

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria



Abdelhamid Ibn Badis  
University-Mostaganem  
Faculty of Nature and Life  
Sciences

جامعة عبد الحميد بن باديس  
مستغانم  
كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة



Theme code: MA 08

**BIOLOGY DEPARTMENT**

**FINAL DISSERTATION**

Submitted by:

**GUERMAT Yousra Sara**

In partial fulfillment for the degree of

**MASTER IN BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES**

**Specialty: Applied Microbiology**

**THEME**

**Acute Gastroenteritis (AGE) in Children  
Under 5 Years Old in “Hamadou Houcine  
Sidi Ali Hospital” Mostaganem.**

**BOARD OF EXAMINERS:**

<b>Chairman</b>	<b>DJIBAOUI Rachid</b>	<b>Pr</b>	<b>U. Mostaganem</b>
<b>Supervisor</b>	<b>NEBBACHE Salim</b>	<b>MCA</b>	<b>U. Mostaganem</b>
<b>Examiner</b>	<b>ARABI Abed</b>	<b>MCA</b>	<b>U. Mostaganem</b>

**Academic year : 2024/2025**

## *Acknowledgements*

*I have taken great efforts in conducting this research. However, I would not have been able to complete it without the will and help of Allah Almighty. First and foremost, I thank Allah for granting me the strength, patience, and guidance to pursue knowledge and use it for the sake of goodness and benefit to others.*

*I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Nebbache Salim, for his excellent supervision and guidance throughout this journey. I am also thankful for the valuable information and continuous support he provided regarding this research.*

*I extend my sincere gratitude to the members of the jury Pr. Djibaoui and Dr. Arabi for accepting to evaluate my work and for their valuable time and insights.*

*To all the tutors who have supported me since day one and treated me with kindness and respect, I sincerely thank you from the depth of my heart for helping shape the person I am today.*



## *Dedication*

*To the little girl who dreamt big, worked hard, and never gave up, I dedicate this work to you. I dedicate this work to my younger self.*

*To my parents, Words will never be enough to express how much I cherish your presence and your unwavering support throughout my journey.*

*To my mother—*

*Perhaps you didn't have the chance to pursue education yourself, but you gave life to the one who could. I carry your dreams in my success, and I dedicate this work to you—because without you, none of this would have been possible.*

*To my father—*

*Making you proud has always been my ultimate goal. Your unconditional love and countless sacrifices gave me the strength to keep going, even when things felt impossible. I owe this achievement to your unwavering belief in me. Thank you for believing in me even when I doubted myself. I dedicate this work to you with all my heart.*

*To all my sisters and my sister-in-law, Thank you Naïma, Nihed and Amīna for your love, encouragement, and support throughout this journey. I'm truly blessed to have you by my side.*

*To all my brothers, thank you, Baker and Nadir, for always making me laugh whenever I felt down. Your humor and support lifted my spirits and kept me going.*

*To all my nephews and nieces, Farah, Anes, Rihab, Iyad, Roeya, Youssef, and Israa, you are the bright colors that fill our home with joy and laughter. Your voices have always kept me company, bringing comfort and warmth even in the loneliest moments.*

*To all my friends, especially Aya, If I ever had to choose between going to therapy and spending time with you, I would definitely choose you—because your presence is healing in its own special way*

## List of figures :

<b>Figure 1 :</b> statistical analysis from a medical study about the major causes of infant mortality according to the WHO.....	4
<b>Figure 2:</b> global and south African mortality rates from diarrheal disease according to patient's age (Mafokwane et al., 2023) .....	4
<b>Figure 3:</b> schematic representation of rotavirus structure (Uprety et al., 2021) .....	6
<b>Figure 4:</b> The structure of an enteric adenovirus (Hassou et al., 2020) .....	9
<b>Figure 5:</b> (On the left) A cross-sectional view shows the norovirus capsid, which measures approximately 38 nm in diameter; (On the right) An electron microscope image displays the appearance of norovirus particles (Ryu, 2017) .....	11
<b>Figure 6:</b> Structure of astrovirus (Manglic et al., 2024) .....	11
<b>Figure 7:</b> The structure of <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Mohammad et al., 2019) .....	16
<b>Figure 8:</b> the life cycle of <i>strongloides stercoralis</i> (Bae et al., 2018) .....	18
<b>Figure 9:</b> age distribution of children with AGE.....	29
<b>Figure 10:</b> gender distribution in recorded cases.....	29
<b>Figure 11:</b> income based classification in AGE cases.....	30
<b>Figure 12:</b> household water sources in the study population.....	30
<b>Figure 13:</b> feeding practices among children with AGE.....	31
<b>Figure 14:</b> stools characteristics among children with AGE.....	31
<b>Figure 15:</b> number of stools per day.....	32
<b>Figure 16:</b> number of vomiting cases.....	32
<b>Figure 17:</b> frequency of different fever temperatures.....	33
<b>Figure 18:</b> prevalence of abdominal pain among patients.....	33
<b>Figure 19:</b> level of dehydration in children with AGE.....	34
<b>Figure 20:</b> proportion of ORS, IV, and combined rehydration treatment.....	34
<b>Figure 21:</b> antibiotic use before hospitalization.....	35
<b>Figure 22:</b> hospitalization history in the study group.....	35
<b>Figure 23:</b> hospital stay duration in the study population.....	36

**List of abbreviations:**

**AGE:** Acute Gastro-Enteritis

**AIDS:** Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

**DNA:** Deoxyribonucleic Acid

**EAEC:** Enteroaggregative Escherichia Coli

**EHEC:** Enterohemorrhagic Escherichia Coli

**EPEC:** Enteropathogenic Echerichia Coli

**HIV:** Human Immunodeficiency Virus

**IBD:** Inflammatory Bowel Disease

**IBS:** Irritable Bowel Syndrome

**IV:** Intravenous Fluids

**NSPs:** Non structural Proteins

**ORS:** Oral Rehydration Therapy

**PCR:** Polymerase Chain Reaction

**RNA:** Ribonucleic Acid

**UNICEF:** United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

**WHO:** World Health Organization

# Table of contents

DEDICATIONS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABSTRACT

RESUME

الملخص

**INTRODUCTION.....1**

## **CHAPTER I. LITERATURE REVIEW**

**1.DEFINITIONS:..... 3**

1.1WHAT IS DIARRHEA IN CHILDREN?..... 3

1.2WHAT IS AN ACUTE DIARRHEA?..... 3

1.3WHAT IS PEDIATRIC GASTROENTERITIS?..... 3

1.4WHAT IS AN ACUTE GASTROENTERITIS IN CHILDREN?..... 3

**2EPIDEMIOLOGY :..... 3**

2.1GASTROENTERITIS IN CHILDREN:..... 3

2.2ACUTE GASTROENTERITIS IN CHILDREN:..... 3

**3ETHIOPATHOGENESIS:..... 5**

3.1ACUTE GASTROENTERITIS:..... 5

3.1.1*Etiology*:..... 5

3.1.2*Non-inflammatory agents* :..... 5

3.1.3*Inflammatory agents*:..... 12

3.2NON-INFECTIOUS GASTROENTERITIS:..... 19

3.2.1*Irritable bowel syndrome IBS*:..... 19

3.2.2*Inflammatory Bowel disease IBD*:..... 19

3.2.3*Medication induced diarrhea*:..... 19

3.2.4*Allergic diarrhea*:..... 19

**4FACTORS INFLUENCING PEDIATRIC GASTROENTERITIS:..... 20**

4.1HOST RELATED FACTORS:..... 20

4.1.1*Age*..... 20

4.1.2*Gender*:..... 20

4.1.3*Malnutrition*:..... 20

4.2 ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS:..... 20

4.2.1 *Hygiene and sanitation*:..... 20

4.2.2 *Crowded living conditions and low income*:..... 20

4.3 FEEDING PRACTICES AND MODE OF BIRTH:..... 20

4.3.1*Breast-feeding*:..... 20

4.3.2*Mode of birth*:..... 20

4.4SEASONAL VARIATIONS:..... 20

4.5ANTIBIOTIC USE AND RESISTANCE:..... 21

**5DIAGNOSTIC:..... 21**

5.1	CLINICAL HISTORY:	21
5.2	PHYSICAL EXAMINATION:	21
5.3	LABORATORY TESTING:	21
5.3.1	Microscopy:	22
5.3.2	Serology:	22
5.3.3	Molecular diagnostics:	22
6	DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS:	22
6.1	DIAGNOSIS OF ACUTE VOMITING:	22
6.2	MASSIVE ABDOMINAL PAIN:	22
6.3	PERSISTENT HIGH FEVER:	23
7	COMPLICATIONS:	23
7.1	DEHYDRATION:	23
7.2	DISSEMINATED INTRAVASCULAR COAGULATION DIC:	23
7.3	HEMOLYTIC UREMIC SYNDROME:	23
7.4	NEUROLOGICAL COMPLICATIONS:	23
7.5	DEVELOPING FOOD INTOLERANCE (E.G., COW'S MILK PROTEIN INTOLERANCE):	23
8	TREATMENT:	23
8.1	REHYDRATION:	23
8.1.1	For mild to moderate dehydration:	23
8.1.2	For moderate to severe dehydration:	24
8.2	NUTRITIONAL MANAGEMENT:	24
8.3	PROBIOTICS:	24
8.4	ANTIBIOTICS:	24
8.5	ZINC:	24
9	PREVENTION:	24
<b>CHAPTER II. MATERIALS AND METHODS</b>		
10	OBJECTIVES:	27
11	METHODS:	27
11.1	DATA COLLECTION:	27
<b>CHAPTER III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b>		
12	RESULTS:	29
12.1	SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC RESULTS:	29
12.2	CLINICAL FEATURES:	31
12.3	BASED ON THERAPEUTIC APPROACH:	34
13	DISCUSSION:	37
CONCLUSION:		40
RECOMMENDATIONS:		40
REFERENCES:		41
ANNEXES:		56

**ABSTRACT:**

Among children under five, acute gastroenteritis continues to be a major cause of hospitalization and morbidity, particularly in developing nations. Finding the primary causes, signs, and risk factors of acute gastroenteritis in children was the goal of this study. Between April and May 2025, a descriptive cross-sectional study was carried out at Sidi Ali Mostaganem Hospital. Information about sociodemographic and environmental factors was gathered from parental questionnaires. The results showed that viral gastroenteritis was the most common, with fever, vomiting, and diarrhea as dominant symptoms. Most affected children were under 2 years old, and contributing factors included lack of breastfeeding, poor hygiene, and consumption of unsafe water. To lessen the burden of this illness, the results emphasize the necessity of preventive measures like better hygiene habits, health education, and breastfeeding promotion.

**Keywords:**

Pediatric acute gastroenteritis, rehydration, bacterial pathogens, rotavirus, diarrhea

**Résumé :**

Chez les enfants de moins de cinq ans, la gastro-entérite aiguë demeure une cause majeure d'hospitalisation et de morbidité, en particulier dans les pays en développement. Cette étude avait pour objectif d'identifier les causes principales, les signes cliniques et les facteurs de risque de la gastro-entérite aiguë chez les enfants. Entre avril et mai 2025, une étude descriptive transversale a été réalisée à l'hôpital de Sidi Ali, Mostaganem. Les informations sur les facteurs sociodémographiques et environnementaux ont été recueillies à partir de questionnaires remplis par les parents. Les résultats ont montré que la gastro-entérite virale était la plus fréquente, avec comme symptômes dominants la fièvre, les vomissements et la diarrhée. La majorité des enfants touchés étaient âgés de moins de 2 ans, et les facteurs contributifs comprenaient l'absence d'allaitement, une mauvaise hygiène et la consommation d'eau non potable. Pour réduire la charge de cette maladie, les résultats soulignent la nécessité de mesures préventives telles qu'une meilleure hygiène, l'éducation sanitaire et la promotion de l'allaitement maternel.

**Mots clé :**

Gastro-entérite aiguë pédiatrique, réhydratation, pathogènes bactériens, rotavirus, diarrhée

## الملخص:

تعدّ الالتهابات المعوية الحادة سببًا رئيسيًا لدخول الأطفال دون سن الخامسة إلى المستشفى وارتفاع معدلات المراضة، خاصةً في الدول النامية. هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى تحديد الأسباب الرئيسية، والعلامات السريرية، وعوامل الخطر المرتبطة بالتهاب المعدة والأمعاء الحاد لدى الأطفال. تم إجراء دراسة وصفية مقطعية خلال شهري أبريل وماي 2025 على مستوى مستشفى سيدي علي بولاية مستغانم. وقد جُمعت المعلومات المتعلقة بالعوامل الاجتماعية والديموغرافية والبيئية من خلال استبيانات وُزعت على أولياء الأطفال. أظهرت النتائج أن الالتهاب المعوي الفيروسي هو الأكثر شيوعًا، حيث كانت الحمى، والتقيؤ، والإسهال من بين الأعراض الأكثر ظهورًا. كما تبيّن أن معظم الأطفال المصابين كانوا دون سن العامين، ومن بين العوامل المساهمة في الإصابة: غياب الرضاعة الطبيعية، وسوء النظافة، واستهلاك المياه غير الصالحة للشرب. وتؤكد هذه النتائج على ضرورة اتخاذ تدابير وقائية مثل تحسين العادات الصحية، والتثقيف الصحي، وتعزيز الرضاعة الطبيعية لتقليل عبء هذا المرض.

## الكلمات المفتاحية:

التهاب المعدة والأمعاء الحاد لدى الأطفال، الإماهة، مسببات الأمراض البكتيرية، فيروس الروتا، الإسهال.

## **INTRODUCTION:**

Mortality and birth rates have long been used as barometers of population trends (Diallo *et al.*, 2000). The decline in mortality is concomitant with the emergence of modern states and the implementation of public health policies based on new biological and medical knowledge, as well as improvements in living conditions, particularly nutrition and housing (Michel Garenne & Enéas Gakusi, 2003).

Child mortality is defined as the number of deaths in children under five (5) years of age out of the number of live births in the same year.

In 2000 worldwide, the infant mortality rate was estimated at 57‰ of which Africa alone bore a heavy burden with 88‰. In the same year, nearly 11 million deaths of children under five were recorded; 40% of these deaths were concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa, followed by South Asia with 34%.

A newborn in West Africa is almost 20 times more likely to die in the first month of life than a baby born in northern Europe.

Infant and child mortality was dominated by malaria, prematurity, neonatal infections, acute respiratory infections, diarrheal diseases, fetal distress, meningitis, malnutrition and HIV/AIDS (Coulibaly, 2001).

Of the estimated total of 10.6 million deaths among children younger than five years of age worldwide, 42 percent occur in African region (Bryce *et al.*, 2005).

Gastroenteritis, a major health concern in Africa, particularly among children, is the second leading cause of infectious disease burden globally and is a significant contributor to mortality. While diarrhea (including viral gastroenteritis) is a major cause of death in children under 5 in sub-Saharan Africa.

Gastroenteritis involves inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract, mainly the stomach and small intestines (Al Jassas *et al.*, 2018), and can result from changes in diet, treatment with antibiotics (Pickard & Núñez, 2019), and infection involving various microbial agents, including viruses, such as rotavirus, adenovirus, and astrovirus (Makimaa *et al.*, 2020), enteric bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli*, *Campylobacter*, *Shigella*, or *Salmonella* (Janda & Abbott, 2021; Fleckenstein, Kuhlmann, & Sheikh, 2021) and parasites such as *Giardia lamblia* and *Cryptosporidium* (Garzón *et al.*, 2017)

CHAPTER I  
LITERATURE  
REVIEW

## **1. Definitions:**

### **1.1 What is diarrhea in children?**

According to the World Health Organization, diarrhea is at least 3 loose or liquid stools and a boost in the bowel movement in one day. (or more stools than usual for predisposed subjects).

### **1.2 What is an acute diarrhea?**

It involves an alteration of stool consistency and/or elevated stool output ( $\geq 3/d$ ). It lasts under a week and is usually associated with vomiting and fever.

### **1.3 What is pediatric gastroenteritis?**

It is the most common gastrointestinal disease in children. A virus, bacterium, or parasite infects the stomach and intestines, leading to severe diarrhea and vomiting.

The paramount acute complication associated with gastroenteritis is dehydration, which transpires when the total fluid excretion of the child surpasses the fluid intake (Walker-Smith, 2013).

### **1.4 What is an acute gastroenteritis in children?**

It is a quick-developing illness characterized by vomiting, fever or abdominal pain, greater stool volume, and an abnormal consistency.

