



Research Article

Epidemiology and Risk Factors for Gallstones in the Paediatric and Adult Saudi Population in the City of Al-Ahsa

Samia Saud Al Furaikh^{1*}, Sarah Algubaisi², A Lubna Abdulaziz Alhamad³, Khadiga Mahmoud Hussein⁴

¹Department of Pediatric Gastroenterology, King Abdulaziz Hospital, Al Ahsa, Saudi Arabia

²Department of Hepatology and Nutrition, Pediatric Prince Sultan Military Medical City, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

³Department of Pediatric Gastroenterology, Pediatric Resident King Abdulaziz Hospital, Al Ahsa, Saudi Arabia

⁴Department of Pediatric, King Abdulaziz Hospital, Al Ahsa, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

*Corresponding author: Samia Saud Al Furaikh, Department of Pediatric Gastroenterology, King Abdulaziz Hospital, Al Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, Tel: 00966505816628; E-Mail: alfuraikhsamia@gmail.com

Received date: March 1, 2021; Accepted date: March 15, 2021; Published date: March 22, 2021

Abstract

Background and Aims: Cholelithiasis is a common upper gastrointestinal tract disorder among all age groups in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Analyses of risk factors for gallstone formation may explain the need for lifestyle modifications. Therefore, our aim was to identify sex- and age related differences in the prevalence and risk factors for gallstones among Saudi individuals in the city of Al-Ahsa. **Patients/Materials and Methods:** The medical records of patients, ≥ 1 year of age, with a radiologically confirmed diagnosis of gallstones, between 2014 through 2016, were retrieved and relevant demographic and clinical data extracted. Binomial multivariate logistic regression analyses were performed to identify risk factors for cholelithiasis for three age groups: paediatric, adult, and old age patient.

Result: A total of 618 patients had radiologically confirmed gallstones over the 3-year period of observation. The prevalence was higher among females than males (73% versus 27%, respectively) in all age group. In the paediatric group, the prevalence of gallstones was higher among girls with obesity and among those with sickle cell disorders. Advanced age, a higher body mass index, high low-density lipoproteins, triglycerides, and cholesterol were independently associated with cholelithiasis in both men and women of all age groups. Hepatitis B and C were not found to be risk factors for cholelithiasis in either males or females. Increased thickness of the gall bladder wall and elevated serum amylase were noted among all age group.

Conclusions: Older age, female sex, a high body mass index, and hyperlipidaemia are major risk factors for gall stones formation among paediatric, adult, and old age patients. Haemolytic anaemia, namely sickle cell disease, is a prevalent risk factor in paediatric population.

Keywords: Cholelithiasis, risk factors, gallstones.

Introduction

An imbalance in the chemical constituents of bile components can result in the formation of gallstones of varying size and shape [1]. Cholesterol super saturation, gallbladder dysfunction and nucleation defect have been considered to play key roles in the pathogenesis of gallstone formation [2]. As such, gallstones are generally classified into three types, as follows: pure cholesterol stones, pigment stones, and mixed composition stones [1,2]. Cholesterol stones are yellow to light tan in colour, presenting with a crystalline and laminated structure on cross-section, are more commonly found in adults than children and youth, are more suitable for oral litholytic therapy, and might dissolve with bile acid therapy [3]. Pigment stones are classified into brown or black types. Black pigment stones are more common in patients with liver cirrhosis or chronic haemolytic conditions, such as thalassemia, hereditary spherocytosis, and sickle cell anaemia [4]. By comparison, brown pigment stones are formed intra-ductally in patients with decreased biliary secretion of Immunoglobulin A (IgA), as well as in those with gallbladder infection and stasis [2].

Epidemiological studies have revealed geographical influences on the prevalence rate of gallstones [5,6]. Worldwide, there appears to be higher rates of cholelithiasis in Western Caucasian, Hispanic, and Native American populations, with the rates being lower among East European, African American, and Asian populations [6]. The prevalence and incidence of gallstones in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), however, has not been well established to date and may in fact vary from region to region across the KSA [7].

