Research Article

Diversity of Rotavirus Strains among Children with Acute Diarrhea in Karachi, Pakistan

Nain Tarra Bukhari,1 Gulnaz Parveen,2 Pir Asmat Ali,3 Amtul Sami,4 Yasmeen Lashari,5 Naila Mukhtar,6 Raisa Bano,7 Nargis Haider,8 Atiya Hussain Khowaja,9 and Shahana Urooj Kazmi4

1Clinical Laboratory Sciences, Women University, Swabi, Pakistan
2Department of Botany, Women University, Swabi, Pakistan
3Department of Zoology, Women University, Swabi, Pakistan
4Department of Microbiology and Molecular Biotechnology, Women University, Swabi, Pakistan
5Department of Pathology, Bolan Medical College, Quetta, Pakistan
6Department of Botany, University of Okara, Pakistan
7Department of Public Health & Bioinformatics, Women University, Swabi, Pakistan
8Department of Physiology, Bolan Medical College, Quetta, Pakistan
9Agha Khan Medical University and Hospital, Karachi, Pakistan

Correspondence should be addressed to Gulnaz Parveen; gulnaz.malik3@gmail.com

Received 19 February 2022; Revised 17 March 2022; Accepted 29 March 2022; Published 23 April 2022

1. Introduction

Rotavirus is considered the major cause of severe gastroenteritis ranges from asymptomatic self-limiting watery diarrhea to life threatening infection in children worldwide. Malnutrition and stunted growth can occur if mismanaged in symptomatic cases ([1] [2]). Among these reported cases, 30% etiological agent are bacterial, viral, or parasitic [3]. Recently, 40-50% severe cases of infantile watery diarrhea are attributed to Rotavirus worldwide causing 600,000 deaths per year in African and Asian countries [4]. In a WHO 2015 report, 1.7 billion reported cases accounts 9% cumulative infantile deaths resulting in elevated health budget. According to earlier studies, 5.2 million bacterial, etiological agents along with 2.5 million parasitic and 30.9 million viruses cause diarrheal episodes [5]. In Pakistan due to multiple and recurrent diarrheal episodes > 150,000, deaths occur annually, leading infants towards malnutrition and retarded growth [6]. Almost 35%-50% of infected infants were between 1 and 2 years of age bracket [7]. Similarly, 2.5% cases were moderate in severity which progressed to life-threatening situation and were from low-socioeconomic
settings, and the numbers of rotavirus cases were high where no health care facility was available [8]. The seasonal variation marker indicated that infection persists throughout the year having no correlation with rainy season while raise in no. of cases was reported in dry season. Rotaviruses in Pakistan are highlighted recently as an important nonbacterial etiological agent in young children [9]. Electron microscopy are in routine use to avoid blind therapy and emergence of MDR pathogens [10].

The study was designed based on reports that in Pakistan after every minute a child dies due to diarrhea [11]. It is reported that 140,000 young population under five got Rotavirus infection, resulting, so leading them to malnutrition and stunted growth. This serious issue of high morbidity and mortality warrants investigation [12]. The aims and objectives of this present study are molecular identification of prevalent pathogenic strains of viral etiological agent, i.e., RotavirusVP4, P8, P4, P6, P9, P10, and P11 and Rotavirus VP7, G8, G1, G2, G4, G3, and G9 by a PCR method using specific primer sets.

2. Material and Method

In this study, 1465 stool samples of acute watery diarrhea in premarked containers in duplicate in cold storage were collected from NICH and Civil Hospital Karachi and transported within 24 hours to central lab. Patients with complaint of acute watery diarrhea were included in the age bracket of 4 weeks to <5 years while those having other morbid conditions or bloody diarrhea were excluded and informed consent was taken. The questionnaire was designed to focus the parameters like No. of episode of diarrhea, fever, and vomiting.

2.1. Detection of Rotavirus by Sandwich ELISA. To detect the group-specific antigen, polyclonal antibody attached to wells in a sandwich enzyme immunoassay was used. The presence of rotavirus antigen was compared to color intensity above the cutoff value in the sample by adding 1-gram sample in 1:100 dilutions.

2.2. Procedure of ELISA. Rotavirus antigen was detected by an ELISA kit method. Diluent buffer was added in 1:11 ratio whereas wash buffer and distilled water in 1:10 were made in test tubes. 100µl of diluted stool sample was taken. 100µl conjugate was added in assigned wells along with positive and negative controls. 60 minutes incubation at room temperature. Washing with diluted buffer 300µl. 15 minutes’ incubation in dark chamber after addition of 100µl of substrate finally added 50µl of stop solution, ELISA plate reader at 450 nm for results.

