late rickets or osteomalacia adhered to a chapati-free diet for 7 weeks, substituting unleavened bread of lower extraction. All 10 subjects showed prompt evidence of biochemical healing with subsequent biochemical relapse on resuming a normal diet. On the other hand, while 37 out of a sample of 66 Pakistani and Indian children resident in Glasgow, between 9 to 16 years of age, showed biochemical, radiological, or clinical evidence of late rickets, only one of a sample of 23 children taking vitamin D supplements showed a minimal depression of serum calcium. Similarly, a survey of the small Pakistani community in Stornoway, where atmospheric pollution is minimal, showed no biochemical evidence of rickets or osteomalacia in 42 subjects who were examined. In order to further elucidate the role of vitamin D deficiency, a competitive protein binding assay for 25-hydroxycholecalciferol (25HCC) was developed. It was found that normal Asians had 25HCC levels less than half those of Caucasians, while Asians with florid rickets had undetectable levels (limit of detectability 0·8 ng/ml).

It seems probable, therefore, that the high dietary phytate content combined with vitamin D deficiency is responsible for the marked prevalence of rickets and osteomalacia among Asian immigrants. A possible unifying hypothesis was presented for discussion.

D. BARLTROP. London. ‘Neonatal calcium metabolism.’ The mechanisms responsible for neonatal hypocalcaemia remain imperfectly understood. Dietary factors have been implicated including the fat content of milk and the mineral composition, and, additionally, the responsiveness of the newborn parathyroid gland has been questioned. Hitherto research has been limited by the lack of suitable methods of investigation so that the major pathways of calcium metabolism in the newborn have not been well defined. The application of a stable (nonradioactive) isotope of calcium to this problem was described. The findings in infants were presented which described the true absorption of calcium from the gut together with the urinary loss and deposition in bone. In addition, the magnitude of the exchangeable calcium pool in the newborn has been estimated. The findings have revealed an unsuspected excretion of calcium into the gut which may be an important factor. Analysis of meconium suggested that this faecal endogenous excretion also occurs in utero. Conventional balance studies and plasma calcium determinations are inadequate for the study of the responses to new infant milk formulae.

J. DORBING (and Jean Sands). Manchester. ‘Growth retardation and the human fetal brain.’ It is inevitable that knowledge of the effects of undernutrition on the fetal human brain should be largely derived from experimental animals. It is to this extent speculative. Such speculation demands a careful examination of the validity of inter-species extrapolation.

The main difficulty is the different timing of birth in the various species rather than differences in brain development processes themselves. We now feel in a better position to make the calculations, based on our own surveys of quantitative brain growth in man, as well as in rats, pigs, and guinea pigs.

Several fallacies in previous reasoning are now thought to exist and were discussed. Principal among these are, firstly, the widely held view that the human brain growth spurt is a mainly prenatal process. We showed that this is not so. Secondly, the false assumption that fetal brain growth in the rat is equivalent to that in humans. Restricting fetal brain growth in rats imposes constraint at a stage of brain development comparable with that in human fetal life before 18 weeks of gestation, and unless this difference in timing is taken into account serious mistakes will arise.

These matters were discussed in the light of their relevance to the cerebral consequences of human fetal growth retardation.

W. HAMILTON. Glasgow. ‘Aminoglutethimide in the treatment of congenital adrenal hyperplasia.’

C. C. BAILEY introduced by G. M. Komrower. Manchester. ‘Linear and skeletal growth in congenital adrenal hyperplasia.’ Of 35 children diagnosed as congenital adrenal hyperplasia, 18 of the salt-losing variety have been followed from birth; the present ages ranging between 2½ and 17 years. A full description of the treatment (long acting preparations of glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid during the first year of life followed by oral prednisolone and fludrocortisone) and the clinical progress were given with details of the criteria for control of therapy. This includes measurements of oxosteroids and pregnanetriol excretion.

Height achievement and skeletal maturity has been assessed and all the heights found to be on or below the 25th centile line, though bone age has varied appreciably.

An explanation of these findings was offered with suggestions concerning the early treatment of these children.

A. ROBINSON (and Bridgett O’Connell) introduced by B. M. Laurance. London. ‘Parameters for monitoring growth in children with congenital adrenal hyperplasia.’ Publications have stressed that adequate control of congenital adrenal hyperplasia with steroids results in normal growth. Of 20 children with 21-hydroxylase deficiency, 18 salt losers and 2 non-salt losers, referred to the Endocrine Clinic at Queen Elizabeth Hospital for Children, London, only 2 were above the median for height and 13 were on or below –2 SD. By plotting height velocity, the information already available on a linear growth chart is amplified. In 8 of the children evidence was presented that height velocity can be a valuable addition to the usual parameters for controlling treatment. The increased velocity of growth in 4 children whose linear height was on or below the third centile increased so much when the steroid dose was reduced that salt losing crises might have been anticipated. Velocity charts were shown to be useful sometimes in prospectively adjusting the dose of corticosteroid treatment of congenital adrenal hyperplasia in order to achieve optimal growth.

