

Micronutrients Status in Saudi Arabia

Khalid A Madani, MPH, DSc* Taha A Kumosani, PhD**

In the last three decades, Saudi Arabia witnessed rapid changes in health, education, social services, and agriculture. These changes had a profound impact on food consumption patterns, health and nutritional status, particularly on the micronutrients status of Saudis. We have reviewed the available literature on the micronutrients status in Saudi Arabia. The results reveal the need of formulated studies to determine the prevalence and causes of vitamin A deficiency and there are very few studies on the zinc status in the Kingdom. Data shows that iron deficiency anemia, vitamin D deficiency and iodine deficiency (in few areas) do exist in Saudi Arabia. Ameliorative measures are presented to combat this public health problem.

Bahrain Med Bull 2001;23(3):135-39.

Micronutrient deficiencies are among the most common nutritional problems worldwide. In the Arab region the micronutrient deficiencies especially iron, iodine, zinc, vitamin A and D deficiencies are highly prevalent. However, the magnitude of the problems varied from country to country. Saudi Arabia underwent rapid changes during the last three decades in health, education, social services, and agriculture. These changes had a profound impact on food consumption patterns, on health and nutritional status, particularly on the micronutrient status.

The aim of this paper is to review the available literature on the micronutrients status in Saudi Arabia, namely iron, iodine, zinc, vitamin A and vitamin D. This paper is considered to provide physicians, nutritionists, and policy makers with a reference source on the status of micronutrients in Saudi Arabia. This paper may also stimulate investigators to carry out further studies on micronutrients.

IRON STATUS

Iron deficiency anemia is a major public health problem of multi-factional origin in Saudi Arabia.

* Consultant Nutritionist
Ministry of Health
**Associate Professor
Biochemistry Department
Faculty of Science
King Abdulaziz University
Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Generally, there is a very poor relationship between serum ferritin concentration in the newborn and that of the mother at term¹. Hawa et al² in a study to determine the haemoglobin level and iron status in mothers and their babies at delivery in King Fahad National Guard Hospital in Riyadh suggested that it is the fetus which largely controls the movement of iron across the placenta with only a marginal control exerted by maternal serum iron level. Ghafouri et al³ in Jeddah area reported that the level of haemoglobin was high at birth and reached maximum levels during the first few days of life. The same authors³ reported that no sex differences could be demonstrated in the mean haemoglobin level during the first year of life.

Healthy Saudi infants between 6 and 24 months of age who were attending the Well Baby Clinic at King Khalid University Hospital in Riyadh for routine vaccinations were studied⁴. Of the 366 screened infants, 136 (37.2%) were anaemic (Hb<11 g/dL). In another study⁵ using the same criteria to define iron deficiency anaemia for 84 Saudi 9 month old infants attending the baby clinic in King Khalid Hospital in Jeddah, the prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia was 35.7%. In view of the high prevalence of iron deficiency in the population studied, it is recommended that all infants should be screened for iron deficiency during their routine visits for immunizations.

In another study of haematologic profile⁶, a total of 208 children aged 2 months to 5 years were studied. The results show that 38% of the children were anemic, 22.6% were borderline and 39.4% were normal.

The Turaba study⁷, in western Saudi Arabia, found that the level of haemoglobin ranged between 6 to 10 g/dL in 34% of the Bedouin children under five years of age. Another study, in the region of Tamnia, also showed 36% of the pre-school children were having haemoglobin levels below normal⁸.

The prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia in Saudi Arabia is more among preschool compared to school children⁹. The haemoglobin level and laboratory stool analysis for ova and cysts were performed for 285 primary school girls from the urban area of Al-Khobar, in the eastern province of Saudi Arabia¹⁰. Of the study group, 26.4% had anaemia (haemoglobin levels below 11 g/dL), and 9.2% were infested with one parasite or more. Those with parasites had a significantly higher (38.8%) prevalence of anaemia as compared to those (21.8%) without infestations ($p < 0.001$).

