Evaluation of Rickets in a Developing Country: Presentation and Risk Factors

Karimeldin Mohamed Ali Salih, MD* Jaber Alfaifi, MD* Assad Rezigalla, Ph.D** Masoud I. E. Adam, MD*** Mohammed Abbas, MD****

ABSTRACT

Background: Rickets is a preventable mixed group of acquired and inherited diseases causing disturbances in calcium and/or phosphate homeostasis that affect the growing skeleton disease of growing children and adolescents, leading to the softening and weakening of bones. This study aims to describe the presentation of Rickets in children attending a tertiary hospital in a developing tropical country.

Methods and Materials: The study design is cross-sectional and hospital-based. The study data was collected from hospital records and utilized clinical history, clinical examination, and results of laboratory investigations. The collected data was analyzed by SPSS v27.

Results: The mean age of the rickets children included in the study was $(22.3 \pm 15.1 \text{ months})$. Male (55.4%) children are more present than females (44.6%). About 80.4% (45) of the children were from families with low socioeconomic status. Most children's fathers (53.6%) have a good educational background compared to their mothers (44.7%). Children who received breastfeeding accounted for 42 (75%), while those who did not breastfeed accounted for 14 (25%). Most children are exposed to sunlight less (73.2%). The majority (92.9%) of children were underweight. Male (55.4%) children are affected more than females (44.6%). Rachitic rosary (75%) and wrist swelling (69.6%) are the most common manifestations. About 92.9% of screened children had both hypocalcemia and hypophosphatemia. The alkaline phosphatase enzyme increased 91% (51) of the studied cases.

Conclusion: Low socioeconomic status, low exposure to sunlight, and mothers' educational background were essential in developing Rickets among the studied children. Rickets affected Male children more than females, and Rachitic rosary and wrist swelling are the most common manifestations. Most of the children showed positive laboratory findings.

Keywords: Rickets; Socioeconomic Status; Rachitic Rosary; Breastfeeding; Children.

INTRODUCTION

Rickets is a preventable disease of growing children and adolescents ^{1,2}. Rickets is a mixed group of acquired and inherited diseases causing disturbances in calcium and/or phosphate homeostasis that affect the growing skeleton ³. Although Rickets have been known since the mid-seventeenth century, they are still considered a frequent disease (4). The occurrence of Rickets has noticeably declined compared with the prevalence in the past, but the disease has re-emerged in both developed and developing countries⁴⁻⁶.

Rickets is categorized into two major groups: (a) calcipenic due to inadequate calcium intake, Vitamin D deficiency, the defective metabolic pathway of Vitamin D or resistance of the target tissues to calcitriol, (b) phosphatopenic due to deficient intake, impaired intestinal absorption or increased renal loss of phosphorus. ⁷. Also, Rickets is subdivided into three subtypes⁸: Hypophosphatemic rickets, which is vitamin-D-resistant, develops secondary to renal phosphate wasting. Vitamin D-dependent rickets (defects of vitamin D metabolism). Nutritional Rickets (caused by dietary deficiency of vitamin D, and/or calcium, and/or phosphate). Although nutritional Rickets are more common in low- middle-income countries, they remain the most common globally. Most Rickets manifest as bone deformities, bone pain, and impaired growth velocity. Diagnosis of Rickets is established through medical history, physical examination, biochemical tests, and radiographs. It is of crucial importance to determine the cause of Rickets, including the molecular characterization in the case of vitamin D-resistant rickets, and rapidly initiate the appropriate therapy ^{2,9,10}.

The primary pathogenesis of Rickets is under-mineralizing the growing cartilage, caused by disordered chondrocytes' differentiation and maturation resulting from abnormal levels of serum calcium and phosphate, leading to bowing and swelling of bone, particularly long ones. ^{1,2,8,11,12}.

The parathyroid–bone axis is responsible for preserving blood calcium levels and is activated by low intestinal calcium absorption. The activated parathyroid–bone axis increases bone resorption and decreases calcium renal loss, reducing tubular phosphate resorption, which manifests as hypophosphatemia ¹³

** Department of Anatomy, College of Medicine,

^{*} Department of Child Health, College of Medicine,

University of Bisha, Bisha 61922. P.O Box 551, Bisha, Saudi Arabia.