The reported prevalence of gall stones among different cities of the kingdom ranged from 23% to 8.6%. In 2007, community-based study of the Asir region of the KSA, Abu-Eshy et al. reported a prevalence rate of gallstones of 11.7% [8]. In 2014, Alawad et al. reported a prevalence rate of gallstones of 10.9% in the Hail region of the northern KSA, through ultrasound screening of 4552 patients [9]. A screening of 1018 patients for gallstones, using transabdominal ultrasound, identified a prevalence rate of gallstones of 23% in the city of Al Madina, with another 5% of patients presenting with a history of cholecystectomy for gallstones [10]. A cross sectional study performed in the city of Riyadh in 2017 reported a prevalence rate of gallstones of 8.6% [11].

The traditional risk factors of cholelithiasis are the four "F", namely: fat, female, fertile, and forty [12]. Numerous adult studies have reported an association between the development of cholesterol gallstones and the following factors: obesity, a western diet, type 2 diabetes, metabolic syndrome, advanced age, female sex, parity, rapid weight loss, oestrogen therapy, total parenteral nutrition, genetic factors, and ethnicity [12]. By contrast, pigmented stones are principally caused by haemolytic blood disorders, such as sickle cell disease. The highest estimated prevalence of sickle cell disease in the KSA is in the eastern region [13]. A premarital screening program identified a prevalence rate in adult population for Sickle Cell Trait (SCT) of 17% and 1.2% for Sickle Cell Disease (SCD), while a 9 year new-born screening program reported 21% for SCT and 2.6% for SCD in eastern province [14]. Considering that 50-85% of patients with sickle cell anaemia will develop pigmented gallstones, the population of Al-Ahsa, a large oasis located in the eastern province of the KSA, with a total area of 534,000km² and a population of 1,100,000 (2010 estimate) would be at highest risk for gallstones in the KSA [15,16].

Our aim in this study was to identify the prevalence and risk factors for gallstones in governorate of Al-Ahsa, based on age and sex and to find if haemolytic anaemia is a risk factor in all age group. To the best of our knowledge, no previous study has systematically analysed the relationship between sex- and age-related risk factors and gallstone formation.

Patients/Methods and Materials

Statement of ethics

The study protocol was approved by International Medical Research Centre Scientific Committee (SP 17/036/A), and the Institutional Review Board (IRBC/354/17).

Study design

We conducted a retrospective chart review among patients, ≥ 1 year of age, with radiologically confirmed cholelithiasis at King Abdul Aziz Hospital (KAH) in the governorate of Al-Ahsa. The data collected for three consecutive years, 2014, 2015, and 2016, using electronic and manual medical records. Excluded were patients under the age of 1 year, as well as those with primary anatomic abnormalities of biliary system, with ultrasound confirming biliary sludge without gall stones, and patients with incomplete data.

The following demographic (age, sex, weight, and height) and biochemical parameters (lipid profile, serum amylase level, hepatitis B and C serology, sickle cell test, and electrophoresis) were extracted from the charts. Medical and social histories were screened for medication, smoking, alcohol use, and the presence of other comorbidities, such as diabetes and thyroid disease. For analysis, patients were classified based on their age and body mass index (BMI). Age was classified into the following three groups: group 1, 0-18 years; group 2, 19-60 years; and group 3, >60 years. The World Health Organization (WHO) classification of BMI was used, as follows: overweight, 25.0-29.9 kg/m², or obese, ≥ 30 kg/m².

Sample size was calculated using the following formula: $N = (Z_{1-\alpha})^2 \times (pq)/E$. For this sample size calculation, we used the previously published prevalence rate of cholelithiasis among Saudi population of 11.7%, at power of 0.80 and margin of error of 0.05. Taking into consideration a rate of missing variables in the medical charts of 50%, a sample size of 480 patients would be necessary to identify predictive factors for gallstones [8]. After screening, we included 636 patients in our study group.