It leads to major morbidity in children younger than five years old, accounting for 1.5 million office visits, 200,000 hospitalizations, and 300 deaths in children each year. (Hartman *et al.*, 2019)

## **2 Epidemiology :**

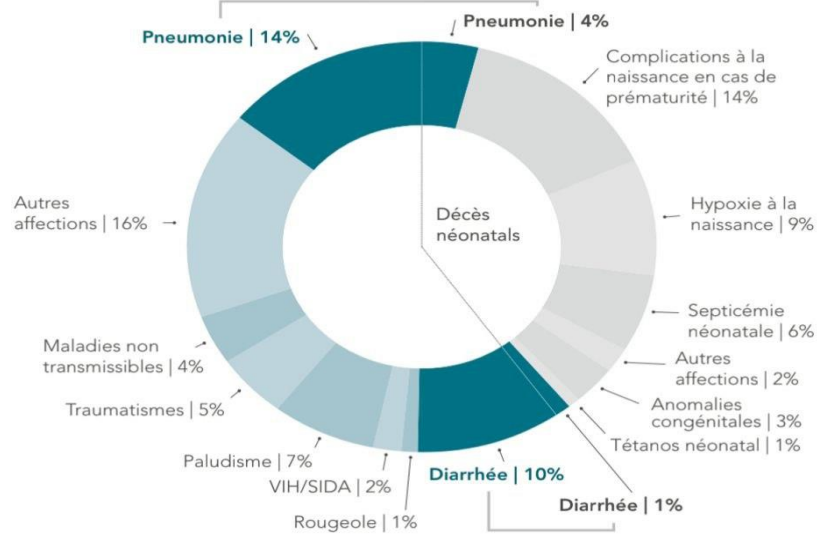
### **2.1 Gastroenteritis in children:**

Gastroenteritis predominantly occurs in low-income countries of sub-Saharan Africa (figure 2) African and Asian children are the most exposed to this disease, accounting for 80 % of annual incidence. (Simwaka *et al.*, 2018)

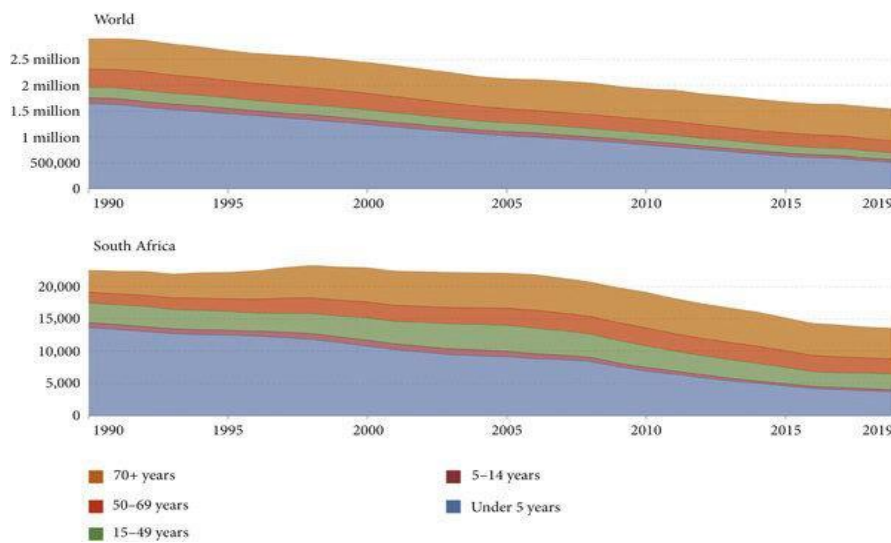
### **2.2 Acute gastroenteritis in children:**

Worldwide, 2 million deaths from 5 billion cases happen. In developing countries, acute gastroenteritis is very common among children. According to the world health organization (WHO) and UNICEF diarrheal diseases were responsible of 10% of deaths among children under 5 years old (figure 1).

In Algeria, acute gastroenteritis is the main contributor to child mortality. The yearly morbidity rate is 2.5 episodes of diarrhea per child per year, or 10 million cases. (Lahcen, 2012)



**Figure 1 :** statistical analysis from a medical study about the major causes of infant mortality according to the WHO



**Figure 2 :** global and south African mortality rates from diarrheal disease according to patient's age (Mafokwane *et al.*, 2023)

### **3 Ethiopathogenesis:**

#### **3.1 Acute gastroenteritis:**

##### **3.1.1 Etiology:**

Commonly caused by an infection, between 75% and 90% of cases are caused by noninflammatory agents (viral infections), and inflammatory agents (bacterial pathogens and parasites) cause another 10% to 20%. (Churgay & Aftab, 2012) Seasons and climate may affect the incidence of several pathogens. Children get infected, especially in day care centers because of the poor sanitation of the area.

##### **3.1.2 Non-inflammatory agents :**

###### **3.1.2.1 Viral etiology :**

Viral gastroenteritis is an inflammation of the inside lining of the gastrointestinal tract. Many viruses can cause this disease, such as rotavirus, enteric adenovirus, calicivirus (e.g., norovirus and sapovirus), and astrovirus.

It is defined by digestive disorders such as nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, and fluid and electrolyte diarrhea frequently accompanied by mild signs. Dehydration might be severe for infants younger than 24 months old. (Pignatelli et al., 2000 ; Rambaud & Bouhnik, 1994)

###### **3.1.2.1.1 Rotavirus:**

belongs to the family *Roeveriridae*, and it is the most common cause of acute gastroenteritis in children younger than 24 months old. About 111 million cases of gastroenteritis requiring only home care, 25 million clinic visits, 2 million hospitalizations, and 352,000–592,000 deaths (median, 440,000 deaths) in children under the age of five are caused by rotavirus each year. By the age of five, almost all children will experience a bout of rotavirus gastroenteritis, one in five will go to a clinic, one in sixty will be admitted to the hospital, and roughly one in 293 will pass away. Rotavirus kills 82% of children in the world's poorest nations. (Parashar *et al.*, 2003).

Clinical manifestations of rotavirus infection include fever, nausea, vomiting, severe watery diarrhea, and abdominal pain (Mafokwane *et al.*, 2023)

According to the World Health Organization (WHO) , rotavirus displayed a high rate during cool and dry seasons. It peaks during earlyspring time (Cho *et al.*, 2021).

###### **a) Morphology :**

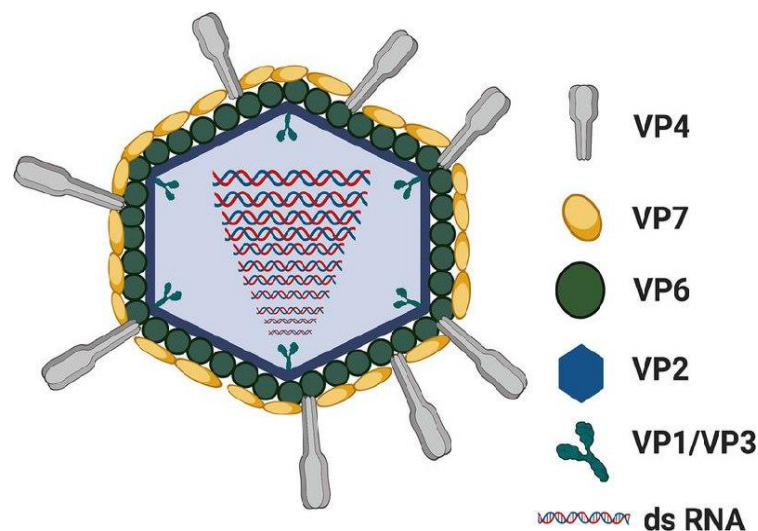
Human rotavirus has a characteristic icosahedral structure that has a honeycomb-like appearance. The name rotavirus is derived from the Latin word *rota*, which means “wheel.” It refers to the virion’s appearance in negative-stained electron micrographs. The mature virion has a diameter of approximately 100 nm (Flewett *et al.*, 1974); it is composed of three concentric protein layers, and it is a non-enveloped virus.

### b) Structure:

The rotavirus genome is made up of 11 double-stranded RNA segments, each gene encoding at least one protein. These viral proteins include six structural proteins VP (viral proteins), and six nonstructural proteins, NSPs (nonviral proteins) (figure 3) (Vende *et al.*, 2003).

The outer layer (the surface of the capsid) is formed of VP7 glycoprotein and spicules formed by the VP4 protein on top of each other. The viral RNA and VP2 protein bind and create the core. The VP6 produces the intermediate layer ; the VP1 and VP3 proteins are genome-associated and have enzymatic functions necessary for the infectivity of the virion.

However, non-structural proteins have an essential role in virulence and the pathogenesis of diarrhea.



**Figure 2 :** schematic representation of rotavirus structure (Uprety *et al.*, 2021)

### c) Transmission mode:

Rotavirus affects public health, especially children’s health. The main transmission modes are human-to-human transmission, environmental transmission, and water transmission.

- Human-to-human transmission:

Rotavirus is mainly transmitted through the fecal-oral route, and it is highly contagious; it spreads quickly among children, especially in household settings (Lopman *et al.*, 2013).

- Environmental and waterborne transmission:

Rotavirus can persist in water sources, so it promotes transmission between communities (Kraay *et al.*, 2018).

#### **d) Serotypes :**

Rotaviruses can be categorized into Groups A-E based on the antigenic groups on VP6, the major capsid antigen. Only Group A, B, and C rotaviruses have been shown to infect humans, and Group A viruses cause the majority of human rotavirus disease. Serotypes G1-4 cause the most severe infections in young children, and G1 infections appear to have dominated the world over the last 20 years. Generally speaking, the more densely populated countries exhibit the most complex patterns of serotype occurrence (Bishop, 1996).

#### **e) Pathogenesis of rotavirus :**

These viruses affect the small intestine's mature enterocytes, resulting in both structural and functional harm (Jourdan *et al.*, 1998) . it reproduces in the cytosol of cells after infecting mucosal epithelial cells upon entry into the body (Amimo *et al.*, 2021). Rotaviruses cause infections in the small intestine's villi(Greenberg & Estes, 2009) Malabsorptive diarrhea is caused by a combination of factors, including virus-mediated destruction of absorptive enterocytes, virus-induced downregulation of absorptive enzyme expression, and functional alterations in tight junctions between enterocytes that result in paracellular leakage (Greenberg & Estes, 2009). Rotavirus diarrhea has a secretory component that is believed to be caused by the effects of NSP4, the first virus-encoded enterotoxin to be identified, and activation of the enteric nervous system(Greenberg & Estes, 2009). Rotavirus-induced diarrhea is partly caused by activation of cellular Cl<sup>-</sup> channels, which increases secretion of Cl<sup>-</sup> and subsequently water, according to studies of the virus and the effects of NSP4 alone in cultured cells and animal models (Greenberg & Estes, 2009).

Dehydration is a major concern in cases of rotavirus infections, and this inflammation is especially severe in infants (Omatola & Olaniran, 2022).

**f) Diagnosis :**

Although rotavirus is usually diagnosed based on symptoms and physical exams, the confirmation of the diagnosis is crucial. Several diagnostic methods are employed, which are discussed below:

- **Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) and Immunochromatographic Tests (ICT)**

Rotavirus antigens are frequently found in stool samples using ELISA and ICT. ELISA is an effective choice for routine diagnosis because of its high sensitivity and specificity (Habib *et al.*, 2022). Whereas, ICT is cost-effective and provides quick results, which is especially useful in environments with limited resources (Habib *et al.*, 2022).

- **Reverse Transcriptase Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)**

Rotavirus RNA can be detected by Reverse Transcriptase Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR), which is more sensitive and specific than ELISA (Kumar *et al.*, 2018). It offers full details about the virus strains present and is especially helpful for genotyping and recognizing mixed infections (Mousavi-Nasab *et al.*, 2020).

- **Multiplex PCR**

Multiplex-PCR allows for the detection of numerous infections and is a useful diagnostic tool for viral acute gastroenteritis (AGE). For precise therapy and future preventative measures for viral AGE, multiplex-PCR surveillance is essential. (Danino *et al.*, 2023)

- **Countercurrent Immunelectrophoresis (CIE)**

CIE is an inexpensive and simple method that can be performed in basic laboratory settings. It provides results within a few hours and is comparable to ELISA in terms of sensitivity (Kumar *et al.*, 1984).

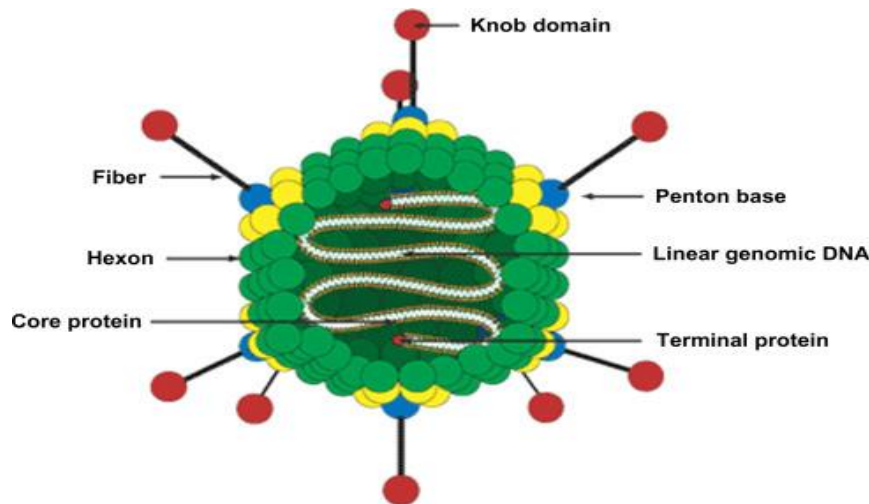
**3.1.2.1.2 Enteric adenovirus:**

Adenovirus (family Adenoviridae) is the second viral agent after rotavirus that can cause viral gastroenteritis in children (Uhnoo *et al.*, 1984; Albert, 1986). It has been related to 7%–17% of cases of diarrhea in children. Clinical manifestations are watery stools, vomiting, mild fever, and rarely respiratory symptoms (Wadell *et al.*, 2007).

Human enteric adenovirus is prevalent throughout the year and shows increased incidence during the autumn and winter seasons (Bouazizi *et al.*, 2024)

**a) structure:**

All classes of vertebrates are infected by nonenveloped double-stranded DNA viruses called adenoviruses (figure 4). 240 subunits of the trimeric hexon protein form the facets of their particular icosahedral capsid architecture, while 12 copies of the penton which consists of the pentameric penton base protein and the externally projecting trimeric fiber, form the vertices. (Seiradake & Cusack, 2005)



**Figure 3 :** The structure of an enteric adenovirus (Hassou *et al.*, 2020)

**b) serotype:**

There are 41 serotypes of human adenovirus classified into six subdivisions from A to F. The serotypes ad40 and ad 41 of the subgenus F are the main reason for gastroenteritis in children (Wadell *et al.*, 2007).

**c) transmission mode:**

The mode of spread of this virus is still uncertain; studies show that the transmission occurs by contact via the fecal-oral route since the virus multiplies in the gastrointestinal tract or through the respiratory route if the respiratory tract is infected (Albert, 1986).

**d) pathogenesis:**

At the acute stage of the disease, about  $10^{11}$  particles of the enteric adenoviruses per gram of stool are secreted. This indicates that they are proliferating in the gastrointestinal tract, expectedly in the small intestinal mucosa (Mavromichalis *et al.*, 1977).

some children with enteric adenovirus gastroenteritis manifest respiratory symptoms, indicating that the virus may also multiply in the respiratory tract organs

**e) diagnosis:**

Isolating ad40 and ad41 is hard. However, ELISA and solid-phase immune microscopy can directly identify them in addition to the identification by DNA restriction and Dot-Blot assays with enough DNA in the stool (Uhnoo *et al.*, 1990).

**3.1.2.1.3 Calicivirus:**

Human caliciviruses (HuCV) are responsible for acute gastroenteritis; they belong to the norovirus and sapovirus genera of the Caliciviridae family. In fact, within these two genera, seven different genogroups with at least thirty-four human genotypes are currently identified. Noroviruses are now known to be major causes of both sporadic and epidemic acute gastroenteritis in all age groups, resulting in significant morbidity and costs in developed nations due to advancements in diagnostic tools (Kohli *et al.*, 2005).

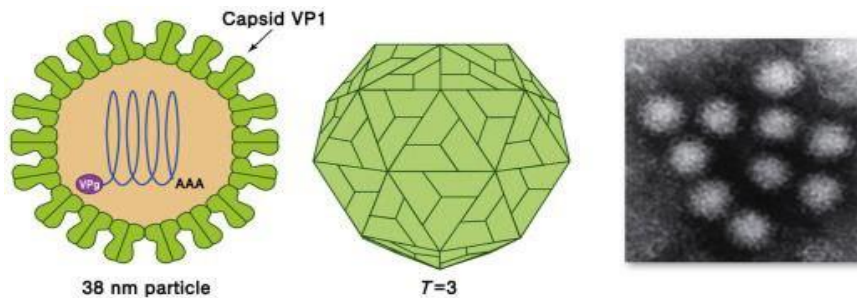
The symptoms manifest in nausea, diarrhea, abdominal pain, and vomiting (Mafokwane *et al.*, 2023)

Norovirus exhibits peak activity during two distinct periods: from October to November and from February to march (Oldak *et al.*, 2012)

**a) Structure:**

Calicivirus virions measured between 35 and 40 nm in diameter. They are non-enveloped with an icosahedral symmetry. The capsid is made up of 90 dimers of the major structural protein VP1 structured on a T=3 icosahedral lattice (Prasad *et al.*, 1994). A shell (S) domain and two protruding (P) domains, which are made up of P1 and P2 subdomains, create the subunit that VP1 forms in noroviruses (Prasad *et al.*, 2016) (figure 5)

these single-stranded RNA viruses are highly variable genetically, making them difficult to detect (Kohli *et al.*, 2005).