In a survey conducted in western Saudi Arabia by Hammouda et al¹¹, iron deficiency anaemia was found to be prevalent among 3,762 primary school children of both sexes in both rural and urban areas. The prevalence rate was 30.8% in those having haemoglobin levels below 12 g/dL due to parasitic infection.

A recent study¹² determines the prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia among 1210 school girls aged 7-14 year old in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Severe anemia is found among 1.4% of all children who showed haemoglobin level below 8 g/dL while 8.5% showed a level of 8 to < 10 g/dL and 20.1% of them have Hb level of 10 to < 11 g/dL, making a total of 11.8% having Hb level below 10 g/dL while 30% have Hb level below 11 g/dL. An in-depth investigation of the etiological factors of iron deficiency is urgently needed and meanwhile a suitable iron supplementation program is recommended.

El-Hazmi and Warsy¹³ determined the overall prevalence and types of anaemias in Saudi adults and children. The study was conducted in 17 different areas in four provinces of Saudi Arabia. A total of 17,574 individuals (males: 5938; females: 6255 and children (<14 years) 12,193) were screened. Haematological parameters and red cell indices were determined. Anaemia was further classified as hypochromic-microcytic, normochromic-normocytic and normochromic-macrocytic based on the values of red cell indices. The prevalence of each type of anaemia was separately determined in the adult males, females and children. The results showed that anaemia occurred at a high frequency ranging from 7.2-16.5% in the males, 10.8-23.5% in the females and 16.5-41.3% in the children, in the different provinces. Significant differences were encountered within each province in different cities (areas). Hypochromic-microcytic anaemia was frequent in several of the areas while in others normochromic-normocytic anaemia occurred at a higher prevalence. The investigators described that anaemias are of frequent occurrence in Saudis.

Iron deficiency anaemia in pregnancy is still a health problem in Saudi Arabia. Many researches¹⁴⁻¹⁶ indicated that the prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia among pregnant women ranges from 4.6% to 26.5%. The reason for this wide range may be because of the different cut-off points of haemoglobin used which is ranged from Hb < 10g/dL to Hb < 11g/dL.

Age of the mothers has negative effects on the haemoglobin level. In Jeddah¹⁴, by the end of pregnancy, haemoglobin levels for 40 year olds were significantly lower than their counterparts who were less than 20 years of age.

The diagnosis of iron deficiency anaemia in Saudi Arabia becomes more complicated with the high incidences of haemoglobin disorders such as sickle cell traits and thalassaemias. Studies^{17,18} showed that haemoglobinopathies are widespread in Saudi Arabia and are considered as a serious health problem among children. The high incidences of haemoglobin disorders has been related to isolation, natural selection and inbreeding for generations. In addition, during pregnancy there is an increase in blood volume and haemodilution which makes the diagnosis of iron deficiency anaemia difficult, when based exclusively on haemoglobin values.

Although factors responsible for the incidences of iron deficiency anaemia in Saudi Arabia were not well investigated, the factors that could be cited for this deficiency are as follows:

1. Several studies^{19,20} reported that parasites were prevalent among children and adults in Saudi Arabia. The incidence of anaemia was higher in parasite-infected individuals than in parasite-free ones^{10,11}, indicating that parasitic infections may be one of the causes of iron deficiency anaemia in Saudi Arabia.
2. Reducing the total number of pregnancies and increasing the time between them has a positive impact on the iron status of the mother²¹. In Saudi Arabia grand multiparity, and short birth intervals are common occurrences^{15, 22, 23}.

3. Lower daily dietary intake of iron²⁴ is also an important factor in infancy. Human milk is poor in iron and breast feeding is the first choice for infant feeding in Saudi Arabia²⁵.
4. Lower daily dietary intake of vitamin C, which can improve iron absorption.
5. Heavy consumption of tea and coffee by adults during the day, especially after meals. It is known that tea and coffee inhibit the absorption of iron.