University of Bisha, Bisha 61922. P.O Box 551, Bisha, Saudi Arabia. E-mail: assadkafe@yahoo.com *** Department of Internal Medicine, College of Medicine,

University of Bisha, P.O Box 551, Bisha, Saudi Arabia.

^{****} Department of Pediatrics, College of Medicine, Arabian Gulf University, Bahrain.

The general character of Rickets is impaired apoptosis of the growth plate's hypertrophic chondrocytes resulting from hypophosphatemia. This leads to the widening of the growth plates of growing bones, which is frequently associated with osteomalacia ^{3,14}. The denominator of all types of Rickets is hypophosphatemia, except in the case of metabolic acidosis and CKD-associated Rickets, and is responsible for developing the clinical and radiological manifestations of rickets ^{3,12}.

Ricket can be due to the absence of direct exposure to sunlight or skin problems¹⁵⁻¹⁷. In contrast, nutritional Rickets develop due to a lower intake of minerals or calcium or phosphorous deficiency 18. The etiology of calcium deficiency is related to insufficient intake or intestinal problems, while phosphorous deficiency is linked to renal and endocrine problems ¹⁸. Vitamin D deficiency can cause Rickets, bone problems, physical growth failure, and defects in motor development ¹⁵. Scientific evidence supports that vitamin D deficiency in infancy can be a predisposing factor for some diseases, such as diabetes mellitus, cancer, and multiple sclerosis ². The different causes and etiologies of Rickets spread the occurrence of Rickets in developing and developed countries ^{10,12}. In developing countries, nutritional Rickets are the main type ¹². Other etiologies of Rickets such as less exposure to sunlight. Skim problems, insensitivity to vitamin D, dietary calcium deficiency due to cultural practices, hereditary and intestinal problems can be present in both developed and developing countries ^{10,19,20}.

This study aims to describe the presentation of Rickets in children in a tertiary hospital in a developing country.

METHODOLOGY

The study design is cross-sectional and hospital-based ²¹. The sampling technique covers all children referred to or presented to the emergency department of Jafar Ibn Auf Pediatric Hospital in Khartoum, Sudan, from June 2019 to June 2021. The inclusion criteria were any child referred to or presented to the emergency department with features suggesting or clinical signs of Rickets was included in the study. The exclusion criteria are non-Sudanese or aged more than 15 years. The total number of the included children was 56.

Data collection

Data was collected from all the included children through two methods. The first method was an epidemiological questionnaire, and the second was a clinical workup. The epidemiological questionnaire assessed all family data, including socioeconomic status, living conditions, parental education, nutritional data, milk and dietary calcium and supplementation, and sunlight exposure. The clinical workup and the diagnostic criteria for Rickets were seated according to WHO Child Growth Standards (2007), Levine (2020), and Haffner et al. (2022)^{3,22,23}. The investigations include a complete blood count, renal function test, liver function test, serum calcium, serum phosphorus, serum alkaline phosphatase, and X-ray ^{19,20}.

Ethical consideration

The study was conducted in compliance with the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the ethical and research committee of Jafar Ibn Auf Pediatric Hospital (Khartoum, Sudan). Informed written consent was obtained from the children's parents after they had agreed to participate.

Statistical analysis

The obtained data were tabulated in an Excel sheet and analyzed by SPSS v27. The categorical data were presented in the form of tables and frequencies.

RESULTS

The study group's ages ranged from 8 to 59 months; the mean was 22.3 ± 15.1 months. Male children represent 55.4%, while females were 44.6%. About 80.4% (45) of the children were from families with low socioeconomic status, while 19.6% (11) were from moderate socioeconomic status (Table 1).

Most of the children's fathers have a good educational background (53.6% university level and 25% secondary school). In contrast, less than half (44.7) of mothers reached secondary school, and only 32.1% have a university degree.