**Figure 4 :** (On the left) A cross-sectional view shows the norovirus capsid, which measures approximately 38 nm in diameter; (On the right) An electron microscope image displays the appearance of norovirus particles (Ryu, 2017)

### b) Diagnosis:

Electron microscopy and PCR testing are the available diagnostic methods (Tarr *et al.*, 2009)

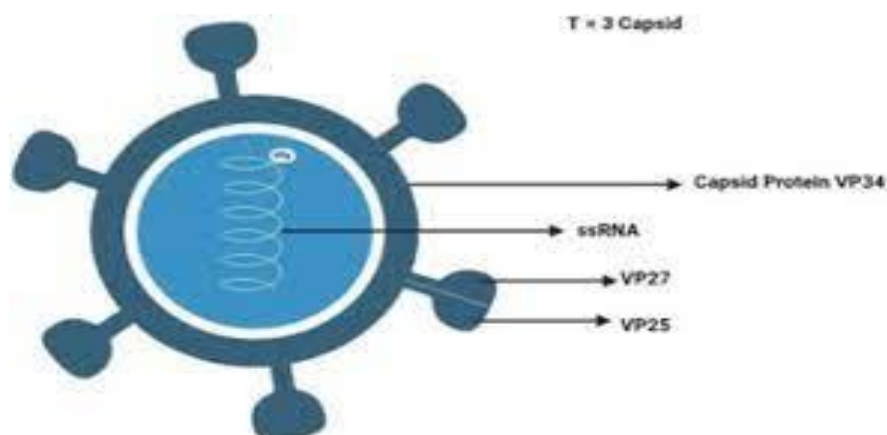
#### 3.1.2.1.4 Astrovirus:

Astroviruses are one of the agents that cause gastroenteritis in children under five years old. Watery diarrhea is one of the signs of this disease. Correspondingly, vomiting is less frequent in astrovirus illness than in rotavirus or norovirus illness. The incubation period is extended (Vu *et al.*, 2017).

Astrovirus infections peak from march to june among hospitalized young children (Dennehy *et al.*, 2001)

### a) Morphology:

The virus is approximately 28 nm in diameter and has 5 to 6 pointed surface giving it the shape of a star (figure 6) and due to that shape it is called astrovirus (Astron, Greek for “star”) (Moser & Schultz-Cherry, 2008; Madeley & Cosgrove, 1975).



**Figure 5 :** Structure of astrovirus (Manglic *et al.*, 2024)

**b) Transmission mode:**

Human astroviruses are carried by the fecal-oral route or through marine, fresh, or sewage water. Surface and groundwater are known as drinking and bathing sources; thus, it becomes health-threatening for the public. According to the World Health Organization, children there are at risk of gastroenteritis caused by the contaminated water and the improper hygiene. (Vu *et al.*, 2017)

**c) Diagnosis:**

Astroviruses are an important cause of gastroenteritis in children; the identification of this virus in the stool is crucial for an effective diagnosis; enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) is one of the methods employed for this purpose (Herrmann *et al.*, 1990).

**3.1.3 Inflammatory agents:****3.1.3.1 bacterial etiology:****• Epidemiology:**

Worldwide, infectious diarrhea is becoming a significant public health concern (World Health Organization, 2023). Bacteria are responsible for 20%-40% of gastroenteritis in children. Every year, children under 5 years suffer from acute diarrhea; despite the high rate of mortality, it is declining in developing countries. Whereas, in developed countries, fewer episodes happen per person per year (Ranasinghe & Fhogartaigh, 2021).

**3.1.3.1.1 Salmonella:**

Facultative anaerobic bacteria are derived from the family of Enterobacteriaceae. It is a gram-negative bacillus responsible for many infections, such as gastroenteritis, especially in children under 3 years old.

*Salmonella* is divided into two categories: typhoidal and non-typhoidal salmonella. Typhoidal *Salmonella* serotypes are *Salmonella typhi* or *Salmonella paratyphi*, which mainly affect humans spread via contaminated water or food by feces. Non-typhoidal *Salmonella* can be transmitted directly between humans and animals (Karaaslan *et al.*, 2022).

The most common symptoms of *salmonella* gastroenteritis include diarrhea (96.5%), fever (65.7%), and abdominal pain (42.4%), with bloody diarrhea occurring in 19.2% of cases (Karaaslan *et al.*, 2022). The disease often resolves within 4–7 days.

Salmonellosis is diagnosed by the detection of *salmonella* on stool or blood cultures (Tarr *et al.*, 2009)

#### **3.1.3.1.2 *Shigella*:**

It is a gram negative facultatively anaerobic bacterium that belongs to the family Enterobacteriaceae, genetically nested within *Escherichia*. *S. flexneri* is the most common species isolated, followed by *S. sonnei* (Wilson *et al.*, 2006; Kara *et al.*, 2015).

There are four serogroups of *shigella* that are divided based on their serotypes: serogroup A is *Shigella dysenteriae*, serogroup B is *Shigella flexneri*, serogroup C is *Shigella boydii*, and serogroup D is *Shigella sonnei* (Gu, 2024).

*Shigella dysenteriae* is the one inducing acute gastroenteritis disease (Khan *et al.*, 2013); it can develop resistance to certain antibiotics (Ranjbar & Farahani, 2019).

The gastroenteritis caused by *Shigella* is also called shigellosis; Following at least 12 hours of exposure to the bacteria, clinical manifestations include fever, stomach pains, and rectal spasms (tenesmus). Up to 50% of episodes of bloody diarrhea typically contain mucous. (Al-Dahmoshi *et al.*, 2020).

The transmission mode occurs by consuming contaminated water or food or via human to human transmission.

In order to confirm a *Shigella* infection, the pathogen must be isolated and identified by stool culture. Some patients with negative stool cultures have typical symptoms of *Shigella* dysentery; in this case the stool is gathered in a sterile container and inoculated instantly on media selective for *Shigella* and *Salmonella* so we can maximize *Shigella* isolation (Tarr *et al.*, 2009).

#### **3.1.3.1.3 *Campylobacter*:**

*Campylobacter* is a gram negative bacterium. This bacterium is a primary cause of bacterial gastroenteritis in the developed countries.

Based on the World Health Organization (WHO), the symptoms of this infection are diarrhea (sometimes with blood), abdominal pain, fever, nausea, cephalgia, and vomiting. Symptoms usually last three to six days.

An infection transmitted from animals or their products to humans is called zoonosis, which is the case with *Campylobacter* infection. The majority of cases are caused by consuming

contaminated food, such as undercooked poultry, or beverages like unpasteurized milk. Approximately 50% - 70% of human *Campylobacter* infections are linked to contaminated water or contact with feces from infected humans or animals (Wilson & Wilson, 2021)

Fecal cultures are used for the identification of campylobacter in pediatric gastroenteritis (Bless et al., 2016)

#### **3.1.3.1.4 *Escherichia coli*:**

Acute gastroenteritis is an infection that may occur from consuming contaminated food or raw/undercooked meat or milk due to *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 (WHO), a gram negative bacillus and serotype of *E. coli*

There are different pathotypes of *Escherichia coli*:

- Enteroaggregative *E. coli* (EAEC) are linked to chronic diarrhea in children in the developing world.
- Enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) can cause hemorrhagic colitis and hemolytic uremic disorder.
- Enteropathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC) share a number of important virulence factors. (Kanwar et al., 2023).
- enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC) it is among the main bacterial pathogens linked to human diarrheal illness (O’Ryan et al., 2015).
- enteroinvasive *E. coli* (EIEC) (Lagerqvist et al., 2020).

The diagnosis of gastroenteritis caused by *E. coli* relies on several methods, such as serological techniques, biochemical testing, and antibiotic sensitivity testing (Rogers & Taylor, 1961).

#### **3.1.3.1.5 *Yersinia enterocolitica*:**

It is a gram negative bacterium that is responsible for gastroenteritis in children.

Yersiniosis is an infection caused by *Yersinia enterocolitica* and sometimes *Y. pseudotuberculosis*, which affect children’s gastrointestinal tracts (Riahi et al., 2021). Symptoms manifest in diarrhea, abdominal pain, fever, and vomiting.

The infection occurs via drinking and consuming water or food that are exposed near pets or by the consumption of undercooked or raw food (Riahi et al., 2021).

The identification of *Yersinia* is by the detection of this bacterium in the stool by *Yersinia* selective agar (Tarr et al., 2009)

### **3.1.3.1.6 *Staphylococcus aureus*:**

Staphylococcal gastroenteritis, also called staphylococcal food poisoning or food intoxication syndrome caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*. It spreads by the consumption of contaminated food by one or more enterotoxins (Jay *et al.*, 2005).

The quantity, type, and toxicity of the toxin determine the range of symptoms of staphylococcal gastroenteritis, whether it is mild, moderate, or severe. The incubation period is about 1 to 6 hours; after that, the symptoms start to appear. It manifests in abdominal cramps, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, fever, and dehydration, and in severe cases, it may lead to death (Bhatia & Zahoor, 2007).

Molecular techniques are used in the detection of *S.aureus* in the clinical sample.

### **3.1.3.2 *parasitic etiology*:**

Protozoa and helminths are the intestinal parasites for gastroenteritis in humans (Harhay *et al.*, 2010)

#### **3.1.3.2.1 *protozoa*:**

##### **3.1.3.2.1.1 *Giardia lamblia*:**

Giardiasis is a form of gastroenteritis caused by *Giardia lamblia*. The parasite colonizes the duodenum and upper jejunum. In its life cycle, this flagellate shifts between trophozoite and cyst.

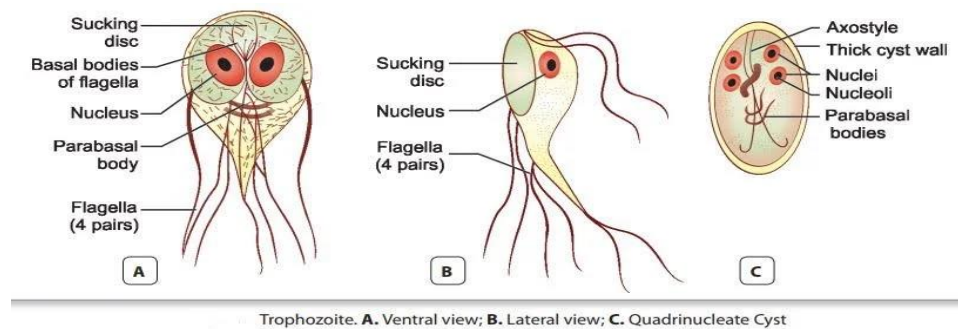
*Giardia lamblia* possesses two nuclei, which are structurally and functionally distinct. Observations indicate variations in nuclear pore number and distribution between the two nuclei (Benchimol, 2004).

The trophozoite has four pairs of flagella that aid in motility, with their arrangement contributing to its characteristic shape and ventral Disc allows attachment to the intestinal wall, facilitating nutrient absorption (figure 7) (Benchimol, 2005).

During encystation, the morphology changes significantly, with the formation of a protective cyst wall. This process involves the development of encystation-specific vesicles (Benchimol, 2004).

Cysts are typically oval and measure about 8-14 micrometers in length, differing from the larger trophozoite form (Al Saad & Al Emarah, 2014).

*G. lamblia* is transmitted through the ingestion of contaminated food or water, person to person or animal to person (Dumevi *et al.*, 2025)



**Figure 6 :** The structure of *Giardia lamblia* (Mohammad *et al.*, 2019)

Giardiasis varies from one to another; it might be asymptomatic which they don't develop symptoms but still can transmit the parasite by shedding cysts in the stool, or symptomatic, in which the symptoms manifest in loose and greasy diarrhea with a foul smell, bulky stool, bloating, abdominal cramps, decreased appetite, nausea, and mild fever (Adam, 1991). The incubation period is 1 to 3 weeks.

The diagnosis of giardiasis relies on the microscopic examination of the stool sample, examination of duodenal contents (duodenoscopy), or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay ELISA (Adam, 1991).

### 3.1.3.2.1.2 *Entamoeba histolytica*:

*E. histolytica* is a major cause of gastroenteritis in children in developing countries. This protozoan parasite is responsible for causing amebiasis and amebic colitis. *E. histolytica* is more dominant in tropical areas. Humans are the main host of this parasite. Its life cycle involves trophozoite, precyst, cyst, metacyst, and metacystic trophozoite phases.

This infection might be symptomatic, manifesting in abdominal pain and an elevated rate of bowel movements. Only trophozoites are visible when amebae penetrate host tissues and the organism loses its capacity to encyst. Amebae colonize the intestinal mucosa, causing abdominal pain, diarrhea, dysentery, or weight loss (Genta, 1992). Meanwhile, this infection also can be asymptomatic depending on the host's immune system.

The most common methods for diagnosing amebiasis are microscopy observation, trichrome staining, stool culture, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, and MT-PCR (Tüzemen & Doğan, 2014).

### 3.1.3.2.1.3 *Cryptosporidium spp*:

*Cryptosporidium sp.* is a protozoan parasite that is responsible for infecting the gastrointestinal epithelium, leading to cryptosporidiosis in children and immunocompromised patients (Korpe *et al.*, 2018).

fecal-oral transmission of *Cryptosporidium* is typically caused by drinking contaminated or recreational water. Transmission can also occur from fecal contamination of food and from person to person in impoverished nations with inadequate sanitation (Redlinger *et al.*, 2002).

Chlorinating water to disinfect it frequently doesn't offer enough protection. (Redlinger *et al.*, 2002)

Patients often experience severe watery diarrhea, fever, abdominal pain, and vomiting (Janssen & Snowden, 2017).

The diagnosis of *Cryptosporidium* can be made by nucleic acid/polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing, antigen detection techniques, or by identifying the parasite in the feces using specific stains (Janssen & Snowden, 2017).

### 3.1.3.2.2 helminths:

Helminths are multicellular worms and parasites that are common in both developing and tropical countries, affecting the gastrointestinal tract of vertebrate reservoirs. Extended infection may contribute to the development of ulcerative colitis (UC) and Crohn's disease (CD). Ulcerative colitis (UC) presents as bloody diarrhea and alters the colonic mucosa. Meanwhile, the Crohn's disease CD manifests in gastrointestinal symptoms including fever, bloody loose stool with mucus, and abdominal pain (Varyani *et al.*, 2017).

#### 3.1.3.2.2.1 *strongloides stercolaris*:

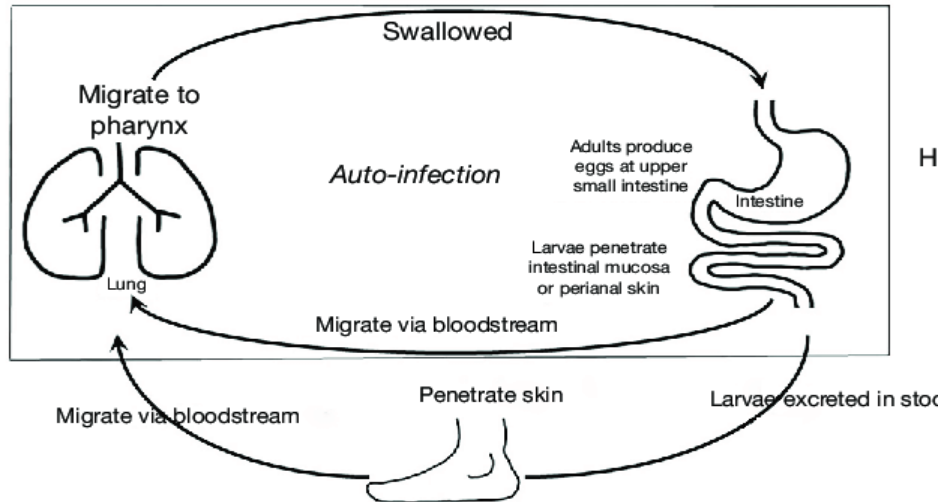
*strongloides* is an intestinal parasite responsible for strongyloidiasis. Infected, immunocompromised, or malnourished children may experience autoinfection or persistent parasite replication, which may lead to a chronic infection and death (Arifin *et al.*, 2019).

- **life cycle:**

The transmission occurs mainly through the penetration of the parasite present in the stool, water, contaminated food, or soil of the human's skin to the bloodstream. *Strongloides* migrates to the intestine and evolves into an adult female worm that lays eggs and releases them in the stool (Arifin *et al.*, 2019). The eggs that hatch in the intestine enter the parasitic life cycle and

reinvade the same host, causing autoinfection, or the larvae carry on the life cycle in the environment (figure 8) (Arifin *et al.*, 2019).

