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Acute gastroenteritis and vomiting are easily recognized as a clinical entity, but may be caused by very different agents (viruses, bacteria, parasites), or may have a non-infectious cause.

Figure 1 lists viruses found in the human gut that have been recognized as:

- common causes of diarrhoea and vomiting in humans
- uncommon causes or not a cause of diarrhoea and vomiting in humans
- causes of diarrhoea in immunodeficient individuals.

This contribution discusses the major groups of viruses that commonly cause gastroenteritis in humans.

The viruses

Rotaviruses, caliciviruses, enteric adenoviruses and astroviruses are the principal virus groups involved. Their size, particle and genome structure, classification and epidemiological significance are summarized in Figure 2. Their structure on electron microscopy is shown in Figure 3.

Rotaviruses are the major cause of infantile gastroenteritis worldwide.

**Structure** – rotaviruses comprise an inner core containing a genome of eleven segments of double-stranded RNA and the transcription/replication complex, a middle layer (inner capsid) comprising viral protein 6 (VP6), and an outer layer of VP7 and VP4, the latter protruding as spikes.

**Classification** – rotaviruses are classified according to the immunological reactivities and genomic sequences of three of their structural components. Cross-reactivities of VP6 distinguish at least seven groups (A–G). Most human infections are caused by group A, which has at least four subgroups (I, II, I+II, non-I, non-II). The surface proteins VP4 and VP7 elicit type-specific neutralizing antibodies. Accordingly, for group A rotaviruses, a dual-type classification system has been established, differentiating G types (VP7-specific, G derived from glycoprotein) and P types (VP4-specific, P derived from protease-sensitive protein); 15 G types and 23 P types have been described, of which at least 11 G types and 10 P types have been found in humans. Because G and P proteins are encoded by different RNA segments, and rotaviruses of group A are found to reassort readily in doubly infected cells, various combinations of VP4 and VP7 types have been observed in natural human rotavirus isolates.

**Replication and pathogenesis** – rotaviruses replicate in mature epithelial cells at the tips of the villi of the small intestine. After virus replication, mature particles are released from cells by lysis. Rotavirus replication is rapid and reaches high titres (up to 10⁸ virus particles/ml faeces at the peak of acute diarrhrea) within a short period of time. The diarrhrea arises from epithelial necrosis and atrophy, leading to reduced absorption of carbohydrates and increased osmotic pressure in the gut lumen. Cells emerging from the crypts of the gut epithelium, which exhibit reactive hyperplasia, repair the damage to villous cells. This is accompanied by increased secretion of fluid, which also contributes to the diarrhrea. Recently, a viral non-structural protein (NSP4, encoded by RNA segment 10) was shown to be an enterotoxin (the first viral protein identified to exert this function). Furthermore, a toxic effect of rotavirus infection on the autonomous nervous system of the gut has been described.

Primary rotavirus infection leads to a serotype-specific humoral immune response with initially monotypic protection. During the first 2 years of life, children are repeatedly infected with rotaviruses of various types, resulting in a more complex immune response that seems to provide partial heterotypic protection. Rotavirus-specific secretory copro-antibodies of the IgA subclass have been identified as the best correlate of protection.

**Viruses infecting the human gut**

**Common causes of diarrhoea and vomiting**
- Rotaviruses (11–68%)
- Caliciviruses (1–13%)
- Group F adenoviruses (1–10%)
- Astroviruses (1–5%)

**Uncommon causes or not causes of diarrhoea and vomiting**
- Enteroviruses
- Orthoreoviruses
- Adenoviruses (other than group F)
- Toroviruses
- Coronavirus (including SARS CoV)
- Parvoviruses

**Causes of diarrhoea in immunodeficient individuals**
- HIV
- Cytomegalovirus
- Herpes simplex virus
- Picobirnaviruses
- Adenoviruses types 42–47 (often systemic)

Viruses other than those that commonly cause diarrhoea are seen sporadically; on average, viruses represent about one-third of all microbial causes of childhood diarrhoea.