Results

Of the 643 patients, with radiological confirmation of gallstones, enrolled into our study, 25 patients were excluded due to missing data, with the final analysis being based on the data of 618 patients, 185 males and 433 females. The age, sex, and BMI distribution of our study cohort is shown (Figure 1).

The following groups were formed for analysis: group 1, 45 paediatric patients, with a mean age of 12.2 ± 7.08 years of girls and 12.6 ± 5.52 years for boys; group 2, 509 middle-age adults, with a mean age of 38.7 ± 10.4 years for women and 37.9 ± 10.4 for men; and group 3, 64 older patients (>60 years of age), with a mean age of 71.6 ± 8.13 for women and 73.8 ± 9.99 years for men.

Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation, or count and frequency) were used for the following variables: sex and age distribution; height, weight and the calculated BMI; hepatitis B and C status; presence or absence of sickle cell disorders; total serum levels (with normal cutoffs indicated) of cholesterol (≤ 5.2 mmol/L), high-density lipoproteins (HDL, 1.0-1.3 mmol/L), low-density lipoproteins (LDL, ≤ 2.59 mmol/L), amylase (40-140 U/L), and triglyceride (TG, ≤ 1.7 mmol/L); and thickness of the gall bladder wall (<3 mm).

Multivariate logistic regression analyses were used to identify significant independent risk factors for cholelithiasis. The odds ratio (OR), and associated 95% confidence interval (CI), for cholelithiasis was calculated for each independent factor, adjusted for sex and age. p value <0.05 was considered significant.

All analyses were performed using SPSS (version 20, IBM, Chicago, IL, USA).

Distribution by BMI

The distribution of patients in each age group (groups 1 through 3) by BMI classification is shown (Table 1). About 42% of patients in group 1 (paediatric group) were obese (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m²) and 20% were overweight (BMI, 25-29.9 kg/m²). In group 2 (middle-age adults), 55% were obese and about 34% were overweight. In group 3 (older patients), 44% were obese and 37.5% were overweight. Across all three groups, a BMI ≥ 30 kg/m² (obese) was more frequent among females than males, respectively, as follows: group 1, 45.4% versus 33%; group 2, 58% versus 48.7%; and group 3, 46% versus 40%. These sex-specific differences in the proportion of obese individuals were all significant.

Distribution by lipid profile

The distribution of patients in each age group by their lipid profile is shown (Table 2). Of note, this information was available for a smaller number of patients in each age group, as follows: 14 patients in group 1 (paediatric), 212 in group 2 (middle-age adults), and 34 in group 3 (older patients).

In group 1, 57% of patients had a high cholesterol level, with 43% having a high TG level. HDL levels were low in 14.3% of males and 43% of females tested in group 1, with LDL levels being high in 28.6% of males and 57% of females tested.

In group 2, lipid profiles were available for 69 of the 148 male patients, high cholesterol level was identified in 83%, and high TG level in 86%. LDL level was high in 55%, and a HDL level <1.3 mmol/L in 72.5%. For women, lipid profiles were available for 143 of 361 patients enrolled, with high cholesterol identified in 94%, with high TGs in 93%, high LDL in 73%, and low HDL in 50%.

In group 3, lipid profiles were available in 11 of 25 men, with 91% of these men having high cholesterol, 82% had a TG level >1.7 mmol/L, 55% LDL >2.59 mmol/L, and 64% a HDL <1.3 mmol/L. Lipid profiles were available in 23 of the 39 women in this group, with 70% of these women having high cholesterol, 74% high TG values, 73% high LDL, and 64% low HDL.