- **Diagnosis:**



**Figure 7 :** the life cycle of *strongyloides stercoralis* (Bae *et al.*, 2018)

The identification of *strongyloides stercoralis* relies on the detection of the larvae in the stool, intestinal biopsy, cell free DNA detection in the urine, and Gram staining. However, serological tests are highly sensitive but less specific (Carpio & Meseeha, 2023).

### 3.1.3.2.2.2 *Ascaris lumbricoides*:

*A. Lumbricoides* is the largest nematode parasitizing humans, especially children. It is common in tropical and subtropical areas (Hagel & Guisti, 2010).

- **Life cycle:**

The parasite spreads through the ingestion of the eggs that hatch in the intestine. Before the larvae return to the small intestine lumen where adult worms live, they invade the gut mucosa and disperse through the liver and lungs (Else *et al.*, 2020).

### 3.1.3.2.2.3 *Trichuris trichiura*:

*Trichuris trichiura* is a whipworm from the helminthiasis group; this intestinal parasite spreads via soil and the consumption of contaminated food and water (Viswanath *et al.*, 2023) .it is mainly common in tropical and subtropical regions (Else *et al.*, 2020).

- **Life cycle:**

The infected host releases the eggs in the stool. The eggs have the ability to survive in the environment for a long time; they contaminate the host's hands, water, and food. The larvae

hatch in the small intestine, then they migrate to the large intestine, as a result cells are destroyed and the host's immune system is activated dragging in lymphocytes, plasma cells, and eosinophils, causing abdominal pain and rectal bleeding. The terminal ileum and cecum are typically where the parasite settles. The worm may infest the entire colon and rectum in certain patients, and without treatment the worm's lifespan could range from two to four years (Viswanath *et al.*, 2023).

- **Diagnosis:**

The identification of both *T.Trichiura* and *A.Lumbricoides* rely on the detection of the eggs or parasites DNA in the stool (Else *et al.*, 2020), microscopic observation ,colonoscopy, and PCR are also effective (Viswanath *et al.*, 2023)

### **3.2 Non-infectious gastroenteritis:**

Noninfectious gastroenteritis is a gastrointestinal disorder that is not caused by infectious agents; instead, it may arise from various noninfectious agents such as

#### **3.2.1 Irritable bowel syndrome IBS:**

It is a gastrointestinal disorder identified by diarrhea and/or constipation, abdominal pain, cramps, and bloating.

#### **3.2.2 Inflammatory Bowel disease IBD:**

The inflammatory bowel disease IBD is expressed by Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis.

The diagnosis of this disorder is based on the negativity of bacteriological and parasitological investigations and histological and endoscopic aspects (Lahcen, 2013).

#### **3.2.3 Medication induced diarrhea:**

Usually originating from consuming certain medications, specifically antibiotics, magnesium containing antacids, laxatives, antiarrhythmic drugs, cholinergic agents, lactose- or sorbitol containing products, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, antineoplastics, prostaglandins, and colchicine (Chassany *et al.*, 2000)

#### **3.2.4 Allergic diarrhea:**

The gastrointestinal allergic disease, or allergic diarrhea often caused by food anaphylaxis and eosinophilia (Brandt *et al.*, 2003).

After minutes of the ingestion of a food allergen, diarrhea appears (Haffaf & Hmidaoui, 2013).

#### **4 Factors influencing pediatric gastroenteritis:**

##### **4.1 Host related factors:**

###### **4.1.1 Age:**

Toddlers under 24 months are more exposed to severe diarrhea than the older age groups (Kim *et al.*, 2017)

###### **4.1.2 Gender:**

Male children play outside more often than females, which makes them more exposed to gastroenteritis (Saeed & Ibrahim, 2023).

###### **4.1.3 Malnutrition:**

Underweight children have a higher risk of severe diarrheal disorders (Saeed & Ibrahim, 2023)

##### **4.2 Environmental and socioeconomic factors:**

###### **4.2.1 Hygiene and sanitation:**

the lack of clean water sources and lack of awareness of self-hygiene increase the risk of the infection (Saeed & Ibrahim, 2023)

###### **4.2.2 Crowded living conditions and low income:**

The studies show that crowded families of more than 6 members with low income are at higher risk of being infected with gastroenteritis (Saeed & Ibrahim, 2023).

##### **4.3 Feeding practices and mode of birth:**

###### **4.3.1 Breast-feeding:**

Based on the World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines, exclusive breastfeeding of children under 7 months helps protect them against acute gastroenteritis. On the other hand, while the child had a higher risk because of his negative phenotype, the mother's secretory positive phenotype helped protect against Norovirus AGE (Vielot *et al.*, 2022).

###### **4.3.2 Mode of birth:**

Children delivered by cesarean section and exclusively formula-fed are at higher risk of AGE. Meanwhile, children born by vaginal delivery and breast-fed are less likely to develop acute gastroenteritis due to the exposure to the vaginal bacteria (Bentley *et al.*, 2016).

##### **4.4 Seasonal variations:**

Norovirus is most active in winter, followed by rotavirus, which peaks in spring (Onozuka & Hashizume, 2011). While bacterial gastroenteritis peaks in summer because of the contamination of food and water (Galway *et al.*, 2014),

#### **4.5 Antibiotic use and resistance:**

The resistance of bacteria against antibiotics such as fluoroquinolone, ciprofloxacin, and levofloxacin has increased, which makes the infections harder to manage (Kim *et al.*, 2019). That's why the use of antibiotics is not recommended in treating acute gastroenteritis.

### **5 Diagnostic:**

#### **5.1 Clinical history:**

Clinical history is important to differentiate acute gastroenteritis from other disorders. Clinical history should examine the following aspects:

- Food and dietary history of the child;
- Vaccination record;
- Gastrointestinal symptoms, including diarrhea, fever, constipation, vomiting, and abdominal pain;
- Past medical history;
- Medication history, including antibiotic intake;
- Quantity, consistency, frequency, character, and onset of diarrhea (King *et al.*, 2003).
- Urine and bowel movement output;
- Time frame of the disease;
- Forms of emesis: non-bilious or bilious vomiting;
- Latest consumption or exposure to untreated water (Churgay & Aftab, 2012)

#### **5.2 Physical examination:**

Physical examination is crucial to determine the severity of dehydration and determine the right treatment; the physician should evaluate:

- Body weight, respiratory rate, blood pressure, and heart rate;
- Absence or presence of tears and eyes appearance;
- Tongue, mouth, and lips condition;
- Skin tenting;
- Stool examination (King *et al.*, 2003).

#### **5.3 Laboratory testing:**

To detect the causative agents of AGE in children, some clinical examinations should be performed:

### **5.3.1 Microscopy:**

It is a real time viewing of the causative agent, more likely bacteria and parasites. Gram staining, biochemical tests, and bacteriological cultures are employed (Mafekwane *et al.*, 2023).

To diagnose diarrhea and intestinal inflammation fecal leukocyte test is used (Mafekwane *et al.*, 2023).

### **5.3.2 Serology:**

The fresh stool is used to detect pathogen antigen or nucleic acid. ELISA is a pathogen detector in the stool sample. It is quick but less sensitive; sometimes it may generate false positive test results.

Indirect ELISA is used to set apart between an active or previous infection by antibodies (Mafekwane *et al.*, 2023).

### **5.3.3 Molecular diagnostics:**

Nucleic acid amplification test NAAT detects a single pathogen meanwhile the multiplex assay format detects multiple pathogens;

PCR identifies multi-enteric pathogens due to its sensitivity (Mafekwane *et al.*, 2023).

## **6 Differential diagnosis:**

### **6.1 Diagnosis of acute vomiting:**

Acute vomiting can be caused by:(Scorza *et al.*, 2007)

- Meningitis
- Intussusception
- Pyloric stenosis
- Appendicitis
- Peritonitis
- Hepatitis
- Urinary tract infection

### **6.2 Massive abdominal pain**

Massive abdominal pain might be caused by (Scorza *et al.*, 2007):

- Small bowel obstruction
- Pancreatitis
- Cholecystitis

### **6.3 Persistent high fever:**

Various medical conditions can cause persistent high fever, including:

- Otitis media
- Endocarditis
- Urinary tract infection

## **7 Complications:**

### **7.1 Dehydration:**

Dehydration is the most common complication in AGE, especially mild to moderate. Dehydration causes the loss of water and electrolytes, which leads to severe dehydration and death (Nardin Elias, 2019).

### **7.2 Disseminated intravascular coagulation DIC:**

DIC is caused by hypovolemic shock brought on by severe dehydration with hyperammonemia, hyperglycemia, and hypernatremia (Sehari *et al.*, 2016).

### **7.3 Hemolytic uremic syndrome:**

Escherichia coli releases Shigatoxins, causing hemolytic uremic syndrome in both children and adults. The complications of this syndrome may lead to renal failure, intussusception and seizures (Razzaq, 2006).

### **7.4 Neurological complications:**

AGE may cause neurological complications, including seizures and acute encephalopathy (Karampatsas *et al.*, 2018).

### **7.5 Developing food intolerance (e.g., cow's milk protein intolerance)**

## **8 Treatment:**

### **8.1 Rehydration:**

#### **8.1.1 For mild to moderate dehydration:**

If you notice that your child is inactive, tired, and rarely urinates with much darker urine, he is likely dehydrated. ORS is the recommended treatment for this type of dehydration. Caregivers should disperse about 1 ml of ORS per kg using a syringe or a spoon every 5 minutes for 3 to 5 hours. After each episode of diarrhea or vomiting, an additional 10 ml per kg of ORS should be given (Churgay & Aftab, 2012).

**8.1.2 For moderate to severe dehydration:**

Severe dehydration is characterized by unconsciousness, shock, severe abdominal distension and ileus, vomiting, and lack of improvement despite oral rehydration (Jung, Bellache, & GFHGNP, 2024).

Oral rehydration therapy is continued alongside intravenous fluids. During the first hour, the physician administers a 20 ml per kg bolus of saline. Over the next 8 to 12 hours, appropriate intravenous fluids are added after the child has urinated or passed stool to balance the fluid deficit. During this treatment, no food is allowed. Once the child is fully hydrated (within 8 to 12 hours), intravenous fluids are discontinued and the child is allowed to drink the electrolyte solution (Issenman & Leung, 1993).

**8.2 nutritional management:**

For breastfed infants: continue breastfeeding the child alongside oral rehydration therapy (Jung *et al.*, 2024).

Formula-fed infants: In cases of mild diarrhea, continuing formula feeding is acceptable. However, if the diarrhea persists for more than 7 days, a lactose-free formula is recommended (Jung *et al.*, 2024).

If ORS is rejected, use apple juice, syrup, or sweetened water; fruits such as bananas and quince apples; dairy products; rice, pasta, carrots, potatoes, and semolina.

Your child should avoid green vegetables, burgers, fried foods, shellfish, cold meats, ready-made meals, soft drinks, and orange juice until fully recovered.

**8.3 Probiotics:**

Probiotics play a crucial role in modulating the immune response specifically against pathogen-associated antigens. They are quickly eliminated after ingestion. When used alongside ORS, probiotics decrease the duration of diarrhea by one day (Churgay & Aftab, 2012).

**8.4 Antibiotics:**

Antibiotics are used in cases of bacterial or protozoal gastroenteritis, particularly in infections such as shigellosis, salmonellosis, and giardiasis (Jung *et al.*, 2024)

**8.5 Zinc:**

In cases of acute diarrhea, ZINC is recommended for 10 to 14 days: 10 mg per day for infants under 6 months and 20 mg per day for older children (Jung *et al.*, 2024)

**9 Prevention:**

Preventive measures are a means of limiting and reducing the spread of pediatric gastroenteritis.

Reducing diarrheal disease in low-income countries requires improving water quality and sanitation (Hartman *et al.*, 2019).

Handwashing with antibacterial soap or using alcohol-based hand sanitizers is more effective against bacterial gastroenteritis (Hartman *et al.*, 2019).

An oral live, attenuated rotavirus vaccine should be administered to all children aged between 6 and 15 weeks (Hartman *et al.*, 2019).

Breastfeeding reduces the incidence of AGE due to the antibodies present in human milk (Hartman *et al.*, 2019).

# Chapter II

## Materials and Methods

**Practical part:****10 objectives:**

- The identification of the major risk factors of pediatric gastroenteritis, including hygiene, nutrition, water source, infant feeding, etc.
- The investigation of the impact of AGE in children and treatment guidelines

**11 Methods:**

A study was conducted on AGE in children at HAMADOU HOUCINE Hospital in Sidi Ali Mostaganem from April 20, 2025, to May 19, 2025. This study focused on 40 children aged between 0 and 5 years old. During that period the temperature of that area ranged between 21°C and 26°C, with light to moderate precipitation observed.

**11.1 Data collection:**

In this study, the main tool for gathering data was a questionnaire administered by the child's parents. The questionnaire covered multiple essential domains:

- Sociodemographic information
- Clinical symptoms
- Child's treatment status

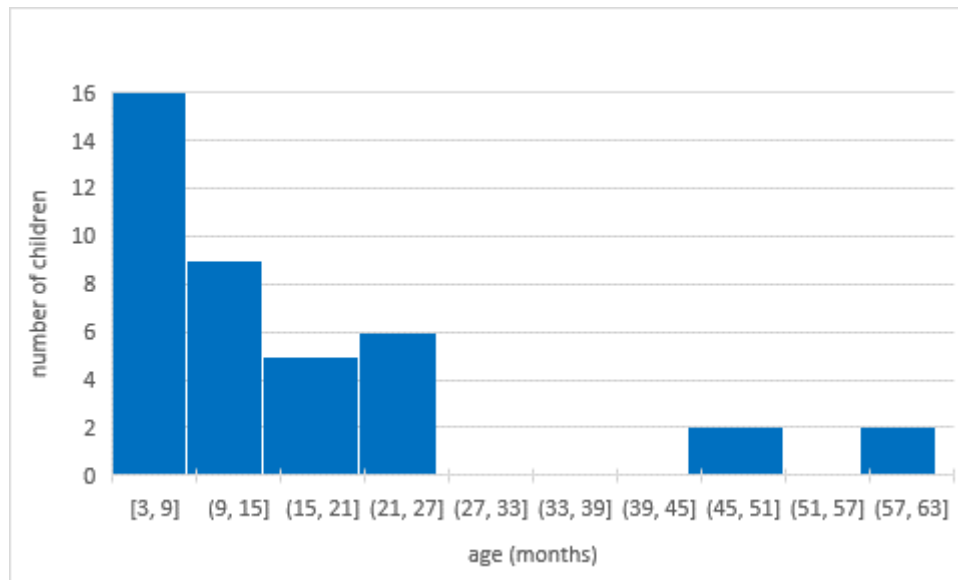
# Chapter III

## Results and Discussion

## 12 Results:

### 12.1 Sociodemographic results:

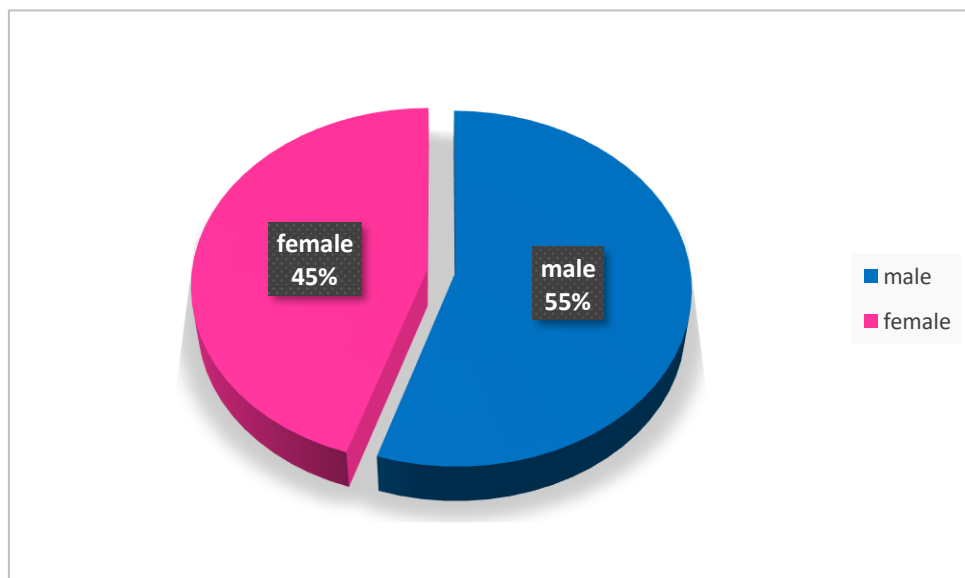
- **Age distribution:**



**Figure 9** : age distribution of children with AGE

The age of the children included in the study ranges from 0 to 60 months, with an average age of 17.9 months. The class with the highest frequency is the age range (3-9).