1 Figures in parentheses are detection ranges in various surveys
2 Most common cause of outbreaks
3 In addition to common causes of diarrhoea and vomiting

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### Characteristics of viruses that commonly cause gastroenteritis in humans

| Virus (family) | Size and structure | Genome composition | Classification | Epidemiology |
|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------|-------------|
| **Rotaviruses**<br>(Reoviridae) | 75 nm, triple-layered, wheel-shaped | 11 segments of dsRNA totalling 18.5 kb | Groups A–G<br>Within group A subgroups, G and P types | Endemic in children, winter outbreaks in temperate climates, small epidemics in the elderly |
| **Caliciviruses**<br>(Caliciviridae) | About 30 nm, surface cup-shaped | ssRNA, 7.7 kb | Two genera<br>Noroviruses<br>Sapoviruses | Epidemics in all age groups |
| **Enteric adenoviruses**<br>(Adenoviridae) | About 70 nm, icosahedral | dsDNA, 36 kb | Group F serotypes 40, 41 | Endemic in children |
| **Astroviruses**<br>(Astroviridae) | About 30 nm, star-like appearance | ssRNA, 6.8 kb | Eight serotypes/genotypes | Epidemics in children and adults |

### Caliciviruses:
Noroviruses (previously termed ‘Norwalk-like viruses’) and sapoviruses (previously termed ‘Sapporo-like viruses’) are two genera of the Caliciviridae family. They are classified into two or possibly three genogroups containing 16 genotypes. Norovirus genotypes co-circulate, and recombination among norovirus strains has been observed and may be more common than initially anticipated.

These viruses were first recognized as a cause of human gastroenteritis outbreaks in the 1960s and are now considered the most important cause of non-bacterial gastroenteritis outbreaks and epidemics worldwide. In the UK, calicivirus outbreaks are common in hospital settings. Human infection with caliciviruses elicits virus-specific immune responses, though these do not seem to provide full protection from subsequent infections. Indeed, higher pre-existing antibody levels seem to lead to more severe illness on re-infection, which occurs regularly throughout life.

### Adenoviruses:
Enteric adenoviruses of subgroup F (serotypes 40 and 41) are a less common cause of diarrhoea in infants and small children. They replicate in the nucleus and cytoplasm. Some adenovirus proteins inhibit apoptosis and others reduce host cell metabolism, including expression of MHC class I antigens on the surface of infected cells, thereby reducing susceptibility to adenovirus-specific cytotoxic T cells. A serotype-specific humoral immune response provides homotypic protection.

### Astroviruses:
Astroviruses are members of the Astroviridae family and have a pathognomonic appearance on electron microscopy (Figure 3). Eight different serotypes/genotypes have been distinguished; serotype 1 is most common. Little is known about immunity conveyed after astrovirus infection or the relative cross-protective effect of the immune response on re-infection with heterotypic strains.

### Epidemiology

**Rotaviruses:** infections occur endemically worldwide, causing about 460,000 deaths each year in children under 2 years, mainly in developing countries. The epidemiology of these infections is complex. There is a strict winter peak in temperate climates, but in tropical and subtropical regions infections occur throughout the year. Transmission is mainly by the faeco-oral route. Nosocomial infections on infant and paediatric wards are difficult to eliminate.

Group A rotaviruses of different G and P types co-circulate in different populations within a geographical location, varying over time. Types G1, G2, G3 and G4 represent more than 90% of co-circulating strains in temperate climates, but other G types are increasing and may even become most prevalent, particularly in tropical and subtropical areas. Non-G1–G4 type viruses are also found in temperate climates (e.g. G9 in the USA and Europe).

Many species of mammal harbour diverse rotaviruses, and increasing data indicate that they may act as reservoirs for human infections. Most human infections are caused by group A rotaviruses; however, group B rotaviruses were established as the cause of acute gastroenteritis outbreaks in children and adults in China in the 1980s, and recently in Calcutta, India and in other South East Asian countries. Group C rotavirus infections are associated with isolated cases and small outbreaks of diarrhoea in humans.

**Noroviruses:** norovirus infections exhibit a winter peak, and the associated clinical picture has become known as ‘winter vomiting disease’. Age-related seroprevalence surveys have shown that many infections with noroviruses occur in the young and are often inapparent. About 50% of children have been infected by the age of 2 years. It is now accepted that the incidence of infection with noroviruses and sapoviruses is largely underestimated. Noroviruses cause outbreaks of acute gastroenteritis, mainly as a result of contamination of food (oysters, green salad) or water. Such outbreaks occur in both children and adults in recreational camps, hospitals, nursing homes, schools and cruise ships.

**Astroviruses** cause both endemic infections and food-borne outbreaks. Seroprevalence surveys have shown that individuals can become infected by more than one serotype.

