Generalized joint hypermobility among school-aged children in Majmaah region, Saudi Arabia

Mohamed Sherif Sirajudeen Corresp., Equal first author, 1 , **Mohamed Waly** Equal first author, 2 , **Mazen Alqahtani** 1 , **Msaad Alzhrani** 1 , **Fahad Aldhafiri** 3 , **Hariraja Muthusamy** 1 , **Radhakrishnan Unnikrishnan** 1 , **Rashmi Saibannavar** 1 , **Wafa Alrubaia** 1 , **Gopal Nambi** 4

1 Department of Physical Therapy and Health Rehabilitation, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Majmaah University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia

2 Department of Medical Equipment Technology, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Majmaah University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia

3 Department of Public Health and Health Informatics, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Majmaah University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia

4 Department of Physical Therapy and Health Rehabilitation, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Prince Sattam Bin Abdul Aziz University, Alkharj, Saudi Arabia

Corresponding Author: Mohamed Sherif Sirajudeen
Email address: m.sirajudeen@mu.edu.sa

Generalized joint hypermobility (GJH) is common among schoolchildren and usually benign. However, it may progressively lead to joint pain and developmental delay. Identifying GJH in school-aged children would facilitate the monitoring of early changes and planning for early rehabilitative intervention. Epidemiological studies addressing the prevalence of GJH among children in the Gulf region and Arab ethnicity are lacking. Hence, we aimed to determine the prevalence, pattern, and factors associated with GJH among school-aged children in the Majmaah region, Saudi Arabia. Male and female school-aged children 8–14 years of age from the Majmaah region of Saudi Arabia participated in this cross-sectional study. Beighton score was used to assess GJH. Personal characteristics such as age, height, weight, body mass index, and handedness were also collected. Descriptive statistics were obtained for personal characteristics, the point prevalence of hypermobility, frequency of Beighton score distribution, and prevalence of GJH. The associations between specific factors and the presence of GJH were analyzed using chi-square and Mann-whitney tests. Using the Beighton score cutoff ≥4 and ≥6, 15.2% and 7.6% of the school children in our study were diagnosed with GJH respectively. The prevalence of GJH was higher among females (16.8%) than among males (13.4%), but the difference was not statistically significant. The elbow joints (17.2%) were the most common hypermobile joints and the trunk (0.7%) was the least involved. The children with GJH were younger and had lesser BMI compared to children without GJH (P<0.05). The prevalence reported in this study among school-aged children was comparable with those reported worldwide.

1 ORIGINAL RESEARCH

2 Generalized joint hypermobility among school-aged children in
3 Majmaah region, Saudi Arabia

5 Mohamed Sherif Sirajudeen[1], Mohamed Waly[2,], Mazen Alqahtani[1], Msaad Alzhrani[1], Fahad Aldhafiri[3], Hariraja

6 Muthusamy[1], Radhakrishnan Unnikrishnan[1], Rashmi Saibannavar[1], Wafa Alrubaia[1], Gopal Nambi[4]

7 [1]Department of Physical Therapy and Health Rehabilitation, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Majmaah

8 University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia; [2]Department of Medical Equipment Technology, College of Applied

9 Medical Sciences, Majmaah University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia; [3]Department of Public Health and Health

10 Informatics, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Majmaah University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia;

11 [4]Department of Physical Therapy and Health Rehabilitation, College of Applied Medical Sciences, Prince Sattam

12 Bin Abdul Aziz University, Alkharj, Saudi Arabia

14 **Correspondence:** Dr. Mohamed Sherif Sirajudeen

15 Assistant Professor

16 Department of Physical Therapy and Health Rehabilitation

17 College of Applied Medical Sciences

18 Majmaah University, Majmaah 11952, Saudi Arabia

19 E-mail: m.sirajudeen@mu.edu.sa

22 **Abstract**

23 Generalized joint hypermobility (GJH) is common among schoolchildren and usually benign.

24 However, it may progressively lead to joint pain and developmental delay. Identifying GJH in

25 school-aged children would facilitate the monitoring of early changes and planning for early

26 rehabilitative intervention. Epidemiological studies addressing the prevalence of GJH among

27 children in the Gulf region and Arab ethnicity are lacking. Hence, we aimed to determine the

28 prevalence, pattern, and factors associated with GJH among school-aged children in the Majmaah

29 region, Saudi Arabia. Male and female school-aged children 8–14 years of age from the Majmaah

30 region of Saudi Arabia participated in this cross-sectional study. Beighton score was used to assess

31 GJH. Personal characteristics such as age, height, weight, body mass index, and handedness were

32 also collected. Descriptive statistics were obtained for personal characteristics, the point

33 prevalence of hypermobility, frequency of Beighton score distribution, and prevalence of GJH.