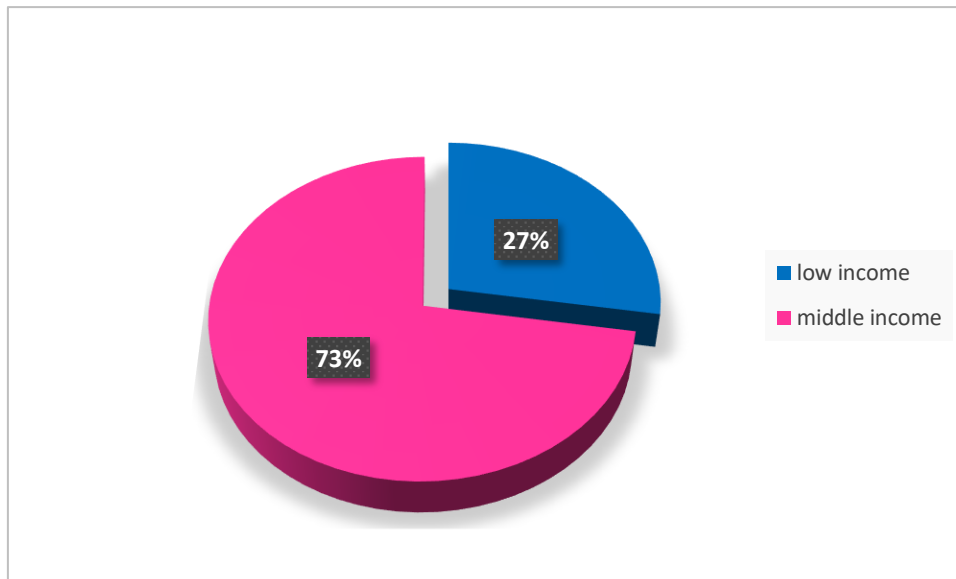
- **Sex ratio:**



**Figure 9** : gender distribution in recorded cases

A male predominance was observed in the study population with a sex ratio of 1.22

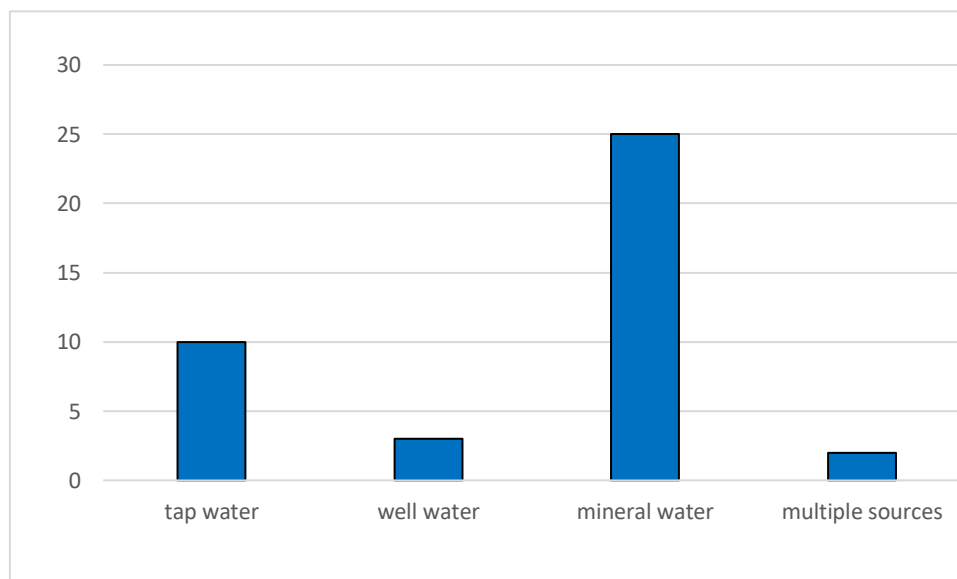
- **Income level:**



**Figure 10** : income based classification in AGE cases

Our study shows that most of the patients came from middle-income families (73%), with fewer cases from low-income families (27%).

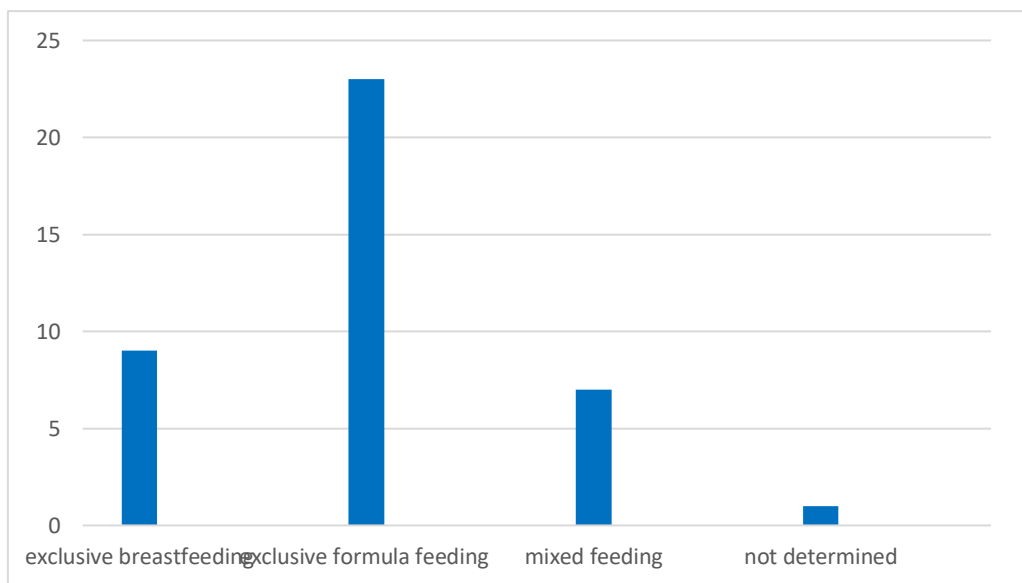
- **water usage:**



**Figure 11** : household water sources in the study population

The most often used water source in AGE cases was the mineral water, followed by tap water meanwhile untreated sources like well water was used less frequently.

- **Infant Feeding practices:**

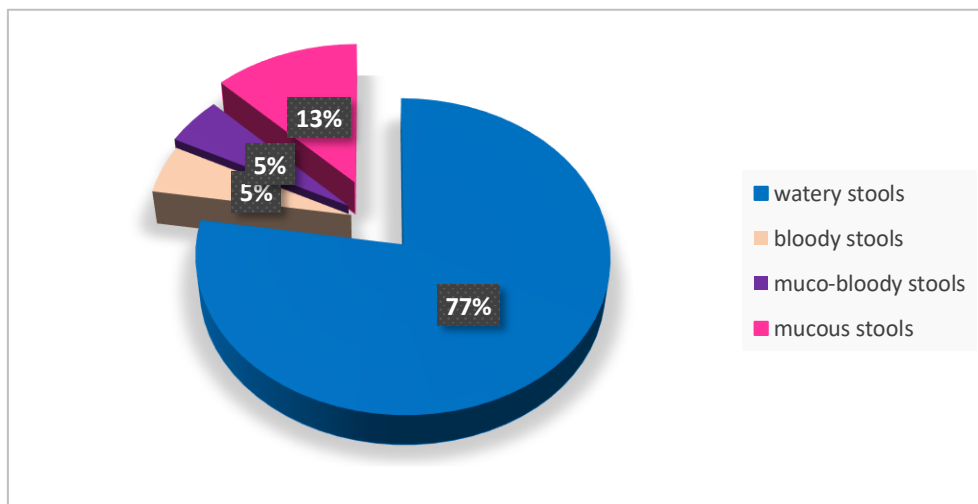


**Figure 12 :** feeding practices among children with AGE

Exclusive formula feeding is the most common practice among children with AGE, followed by exclusive breastfeeding, while few received mixed feeding.

## 12.2 Clinical features:

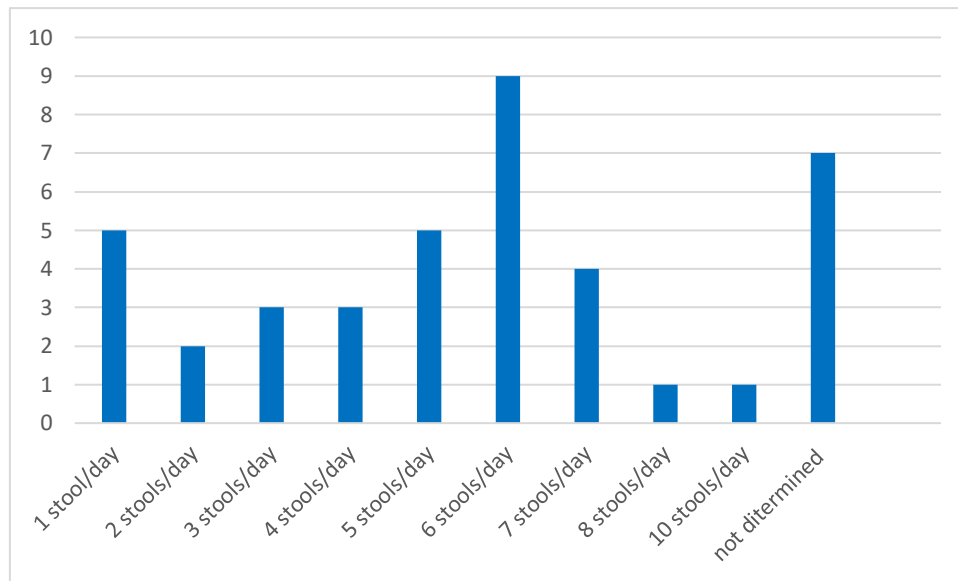
- **Based on the characteristics of the stools:**



**Figure 13 :** stools characteristics among children with AGE

77% of hospitalized children have watery stools, followed by mucous stools (13%), while bloody and muco-bloody stools each accounted for 5% of cases.

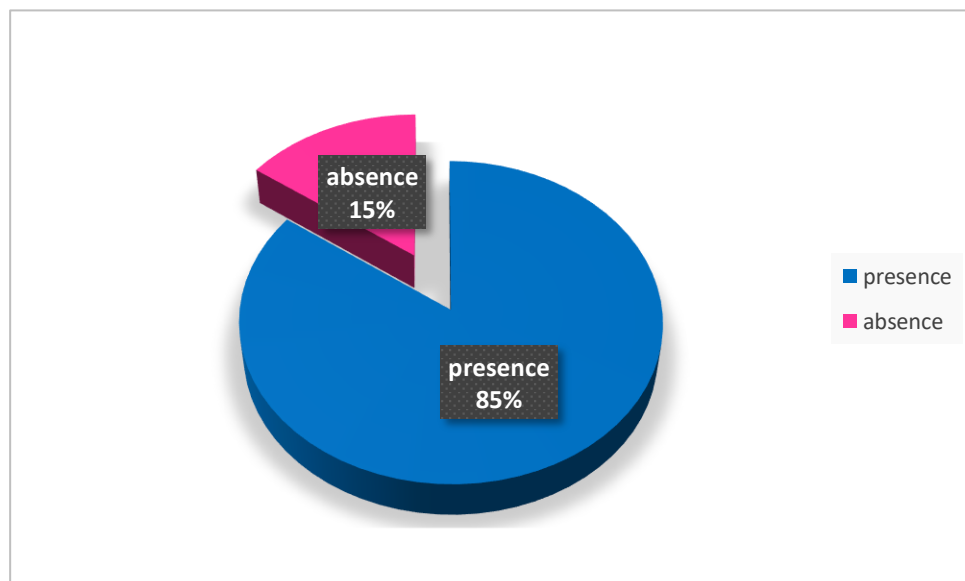
- **Daily stool frequency:**



**Figure 14** : number of stools per day

The highest frequency observed was 6 stools per day.

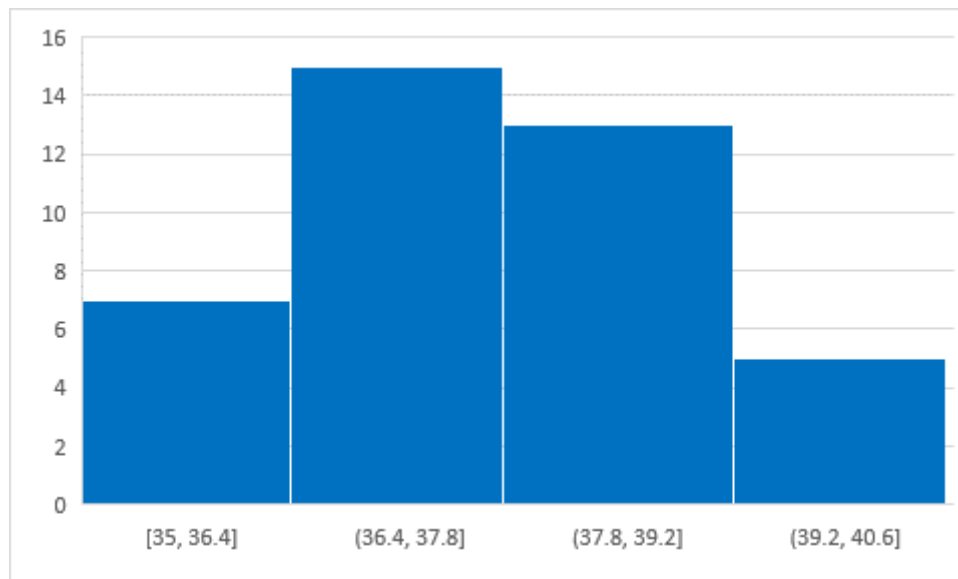
- **Based on the presence of vomiting:**



**Figure 15** : number of vomiting cases

Vomiting was present in 85% of the cases, while a smaller percentage (15%) of the patients didn't experience vomiting.

- **Average temperature of the patients:**



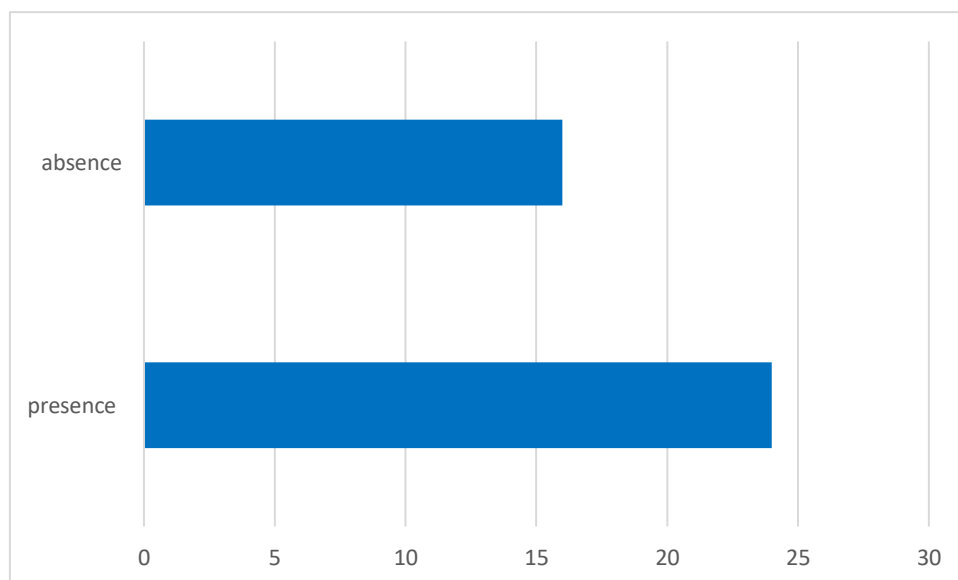
**Figure 16 :** frequency of different fever temperatures

Most common range: [36.4, 37.8] (no fever)

Followed by: [37.8, 39.2] (mild to moderate fever)

The average fever temperature is approximately 38.94°C

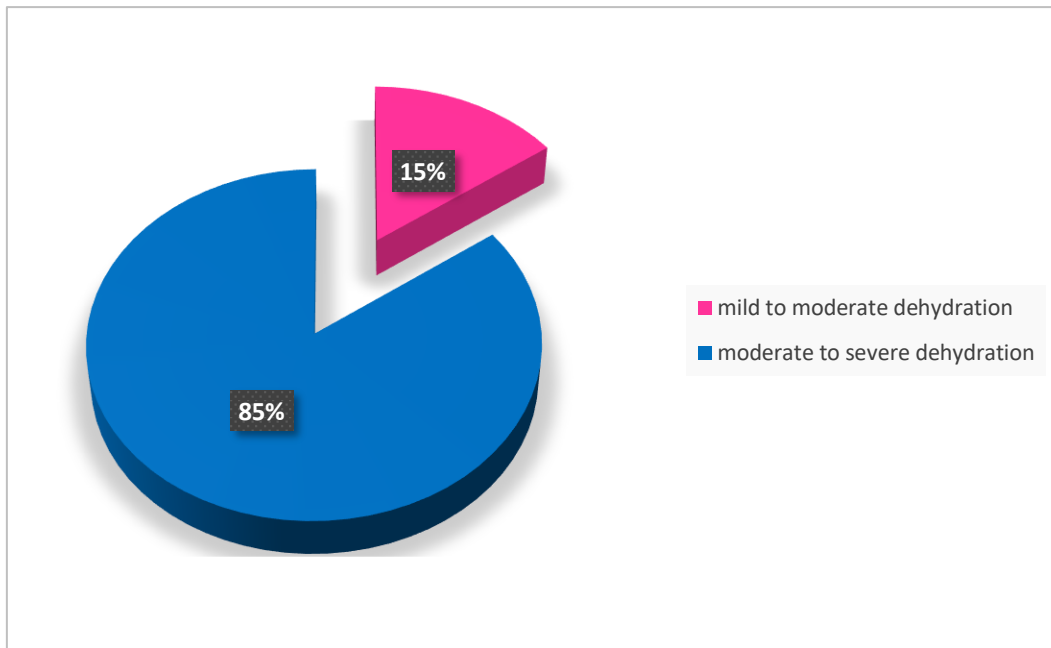
- **Abdominal pain in patients with AGE:**



**Figure 17 :** prevalence of abdominal pain among patients

Abdominal pain was reported in 24 patients.