Children who received breastfeeding and developed Rickets were 42 (75%), while those who didn't receive breastfeeding were 14 (25%). Children with adequate sunlight exposure per day were 15 (26.8%), while those with under-exposure were 41 (73.2%). The majority of children were underweight (92.9%) (52), and those with normal weight were only 4 (7.1%) Table (1).

Table 1. Show sociodemographic data of rickets children who attended
Jafar Ibn Auf pediatric hospital, Khartoum, Sudan, from June 2019 to
June 2021 (N=56).

General chara	ncteristic	Frequency	Percentage	
Gender of the		Males	31	55.4
children		Females	25	44.6
Sacionami	o atotua	Low income	45	80.4
Socioeconomic statu		Moderate income	11	19.6
of the family		High income	00	00
Educational level		Primary school	12	21.4
	Father	Secondary school	14	25
		University	30	53.6
	Mother	Primary school	13	23.2
		Secondary school	25	44.7
		University	18	32.1
Breastfeeding		Yes	42	75
		No	14	25
Enough exposure to		Yes	15	26.8
	41	73.2		
Weight of the	Underweight 52		52	92.9
Weight of the child Normal	Normal weight	4	7.1	
		Liver failure	6	10.7
Others		Renal failure	8	14.3
		No complications	42	75

The laboratory findings of the screened children show that 92.9% (52) had hypocalcemia and hypophosphatemia. The levels of alkaline phosphatase enzyme were increased in 91% (51) of the subjects (Table 2). The precipitating factors for Rickets were liver failure at 11.1% (6) and renal failure at 14.8% (8).

Table 2. Show the laboratory findings of rickets children who attendedJafar Ibn Auf pediatric hospital, Khartoum, Sudan in the duration fromJune 2019 to June 2021 (N=56)

Laboratory findings		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Serum calcium	Hypocalcemia	52	92.9
	Normal	4	7.1
Samura nhaanhataa	Hypophosphatemia	52	92.9
Serum phosphates	Normal	4	7.1
Serum alkaline	Increased	51	91
phosphatase	Normal	5	9

Clinical symptoms		Total number		Gender distri	Gender distribution		
		Frequency	Percentage	Gender	Frequency	Percentage	
	V	(es 42	75	Males	23	54.8	
Rachitic rosary	res			Females	19	45.2	
	No	14	25	-	-	-	
Hands swelling	Yes 39	20	(0.(Males	21	53.8	
		39 69.6	09.0	Females	18	46.2	
	No	17	30.4	-	-	-	

Table 3. Show the frequency of Clinical signs seen among rickets children who attended Jafar Ibn Auf pediatric hospital, Khartoum, Sudan duration from June 2019 to June 2021 (N=56)

The common clinical presentation among studied children was a rachitic rosary 42 (75%), followed by hand swelling 39 (69.6%) (Table 3). Rachitic rosary and hand swelling were more common among males, 23 (54.8%) and 21 (53.8%), respectively, than among female children, 19 (45.2%) and 18 (46.2%).

DISCUSSION

This study describes the presentation of Rickets among children who attended Jafar Ibn Auf pediatric hospital in Khartoum, Sudan, from June 2009 to June 2011. Many reports claimed that non-Caucasian ethnic groups in general and Middle Eastern and Sub-Saharan in particular are at high risk of developing nutritional rickets ^{5,15,24-27}. Both Callaghan et al. and Munns et al. reported an increased incidence of Rickets among African and Asian children below five years of age, even though they were in European countries ^{5,15}. They have related such findings to skin pigmentation and the wearing of clothes that cover most of the body, hence decreasing exposure to sunlight and consequently reducing the production of biologically active vitamin D. In addition to that, lack of supplementation and prolonged, exclusive breastfeeding can contribute in the development of Rickets among children ²⁷.

The mean age of the studied children was 22.3 ± 15.1 months, similar to previous studies by Flot C et al. 2020 and Robinson PD et al. ²⁸⁻³⁰. Flot C et al. 2020 (22) reported that most of the diagnosed cases were seen in early childhood and adolescence and were associated with symptoms of hypocalcemia.