Proportion of the population with haemolytic anaemia

The prevalence and distribution of haemolytic anaemia is shown (Table 3). In group 1, 25% of boys and 30% of girls tested positive for sickle cell disease. In group 2, this proportion decreased 5.8%, with no significant differences between-sex, while in group 3, of the 64 patients who underwent testing, only 1 man tested positive.

Distribution by viral hepatitis status

The distribution of patients who tested positive for HBV or HCV is shown (Table 3). None of the 20 patients in group 1 tested positive for HBV, and only 1 girl had positive serology for HCV. In group 2, HBV screening was performed in 378 patients, with a positive serology in 9 patients (2.4%). HCV screening was performed in 267 patients, with a positive serology identified in 2 women (0.6%). In group 3, none of the patients tested showed positive serology for HBV; while for HCV, of the 34 women tested, a positive serology was identified in 3 (8.8%).

Complications and outcome of gallstones

With the exception of 43 patients, all others required cholecystectomy. Cholecystectomy was performed laparoscopically in the majority of patients, with only 4 required an open approach, with one of these being a case of conversion from laparoscopic to open. Bariatric surgery was performed at the same time in 6 patients. Post-cholecystectomy recovery was unremarkable in all patients, with no significant morbidity and no incidence of mortality.

At time of presentation, biliary pancreatitis, with high serum amylase level, was evident in half (50%) of the females and 44% of the males in group 1 (paediatric). In group 2, 65% of 100 males, compared to 55% of 210 females, presented with an elevation of serum amylase. In group 3, a high serum amylase level was identified in 87.5% of males and 72% of females.

Cholecystitis, identified by a thickening of the Gall Bladder Wall (GBWT) on ultrasound, was identified in 5 children (one male 8.3% and 4 females 12.1%), compared to 72% of women and 8% in Men in group 2. 28% of women and 18% of men in group 3 showed GBWT.

Discussion

The rising prevalence of gallstone disease in the Saudi population is a cause of concern. In 1990, an increase in the frequency of cholecystectomy in the eastern province of the KSA was noticed, which reflect the increase in the incidence of gallstones [17]. Transabdominal ultrasound provides the ideal diagnostic tool to accurately determine the prevalence of gallstone disease, as it is a safe imaging technique with high sensitivity and specificity for gallstones [6]. In our study, we included patients with a diagnosis of gallstones confirmed by transabdominal ultrasound at KAH in Al-Ahsa city, over 3 consecutive years to evaluate the prevalence and sex- and agespecific risk factors for cholelithiasis. The KAH is one of the Ministry of National Guard hospitals in the KSA that provides primary, secondary, and tertiary healthcare services to National Guard employees and their families, as well as eligible Saudi citizens referred from other hospitals. It has a total bed capacity of about 300 beds. Annually about 220 cholecystectomies are performed in our hospital, with 10% being paediatric cases. This is comparable to the data for King Fahad Hospital in Almadinah Almounawarah, with a 500-bed capacity, where 400 cholecystectomies are performed on average per year [18].

We note that we excluded patients under the age of 1 year from our study as the aetiology of cholelithiasis in infants is unique, generally being related to congenital anatomical disorders, genetic diseases, ceftriaxone therapy, and total parenteral nutrition [19]. Gallstones in infancy can present with cholestasis, pale stools, sepsis, and abdominal pain but, more often, is asymptomatic and resolves spontaneously without surgical intervention [20].

Our findings of a higher prevalence of gallstones in females than males agree with previously published international observations which reported a 2-fold higher increase in the risk for gallstones in women compared to men [21-23]. Similarly, a higher prevalence among women than men has been reported for the KSA [8-11]. The underlying pathophysiology for gall stone formation in women could be related to effects of sex

hormones on bile secretion and function of the gall bladder; this is supported by a specifically higher risk of gallstone formation after menopause and in post-menopausal women using oestrogen therapy [24-26]. These findings related to cholesterol stones, with the prevalence of pigmented stone being almost equal among both sex in countries where pigmented stone is more prevalent, as in Taiwan [27]. Female sex was also found to be a risk factor for gallstones in children, where 73% of cases in our paediatric population were girls. Again, this finding agrees with previously published data [28].