2.3. Genotyping of Rota Isolates. Rotavirus genotyping was carried out using primer sets against capsid protein VP4 and VP7 coding genes from Rotavirus genomic RNAs (Tables 1 and 2). PCR mix contains a total volume of 50µl processed for PCR containing 2.0µl of cDNA. Brieﬂy spin before transfer to the thermocycler. First, cycle for 94°C for 2 min followed by 94°C, 50°C, and 72°C for 1 min in 35 cycles then for 7 minutes in 72°C cycles followed by 15°C on hold. Second round PCR mix consists of 5µl of the abovementioned amplified products in 50µl of master mix in microcentrifuge tubes, before transfer to the thermocycler.

At 100 mA Rotavirus genomic RNAs polyacrylamide gel by electrophoresis was detected in tank with buffer for 30 min. The migration of individual RNA genome segments was studied and compared with marker genome segments.

2.4. RT-PCR. Reverse transcriptase PCR was performed by taking genomic RNA 1µg in 25µl of RNase inhibitor (20 U of RNase out and DNA polymerase containing distilled water). At 50°C for 60 min, the process for reverse transcription was performed in a heating chamber. The termination of reaction was at 85°C for 5 min. Cooling of mix, 2 U of RNase H in 1µl followed by incubation 20 min at 37°C. 50-µl processed for PCR containing 2.0 µl of the RT-PCR

| Primer | Human sequence (5'-3') | Position (nt) | Strain (genotype) | References |
|--------|------------------------|--------------|-------------------|------------|
| aAT8   | GTCACACCATTTGTAAATTTCG | 178-198      | 69 M (G8)         | [21]       |
| aBT1   | CAAGTACTCAAATCAATGATGG | 314-335      | Wa (G1)           | [21]       |
| aCT2   | CAATGATATACACATTTTCTGTG | 411-435      | DS-1 (G2)         | [21]       |
| aDT4   | GGGTTCCTGGTGAGGAGTGTG | 480-498      | ST-3 (G4)         | [21]       |
| aET3   | CTGGTGAAGGTTGCAACAGAG | 689-709      | P 374 bp (G3)     | [22]       |
| mG3    | ACGAAGCTCAACACAGGAG   | 250-269      | 682 bp            | [22]       |
| aFT9   | CTAGATGTAAACTACAACCTAC| 757-776      | W161 (G9)         | [22]       |
| mG9    | CTGTAGTGATCGATAYAAATAC| 757-776      | 306 bp            | [22]       |
products. Amplification buffer 5 μl, 1.5 μl of forward and reverse primer each adding, 2.5 U DNA polymerase. Denaturation of Template (94° C, 2 min), 30 cycles of PCR were set. PCR cycle set for denaturation step (94° C for 30 s), annealing (55° C for 30 s), and extension (68° C for 3 min for gene 4 and for 2 min for gene 6). Additional incubation (72° C, 7 min) followed by PCR. PCR purification kit (Qia- gen) to collect purified DNA. By using RT-PCR as templates, VP4 and VP6 gene sequences were determined.

### Table 2: Rotavirus VP4 primer list.

| Primer | Human sequence (5'-3') | Position (nt) | Strain genotype | References |
|--------|------------------------|---------------|-----------------|------------|
| 1T-1   | ACTTGGATAACGTGC         | 339-356       | KU P8           | [21]       |
| 1T-1D  | TCTACTGRTTRACNTGC       | 339-356       | P8              |            |
| 2T-1   | CTATGTAGGGTAGTACGC      | 474-494       | RV5 P4          |            |
| 3T-1   | TGTTGATGTTGATTCAC       | 259-278       | 1076 P6         | [22]       |
| 4T-1   | TGAGACATGCAATGGAC       | 385-402       | K8 P9           | [21]       |
| 5T-1   | ATCATAGATTAGTCG         | 575-594       | 69M P10         | [21]       |
| mP11   | GTAAACATCCAGATGTG       | 305-323       | MC435 P11       | [21]       |
|        |                        |               |                 |            |

### Table 3: Vaccination status.

| Vaccinated | No. of children (n) | %    |
|------------|---------------------|------|
| Yes        | 139                 | 9.5  |
| No         | 1326                | 90.5 |
| Total      | 1465                | 100.0|
3. Result and Discussion

The current study found that many diversified strains of human Rotavirus are circulating in the community of Karachi as population belongs to nearby rural areas, where human interaction with animals makes it possible for the assortment for human and animal strains and emergence of new strains.