- **Dehydration status:**

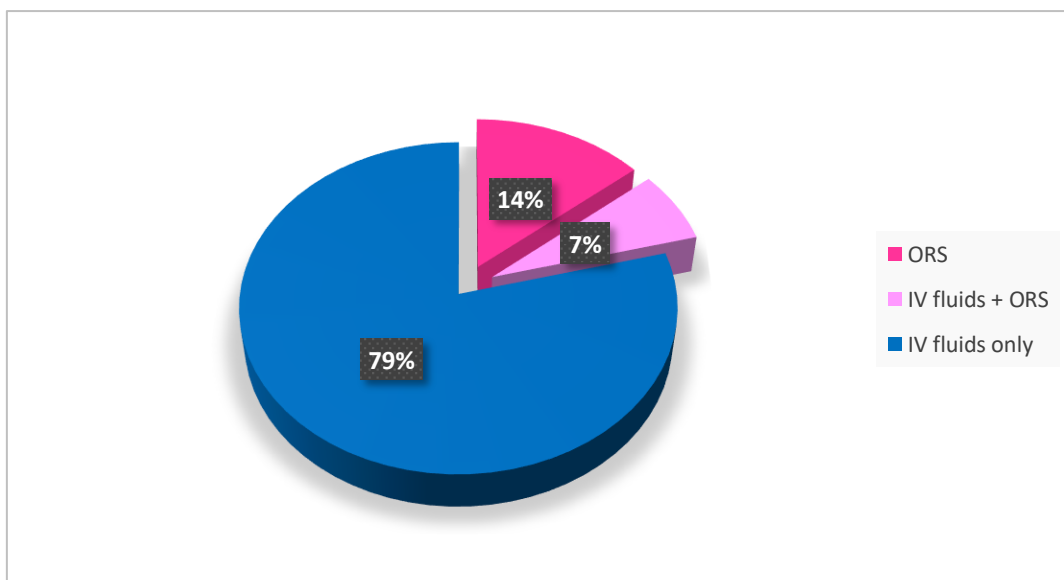


**Figure 18 :** level of dehydration in children with AGE

Hospitalized children account for 85% of moderate to severe dehydration cases.

### 12.3 Based on therapeutic approach:

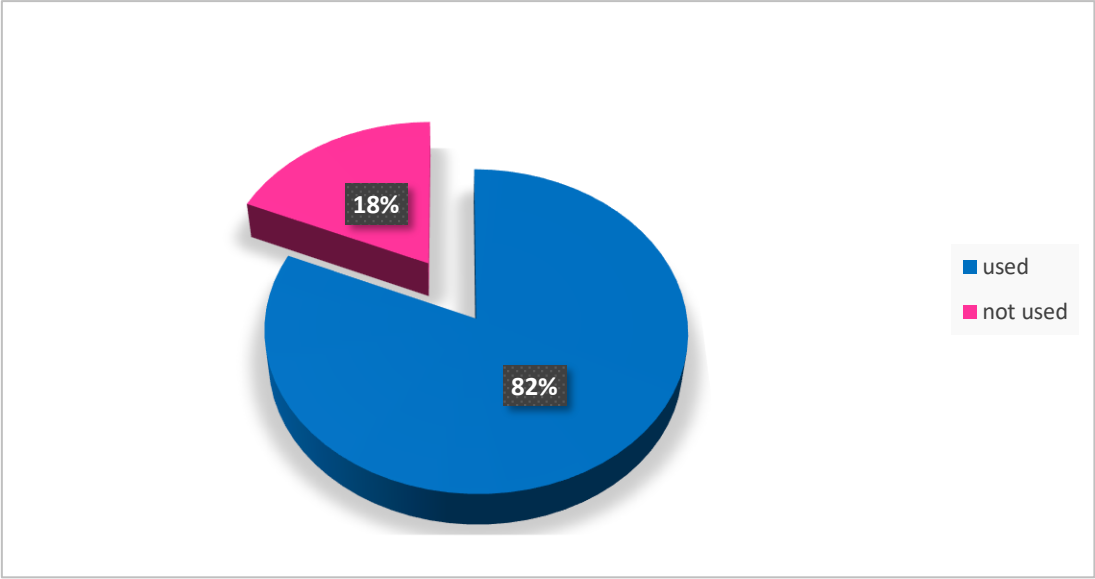
- **Dehydration treatment:**



**Figure 19 :** proportion of ORS, IV, and combined rehydration treatment

IV fluids alone were used in 79% of cases, followed by oral rehydration solution in 14%, while 7% of patients received both IV and ORS therapy.

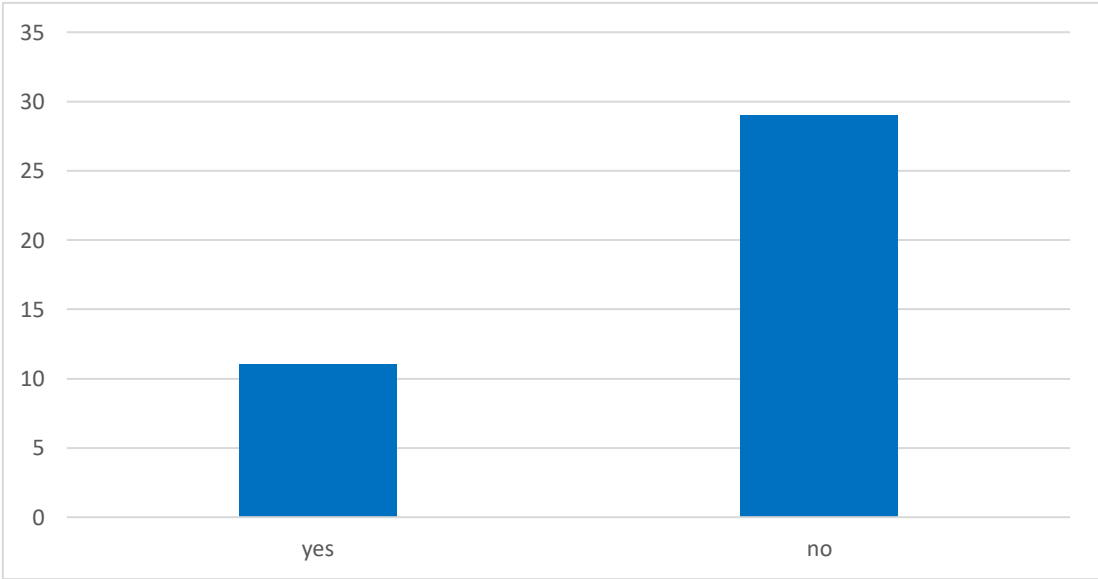
- **Pre-hospital antibiotic use:**



**Figure 20 :** antibiotic use before hospitalization

82% of cases used antibiotics before hospitalization.

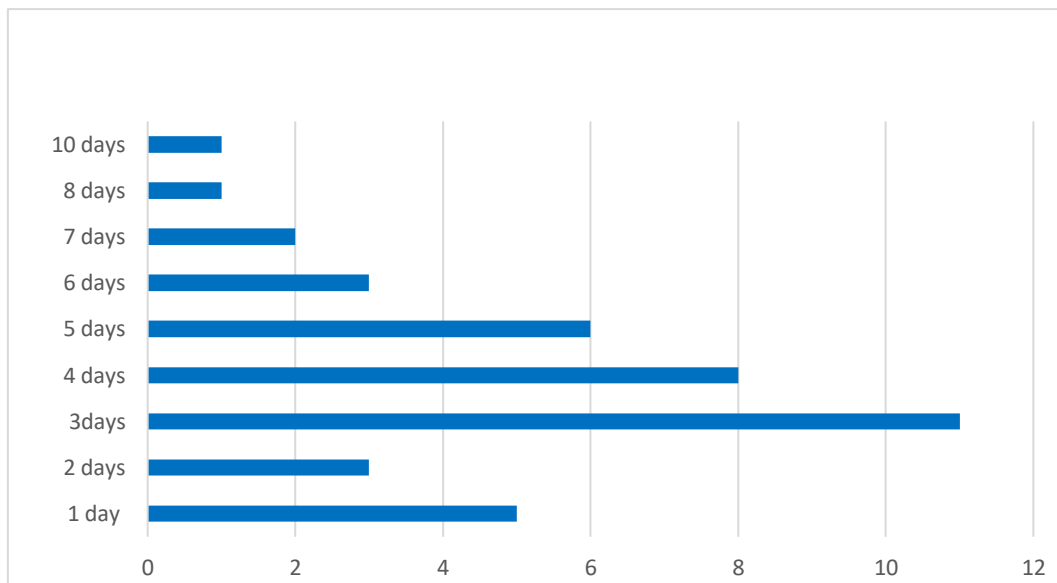
- **Previous hospitalization in the study population:**



**Figure 21 :** hospitalization history in the study group

The majority of patients had no history of hospitalization.

- **Duration of hospitalization:**



**Figure 22 :** hospital stay duration in the study population

The majority of patients had a hospital stay of 3 days.

### 13 Discussion:

Among 40 patients, AGE was more common in children aged between 3 and 9 months due to their immature immune system (Khales *et al.*, 2024).

A male predominance of 55% was observed possibly due to the fact that boys tend to play outside more frequently than girls so they are more exposed to bacterium and parasites (Saeed & Ibrahim, 2023).

The higher exposure of middle income families to AGE suggests that hygiene and living conditions are not the sole contributing factors to the disease (Simonsen *et al.*, 2008).

The consumption of mineral water is more common among reported cases compared to tap and well water; however, bottled water may become contaminated by improper storage (Raj, 2005). Although, well and tap water are used less frequently, they pose higher risk of contamination when not properly treated (Ashbolt, 2004).

Children who are exclusively formula-fed are generally more affected by AGE compared to those who are breastfed due to the lack of maternal antibodies. Breast milk contains antibodies that protect the infant's gut from several viruses and bacteria (Rogier *et al.*, 2014).

77% of the study patients experienced watery stools, most likely due to the cold weather during the winter season (October–April), which corresponds to the peak season for viral infections. These viral agents include norovirus and rotavirus (Ahmed *et al.*, 2013; Rohayem, 2009). These viruses are known to infect and damage the intestinal villi, leading to malabsorption and increased secretion of fluids and electrolytes, ultimately resulting in watery diarrhea (Lorrot & Vasseur, 2007).

A *Giardia lamblia* infection may be the cause of the greasy diarrhea, which made up 13% of the study cases and usually showed as greasy, foul smelling stools (Adam, 1991).

Invasive bacterial pathogens including *Salmonella spp*, *campylobacter*, or enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* (EHEC), which are known to induce intestinal bleeding, may be responsible for 5% of cases with bloody diarrhea (Mota *et al.*, 2010).

Muco-bloody diarrhea is usually caused by *Entamoeba histolytica*. This protozoan colonizes the intestinal mucosa leading to the presence of blood and mucus in stools (Espinosa-Cantellano & Martínez-Palomo, 2000).

A stool frequency of six times per day is the most common reported among the study cases indicating the severity level seen in AGE patients (Strand *et al.*, 2012).

Vomiting cases represent 85%, which is likely due to the fact that vomiting is a prominent symptom of viral gastroenteritis (Liu *et al.*, 2005)

Bacterial infections typically present with fever (El-Radhi, 2019). However, in our case, the findings suggest that the patients were affected by viral gastroenteritis, which may explain why most of them had low grade fever or none (El-Radhi, 2019).

The high rate of abdominal pain observed is likely due to the nature of gastroenteritis, which affects the stomach and the intestines and irritates the intestinal walls, leading to abdominal pain (Stuempfig *et al.*, 2025).

Approximately 85% of hospitalized children with gastroenteritis presented with moderate to severe dehydration, primarily due to the condition's symptoms (vomiting and diarrhea) (Zodpey *et al.*, 1998) which cause significant fluid and electrolyte loss (Alharbi *et al.*, 2024).

The severity of dehydration and patient's ability to tolerate oral intake determine the appropriate rehydration method. Intravenous (IV) fluids alone were used in 79% of cases because they offer a faster and more reliable means of rehydration (Toaimah & Mohammad, 2016), especially for children who refuse or unable to drink. Oral rehydration solution (ORS) alone were used in 14% of the cases, typically in children with mild dehydration who could effectively drink (Spandorfer *et al.*, 2005). A combined approach using both IV fluids and ORS was employed in 7% of cases, usually during the transition phase when the patient's condition improved and oral intake is possible (Churgay & Aftab, 2012).

Approximately 82% of patients had used antibiotics prior to hospitalization, suggesting a lack of parental awareness regarding the consequences of improper antibiotic use. Misuse of antibiotics can disrupt the body's microbiota, potentially reducing the effectiveness of future treatments and contributing to antibiotic resistance (Ramirez *et al.*, 2020; English & Gaur, 2009).

Most of the patients (29 out of 40) had never been hospitalized before getting infected with acute gastroenteritis. This shows that the illness was probably picked up on everyday settings through contaminated food, unclean water, or poor hygiene, rather than during a hospital stay. However, 11 patients did have history of hospitalization due to the same condition. This might suggest that those individuals were repeatedly exposed to the same sources of infection.

The majority of cases had a hospital stay of 3 days, indicating that acute gastroenteritis can often be effectively managed within a short period of time if appropriately treated.

**CONCLUSION:**

In conclusion, the study identifies the major factors of child morbidity due to pediatric gastroenteritis and its impact on children. The results show that acute gastroenteritis affects toddlers aged between 3 and 9 months, with a high male predominance. Moreover, Hygiene, water sources, and feeding practices are the main contributing factors of the disease. As a result, this research targets especially parents and raises awareness about the importance of sanitation, breastfeeding, and the wise use of antibiotics.

However, the study was conducted over a short period of time with limited access to samples. In addition, the lack of access to laboratory methods to investigate the specific pathogen responsible might affect the generalizability of the findings.

Viruses, bacteria and parasites are key drivers of acute gastroenteritis, causing high rate of morbidity and mortality worldwide, particularly in developing countries. Further research is crucial to develop accessible diagnostic tools that provide effective and rapid results.

Eventually, addressing this crisis requires both early detection and public sensitization to ensure effective rehabilitation.

**Recommendations:**

It is recommended to raise awareness among parents about the symptoms and the risks of this disease. Promoting early diagnosis can reduce morbidity and mortality rates of children with acute gastroenteritis.

# REFERENCES

## References:

### A

**Adam, R. D. (1991).** The biology of *Giardia spp.* Microbiological reviews, 55(4), 706-732.

**Ahmed, S. M., Lopman, B. A., & Levy, K. (2013).** A systematic review and meta-analysis of the global seasonality of norovirus. PloS one, 8(10), e75922.

**Al Jassas B., Khayat M., Alzahrani H., Asali A., Alsohaimi S., ALHarbi H., AlQadi M., AlQassim M., Mutahar A., and Mahbub M. (2018),** Gastroenteritis in adults, International Journal of Community Medicine and Public Health. 5, no. 11

**Al Saad, R. K., & Al Emarah, G. Y. (2014).** Morphological descriptive study of giardia lamblia in man and cow at basrah. International Journal of Biological Research, 2(2), 125-128.

**Albert, M. J. (1986).** Enteric adenoviruses. Archives of Virology, 88, 1-17.

**Al-Dahmoshi, H. O., Al-Khafaji, N. S., Al-Allak, M. H., Salman, W. K., & Alabbasi, A. H. (2020).** A review on shigellosis: Pathogenesis and antibiotic resistance. Drug Invention Today, 14(5).

**Alharbi, A. A. D., Alalawi, F. M., Dabash, S. H. Y., Alotaibi, M. D. A., Alsadah, A. M. A., Alshammari, M. N., ... & Alhrbi, S. O. (2024).** Electrolyte Imbalances and Dehydration in Children: Biochemical Insights and Nursing Interventions in ICU Settings-An Updated Review. Journal of Medicinal and Chemical Sciences, 7(11), 1708-1721.