Obesity and overweight are well recognized for their strong association with gallstone disease. People with obesity have a higher incidence of cholelithiasis, cholecystitis, and cholesterosis compared to lean individuals [29]. In our study group, obesity was a strong risk factor for gallstone formation in both paediatric and adult patients. Our findings also suggest that the epidemic of obesity in Saudi children has contributed significantly to the striking increase in paediatric gallstone disease.

This concurs with the findings of Mehta et al. who reported that a strong association between paediatric gall bladder cholelithiasis and obesity ($P < 0.03$) [28]. In our study a higher BMI among adults was the most important preventable risk factor that appears to largely account for the high prevalence of gallstone ($P < 0.05$). In good agreement with our study, Hung et al., in their population-based case control study, reported obesity to be a strong predictor for the development of gallstones (OR 1.89, 95% CI 1.18-3.04, $P < 0.008$), with women being at a higher risk for gallstones than men (OR 1.91, 95% CI 1.07-3.41, $P < 0.030$) [30]. Analogous findings were reported by a Mendelian randomized study that showed that an increase BMI among women was a causative factor for cholelithiasis ($P < 0.001$) [31].

It has been reported that 20-30% of all gallstones in children are due to haemolytic diseases such as sickle-cell disease, hereditary spherocytosis and thalassemia [32]. In 40-50% of paediatric cases, the underlying cause of gallstones is due to another known aetiology, including total parenteral nutrition, prolonged fasting, ileal disease or ileal resection, frusemide therapy, congenital biliary diseases, such as a choledochal cyst, chronic liver disease and progressive familial intrahepatic cholestasis (PFIC). Around 30-40% of cases are idiopathic in nature [20].

Gallstone is a common complication in children with haemoglobinopathies because of the recurrent episodes of haemolysis leading to an increase in bilirubin excretion and pigment gallstones formation. The development of pigment gallstones in patients with sickle cell disease is largely age-dependent, with 15% of cases being in children <10 years of age, 22% in children 10-14 years of age, and 36% in children 15-18 years of age, with a reported prevalence of 50% by the age of 22 years [33]. Our study findings revealed a noteworthy relationship between gallstone formation and sickle cell anemia among paediatric patients, with girls being at higher risk than boys (30.3% versus 25%). The findings from the Howard University Centre for Sickle Cell Disease study agreed with our findings, with gallstones reported in 70.6% of girls with sickle cell anaemia, compared to 55.1% in boys [34]. While Dooki et al. reported a lower rate of cholelithiasis among children with haemolytic anaemia of 13.6, Chabchoub et al from Tunisia reported similar prevalence to our study with 36.8% of paediatric patients with gallstones had haemolytic anaemias [35,36].

By contrast, in our adult group, males with sickle cell disorders were at a higher risk for gallstones than females. A retrospective review by Martin et al. reported that 25.7% of adult patients with sickle cell disease presented with an increased incidence of gallstone formation [37]. Analogous findings were reported by Gumerio et al., with an incidence rate of gallstone formation of 45% among patients with sickle cell-haemoglobin C disease and heterozygous sickle cell disease/beta-thalassemia (S β), with the average age of onset of cholelithiasis in this group being 12.5 years [38].

Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is the treatment of choice in children with clinically symptomatic disease, with the best treatment option for asymptomatic cases being a source of debate [39]. As an example, whereas the Brazilian study and the Jamaican study recommended conservative management for asymptomatic children due to lack of significant complications over a period of observation of 8 years, other investigators still recommend elective cholecystectomy as the gold standard therapy in children with sickle cell disease with asymptomatic cholelithiasis to prevent potential complications, such as cholecystitis and choledocholithiasis, as well as postoperative complications (sickle cell crisis) when emergency cholecystectomy is performed [37,40].