The high prevalence of anaemia in an affluent country calls for an in-depth study for the determination of factors associated with iron deficiency anaemia. Intervention action programs to combat iron deficiency anaemia in Saudi Arabia should be given a high priority. Several measures must be taken into consideration when dealing with anaemia. This includes supplementation of iron and folic acid to mothers, motivation of pregnant mothers to attend pre-natal clinics regularly, and assessment of haemoglobin concentrations. Sufficient spacing between subsequent pregnancies, supplementation of breast feeding with infant's formula fortified with iron after the first six months, blood screening for children, prevention and treatment of intestinal parasitic infections, iron fortification of some common foods. Different nutrition education programs should be conducted especially for the mothers to increase the intake of iron rich foods and vitamin C, and by reducing intake of other substances which inhibit iron absorption such as phytates, tannins and other polyphenols.

IODINE STATUS

Data on iodine status from the Arabian Peninsula is limited. One cross-sectional epidemiological household study was conducted in Saudi Arabia to determine the iodine status for 4,638 children aged 8 to 10 years²⁶. Clinical assessments for the presence of goiter and urinary iodine concentration were conducted in four areas with different geographical natures. The investigators found provincial differences with respect to urinary iodine concentration and the percentage of subjects with urinary iodine concentration $<10 \mu \text{g/dL}$. The Southern province had the lowest median ($11 \mu \text{g/dL}$) and the highest percentage (45%) of subjects with urinary iodine concentration $<10 \mu \text{g/dL}$. On the other hand, subjects of the Western province had the highest median ($24 \mu \text{g/dL}$) and the lowest percentage (8%) of subjects with urinary iodine concentration $<10 \mu \text{g/dL}$. The difference can be attributed to the special character of each of these provinces where the Southern province is characterized by being of high altitude, low to median urine and difficult access to high iodine content food such as fish. This is in contrast to the Western province which is characterized by low altitude, medium to high income and easy access to food such as fish²⁶. There is a need to launch a control program to ensure the exclusive availability of iodized salt in Saudi Arabia, especially in the Southern province.

Al-Attas and Sulimani²⁷ determined the iodine concentrations in Saudi Arabian staple foods. Foods in bread groups, dairy, eggs, vegetables, fruits, fish, soft drinks and Saudi mixed meals were analyzed for their iodine concentrations. Results revealed that iodine concentrations are comparable to those of Britain and the United States. Foods commonly consumed by Saudis appear to have an adequate iodine

concentration. On the other hand, Sulimani et al²⁸ previously documented low iodine levels in samples of tap water and drinking mineral water from different regions of Saudi Arabia.

Hypothyroidism is one of the most frequently encountered endocrine diseases in childhood. Early detection and proper treatment of the disease prevents developmental retardation and other sequelae of the condition²⁹. In Saudi Arabia, there is no precise data on the prevalence of the disease, however, there is an impression fostered by clinical experience and local neonatal screening programs for congenital hypothyroidism that this is not a rare disease³⁰.

ZINC STATUS

Data on the zinc status in Saudi Arabia are very limited. Bahijri et al³¹ determined the zinc serum level in healthy infants and preschool children (aged 4-72 months) in Jeddah and Makkah areas, the subjects were randomly selected from nurseries, kindergartens and welfare centers, infants and children coming to the government maternity and children hospital to obtain a clearance vaccination certificate before registering at school. Zinc was estimated in 728 serum samples distributed amongst the various age groups. Table 1 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the serum zinc level³¹. The investigators concluded that mild (serum zinc ≥ 45 - < 60 $\mu\text{g}/100$ ml) to moderate (serum zinc 23 - < 45 $\mu\text{g}/100$ ml) zinc deficiency is present in the studied population of infants and children. No severe deficiency was encountered³¹.

Table 1 – Serum Zinc Level (Mean \pm SD) For the Various Age Groups

Age (months)	No. of Samples	Mean \pm SD $\mu\text{g}/100$ ml
4 - <6	115	61.19 \pm 18.60
6 - <12	165	57.13 \pm 13.40
12 - <24	161	56.40 \pm 13.51
24 - <36	88	52.31 \pm 16.07
36-72	199	61.72 \pm 24.52

Kumosani et al³² determined the serum zinc level of 276 healthy subjects (138 males and 138 females) in a prospective, cross section study in the Western region of Saudi Arabia. The ages ranged from 1 month to seventy years. The subjects were divided into nine groups according to the recommended dietary allowances classification for both sexes. Serum zinc level were found to be different at different age groups, the highest were found to be at earliest stages of life and at the age of 15-50 years for both sexes. The investigation concluded that the serum zinc level range of all ages was 0.50 – 13.90 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$, which is lower than the international established standard (7.65 – 22.95 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$).