In this current study, male children are more affected (55.4%) than females (44.6%). This finding is consistent with the literature where it is reported that male children are more affected ^{22, 25, 26}. Genetic or social-cultural factors were suggested to explain the predominant affection of male children ^{28,30,31}. Genetic factors may include high calcium requirements due to males' higher bone mineral content. Social-cultural factors include that males are commonly breastfed longer and wear a veil. Social-cultural factors include the fact that males are commonly breastfed longer and don't wear a veil. ^{24,30,32}.

In the current study, the majority of studied rickety children had breastfed (75%) but had no adequate exposure to sunlight (73.2%) and were underweight (92.9%). These findings agree with Gartner et al. g (2003) and Özkan (2010). They reported that breastfeeding without supplementary vitamin D or inadequate sunlight exposure can increase the risk of developing vitamin D deficiency or Rickets. Decreased sunlight exposure can be due to cultural habits or seasons ^{2,33}. Chanchlani et al. (2020) reported in the presence of adequate exposure to sunlight, the cause of Rickets can be local community culture or custom, such as the widespread practice of a vegetarian-based diet ³⁴.

In the current study, the educational level of most of the included children's mothers is poor. Of those in secondary school, 44.7% and

primary school 23.3%), the father's educational level is far better than the university level (53.6%). Ejaz et al., 2013 reported that a high level of parental education minimized the risk of Rickets among children¹ while Craviari et al. 1 2008 reported that a high incidence of Rickets is associated with low maternal education³². Mothers' educational background can affect children's nutritional status through a lack of information regarding the importance of breastfeeding and supplementary food intake for their children. Another factor influencing children's nutrition is the family's socioeconomic status and large family size. The majority of the families of the included children have low socioeconomic status. Many studies in developing and developed countries supported the association between poor nutrition and low socioeconomic status with the risk of developing rickets 1,32,35,36. Low Nutritional status can lead to decreased immunity, vulnerability to infection, decreased appetite, and further nutritional deficiencies.³ ⁴⁰. In contrast, in the USA, inadequate vitamin D intake and reduced exposure to sunlight were reported to cause Rickets among infants ³³.

About 14.3% (6) of the studied children were presented with renal failure, identified as renal Rickets. Chronic renal diseases can result in a deficit in the enzyme 1 alpha-hydroxylase, which consequently decreases the production of 1,25 hydroxy vitamin D (calcitriol)³⁴. The most characteristic laboratory finding in such cases is the elevated phosphate level⁴¹.

The laboratory findings showed hypocalcemia and hypophosphatemia among almost all the studied children (92.9% each). Despite the majority of cases having hypocalcemia (92.9%), none of them presented with hypocalcemic seizures. This is controversial to what was reported by previous studies that seizures were the presentation in about 12–25% of children with nutritional rickets ^{28,29,31}. Hypocalcemic seizures were reported mainly among those who are less than 12 months, non-Caucasian, and who were breastfed entirely ^{28,31}.

The most common clinical symptom among children in the current study is rachitic rosary (75%), followed by hand swelling (69.6%). In both situations, male children are more affected. These findings are supported by previous work of Ozkan et al. (2009) and Ozkan et al. (2010)^{2,9}. Who reported rachitic rosary as the most frequent clinical sign, followed by wide wrist and ankle regions swelling, then posing of the skull and wide anterior fontanel ^{42,43}. Skeletal deformities are reported as the symbol of rickets ^{4,28}. Their appearance is predominantly before 18 months and depends on the child's weight-bearing patterns of the limbs^{4,8}.

CONCLUSION

The mean age of the presented children was 22.3±15.1 months. Male children were more affected by Rickets. In most cases, the mother's education is low. Hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, increased serum alkaline phosphatase, rickety rosary, and hand swelling are the main symptoms.

Limitation and Weakness

The descriptive study design and relatively small sample size are major weaknesses in this study. One nationality was included in the study (racial group), and the mode and duration of sun exposure were not assessed to discover environmental factors that may lead to or aggravate Ricket. The generalizability of the results is impractical as there is no data about the size of the whole population of Rickets.