In our analyses, high serum cholesterol ($p < 0.027$), TG ($p < 0.011$), and LDL ($p < 0.006$), and low HDL ($p < 0.03$) were associated with a higher risk of gallstones, particularly among women. These findings were in good agreement with previous cross-sectional and prospective investigations [41,42]. A population-based study conducted in China by Andreotti et al. [42] reported that high serum levels of TG and low levels of HDL were associated with an elevated risk for biliary stones, as well as biliary tract cancer. Malik et al. agreed that the prevalence of cholelithiasis was higher among women than men with a hyperlipidaemic profile (80% versus 71.42%) [43]. This study also revealed that hypercholesteremia was the most common abnormality in both sexes, followed by hypertriglyceridemia, and that lipid profiles improved up to 6 months after cholecystectomy, but that HDL remained unchanged. A spectrometric study further supported these findings, reported a linear correlation between high cholesterol and the rate of gallstones ($P < 0.05$), with a similar linear correlation for LDL levels ($P < 0.001$) [44]. Bhatti et al. reported strong relationship between gallstone formation and a fatty liver, particularly among adult females [41].

The occurrence of cholelithiasis was not associated with either hepatitis B or C infection in our study. Analogous findings were reported in a systemic literature review, indicating a null relationship between hepatitis B infection and cholelithiasis [45]. Of note, a community-based study in Taiwan did report a positive linear relationship between gallstone formation and hepatitis C, but not B, among males [46]. Our findings could be explained by the fact that the prevalence of hepatitis B is rapidly declining in the KSA due to the premarital screening program and efficacy of the immunization program by our national health organization. Finally, we did identify that 13.4% of our patients in the 2015 had type 2 diabetic patients, with a comparable prevalence rate of 10% in 2016. We note that 25.5% of patients in both years used calcium and vitamin D supplementation for not less than 2 months prior to surgery. Data for 2014 was incomplete regarding this information.

Conclusion

In conclusion, female sex and a higher BMI in both paediatric and adult population have strong relation to gall stone. Advanced age, hypercholesteremia, hypertriglyceridemia, elevated serum LDL, and low HDL are contributing factors to development of gallstones among all age groups and in both genders. Sickle cell anaemia is a significant risk factor for cholelithiasis for the paediatric population in the region of Al-Ahsa.

Limitation

This study is a retrospective chart review including only patients visiting the hospital and not general population. Therefore, an effect of selection bias cannot be denied.