In another study³³ the zinc level was compared in the serum of 66 healthy non-pregnant subjects, and 57 healthy pregnant women in the Western region of Saudi Arabia. Serum zinc levels were found to be lower in pregnant women when compared to non-pregnant women. Zinc level was found to decrease as pregnancy advanced. The investigators concluded that the zinc is lower in pregnant women than non-pregnant women, and zinc decreases as pregnancy progress.

Although there are only few data on the zinc status in Saudi Arabia, the causes of the deficiency in children might be low intake of foods rich in readily absorbable zinc such as liver, red meat, poultry, fish, oysters, and crabs³¹. Traditional staple foods, such as cereals, legumes and tubers, contain zinc, but its bioavailability is poor. Phytate, fiber and lignin in these foods form insoluble complexes with zinc, preventing its absorption³¹. Cow's milk, because of its high levels of calcium and casein, and soy milk, because of its phytate content, may further reduce the absorption of zinc from the diet. In contrast, zinc in breast milk is well absorbed. Older children (>30 months) will be likely to obtain zinc from meat and other richer sources when available. However, because of diarrhoeal attacks and loss of zinc via sweat especially with hot climate and the poor housing available to lower classes, zinc deficiency might exist in older children. For these reasons and until more data on the epidemiology of zinc deficiency in Saudi Arabia is available, it is advisable to give zinc supplements to infants and children whose dietary history shows the absence or inadequate sources of zinc such as babies fed on powdered unfortified milk without any additional supplementation, and children getting rice and vegetable supplements, specially if short stature is noticed. Infants and children suffering from frequent attacks of diarrhea are also at risk, and zinc supplementation would also be advisable³¹.

VITAMIN A STATUS

To the best of our knowledge, there is no sufficient data in Saudi Arabia on the prevalence of vitamin A deficiency. The only National Nutritional Survey of Saudi Arabia³⁴ shows that 1.2% of the 607 subjects living in Riyadh area having serum vitamin A levels lower than 10 ug/dL. In young adult males, a concentration of <10 µg/dL serum retinol was thought to indicate deficiency. This level has been found useful in many field surveys.

VITAMIN D STATUS

The available data indicates that vitamin D deficiency in Saudi Arabia does exist³⁵⁻³⁷. Elidriissy and Sedrani, as early as in 1981, reported 31 cases of rickets patients admitted to maternity and children's hospital of Riyadh, over a period of 14 months³⁶. Other studies in Saudi Arabia³⁷ indicated low levels of vitamin D in mother's plasma and in their infants. This indicates the role of the pathogenesis of rickets in infants born to mothers with inadequate vitamin D status, and the disease has its origin in the prenatal period.

Sedrani et al³⁸, during 1986 and 1987, studied the prevalence of clinical and sub-clinical rickets in Saudi children admitted to Sulimania Children's Hospital in Riyadh. Among the total admissions (16,125) the prevalence of clinical rickets was 1.3 and

1.4% each year, respectively, and the prevalence of sub-clinical rickets was 3.1%. The majority of the children with rickets (88%) were breast fed compared with 42.1% in the control children. Five percent of the children under 6 years of age were vitamin D deficient. There is a continuing presence of radiologically proven rickets in Saudi infants. This situation can be improved by changes in public health policy.

Another survey³⁹ was carried out on 4,078 subjects to study the effect of regional and environmental location on vitamin D status of Saudis. The studied population was divided into five groups on the basis of their geographical location and lifestyle. The lowest 25-OHD plasma concentrations were observed in the population living in the Northern province. The highest levels were found in the Western province. Rural children have higher concentrations than rural adults. In the same geographical location, rural adult males and females had significantly higher 25-OHD than urban adult males and females. The concentration of 25-OHD in rural adult females is much greater than that of urban females³⁸. This study had demonstrated several inter-regional, sex, and age differences, and had revealed that even in a country such as Saudi Arabia, with an abundance of ultraviolet light, deficiency of vitamin D is frequently seen.