**Amimo, J. O., Raev, S. A., Chepngeno, J., Mainga, A. O., Guo, Y., Saif, L., & Vlasova, A. N. (2021).** Rotavirus interactions with host intestinal epithelial cells. Frontiers in immunology, 12, 793841.

**Arifin, N., Hanafiah, K. M., Ahmad, H., & Noordin, R. (2019).** Serodiagnosis and early detection of Strongyloides stercoralis infection. Journal of Microbiology, Immunology and Infection, 52(3), 371-378.

**Ashbolt, N. J. (2004).** Microbial contamination of drinking water and disease outcomes in developing regions. Toxicology, 198(1-3), 229-238.

### B

**Bae, K., Jeon, K. N., Ha, J. Y., Lee, J. S., & Na, B. K. (2018).** Pulmonary strongyloidiasis presenting micronodules on chest computed tomography. *Journal of Thoracic Disease*, 10(8), E612.

**Benchimol, M. (2004).** Giardia lamblia: behavior of the nuclear envelope. *Parasitology research*, 94, 254-264.

**Benchimol, M. (2005).** The nuclei of Giardia lamblia—new ultrastructural observations. *Archives of microbiology*, 183, 160-168.

**Bentley, J. P., Simpson, J. M., Bowen, J. R., Morris, J. M., Roberts, C. L., & Nassar, N. (2016).** Gestational age, mode of birth and breastmilk feeding all influence acute early childhood gastroenteritis: a record-linkage cohort study. *Bmc Pediatrics*, 16, 1-10.

**Bhatia, A., & Zahoor, S. (2007).** Staphylococcus aureus enterotoxins: a review. *J Clin Diagn Res*, 1(3), 188-97.

**Bishop, R. F. (1996).** Natural history of human rotavirus infection. *Viral Gastroenteritis*, 119-128.

**Bless, P. J., Muela Ribera, J., Schmutz, C., Zeller, A., & Mäusezahl, D. (2016).** Acute gastroenteritis and campylobacteriosis in Swiss primary care: the viewpoint of general practitioners. *PLoS One*, 11(9), e0161650.

**Bouazizi, A., Fredj, M. B. H., Bennour, H., Jerbi, A., Fodha, I., & Trabelsi, A. (2024).** Molecular analysis of adenovirus strains responsible for gastroenteritis in children, under five, in Tunisia. *Heliyon*, 10(1).

**Brandt, E. B., Strait, R. T., Hershko, D., Wang, Q., Muntel, E. E., Scribner, T. A., ... & Rothenberg, M. E. (2003).** Mast cells are required for experimental oral allergen-induced diarrhea. *The Journal of clinical investigation*, 112(11), 1666-1677.

**Bryce, J., Boschi-Pinto, C., Shibuya, K., & Black, R. E. (2005).** WHO estimates of the causes of death in children. *The lancet*, 365(9465), 1147-1152.

## C

**Carpio, A. L. M., & Meseha, M. (2023).** Strongyloidiasis. In *StatPearls* [internet]. StatPearls Publishing.

**Chassany, O., Michaux, A., & Bergmann, J. F. (2000).** Drug-induced diarrhoea. *Drug safety*, 22, 53-72.

**Cho, S. R., Chae, S. J., Jung, S., Choi, W., Han, M. G., Yoo, C. K., & Lee, D. Y. (2021).** Trends in acute viral gastroenteritis among children aged  $\leq 5$  years through the national surveillance system in South Korea, 2013–2019. *Journal of Medical Virology*, 93(8), 4875-4882.

**Churgay, C. A., & Aftab, Z. (2012).** Gastroenteritis in children: Part II. Prevention and management. *American Family Physician*, 85(11), 1066-1070.

## D

**Danino, D., Hazan, G., Mahajna, R., Khalde, F., Farraj, L., Avni, Y. S., ... & Givon-Lavi, N. (2023).** Implementing a multiplex-PCR test for the diagnosis of acute gastroenteritis in hospitalized children: Are all enteric viruses the same?. *Journal of Clinical Virology*, 167, 105577.

**Dennehy, P. H., Nelson, S. M., Spangenberg, S., Noel, J. S., Monroe, S. S., & Glass, R. I. (2001).** A prospective case-control study of the role of astrovirus in acute diarrhea among hospitalized young children. *The Journal of infectious diseases*, 184(1), 10-15.

**Diallo, S., Camara, Y. B., Mamady, D., Koné, K., Camara, A., & Bah, S. (2000).** Mortalité infantile à l'Institut de nutrition et de santé de l'enfant (Inse). *Médecine d'Afrique Noire*, 4.

**Dumevi, C. Y., Aryee, I. N. A., Baddoo, P. N. A., Asiamah, J. J., Vicar, E. K., Kretchy, J. P., ... & Ayeh-Kumi, P. F. (2025).** Human Giardiasis in Ghana—A Scoping Review of Studies From 2004 to 2024. *Health Science Reports*, 8(5), e70822.

## E

**El-Radhi, A. S. (2019).** Fever in common infectious diseases. In *Clinical Manual of Fever in Children* (pp. 85-140). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

**Else, K. J., Keiser, J., Holland, C. V., Grenis, R. K., Sattelle, D. B., Fujiwara, R. T., ... & Cooper, P. J. (2020).** Whipworm and roundworm infections. *Nature reviews Disease primers*, 6(1), 44.

**English, B. K., & Gaur, A. H. (2009).** The use and abuse of antibiotics and the development of antibiotic resistance. *Hot topics in infection and immunity in children VI*, 73-82.

**Espinosa-Cantellano, M., & Martínez-Palomo, A. (2000).** Pathogenesis of intestinal amebiasis: from molecules to disease. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 13(2), 318-331.

## F

**Flewett, T. H., Bryden, A. S., Davies, H., Woode, G. N., Bridger, J., & Derrick, J. (1974).** Relation between viruses from acute gastroenteritis of children and newborn calves. *The Lancet*, 304(7872), 61-63.

## G

**Galway, L. P., Allen, D. M., Parkes, M. W., & Takaro, T. K. (2014).** Seasonal variation of acute gastro-intestinal illness by hydroclimatic regime and drinking water source: a retrospective population-based study. *Journal of water and health*, 12(1), 122-135.

**Garzón, M., Pereira-da-Silva, L., Seixas, J., Papoila, A. L., Alves, M., Ferreira, F., & Reis, A. (2017).** Association of enteric parasitic infections with intestinal inflammation and permeability in asymptomatic infants of Sao Tome Island. *Pathogens and global health*, 111(3), 116-127.

**Genta, R. M. (1992).** Dysregulation of strongyloidiasis: a new hypothesis. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, 5(4), 345-355.

**Greenberg, H. B., & Estes, M. K. (2009).** Rotaviruses: from pathogenesis to vaccination. *Gastroenterology*, 136(6), 1939-1951.

**Gu, B. (2024).** Diarrheagenic *Shigella*. In *Molecular Medical Microbiology* (pp. 1045-1051). Academic Press.

## H

**Habib, F. B., Rahman, M. M., Haque, M. M., Dey, P. R., Das, P., Choudhury, R., ... & Hasan, M. N. (2022).** Role of Rotaviral Antigen Detection by ICT in Acute Diarrhoeic Children below 5 Years in a Tertiary Care Hospital of Bangladesh. *Mymensingh Medical Journal: MMJ*, 31(1), 112-116.

**Haffaf, N., & Hmidaoui, F. (2013).** Gastro-entérite aiguë du nourrisson (Mémoire de fin d'étude, Université Abou Bekr Belkaid de Tlemcen).

**Hagel, I., & Giusti, T. (2010).** *Ascaris lumbricoides*: an overview of therapeutic targets. *Infectious Disorders-Drug Targets (Formerly Current Drug Targets-Infectious Disorders)*, 10(5), 349-367.

**Harhay, M. O., Horton, J., & Olliaro, P. L. (2010).** Epidemiology and control of human gastrointestinal parasites in children. *Expert review of anti-infective therapy*, 8(2), 219-234.

**Hartman, S., Brown, E., Loomis, E., & Russell, H. A. (2019).** Gastroenteritis in children. *American family physician*, 99(3), 159-165.

**Hassou, N., Boussetine, R., Abouchoaib, N., & Ennaji, M. M. (2020).** Enteric adenoviruses: emerging of a public health threat. In *Emerging and Reemerging Viral Pathogens* (pp. 879-905). Academic Press.

**Herrmann, J. E., Nowak, N. A., Perron-Henry, D. M., Hudson, R. W., Cubitt, W. D., & Blacklow, N. R. (1990).** Diagnosis of astrovirus gastroenteritis by antigen detection with monoclonal antibodies. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 161(2), 226-229.

## I

**Issenman, R. M., & Leung, A. K. (1993).** Oral and intravenous rehydration of children. *Canadian Family Physician*, 39, 2129.

## J

**Janda J. M. and Abbott S. L.,** The changing face of the family enterobacteriaceae (Order: Enterobacterales): new members, taxonomic issues, geographic expansion, and new diseases and disease syndromes, *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*. (2021) 34, no. 2, 1–45., **Fleckenstein J. M., Matthew Kuhlmann F., and Sheikh A.,** Acute bacterial gastroenteritis, *Gastroenterology Clinics of North America*. (2021) 50, no. 2, 283–304

**Janssen, B., & Snowden, J. (2017).** Cryptosporidiosis.

**Jay, J. M., Loessner, M. J., & Golden, D. A. (2005).** Staphylococcal gastroenteritis. *Modern food microbiology*, 545-566.

**Jourdan, N., Brunet, J. P., Sapin, C., Blais, A., Cotte-Laffitte, J., Forestier, F., ... & Servin, A. L. (1998).** Rotavirus infection reduces sucrase-isomaltase expression in human intestinal

epithelial cells by perturbing protein targeting and organization of microvillar cytoskeleton. *Journal of virology*, 72(9), 7228-7236.

**Jung, C., Bellache, M., & GFHGNP. (2024).** Diarrhée aiguë du nourrisson et de l'enfant : Recommandations d'experts. GFHGNP – Groupe Francophone d'Hépatologie Gastroentérologie et Nutrition Pédiatrique.

## K

**Kanwar, N., Jackson, J., Bardsley, T., Pavia, A., Bourzac, K. M., Holmberg, K., & Selvarangan, R. (2023).** Impact of rapid molecular multiplex gastrointestinal pathogen testing in management of children during a *Shigella* outbreak. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 61(3), e01652-22.

**Kara, T. T., Özdemir, H., Kurt, F., Güriz, H., Çiftçi, E., Aysev, A. D., ... & İnce, E. (2015).** Prevalence of *Salmonella* and *Shigella* spp. and Antibiotic Resistance Status in Acute Childhood Gastroenteritis/Akut Çocukluk Çağı Gastroenteritlerindeki *Salmonella-Shigella* Sikligi ve Antibiyotik Direnç Durumlari. *Cocuk Enfeksiyon Dergisi*, 9(3), 102.

**Karaaslan, A., Çetin, C., Köle, M. T., Tekol, S. D., Söbü, E., & Akın, Y. (2022).** *Salmonella* gastroenteritis in children: six-year experience in İstanbul, Turkey. *The Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*, 16(11), 1757-1761.

**Karampatsas, K., Osborne, L., Seah, M. L., Tong, C. Y., & Prendergast, A. J. (2018).** Clinical characteristics and complications of rotavirus gastroenteritis in children in east London: A retrospective case-control study. *PloS one*, 13(3), e0194009.

**Khales, P., Razizadeh, M. H., Ghorbani, S., Moattari, A., Sarvari, J., Saadati, H., ... & Tavakoli, A. (2024).** Human adenoviruses in children with gastroenteritis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Infectious Diseases*, 24(1), 478.

**Khan, W. A., Griffiths, J. K., & Bennish, M. L. (2013).** Gastrointestinal and extra-intestinal manifestations of childhood shigellosis in a region where all four species of *Shigella* are endemic. *PloS one*, 8(5), e64097.

**Kim, A., Chang, J. Y., Shin, S., Yi, H., Moon, J. S., Ko, J. S., & Oh, S. (2017).** Epidemiology and factors related to clinical severity of acute gastroenteritis in hospitalized children after the introduction of rotavirus vaccination. *Journal of Korean medical science*, 32(3), 465-474.

**Kim, Y. J., Park, K. H., Park, D. A., Park, J., Bang, B. W., Lee, S. S., ... & Kim, Y. R. (2019).** Guideline for the antibiotic use in acute gastroenteritis. *Infection & chemotherapy*, 51(2), 217.

**King, C. K., Glass, R., Bresee, J. S., Duggan, C., & Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2003).** Managing acute gastroenteritis among children. *MMWR Recomm Rep*, 52(1), 16.

**Kohli, E., Bon, F., Balay, K., & Pothier, P. (2005).** Les calicivirus humains, une cause majeure de gastro-entérite aiguë. *Virologie*, 9(2), 93-106.

**Korpe, P. S., Valencia, C., Haque, R., Mahfuz, M., McGrath, M., Houpt, E., ... & Duggal, P. (2018).** Epidemiology and risk factors for cryptosporidiosis in children from 8 low-income sites: results from the MAL-ED study. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 67(11), 1660-1669.

**Kraay, A. N., Brouwer, A. F., Lin, N., Collender, P. A., Remais, J. V., & Eisenberg, J. N. (2018).** Modeling environmentally mediated rotavirus transmission: The role of temperature and hydrologic factors. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(12), E2782-E2790.

**Kumar, A., Washington, W. J., & Mariappuram, J. (1984).** Clinical features and laboratory diagnosis of rotavirus-associated gastroenteritis in infants and children. *Journal of Diarrhoeal Diseases Research*, 142-146.

**Kumar, N., Malhotra, B., Mehra, S. K., Reddy, J., Sharma, P., & Chauhan, R. (2018).** Comparative evaluation of antigen ELISA technique and PCR for detection of Rotavirus in stool samples of pediatric patients with diarrhea.

## L

**Lagerqvist, N., Löf, E., Enkirch, T., Nilsson, P., Roth, A., & Jernberg, C. (2020).** Outbreak of gastroenteritis highlighting the diagnostic and epidemiological challenges of enteroinvasive *Escherichia coli*, County of Halland, Sweden, November 2017. *Eurosurveillance*, 25(9), 1900466.

**Lahcen, A. (2013).** Gastro-entérite aiguë chez l'enfant (Mémoire de fin d'étude, Université de Tlemcen, Algérie)

**Liu, L. J., Yang, Y. J., Kuo, P. H., Wang, S. M., & Liu, C. C. (2005).** Diagnostic value of bacterial stool cultures and viral antigen tests based on clinical manifestations of acute

gastroenteritis in pediatric patients. *European Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases*, 24, 559-561.

**Lopman, B., Vicuña, Y., Salazar, F., Broncano, N., Esona, M. D., Sandoval, C., ... & Cooper, P. J. (2013).** Household transmission of rotavirus in a community with rotavirus vaccination in Quininde, Ecuador. *PLoS One*, 8(7), e67763.

**Lorrot, M., & Vasseur, M. (2007).** Physiopathology of rotavirus diarrhea. *Archives de Pédiatrie: Organe Officiel de la Société Française de Pédiatrie*, 14, S145-51.

## M

**Madeley, C. R., & Cosgrove, B. P. (1975).** Viruses in infantile gastroenteritis. *The Lancet*, 306(7925), 124.

**Mafokwane, T., Djikeng, A., Nesengani, L. T., Dewar, J., & Mapholi, O. (2023).** Gastrointestinal Infection in South African Children under the Age of 5 years: A Mini Review. *Gastroenterology Research and Practice*, 2023(1), 1906782.

**Makimaa, H., Ingle, H., & Baldrige, M. T. (2020).** Enteric viral co-infections: pathogenesis and perspective. *Viruses*, 12(8), 904.

**Manglic, S., Mavi, A. K., Kumar, N., Singh, D. K., Kumar, U., Nayak, A., & Garima. (2024).** Astroviruses: Overview and Emerging Disease. *Emerging Human Viral Diseases*, Volume II: Encephalitic, Gastroenteric, and Immunodeficiency Viral Infections, 347-365.

**Mavromichalis, J., Evans, N., McNeish, A. S., Bryden, A. S., Davies, H. A., & Flewett, T. H. (1977).** Intestinal damage in rotavirus and adenovirus gastroenteritis assessed by d-xylose malabsorption. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, 52(7), 589-591.

**Michel Garenne et Enéas Gakusi. (2003).** Reconstitution des tendances de la mortalité infanto-juvénile en Afrique sub-saharienne p2.

**Mohammad, F. I., Ridh, D. A. A. M., & Kokaz, O. (2019).** EFFECT OF BERBERINE ON GIARDIASIS. *Biochemical & Cellular Archives*, 19(1).

**Moser, L., & Schultz-Cherry, S. (2008).** Astroviruses. *Encyclopedia of Virology*, 204.

**Mota, M. I., Gadea, M. D. P., González, S., González, G., Pardo, L., Sirok, A., ... & Varela, G. (2010).** Bacterial pathogens associated with bloody diarrhea in Uruguayan children. *Rev Argent Microbiol*, 42(2), 114-117.