In the present study, a prevalence of 6% (Figure 1) RVA in diarrheal cases from Pakistan was not too high as compared to those of other reported studies, but it is in correlation with reports that say Rotavirus infection prevalence rate in Eastern countries reported 40.5%-60.5% [13]. Similarly, 30%-56% prevalence was reported in Far East countries. A report from Karachi, Pakistan, a prevalence of RVA infections a little higher at 17% was noted which is probably due to the fact that we included patients with acute illness rather than advanced stage [14]. In Karachi, during the years from 2005 to 2007, different strains of Rotavirus in stool samples of children under five years of age—i.e., G9P8, G1P8, and G1P4, were of prime importance in addition to G2P4 (6%), G4P6, G9P6, and G9P4, whereas 2.4% mixed infection caused by more than one strain was also identified [13, 15].

In another study from Pakistan, G1P8, G2P4, G1P6, G9P8, G9P6, G12P6, G6P1, and mix infection with other pathogens were reported as causative etiological agents. These findings are indicative that RV genotype prevalence can be in various combinations and seasonal variation does not affect the prevalence of infection (Figure 2). Rotavirus genotypes G1P4, G1P6, G4P6, G9P4, G12P6, and G6P4 isolated from animals can have recurrent episodes of appearance or disappearance periodically. Our current study also highlighted that RT-PCR sometime does not detect false positive signals.
ELISA positive RV strains (due to multiple reasons like mutations in the genome, diminished viral load, or loss of viral antigenic sites during preservation) or there could be false positive ELISA results [15]. In present study, the data analysis of sick children showed that only 9.5% patients were found vaccinated and 90.5% children did not get vaccine against common diseases (Table 3). Similar results were obtained from.

In Rotavirus infection due to assortment of genes, several G types (G2, G3, G8, G9, and G10) and circulating P-types are a cause of mix infection in a single patient in multiple cases [16]. It is also reported in this study that 1.63% mixed VP7 infections: G1G2P4, G2G9P4, G2G9P6, and G2G9P8, were recorded in positive cases (Figure 3). A similar finding with 2.4% prevalence rate in Pakistan was also reported by Ali et al., [17]. Similarly, in South Korea, prevalence was reported mixed infections of 10% and 15% with interspecies transmission [18]. By using primer set against outer G and P antigen, molecular identification was done by visualizing bands of specific Bp on gel images which indicated the Rotavirus subtypes G2P4, G10P4, G9P4, and G3P4 (Figures 4 and 5).

Pathogenesis might be the result of several assortments of human and animal strain resulting in origin of G11; however, from Pakistan, most of the focus was on VP7 and VP4 genotyping studies from different cities [19, 20]. It is reported that presence of animal origin RV strain among Pakistani patient is a result of interaction between humans and their livestock and reassortment of genes resulting new strains [19, 20].

In this study, it is noted that the presence of new mix strains of Rotavirus was detected in our population beside common circulating strains around the Globe. Rotavirus genotypes which were detected in our patients were G10P4, G2P4, G2P6, G3P4, G8P4, G8P6, and G9P4.

4. Conclusions

Spectrum of etiological agents is involved in diarrhea which is a huge health burden worldwide as well in Pakistan. The data of the current study indicate that by conducting prevalence studies and identifying risk factors disease can be timely prevented or managed. Thus, morbidity and high mortality in infants can be reduced. This issue warrants broad-spectrum investigation.

Data Availability

Data can be provided on demand.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

References

[1] V. Banga-Mingo, D. Waku-Kouomou, J. C. Gody et al., “Molecular surveillance of rotavirus infection in Bangui, Central African Republic, October 2011-September 2013,” Infection, Genetics and Evolution, vol. 28, pp. 476–479, 2014.
[2] D. Ouermi, D. Soubeiga, W. M. C. Nadembega et al., “Molecular epidemiology of rotavirus in children under five in Africa (2006-2016): a systematic review,” Pakistan journal of biological sciences: PJBS, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 59–69, 2017.
[3] C. Troeger, M. Forouzanfar, P. C. Rao et al., “Estimates of global, regional, and national morbidity, mortality, and aetiologies of diarrhoeal diseases: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015,” The Lancet Infectious Diseases, vol. 17, no. 9, pp. 909–948, 2017.
[4] H. Wang, M. Naghavi, C. Allen et al., “Global, regional, and national life expectancy, all-cause mortality, and cause-specific mortality for 249 causes of death, 1980-2015: a
systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015," *The Lancet*, vol. 388, no. 10053, pp. 1459–1544, 2016.