Another survey⁴⁰ was conducted to study the vitamin D nutritional status in the Saudi population. The study included 4078 Saudi males and females living in different regions in Saudi Arabia. Volunteers were from <6 years up to 90 years of age. Male children, <6 years of age, have a significantly higher level than older subjects, whereas the female adolescents (age 13-18 years) and preschool children have the lowest plasma 25-OHD levels in comparison with the other groups. No significant correlation was detected between plasma 25-OHD and age. Saudi males have significantly higher 25-OHD than females. As for the house type, occupants of tents have significantly higher 25-OHD than those occupying mud houses, villas or brick houses. The people living in tents are usually urbanized Bedouins therefore, have more exposure to natural sunlight⁴⁰. Sedrani et al⁴¹ revealed that there is no significant difference between the plasma concentration of 25-OHD in January and August for adult females and males. These results may suggest that as the temperature increases during the summer, the exposure of the Saudi population to solar ultraviolet radiation is decreased, and hence, the concentration of plasma 25-OHD decreases.

By reviewing the literature, the existence of vitamin D deficiency in Saudi Arabia could be referred to the following factors:

- 1) Overdressing of the babies with limited sunlight, and keeping them in badly illuminated houses³⁸.
- 2) The low level of vitamin D in plasma of mother and infants with rickets indicates that mother's milk is already depleted and deficient in vitamin D to start with³⁷.
- 3) Dietary vitamin D intake has been calculated at approximately one-tenth of the daily intake of that in the United States of America⁴².

- 4) Both men and women are deprived of sunlight as their traditional dress covers the skin almost completely⁴³.
- 5) An increase in ultra violet light insulation due to atmospheric dust particles could be one of the factors responsible for vitamin D deficiency in Saudi Arabia .
- 6) Individuals whose foods contain excess phytate require more vitamin D since the phytate combines with calcium and decreases its absorption. This could be another added factor producing deficiency in Saudis since whole wheat pita bread and cereals are rich in phytate, which form an essential part of the Saudi diet.
- 7) Genetic factors associated with rickets also exists in Saudi Arabia, either as familial vitamin D resistance rickets, vitamin D dependent rickets, or congenital hypoparathyroidism, and other forms of inborn errors of metabolism^{44, 45}.

In conclusion, these studies have shown that vitamin D deficiency exists in the Saudi population at a high frequency. It has also emphasized the need for better illumination by sunlight, yet maintaining privacy in houses, vigorous mass media campaigns against excessive and unnecessary wrapping up of babies, and educating the mothers about the importance and benefits of the sunshine in a land of plenty. Health education, including dietary advice should be given to the community. Supplementation with vitamin D, or a diet adequate in calcium and phosphorus, effectively controls rickets. A concerted effort must be made to screen breast-fed children to detect sub-clinical forms of rickets and to educate the public about the importance of sunlight exposure and diversified nutrients.

CONCLUSION

In this review, we have limited the discussion to the nutritional status of iron, iodine, zinc, vitamin A and vitamin D in Saudi Arabia. The results reveal lack of formulated studies that determine the prevalence and causes of vitamin A deficiency availability of and few studies on the zinc status in the Kingdom. Data shows that iron deficiency anemia, vitamin D deficiency and iodine deficiency (in few areas) exist in Saudi Arabia. Further ameliorative measures are needed to tackle this public health problem.

REFERENCES

1. Hussain MA, Gaafer TH, Laulight M, et al. Relation of maternal and cord blood serum ferritin. Arch. Disease Chil. 1977;52:782-4.
2. Hawa L, Rowland H, Ahmed G, et al. Haemoglobin and iron status in mothers and their babies at delivery. Saudi Med J 1993;14:110-5.