### Clinical features

Onset of acute viral gastroenteritis is after 1–2 days’ incubation, with watery diarrhoea lasting 4–7 days, vomiting and varying dehydration. Fever is not common. As a rule, the duration of diarrhoea with norovirus infection is shorter than that with rotaviruses or enteric adenoviruses. Infection may be accompanied...
by abdominal cramps, headache, myalgia and projectile vomiting, which is regarded as typical of norovirus infection. In rotavirus infection, all degrees of severity are seen. The outcome depends on viral pathogenicity factors and host immune status. Inapparent infections can occur, particularly in neonates. Although rotavirus infection is often accompanied by respiratory symptoms, there is no strong evidence that rotaviruses replicate in the respiratory tract. Extra-intestinal spread of rotaviruses has been reported and may result in viraemia or, rarely, encephalopathy.

Chronic gut infections with rotaviruses, enteroviruses, sapoviruses and astroviruses have been seen in immunocompromised children. Chronic gut infections with human cytomegalovirus, adenoviruses of new serotypes (42–47) and picobirnaviruses have been reported in HIV-infected patients with AIDS-defining illnesses.

**Diagnosis**

Diagnosis of rotavirus, enterovirus and enteric adenovirus infections is relatively easy because large numbers of particles are produced and shed during the acute phase of the illness. Noroviruses and sapoviruses are replicated to lower concentrations and for shorter periods. Diagnosis is by electron microscopy of negatively stained specimen suspensions (‘catch-all method’), by passive particle agglutination tests, by virus-specific enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, and more recently by viral genome detection using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis for adenoviruses and reverse transcription PCR for rotaviruses, calciviruses and astroviruses.

**Management**

Treatment is mainly by oral rehydration or, in more severe cases, intravenous rehydration. In tropical areas where rotavirus infections are associated with high mortality, standard formulas of oral rehydration fluid are recommended by the WHO. Otherwise, treatment is symptomatic. Use of antimotility drugs is not advised in children, though there have been recent promising developments in the use of anti-encephaline drugs. There are no specific antiviral chemotherapeutic agents in clinical use.

Outbreaks of nosocomial rotavirus infections are common in children on hospital wards and in day-care centres. Outbreaks of diarrhoea and vomiting caused by noroviruses occur in children and adults following banquets, on cruise ships, and in cafeterias, schools, hotels and fast-food restaurants. Outbreak control measures focus on interruption of person-to-person transmission and removal of sources of infection (food, water, food-handlers), with measures to improve environmental hygiene.

**Vaccine development**

Development of vaccines against viral gastroenteritis has been principally directed towards rotaviruses, which are the main cause of gastroenteritis and high mortality in developing countries. For various reasons, no vaccines have been developed against other viruses causing gastroenteritis in humans.

A live attenuated, rhesus rotavirus-based human reassortant vaccine eliciting immunity to human rotavirus strains G1–G4 was found to protect significantly against severe disease, including dehydration. It received US Food and Drug Administration approval for universal use in the USA in August 1998, and 1.5 million doses were used between September 1998 and July 1999. However, a Vaccine Adverse Events Reporting System found gut intussusception to be a rare complication epidemiologically correlated with vaccination, particularly on days 3–7 after the first vaccination. Although the vaccine-attributable risk of intussusception was considered very low in recent studies (< 1/10,000), the recommendation for use of this vaccine in the USA was withdrawn in October 1999, and it was taken off the market by the manufacturer.

Attention is now focused on the development of other, more attenuated live vaccines, use of virus-like particles obtained from baculovirus recombinant-expressed rotavirus proteins, enhancement of rotavirus immunogenicity by micro-encapsulation, DNA-based candidate vaccines, and possibly ‘edible vaccines’.

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Electron micrographs showing:

(a) rotavirus
(b) enteric adenovirus
(c) Norwalk-like virus
(d) calicivirus
(e) astrovirus
(f) enterovirus
(g) parvovirus.
(Negative staining with 3% phosphotungstate, pH 6.3; bar, 100 nm.)
(By courtesy Dr J Gray (a–d, f, g) and Dr J Kurtz (e).
Source: Zuckerman A, Banatvala J, Pattison J, eds. *Principles and practice of clinical virology*. 4th ed. Chichester: Wiley, 2000. © John Wiley & Sons Limited.
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