[5] A. F. Peery, S. D. Crockett, C. C. Murphy et al., “Burden and cost of gastrointestinal, liver, and pancreatic diseases in the United States: update 2018,” *Gastroenterology*, vol. 156, no. 1, pp. 254–272.e11, 2019.

[6] B. M. John, A. Devgan, and B. Mitra, “Prevalence of rotavirus infection in children below two years presenting with diarrhea,” *Medical journal armed forces India*, vol. 70, no. 2, pp. 116–119, 2014.

[7] A. Strina, L. C. Rodrigues, S. Cairncross et al., “Factors associated with rotavirus diarrhoea in children living in a socially diverse urban centre in Brazil,” *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, vol. 106, no. 7, pp. 445–451, 2012.

[8] G. Vasco, G. Trueba, R. Atherton et al., “Identifying etiological agents causing diarrhea in low income Ecuadorian communities,” *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, vol. 91, no. 3, pp. 563–569, 2014.

[9] S. K. Dey, S. Nahar, T. Akter et al., “A retrospective analysis of viral gastroenteritis in Asia,” *Journal of Pediatric Infectious Diseases*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 53–65, 2015.

[10] S. D. Kelkar, V. S. Bhide, S. S. Ranshing, and S. S. Bedekar, “Rapid ELISA for the diagnosis of rotavirus,” *Indian Journal of Medical Research*, vol. 119, pp. 60–65, 2004.

[11] S. S. Zahid, N. Zehra, S. Ullah, N. Khan, M. H. Javed, and M. Khan, “Mother’s awareness and practices regarding home management of childhood diarrhea in a squatter settlement in Karachi,” *Pakistan Journal of Medicine and Dentistry*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 1–5, 2014.

[12] H. Verkerke, S. Sobuz, J. Z. Ma et al., “Malnutrition is associated with protection from rotavirus diarrhea: evidence from a longitudinal birth cohort study in Bangladesh,” *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, vol. 54, no. 10, pp. 2568–2574, 2016.

[13] S. Tamim, F. Hasan, J. Matthijnssens et al., “Epidemiology and phylogenetic analysis of VP7 and VP4 genes of rotaviruses circulating in Rawalpindi, Pakistan during 2010,” *Infection, Genetics and Evolution*, vol. 14, pp. 161–168, 2013.

[14] A. K. Zaidi, A. H. Baqui, S. A. Qazi et al., “Scientific rationale for study design of community-based simplified antibiotic therapy trials in newborns and young infants with clinically diagnosed severe infections or fast breathing in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa,” *The Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal*, vol. 32, Suppl. 1, pp. S7–S11, 2013.

[15] R. Qazi, S. Sultana, S. Sundar, H. Warraich, A. Rais, and A. K. Zaidi, “Population-based surveillance for severe rotavirus gastroenteritis in children in Karachi, Pakistan,” *Vaccine*, vol. 27, pp. F25–F30, 2009.

[16] K. Bánya, B. László, J. Duque et al., “Systematic review of regional and temporal trends in global rotavirus strain diversity in the pre rotavirus vaccine era: insights for understanding the impact of rotavirus vaccination programs,” *Vaccine*, vol. 30, pp. A122–A130, 2012.

[17] M. Ali, M. Idrees, L. Ali et al., “Hepatitis B virus in Pakistan: a systematic review of prevalence, risk factors, awareness status and genotypes,” *Virology Journal*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 1–9, 2011.

[18] J. H. Chen, F. Lu, C. S. Lim et al., “Detection of *Plasmodium vivax* infection in the Republic of Korea by loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP),” *Acta Tropica*, vol. 113, no. 1, pp. 61–65, 2010.

[19] M. M. Alam, A. Khurshid, S. Shaukat et al., “Human parechovirus genotypes-10,-13 and-15 in Pakistani children with acute dehydrating gastroenteritis,” *PLoS One*, vol. 8, no. 11, article e78377, 2015.

[20] M. M. Alam, A. Khurshid, S. Shaukat et al., “Viral etiologies of acute dehydrating gastroenteritis in Pakistani children: confounding role of parechoviruses,” *Viruses*, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 378–393, 2015.

[21] C. D. Kirkwood, K. Boniface, G. L. Barnes, and R. F. Bishop, “Distribution of rotavirus genotypes after introduction of rotavirus vaccines, Rotarix® and RotaTeq®, into the National Immunization Program of Australia,” *The Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal*, vol. 30, no. 1. pp. S48–S53, 2011.

[22] M. M. Patel, V. R. López-Collada, M. M. Bulhões et al., “Intussusception risk and health benefits of rotavirus vaccination in Mexico and Brazil,” *New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 364, no. 24. pp. 2283–2292, 2011.