3. Ghafouri H, Al Fores A, Islam S, et al. Haematological reference values assessed from birth to adolescence in Saudi subjects in the area of Jeddah. *Saudi Med J* 1987; 8:582-5.
4. Al Fawaz I. Surveillance for iron deficiency anaemia at a well baby clinic in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Med J* 1993;14:27-31.
5. Stevens DW, Wainscoat JS, Ketley N, et al. The pathogenesis of hypochromic anaemia in Saudi infants. *J Trop Pedi* 1989;35:301-5.
6. Al-Naquib N, Sadek AA. Child development and iron deficiency anaemia: A screening study on Middle Eastern children using the Denver development screening test. *Ann Saudi Med* 1988;8:414A.
7. Sebai ZA. Health in Saudi Arabia. Vol. 1. Riyadh: Tihama Publications, 1985:39-72.
8. Sebai ZA, El-Hazmi MA, Serenius F. Health profile of pre-school children in Tamnia villages, Saudi Arabia. In: *Priorities in Child Care*. *Saudi Med J* 1981;2 (Suppl. 1): 68-71.
9. El-Hazmi M. Survey of laboratory variables in Qassim children. In: *Community health in Saudi Arabia, a profile of two villages in Qassim region*. *Saudi Med J* 1982;(Monograph No. 1):19-23.
10. Rasheed P, Al-Yousef N, Al-Dabal B. Nutritional profile of Saudi primary school girls in an urban region. *Ann Saudi Med* 1989;9:371-7.
11. Hammouda A, Lebshtein A. Effect of Parasitic Infection on the Nutritional Status of School Children in Jeddah and Wadi Fatma. King Abdul Aziz City of Science and Technology. Final Report, 1987: 174-6.
12. Al-Othaimen A, Osman AK, Al-Orf S. Prevalence of nutritional anaemia among school girls in Riyadh City, Saudi Arabia. *Int J Food Sc Nutr* 1999;50:237-43.
13. El-Hazmi M, Warsy A. Anaemias in Saudi population. *Saudi Med J* 1998;19:754-8.
14. Smart IS, Duncan ME, Kalina JM. Haemoglobin levels and anaemia in pregnant Saudi women. *Saudi Med J* 1983; 4:263-8.
15. Madani KA, Nasrat HA, Al-Nowaisser AA, et al. Low birth weight in Taif Region, Saudi Arabia. *East Mediter Health J* 1995;1:47-54.
16. Ghaznawi HI, Hussein MM. Anaemia in pregnancy in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. An epidemiological study. *Bull High Inst Publ Health* 1988;18:541-53.
17. El-Hazmi MA, Jabbar FA, Al-Faleh FZ, et al. Patterns of sickle cell, thalassemia and glucose-6 phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency gene in north-western Saudi Arabia. *Hum Hered* 1991;4:26-34.
18. Warsy AS, El-Hazmi MA. Glucose-6 phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency in Saudi Arabia – a review. *Saudi Med J* 1987;8:12-20.
19. Al-Madani AA, Omar MS, Abu-Zeid HA, et al. Intestinal parasites in urban and rural communities of Abha, Saudi Arabia. *Ann Saudi Med* 1989;9:182-5.
20. Ahmed MM, Hady HM. A preliminary survey of parasitic infectors and nutritional status among school children in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. *J Egypt Soci Parasitology* 1989;19:101-6.
21. Kim MF, Lawrence W, Francesco B, et al. Control of Iron Deficiency. In: *Feeding and Nutrition of Infants and Young Children*.

