-Human: Respiratory secretions and bodily fluids; high risk in healthcare/caregiving settings.
	Ecological Drivers	Deforestation, urbanization, and increased anthropogenic encroachment into fruit bat (<i>Pteropus</i>) habitats.
	Prevention Strategy	One-Health Approach: Integrated surveillance of humans, animals (livestock), and the environment for early spillover detection.
Clinical Progression	Incubation Period	Typically 4–14 days; rarely up to 45 days.
	Initial Symptoms	Fever, headache, myalgia, vomiting (flu-like prodrome).
	Severe Manifestations	Acute Encephalitis (seizures, altered consciousness, coma) and Severe Pneumonia/ARDS.
	Sequelae	Persistent convulsions, personality changes, and long-term neurological deficits.
Caregiving & Management	Diagnostics	Early confirmation via RT-PCR (molecular) and ELISA (serological assays).
	Clinical Support	No specific antiviral: Focus on airway maintenance, mechanical ventilation, intracranial pressure control, and fluid/electrolyte balance.
	Rehabilitation	Multidisciplinary care involving neurologists, psychiatrists, and physiotherapists for post-encephalitic recovery.
Infection	Hospital	Standard + Transmission-based: Single-patient

Prevention (IPC)	Precautions	isolation, N95 respirators, gloves, gowns, and eye protection.
	Environmental Control	Regular disinfection with chlorine solutions; strict biomedical waste management protocols.
	Community Measures	Avoidance of raw date-palm sap; thorough washing/peeling of fruits; strict hand hygiene after animal contact.

6. Therapeutic Approaches and Experimental Treatments

6.1 Ribavirin

Ribavirin was used during the Malaysian outbreak, but its clinical benefit remains inconclusive due to limited controlled studies. (*Chong et al., 2001*)

6.2 Remdesivir

Animal studies have shown prophylactic and therapeutic efficacy in non-human primates, making it a promising candidate for human use. (*Lo et al., 2019; CDC, 2026*)

6.3 Monoclonal Antibody m102.4

The human monoclonal antibody m102.4 targets the viral G glycoprotein and has demonstrated protective effects in animal models and compassionate human use. (*Bossart et al., 2009; Geisbert et al., 2014*)

6.4 Immunotherapy and Combination Therapy

Future strategies may involve combining antivirals with immunotherapeutics to enhance clinical outcomes. (*Broder et al., 2016*).

7. Vaccination Prospects

Several vaccine platforms are under development:

7.1 Viral-Vector Vaccines

ChAdOx1-based vaccines have shown robust immunogenicity and protection in preclinical models. (*Yadav et al., 2025*)

7.2 Subunit Vaccines

HeV-sG-based vaccines induce cross-protective antibodies against NiV and are among the most advanced candidates. (*Broder et al., 2016*)

7.3 mRNA Vaccines

mRNA platforms offer rapid scalability and have shown promising immunogenic responses in early studies. (*Yadav et al., 2025*)

7.4 Challenges in Vaccine Development

Key barriers include:

- Sporadic outbreaks limiting clinical trials
- Requirement for BSL-4 facilities
- Funding constraints

Despite these challenges, NiV vaccines remain a high global priority. (*Coalition for Epidemic Preparedness Innovations, 2024*)

8. Public-Health Preparedness and Outbreak Response

Successful containment in regions such as Kerala demonstrates the effectiveness of:

- Rapid contact tracing
- Quarantine and isolation
- Risk communication
- Strengthened surveillance

These non-pharmaceutical interventions can control outbreaks even in the absence of vaccines. (*Arunkumar et al., 2019*)

9. Future Directions

Future NiV management requires:

- Point-of-care diagnostics
- Broad-spectrum antivirals
- Licensed vaccines
- Integrated One-Health surveillance

International collaboration is essential for translating experimental therapies into clinical practice. (*Yadav et al., 2025*).

Table 2: Scientific Summary of NiV Therapeutics and Vaccine Candidates.

Category	Agent Platform /	Mechanism of Action	Current Status / Evidence
Antivirals	Ribavirin	Nucleoside analog; interferes with viral RNA synthesis.	Inconclusive; used in 1998-99 Malaysian outbreak with mixed results.

Antivirals	Remdesivir	RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) inhibitor.	High efficacy in NHP models; candidate for human clinical trials.
Antibodies	m102.4	Human monoclonal antibody targeting viral G glycoprotein.	Neutralizes virus; successful in NHPs and compassionate human use.
Vaccines	Viral-Vector (ChAdOx1)	Chimpanzee Adenovirus vector expressing NiV antigens.	Robust immunogenicity and protection in preclinical models.
Vaccines	Subunit (HeV-sG)	Soluble G glycoprotein of Hendra virus.	Cross-protective against NiV; highly advanced candidate.
Vaccines	mRNA	Synthetic mRNA encoding viral proteins (e.g., G or F).	Rapidly scalable; promising immunogenicity in early studies.

10. CONCLUSION

Nipah virus remains a critical emerging pathogen with high mortality and pandemic potential. In the absence of licensed therapeutics, early supportive care, strict infection-control practices, and community-level prevention are the pillars of management. Experimental monoclonal antibodies, antivirals, and next-generation vaccines provide hope for future control. A coordinated One-Health approach, strengthened health systems, and sustained research investment are essential to mitigate the global threat posed by NiV. (*WHO, 2026; Yadav et al., 2025*)

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