H. VALASSI-ADAM. Hellenic Paediatric Society. ‘Immunoglobulin levels in children with thalassaemia.’
Immunoglobulin alterations have often been related to an increased susceptibility to infection in patients with hereditary haemolytic anaemia. Though extensive studies have been carried out in sickle cell anaemia, very few data are available on thalassaemia.

In the present series, immunoglobulins G, A, and M have been quantitatively estimated in 50 thalassaemic children aged 10 to 13 years. No significant difference was found in any of the immunoglobulins between patients and age-matched controls. No correlation could be shown between immunoglobulin levels and (a) the severity of anaemia, (b) haemosiderosis, and (c) morbidity. Against all current clinical impressions, patients did not show any increased susceptibility to infections.

P. LAPATSANIS. Hellenic Paediatric Society. 'Calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium balance studies in homozygous thalassaemia.' In homozygous thalassaemia bone lesions are generally well marked at the age of 5 years or earlier.

In two children aged 7 with this disease, calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium balance studies were performed. Both patients showed marked bone lesions clinically and radiologically. Serum calcium, magnesium, and alkaline phosphatase were within normal limits, but serum phosphorus was found to be abnormally low in Case 1 though within normal limits in Case 2.

In normal children if phosphorus intake averages 1100 mg/day, retention varies from 3–40% of the intake. Both our patients were on low phosphorus diets, 600 mg per day or less, and their retention was 8% or less; both had muscular weakness; Case 2 had a negative phosphorus balance and Case 1 was on balance. Both cases were found to have normal creatinine clearance but the phosphorus clearance, the ratio of urine phosphorus to urine creatinine concentration, and the phosphorus excretion index were abnormal. These findings indicated that children with thalassaemia might have phosphorus deficiency syndrome. Case 1 was on positive balance for calcium and magnesium, while Case 2 was on negative balance for both these elements. Urinary pyrophosphate excretion was abnormally low for both patients.

Increased oral intake of calcium and phosphorus plus small doses of vitamin D (2000–3000 units/day) were given to both patients and they have been followed clinically, radiologically, and haematologically; Case 1 for 20 months and Case 2 for 8 months. Calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium balance studies were performed during the period of treatment and urinary pyrophosphate excretion was measured. The findings appeared to indicate that the treatment had had some beneficial effects on (1) weight and height, (2) radiological appearance of the bones, (3) calcium and phosphorus balance (but not magnesium balance), (4) abnormally low serum phosphorus, and (5) blood Hb levels.

D. M. FLYNN. London. '5-Year controlled trial of chelating agents in treatment of thalassaemia major.' A prospective controlled trial of continuous chelation therapy in children with thalassaemia major on a high transfusion regimen was started at The Hospital for Sick Children in 1967.

The patients were allocated to the chelator-treated group and 10 to the control group. The groups were closely but not identically matched for age, sex, units transfused, and splenectomy status.

The chelator-treated group received desferrioxamine 0·5 g intramuscularly daily, and DTPA with transfusions. At the conclusion of the study 19 patients were available for clinical evaluation, and 17 for liver biopsy.

The growth rates and incidence of complications in the 2 groups were similar. Histological changes in the liver biopsy specimens favoured the treated group.

The mean liver iron concentration of the biopsies in the chelator-treated group was 2·59% dry weight and in the controls 4·12% dry weight; there was no overlap between the 2 groups and the difference between them was highly significant (P < 0·001).

Evidence suggested that there was heavy iron loss in both groups, though in the treated group was greater.

SERENA DAVIDSON introduced by C. E. Stroud. London. 'Surgery of temporal lobe epilepsy in children.' Temporal lobe epilepsy is relatively common in childhood. It may be only a minor disability and well controlled by drugs. There is, however, a hard core of drug-resistant cases who suffer social and educational catastrophe as a consequence of their attacks, as well as associated behavioural problems. Since 1952, Mr. Murray Falconer, at the Maudsley Hospital, has performed a unilateral temporal lobectomy on more than 300 patients of whom more than 30 were under the age of 16 years. In two-thirds of these children the pathological substrate of mesial temporal sclerosis was found, and this often appeared to have been the sequel of severe febrile convulsions in infancy. The results of surgery with this pathology are encouraging. In this paper, the histories, investigations, treatment, and progress of the first 30 consecutive children were reviewed. Investigations included sleep EEG studies, and EEGs with sphenoidal electrodes performed under Pentothal anaesthesia to determine laterality. Angiography and psychometry were also helpful in lateralizing the lesion. The vast majority of these children showed impressive improvement after operation.

J. WILSON. London. 'Neurological complications of DPT inoculation in infancy.' In the years 1965–71, 36 children were seen in the Department of Neurology at The Hospital for Sick Children, London, in whom an encephalopathic illness occurred within 1 week of the administration of triple vaccine. In the majority of cases the onset of the illness was within 48 hours of the first or second inoculation, and was characterized by fits and fever. Infantile spasms occurred in 3 infants.

Although it is probable that these patients are a highly selected series, by virtue of the severity of the reactions and the prevalence of sequelae, we are disturbed to discover that in over one-third of these patients there
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H Valassi-Adam

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