Strength

This study forms a baseline study. To some extent, the study provided reliable data about rickets presentations and the associated risk factors.

Acknowledgments : The authors appreciate the patients' and their parents' excellent cooperation and help. Especial thanks to the administration of Jafar Ibn Auf Pediatric Hospital (Khartoum, Sudan) and extended to the dean and administration of the College of Medicine University of Bisha (Saudi Arabia) for allowing the use of resources. The authors are thankful to the Deanship of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research at University of Bisha for supporting this work through the Fast-Track Research Support Program.

Authorship Contribution: All authors share equal effort contribution towards (1) substantial contributions to conception and design, acquisition, analysis and interpretation of data; (2) drafting the article and revising it critically for important intellectual content; and (3) final approval of the manuscript version to be published. Yes

Potential Conflicts of Interest: None

Competing Interest: None

Acceptance Date: 03-06-2024.

REFERENCES

1. Ejaz I, Ahmed A, Aftab S, et al. Frequency of Nutritional Rickets in Children and Association with Iron Deficiency Anemia. JFJMU 2013; 7(3): 38-41.

2. Özkan B. Nutritional rickets. J Clin Res Pediatr Endocrinol 2010; 2(4): 137-43.

3. Haffner D, Leifheit-Nestler M, Grund A, et al. Rickets guidance: part I—diagnostic workup. Pediatric Nephrology 2022; 37(9): 2013-36.

4. Gentile C, Chiarelli F. Rickets in children: an update. Biomedicines 2021; 9(738): 1-18.

5. Callaghan AL, Moy R, Booth IW, et al. Incidence of symptomatic vitamin D deficiency. Arch Dis Child 2006; 91(7): 606-7.

6. Thacher TD, Fischer PR, Tebben PJ, et al. Increasing incidence of nutritional rickets: a population-based study in Olmsted County, Minnesota. Mayo Clinic Proceedings; 2013: Elsevier; 2013. p. 176-83.

7. González-Lamuño D. Hypophosphataemic rickets: diagnosis algorithm—how not to make a mistake. Adv Ther 2020; 37: 95-104.

8. Lambert AS, Linglart A. Hypocalcaemic and hypophosphatemic rickets. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab 2018; 32(4): 455-76.

9. Ozkan B, Doneray H, Karacan M, et al. Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency rickets in the eastern part of Turkey. Eur J Pediatr 2009; 168(1): 95-100.

10. Creo AL, Thacher TD, Pettifor JM, et al. Nutritional rickets around the world: an update. Paediatr Int Child Health 2017; 37(2): 84-98.

11. Misra M, Pacaud D, Petryk A, et al. Vitamin D deficiency in children and its management: review of current knowledge and recommendations. Pediatrics 2008; 122(2): 398-417.

12. Chanchlani R, Nemer P, Sinha R, et al. An Overview of Rickets in Children. Kidney Int Rep 2020; 5(7): 980-90.

13. Mughal MZ. Rickets. Curr Osteoporos Rep 2011; 9: 291-9.

14. Tiosano D, Hochberg Z. Hypophosphatemia: the common denominator of all rickets. J Bone Miner Metab 2009; 27: 392-401.

15. Munns CF, Simm PJ, Rodda CP, et al. Incidence of vitamin D deficiency rickets among Australian children: an Australian Paediatric Surveillance Unit study. Med J Aust 2012; 196(7): 466-8.

16. Holick MF. Vitamin D deficiency. N Engl J Med 2007; 357(3): 266-81.

17. Lips P. Vitamin D physiology. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 2006; 92(1): 4-8.

18. Tom T, Philip F, Mark S, et al. Nutritional rickets around the world: causes and future directions. Ann Trop Paediatr 2006; 26(1): 1-16.

19. Baroncelli GI, Bereket A, El Kholy M, et al. Rickets in the Middle East: Role of Environment and Genetic Predisposition. JCEM 2008; 93(5): 1743-50.