- Guidelines for the WHO European Region, with Emphasis on the Former Soviet Countries. WHO Regional Publications European Series, No. 87, 2000:101-25.
22. Madani KA, Khashoggi RH, Al-Nowaisser AA, et al. Lactation amenorrhea among Saudi women. *J Epi Community Health* 1994;48:286-9.
 23. Al-Nahedh N. The effect of socio-demographic variables on child-spacing in rural Saudi Arabia. *East Mediter Health J* 1999;5:136-40.
 24. Al-Othaimen AI, Kipps M, Thomson J, et al. Nutrition intake and weight/height of Saudi patients at King Faisal Specialist Hospital in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. *Nutr Health* 1992;8:195-206.
 25. Madani KA, Al-Nowaisser AA, Khashoggi RH. Breast-feeding patterns in Saudi Arabia. *Ecol Food Nutr* 1994;31:239-45.
 26. Al-Nuaim A, Al-Mazrou Y, Farag M, et al. National iodine deficiency disorders survey, Saudi Arabia, 1994-95. Ministry of Health, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: 1995.
 27. Al-Attas OS, Sulimani RA. Iodine concentration in Saudi staple foods. *Saudi Med J* 1993;14:322-24.
 28. Sulimani RA, Al-Attas O, El-Desouki M, et al. Iodine concentrations in Saudi waters: A cause for concern. *Ann Saudi Med* 1991;2:655-7.
 29. Malvaus P. Hypothyroidism. In: Brook CG, ed. *Clinical Paediatric Endocrinology*. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications, 1981:329-39.
 30. Al-Jurayyan N, Abdullah MA, El-Desouki MI, et al. Childhood hypothyroidism in Saudi Arabia: A retrospective study. *Saudi Med J* 1992;13:125-8.
 31. Bahijri S, Ajabnoor M, Karim A. Determination of some essential elements in the serum of infants and pre-school children in the Jeddah area. University Sponsored Research Project. Number 004/408. King Abdulaziz University. Jeddah, Saudi Arabia:1991.
 32. Kumosani T, Abduljabbar H, Tazi Z. Serum zinc level of healthy individuals living in Western province of Saudi Arabia. *Ain Shams Med J* 1997;48:797-801.
 33. Abduljabbar H, Kumosani T. Serum zinc and other biochemical parameters level of healthy pregnant women. *Ain Shams Med J* 1998;49:467-501.
 34. Evaluation of the nutritional status of the people of Saudi Arabia. King Abdulaziz City for Science and Technology. Riyadh, Saudi Arabia:1993.
 35. Kumosnai K, Madani A, Khashoggi R. Vitamin D status in Saudi Arabia. Proceedings of Workshop on Prevention and Control of Micronutrient Deficiencies in the Arab Gulf Cooperation Council Countries. A. Musaiiger and S. Miladi, eds. FAO/RNEA, Cairo, Egypt, Arab Nutrition Society, Al Ain, U.A.E. and Nutrition Affairs Council, Kuwait, 1997:66-84.
 36. Elidrissy AT, Sedrani SH. Infantile vitamin D deficiency rickets in Riyadh. Is maternal vitamin D deficiency a possible factor? *Calcified Tissue Inter* 1981;33:47-53.

37. Abanamy A, Salman H, Cheriyan M, et al. Vitamin D deficiency rickets in Riyadh. *Ann Saudi Med* 1991;11:35-39.
38. Sedrani SH, Abanmy A, Salman H, et al. Vitamin D status of Saudis: Are Saudi children at risk of developing vitamin D deficiency rickets? *Saudi Med J* 1992;13:430-433.
39. Serdani SH, Al Arabi K, Abanmy K, et al. Vitamin D status of Saudi. II. Effect of regional and environmental location. *Saudi Med J* 1992;13:206-13.
40. Sedrani SH, Al-Arabie K, Abanmy A, et al. Vitamin D status of Saudis: I. Effect of age, sex and living accommodation. *Saudi Med J* 1992;13:151-8.
41. Sedrani SH, Al-Arabie K, Abanmy A, et al. Vitamin D status of Saudi: IV. Seasonal variations. *Saudi Med J* 1992;13:423-9.
42. Woodhouse NJ, Norton WL. Low vitamin D level in Saudi Arabians. *King Faisal Specialist Hospital Med J* 1982;3:127-31.
43. Sedrani SH. Are Saudis at risk of developing vitamin D deficiency? *Saudi Med J* 1986;7:427-433.
44. Al-Ageel A, Ozand P, Sobki S, et al. The combined use of intravenous and oral calcium for the treatment of vitamin D dependent rickets type II. *Clin Endocrinol Exp* 1993;39:229-37.
45. Mohammed S, Addae S, Suleiman S, et al. Serum calcium, parathyroid hormone, and vitamin D status in children and young adults with sickle cell disease. *Ann Clin Biochem* 1993;30:45-51.