**Mousavi-Nasab, S. D., Sabahi, F., Kaghazian, H., Paryan, M., Samiee, S. M., Ghaderi, M., ... & Makvandi, M. (2020).** A real-time RT-PCR assay for genotyping of rotavirus. *Iranian Biomedical Journal*, 24(6), 399.

## N

**Nardin Elias, D. P. (2019).** Etiology and complications of acute gastroenteritis in hospitalized children. *Romanian Journal of Pediatrics*, 68(3), 172.

## O

**O’Ryan, M., Vidal, R., del Canto, F., Carlos Salazar, J., & Montero, D. (2015).** Vaccines for viral and bacterial pathogens causing acute gastroenteritis: Part II: Vaccines for *Shigella*, *Salmonella*, enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC) enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) and *Campylobacter jejuni*. *Human vaccines & immunotherapeutics*, 11(3), 601-619.

**Oldak, E., Sulik, A., Rozkiewicz, D., & Liwoch-Nienartowicz, N. (2012).** Norovirus infections in children under 5 years of age hospitalized due to the acute viral gastroenteritis in northeastern Poland. *European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases*, 31, 417-422.

**Omatola, C. A., & Olaniran, A. O. (2022).** Rotaviruses: From pathogenesis to disease control—A critical review. *Viruses*, 14(5), 875.

**Onozuka, D., & Hashizume, M. (2011).** Weather variability and paediatric infectious gastroenteritis. *Epidemiology & Infection*, 139(9), 1369-1378

## P

**Parashar, U. D., Hummelman, E. G., Bresee, J. S., Miller, M. A., & Glass, R. I. (2003).** Global illness and deaths caused by rotavirus disease in children. *Emerging infectious diseases*, 9(5), 565.

**Pickard, J. M., & Núñez, G. (2019).** Pathogen colonization resistance in the gut and its manipulation for improved health. *The American Journal of Pathology*, 189(7), 1300-1310.

**Pignatelli, S., Simpoie, J., Ruggieri, M., & Musumeci, S. (2000).** Effectiveness of forced rehydration and early re-feeding in the treatment of acute diarrhoea in a tropical area. *Minerva Pediatrica*, 52(7-8), 357-366.

**Prasad, B. V., Matson, D. O., & Smith, A. W. (1994).** Three-dimensional structure of calicivirus. *Journal of molecular biology*, 240(3), 256-264.

**Prasad, B. V., Shanker, S., Muhaxhiri, Z., Choi, J. M., Atmar, R. L., & Estes, M. K. (2016).** Structural biology of noroviruses. In *Viral Gastroenteritis* (pp. 329-354). Academic Press.

## R

**Raj, S. D. (2005).** Bottled water: how safe is it?. *Water Environment Research*, 77(7), 3013-3018.

**RAMBAUD J-C. & BOUHNİK Y., 1994.** Le livre de l'interne : Gastroentérologie. FLAMMARION, ISBN : 2-257-10155-3. 580 p.

**Ramirez, J., Guarner, F., Bustos Fernandez, L., Maruy, A., Sdepanian, V. L., & Cohen, H. (2020).** Antibiotics as major disruptors of gut microbiota. *Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology*, 10, 572912.

**Ranasinghe, S., & Nic Fhogartaigh, C. (2021).** Bacterial gastroenteritis. *Medicine*, 49(11), 687-693.

**Ranjbar, R., & Farahani, A. (2019).** Shigella: antibiotic-resistance mechanisms and new horizons for treatment. *Infection and drug resistance*, 3137-3167.

**Razzaq, S. (2006).** Hemolytic uremic syndrome: an emerging health risk. *American Family Physician*, 74(6), 991-996.

**Redlinger, T., Corella-Barud, V., Graham, J., Galindo, A., Avitia, R., & Cardenas, V. (2002).** Hyperendemic *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* in households lacking municipal sewer and water on the United States-Mexico border. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 66(6), 794-798.

**Riahi, S. M., Ahmadi, E., & Zeinali, T. (2021).** Global prevalence of *Yersinia enterocolitica* in cases of gastroenteritis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *International journal of microbiology*, 2021(1), 1499869.

**Rogers, K. B., & Taylor, J. (1961).** Laboratory diagnosis of gastro-enteritis due to *Escherichia coli*. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 24(1), 59.

**Rogier, E. W., Frantz, A. L., Bruno, M. E., Wedlund, L., Cohen, D. A., Stromberg, A. J., & Kaetzel, C. S. (2014).** Secretory antibodies in breast milk promote long-term intestinal homeostasis by regulating the gut microbiota and host gene expression. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(8), 3074-3079.

**Rohayem, J. (2009).** Norovirus seasonality and the potential impact of climate change. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, 15(6), 524-527.

**Ryu, W.-S. (2017).** Other positive-strand RNA viruses. In *Molecular virology of human pathogenic viruses* (pp. 245–264).

## S

**Saeed, H. H. R., & Ibrahim, D. I. (2023).** Factors Associated with Gastroenteritis Disease among Children Age 2-5 Years in Qaladze and Ranya City. *Journal of Kurdistan for Strategic Studies*, (5).

**Scorza, K., Williams, A., Phillips, J. D., & Shaw, J. (2007).** Evaluation of nausea and vomiting. *American family physician*, 76(1), 76-84.

**Sehari, A. A., Abufayed, B. F., Kiblasan, J. I. A., & Madamba, F. U. (2016).** Associating Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation with Clinical and Laboratory Evaluations of Pediatric Patients with Acute Gastroenteritis admitted at Gharyan Central and Teaching Hospital, Libya.

**Seiradake, E., & Cusack, S. (2005).** Crystal structure of enteric adenovirus serotype 41 short fiber head. *Journal of virology*, 79(22), 14088-14094.

**Simonsen, J., Frisch, M., & Ethelberg, S. (2008).** Socioeconomic risk factors for bacterial gastrointestinal infections. *Epidemiology*, 19(2), 282-290.

**Simwaka, J. C., Mpabalwani, E. M., Seheri, M., Peenze, I., Monze, M., Matapo, B., ... & Mwenda, J. M. (2018).** Diversity of rotavirus strains circulating in children under five years of age who presented with acute gastroenteritis before and after rotavirus vaccine introduction, University Teaching Hospital, Lusaka, Zambia, 2008–2015. *Vaccine*, 36(47), 7243-7247.

**Spandorfer, P. R., Alessandrini, E. A., Joffe, M. D., Localio, R., & Shaw, K. N. (2005).** Oral versus intravenous rehydration of moderately dehydrated children: a randomized, controlled trial. *Pediatrics*, 115(2), 295-301.

**Strand, T. A., Sharma, P. R., Gjessing, H. K., Ulak, M., Chandyo, R. K., Adhikari, R. K., & Sommerfelt, H. (2012).** Risk factors for extended duration of acute diarrhea in young children. *PloS one*, 7(5), e36436.

**Stuempfig ND, Tobin EH, Seroy J. Viral Gastroenteritis. 2025** May 4. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan.

## T

**Tarr, P. I., Bass, D. M., & Hecht, G. A. (2009).** Bacterial, viral, and toxic causes of diarrhea, gastroenteritis, and anorectal infections. *Textbook of gastroenterology*, 1.

**Thwiny, H. T., Alsalih, N. J., Saeed, Z. F., Al-Yasari, A. M. R., Al-Saadawe, M. A. A., & Alsaadawi, M. A. E. (2022).** Prevalence and seasonal pattern of enteric viruses among hospitalized children with acute gastroenteritis in Samawah, Iraq. *Journal of Medicine and Life*, 15(1), 52.

**Toaimah, F. H. S., & Mohammad, H. M. F. (2016).** Rapid intravenous rehydration therapy in children with acute gastroenteritis: a systematic review. *Pediatric Emergency Care*, 32(2), 131-135.

**Tüzemen, N. U., & Doğan, N. İ. H. A. L. (2014).** Comparison of direct microscopy, culture, ELISA and molecular methods for diagnosis of *Entamoeba histolytica*. *Mikrobiyoloji bulteni*, 48(1), 114-122.

## U

**Uhnoo, I., Svensson, L., & Wadell, G. (1990).** Enteric adenoviruses. *Baillière's Clinical Gastroenterology*, 4(3), 627-642.

**Uhnoo, I., Wadell, G., Svensson, L., & Johansson, M. E. (1984).** Importance of enteric adenoviruses 40 and 41 in acute gastroenteritis in infants and young children. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 20(3), 365-372.

**Uprety, T., Wang, D., & Li, F. (2021).** Recent advances in rotavirus reverse genetics and its utilization in basic research and vaccine development. *Archives of virology*, 166(9), 2369-2386.

## V

**Varyani, F., Fleming, J. O., & Maizels, R. M. (2017).** Helminths in the gastrointestinal tract as modulators of immunity and pathology. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology*, 312(6), G537-G549.

**Vende, P., Tortorici, M. A., Taraporewala, Z. F., & Patton, J. T. (2003).** Rotavirus NSP2 interferes with the core lattice protein VP2 in initiation of minus-strand synthesis. *Virology*, 313(1), 261-273.

**Vielot, N. A., François, R., Huseynova, E., González, F., Reyes, Y., Gutierrez, L., ... & Bucardo, F. (2022).** Association between breastfeeding, host genetic factors, and calicivirus gastroenteritis in a Nicaraguan birth cohort. *PLoS One*, 17(10), e0267689.

**Viswanath, A., Yarrarapu, S. N. S., & Williams, M. (2023).** *Trichuris trichiura* Infection. In *StatPearls* [Internet]. StatPearls Publishing.

**Vu, D. L., Bosch, A., Pintó, R. M., & Guix, S. (2017).** Epidemiology of classic and novel human astrovirus: gastroenteritis and beyond. *Viruses*, 9(2), 33.

## W

**Wadell, G., Allard, A., Johansson, M., Svensson, L., & Uhnoo, I. (2007, September).** Enteric adenoviruses. In *Ciba Foundation Symposium 128-Novel Diarrhoea Viruses: Novel Diarrhoea Viruses: Ciba Foundation Symposium 128* (pp. 63-91). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd..

**Walker-Smith, J. (2013).** Gastroenteritis. *Diseases of the small intestine in childhood*, 185.

**Wilson, G., Easow, J. M., Mukhopadhyay, C., & Shivananda, P. G. (2006).** Isolation & antimicrobial susceptibility of *Shigella* from patients with acute gastroenteritis in western Nepal. *Indian Journal of Medical Research*, 123(2), 145.

**Wilson, M., & Wilson, P. J. (2021).** Gastroenteritis due to campylobacter. *Close Encounters of the Microbial Kind: Everything You Need to Know About Common Infections*, 439-450.

**World Health Organization (WHO). (2013).** *World Health Statistics 2013: A snapshot of health across the globe*. World Health Organization

**World Health Organization (WHO). (2019).** *WHO Surveillance Standards for Vaccine-Preventable Diseases: Rotavirus Surveillance*. World Health Organization

**World Health Organization (WHO). (2020).** *Campylobacter*. World Health Organization

**World Health Organization (WHO). (2020).** Mortality rate, under-5, per 1,000 live births (Indicator 130). Global Health Observatory (GHO) data

**World health organization. (2007).** Campylobacter.

## **Z**

**Zodpey, S. P., Deshpande, S. G., Ughade, S. N., Hinge, A. V., & Shrikhande, S. N. (1998).** Risk factors for development of dehydration in children aged under five who have acute watery diarrhoea: a case-control study. *Public health*, 112(4), 233-236.

# ANNEXES

## Annexes:

### Annexe 1:

#### Questionnaire (English) :

##### 1. Patient information

- Full name : \_\_\_\_\_
- Sex :  Male  female
- Age : \_\_\_\_\_ months

##### 2. Feeding history :

- Type of breastfeeding :

Exclusive

Mixed

Formula

##### 3. Medication and symptoms

- Has the child taken antibiotics recently?

Yes  No

- Is there a history of fever?

Yes  No

- If yes, what was the recorded temperature?

\_\_\_\_\_ C°

- Is there vomiting?

Yes  No

##### 4. Diarrhea information

- Type of diarrhea:

Watery

Bloody

Mucoid

Mixed

• **Number of stools per day:** \_\_\_\_\_times

• **Is there abdominal pain:**

Yes

No

## **5. Dehydration and Hospitalization**

• **Dehydration status:**

Mild

Moderate

Severe

• **History of previous hospitalizations:**

Yes

No

• **Rehydration methods used:**

Oral rehydration solution (ORS)

Intravenous (IV) fluids

Both

## **6. Living conditions:**

• **Type of water consumed at home:**

Tap water

Mineral water

Well water

• **What is your household's monthly income?**

Low income

Middle income

High income

**7. Hospital stay:**

• **Date of admission:** \_\_\_\_\_

• **Date of discharge:** \_\_\_\_\_

## Questionnaire (Français) :

### 1. Informations sur l'enfant

- **Nom complet :** \_\_\_\_\_
- **Sexe :**  Garçon  Fille
- **Age :** \_\_\_\_\_ mois

### 2. Antécédents d'allaitement

- **Type d'allaitement :**

Exclusif

Mixte

Artificiel

### 3. Médicaments et symptômes

- **L'enfant a-t-il pris des antibiotiques récemment ?**

Oui  Non

- **Présence de fièvre ?**

Oui  Non

- **Température mesurée :**

\_\_\_\_\_ °C

- **Présence de vomissements ?**

Oui  Non

### 4. Informations sur la diarrhée

- **Types de la diarrhée :**

Aqueuse

Sanglante

Mucosanglante

Mixte

• **Nombre de selles par jour :** \_\_\_\_\_ **fois**

• **Douleurs abdominales ?**

Oui       Non

## **5. Etat de déshydratation et hospitalisation**

• **Etat de déshydratation :**

Légère

Modérée

Sévère

• **Antécédents d'hospitalisation ?**

Oui       Non

• **Méthode de réhydratation utilisées :**

Solution de réhydratation orale (SRO)

Perfusion (IV)

Les deux

## **6. Conditions de vie**

• **Type d'eau consommée à la maison :**

Eau de robinet

Eau minérale

Eau de puits

• **Niveau de revenu de ménages :**

Faible

Moyen

Élevé

## 7. Séjour à l'hôpital

- Date d'admission : \_\_\_\_\_
- Date de sortie : \_\_\_\_\_

**Annexe 2 :**

**Sammary table (English) :**

<b>patient</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>age</b>					
<b>sex</b>					
<b>Type of breastfeeding</b>					
<b>Antobiotics intake</b>					
<b>fever</b>					
<b>vomiting</b>					
<b>Type of diarrhea</b>					
<b>Number of stools per day</b>					
<b>Abdominal pain</b>					
<b>Dehydration status</b>					
<b>History of hospitalization</b>					
<b>Rehydration methods</b>					
<b>Type of water consumed at home</b>					
<b>Income level</b>					
<b>Admission date</b>					
<b>Discharge date</b>					

**Tableau récapitulatif (français) :**

<b>patient</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>age</b>					
<b>sexe</b>					
<b>Type d'allaitements</b>					
<b>La prise d'antibiotique</b>					
<b>Fièvre</b>					
<b>vomissement</b>					
<b>Type de la diarrhée</b>					
<b>Nombre de selles par jour</b>					
<b>Douleurs abdominaux</b>					
<b>État de deshydratation</b>					
<b>Antécédent d'hospitalisation</b>					
<b>Méthode de Rehydratation</b>					
<b>Type d'eau consommée à la maison</b>					
<b>Niveau de revenu de ménages</b>					
<b>Date d'admission</b>					
<b>Date de sortie</b>					

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية  
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

جامعة عبد الحميد بن باديس - مستغانم -  
كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة

تصريح شرقي خاص بالالتزام بقواعد النزاهة العلمية  
لإنجاز البحث

أنا الممضي أدناه،  
الطالب(ة): شرفهاط سيدي صهارة ..... رقم التسجيل الجامعي: 31.3.4.223  
الحامل لبطاقة التعريف الوطنية رقم: 45.444.24.38 ..... والصادرة بتاريخ: 2023 / 01 / 24  
عن بلدية سيدي علي مستغانم  
المسجل ب كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة / قسم البيولوجيا  
شعبة العلوم البيولوجية / التخصص سيكولوجيا تطهيبية  
والمكلف بإنجاز مذكرة ماستر بعنوان:

Acute Gastroenteritis (AGE) in children under 5 years  
old in "Hamadou Hocine Sidi Ali Hospital" Mostaganem

أصرح بشرقي أنني ألتزم بمراعاة المعايير العلمية والمنهجية ومعايير الأخلاقيات العلمية والنزاهة الأكاديمية  
المطلوبة في إنجاز البحث ، وأنحمل المسؤولية الشخصية عن كل المحتوى المتضمن في البحث المذكور أعلاه .

التاريخ: 2025.06.29

إمضاء المعني