20. Carpenter TO, Shaw NJ, Portale AA, et al. Rickets. Nat Rev Dis Primers 2017; 3(17101): 1-20.

21. Rezigalla AA. Observational study designs: synopsis for selecting an appropriate study design. Cureus 2020; 12(1): 6692-700.

22. Bloem M. The 2006 WHO child growth standards. British Medical Journal Publishing Group; 2007. p. 705-6.

23. Levine MA. Diagnosis and management of vitamin D dependent rickets. Front Pediatr 2020; 8: 1-8.

24. Pedersen P, Michaelsen K, Mølgaard C. Children with nutritional rickets referred to hospitals in Copenhagen during a 10-year period. Acta Paediatr 2003; 92(1): 87-90.

25. Ladhani S, Srinivasan L, Buchanan C, et al. Presentation of vitamin D deficiency. Arch Dis Child 2004; 89(8): 781-4.

26. Siddiqui A, Kamfar H. Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency rickets in adolescent school girls in Western region, Saudi Arabia. Saudi Med J 2007; 28(3): 441-4.

27. Molla AM, Badawi MH, Al-Yaish S, et al. Risk factors for nutritional rickets among children in Kuwait. Pediatr. Int. 2000; 42(3): 280-4.

28. Flot C, Porquet-Bordes V, Bacchetta J, et al. Demographic Characteristics, risk factors, and presenting features of children with symptomatic nutritional rickets: a French series. Horm Res Paediatr 2020; 93(5): 304-12.

29. Ahmed S, Franey C, McDevitt H, et al. Recent trends and clinical features of childhood vitamin D deficiency presenting to a children's hospital in Glasgow. Arch Dis Child 2011; 96(7): 694-6.

30. Robinson PD, Högler W, Craig ME, et al. The re-emerging burden of rickets: a decade of experience from Sydney. Arch Dis Child 2006; 91(7): 564-8.

31. Basatemur E, Sutcliffe A. Incidence of hypocalcemic seizures due to vitamin D deficiency in children in the United Kingdom and Ireland. JCEM 2015; 100(1): 91-5.

32. Craviari T, Pettifor JM, Thacher TD, et al. Rickets: an overview and future directions, with special reference to Bangladesh: a summary of the Rickets Convergence Group Meeting, Dhaka, 26–27 January 2006. J Health Popul Nutr 2008; 26(1): 112-21.

33. Gartner LM, Greer FR. Prevention of rickets and vitamin D deficiency: new guidelines for vitamin D intake. Pediatrics 2003; 111(4): 908-10.

34. Chanchlani R, Nemer P, Sinha R, et al. An overview of rickets in children. Kidney Int Rep 2020; 5(7): 980-90.

35. Bhutta Z. National Nutrition Survey Report. Pakistan: PMRC 2011: p113.

36. Karuri SW, Murithi MK, Irimu G, et al. Using data from a multihospital clinical network to explore prevalence of pediatric rickets in Kenya. Wellcome Open Res 2017; 2(64): 1-15. 37. O'Brien MA, Jackson MW. Vitamin D and the immune system: beyond rickets. Vet J 2012; 194(1): 27-33.

38. Kelly CD, Tawes BR. Sex-specific effect of juvenile diet on adult disease resistance in a field cricket. PLoS One 2013; 8(4): 61301-8.
39. Walker VP, Modlin RL. The vitamin D connection to pediatric infections and immune function. Pediatr Res 2009; 65(7): 106-13.
40. Jones KD, Berkley JA, Warner JO. Perinatal nutrition and immunity to infection. Pediatr Allergy Immunol 2010; 21(4p1): 564-76.

41. Wharton B, Bishop N. Rickets. Lancet 2003; 362(9393): 1389-400. 42. Elwerfally HM, Alferjani MM. Evaluation of Clinical features and treatment Outcome of Rickets Cases-Benghazi. Sch J App Med Sci 2021; 6: 763-78.

43. Dobnig H, Pilz S, Scharnagl H, et al. Independent association of low serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D levels with all-cause and cardiovascular mortality. Arch Intern Med 2008; 168(12): 1340-9.