References

1. Njeze GE (2013) Gallstones. Niger J Surg 19:49-55.
2. Al Mofleh IA (1995) Gallstones. Saudi J Gastroenterol 1:173-179.
3. Di Ciaula A, Wang DQ-H, Wang HH, Bonfrate L, Portincasa P (2010) Targets for current Pharmacological Therapy in Cholesterol Gallstone Disease. Gastroenterol Clin North Am 39:245-ix.
4. Stewart L, Oesterle AL, Erdan I, Griffiss JM, Way LW (2002) Pathogenesis of pigment Gallstones in Western societies: the central role of bacteria. J Gastrointest Surg 6:891-903; discussion 903-904.
5. Chang YR, Jang JY, Kwon W, Park JW, Kang MJ, et al. (2013) Changes in demographic features of gallstone disease: 30 years of surgically treated patients. Gut Liver 7:719-724.
6. Stinton LM, Shaffer EA (2012) Epidemiology of gallbladder disease: Cholelithiasis and cancer. Gut Liver 6:172-187.
7. Zahrani IH, Mansoor I (2001) Gallbladder pathologies and cholelithiasis. Saudi Med J 22:885-889.
8. Abu-Eshy SA, Mahfouz AA, Badr A, El Gamal MN, Al-Shehri MY, et al. (2007) Prevalence and risk factors of gallstone disease in a high altitude Saudi population. East Mediterr Health J 13:794-802.
9. Alawad MN, Almotlaq AM, Alorf SH, Alshammari NH, Almhanna AM et al. (2014) Ultrasound prevalence of gallbladder disease in Hail, Saudi Arabia. Int J Sci Res 5:2019-2020.
10. Alshoabi S (2016) Gallstones: Site, size, number, prevalence and complications by ultrasonography. Int J Med Imag 4:52-56.
11. Alishi YA, Howaish FA, Alhamdan FA, Almalki AA, Algahtani SA, et al. (2017) Prevalence and risk factors for gallstone s among population in Riyadh City, KSA 2017. Egypt J Hosp Med 69:2384-2388.
12. Pak M1, Lindseth G (2016) Risk factors for cholelithiasis. Gastroenterol Nurs 39:297-309.
13. Al Qurashi MM, El-Mouzan MI, Al-Herbish A, Al-Salloum A, Al-Omar A (2008) The prevalence of sickle cell disease in Saudi children and adolescents. A community-based survey. Saudi Med J 29:1480-1483.
14. Jastaniah W (2011) Epidemiology of sickle cell disease in Saudi Arabia. Ann Saudi Med 31:289-293.
15. Al-Mulhim AS, Al-Mulhim AA (2009) Laparoscopic cholecystectomy in 427 adults with sickle cell disease: a single-center experience. Surg Endosc 23:1599-1602.
17. The Saudi Network <http://www.the-saudi.net/saudi-arabia/saudi-informations.htm>
18. Tamimi TM, Wosornu L, al-Khozaim A, Abdul-Ghani A (1990) Increased cholecystectomy rates in Saudi Arabia. Lancet 336:1235-1237.

19. Ahmed AF, El-Hassan OM, Mahmoud ME (1992) Risk factors for gallstone formation in young Saudi women: A case control study. *Ann Saudi Med* 12:395-399.
20. Debray D, Pariente D, Gauthier F, Myara A, Bernard O (1993) Cholelithiasis in infancy: a study of 40 cases. *J Pediatr* 122:385-391.
21. Poddar U (2010) Gallstone disease in children. *Indian Paediatr* 47:945-953.
22. Völzke H1, Baumeister SE, Alte D, Hoffmann W, Schwahn C, et al. (2005) Independent risk factors for gallstone formation in a region with high cholelithiasis prevalence. *Digestion* 71:97-105.
23. Parambil SM, Matad S, Soman KC (2017) Epidemiological, demographic and risk factor profile in patients harbouring various types of gallbladder calculi: a cross sectional study from a south Indian tertiary care hospital. *Int Surg J* 4:525-528.
24. Shaffer EA (2005) Epidemiology and risk factors for gallstone disease: has the paradigm changed in the 21st century? *Curr Gastroenterol Rep* 7:132-140.
25. Cirillo DJ, Wallace RB, Rodabough RJ, Greenland P, LaCroix AZ (2005) Effect of oestrogen therapy on gallbladder disease. *JAMA* 293:330-339.
26. Simonsen MH, Erichsen R, Frøslev T, Rungby J, Sørensen HT (2013) Postmenopausal estrogen therapy and risk of gallstone disease: a population-based case-control study. *Drug Saf* 36:1189-1197.
27. Wang S, Wang Y, Xu J, Chen Y (2017) Is the oral contraceptive or hormone replacement therapy a risk factor for cholelithiasis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Medicine* 96:e6556.
28. Chen CH, Huang MH, Yang JC, Nien CK, Etheredge GD, et al. (2006). Prevalence and risk factors of gallstone disease in an adult population of Taiwan: an epidemiological survey. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 21:1737-1743.
29. Mehta S, Lopez ME, Chumpitazi BP, Mazziotti MV, Brandt ML, et al. (2012) Clinical characteristics and risk factors for symptomatic pediatric gallbladder disease. *Pediatrics* 129:e82-e88.
30. Camilleri M, Malhi H, Acosta A (2017) Gastrointestinal complications of obesity. *Gastroenterol* 152:1656-1670.
31. Hung SH, Liao KF, Lai SW, Li CI, Chen WC (2011) Risk factors associated with symptomatic cholelithiasis in Taiwan: a population-based study. *BMC Gastroenterol* 11:111.
32. Stender S, Nordestgaard BG, Tybjaerg-Hansen A (2013) Elevated body mass index as a causal risk factor for symptomatic gallstone disease: a Mendelian randomization study. *Hepatol* 58:2133-2141.
33. Holcomb GW Jr, Holcomb GW III (1990) Cholelithiasis in infants, children, and adolescents. *Pediatr Rev* 11:268-74.
34. Currò G, Meo A, Ippolito D, Pusiolo A, Cucinotta E (2007) Asymptomatic cholelithiasis in children with sickle cell disease: Early or delayed Cholecystectomy? *Ann Surg* 245:126-129.
35. Alexander-Reindorf C, Nwaneri RU, Worrell RG, Ogbonna A, Uzoma C (1990) The significance of gallstones in children with sickle cell anemia. *J Natl Med Assoc* 82:645-650.
36. Dooki M-RE, Norouzi A (2013) Cholelithiasis in childhood: A cohort study in north of Iran. *Iran J Pediatr* 23:588-592.
37. Chabchoub I, Bouraouia I, Maaleja B, Aloulou H, Mahfoudh A, et al. (2010) Cholelithiasis in children: A single centre experience. *Arab J Gastroenterol* 11: 215-218.
38. Martins RA, Soares RS, Vito FBD, de Fatima Barbosa V, Silva SS et al. (2017) Cholelithiasis and its complications in sickle cell disease in a university hospital. *Revista Brasileira de Hematologia e Hemoterapia* 39:28-31.
39. Gumiero APS, Bellomo-Brandão MA, Costa-Pinto EAL (2008) Gallstones in children with sickle cell disease followed up at a Brazilian hematology center. *Arq Gastroenterol* 45:313-318.
40. Al Talhi Y, Shirah BH, Altowairqi M, Yousef Y (2017) Laparoscopic cholecystectomy for cholelithiasis in children with sickle cell disease. *Clin J Gastroenterol* 10:320-326.
41. Walker TM, Hambleton IR, Serjeant GR (2000) Gallstones in sickle cell disease: observations from the Jamaica Cohort study. *J Pediatr* 136:80-85.
42. Bhatti AY, Waqar AB, Zia SA, Hussain N, Sulfiqar T (2016) A cross sectional study on the risk factors of gallbladder stone. *Int J Res Med Sci* 4:5041-5046.
43. Andreotti G, Chen J, Gao YT, Rashid A, Chang SC et al. (2008) Serum lipid levels and the risk of biliary tract cancers and biliary stones: A population-based study in China. *Int J Cancer* 122:2322-2329.
44. Malik AA, Wani ML, Tak SI, Irshad I, Ul-Hassan N (2011) Association of dyslipidaemia with cholelithiasis and effect of cholecystectomy on the same. *Int J Surg* 9:641-642.
45. Atamanalp SS, Keles MS, Atamanalp RS, Acemoglu H, Laloglu E (2013) The effects of serum cholesterol, LDL, and HDL levels on gallstone cholesterol concentration. *Pak J Med Sci* 29:187-190.
46. Wijarnpreecha K, Thongprayoon C, Panjawatanan P, Manatsathit W, Ungprasert P (2016) Hepatitis B virus infection and risk of gallstones: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 28:1437-1442.
47. Dai C, Lin CI, Yeh ML, Hsieh MH, Huang CF et al. (2013) Association between gallbladder stones and chronic hepatitis C: ultrasonographic survey in a hepatitis C and B hyperendemic township in Taiwan. *Kaohsiung J Med Sci* 29:430-435.