34 The associations between specific factors and the presence of GJH were analyzed using chi-square

35 and Mann-whitney tests. Using the Beighton score cutoff ≥4 and ≥6, 15.2% and 7.6% of the school

36 children in our study were diagnosed with GJH respectively. The prevalence of GJH was higher

37 among females (16.8%) than among males (13.4%), but the difference was not statistically

38 significant. The elbow joints (17.2%) were the most common hypermobile joints and the trunk

39 (0.7%) was the least involved. The children with GJH were younger and had lesser BMI compared

40 to children without GJH (P<0.05). The prevalence reported in this study among school-aged

41 children was comparable with those reported worldwide.

42 **Keywords:** Beighton score, Joint hypermobility, Ligamentous laxity, Prevalence, Children, Saudi

43 Arabia

44

Introduction

45   **Introduction**

46   An increase in mobility of one or more joints compared to the normal range is referred to as joint

47   hypermobility (*Romeo et al., 2016*). Ligament laxity is the primary cause of joint hypermobility

48   (*Grahame, 2000*). Ligament laxity and the resulting joint hypermobility are cardinal features of

49   genetic disorders such as Marfan syndrome, Ehlers-Danlos syndrome, or osteogenesis imperfecta

50   *(Armon et al., 2012)*. However, in most cases, joint hypermobility is observed as a confined

51   phenomenon referred to as generalized joint hypermobility (GJH). Rarely, in the absence of any

52   genetic disorders, joint hypermobility is associated with features such as arthralgia, back pain,

53   dislocation/subluxation, soft tissue rheumatic disorders, marfanoid habitus, skin abnormalities, eye

54   signs, incompetence of the lower-limb vessel valves, or rectal hernia or prolapse and is termed

55   joint hypermobility syndrome (*Alsiri et al., 2020; Armon et al., 2012; Clinch et al., 2011; Palmer*

56   *et al., 2014; Palmer et al., 2015*).

57   The reported occurrence of GJH in children aged 6–15 years varies between 8.8%

58   (*Vougiouka et al., 2000*) and 64.6% (*Lamari et al., 2005*). The prevalence of GJH is high in girls

59   and declines with age (*Bird et al., 1978; Bulbena et al., 1992; Hudson et al., 1995; Larsson et al.,*

60   *1987; Silman et al., 1987*). In a study of Swedish school children, Jansson et al. reported that girls

61   presented with marked joint hypermobility versus boys regardless of age. However, the

62   presentation of joint laxity in boys decreases as age increases, whereas joint laxity peaks in girls

63   at 15 years of age (*Jansson et al., 2004*). Earlier researchers demonstrated an influence of ethnic

64   background on GJH; specifically, a high prevalence of GJH among Asian and African populations

65   compared to the Western population (*Beighton et al., 1973; Bird, 2005; Carter et al., 1964; Jessee*

66   *et al., 1980*). However, the prevalence of GJH in Arabic children is lacking in the literature

67   (*Sirajudeen, 2020*).

68   Beighton score is a valid and reliable tool used worldwide to screen joint hypermobility

69   (*Juul et al., 2007; Smits-Engelsman et al., 2011*). Beighton's method includes the assessment of

70   hypermobility in nine joints (bilateral thumbs, bilateral little fingers, bilateral elbows, bilateral

71   knees, and trunk). The score ranges from 0 to 9; 1 point is awarded for the participant's ability to

72   perform each component of the test (*Beighton et al., 1973)*. All nine tests were easy to perform

73   and provide quantitative data. Earlier prevalence studies adopted cutoffs ranging from ≥3 to ≥6

74   hypermobile joints for the diagnosis of GJH. The most frequent choice of cutoff score for GJH

75   was ≥4 (*Clinch et al., 2011*). International Consortium on the Ehlers Danlos syndromes (EDS)

76   proposed cut-off score of ≥6 for diagnosis of GJH for pre-pubertal children and adolescents

77   *(Malfait et al., 2017; Reuter et al., 2019)*. A recent systematic review on Measurement Properties

78   of Clinical Assessment Methods for Classifying Generalized Joint Hypermobility also

79   recommended a cut-off of minimum ≥6 for diagnosis of GJH in children *(Juul et al., 2017)*. Juul

80   et al. and Smits-Engelsman et al. recommended the administration of standard protocols in children

81   (*Juul et al., 2007; Smits-Engelsman et al., 2011*).

82   Prevalence studies related GJH cater vital data about the burden of this entity in each

83   population reflected by number of individuals affected. This provide valuable input to plan the

84   healthcare needs. GJH is common among schoolchildren and usually benign. However, it may lead

85   to joint pain and developmental delay *(Jaffe et al., 1988)*. Identifying GJH during the school years

86   would facilitate the monitoring of early changes and planning for early rehabilitative intervention

87   (*Lamari et al., 2005*). Epidemiological studies addressing the prevalence of GJH among children

88   reflecting Arab ethnicity in the Gulf region are lacking (*Sirajudeen, 2020*). Hence, this study, the

89   first of its kind in Saudi Arabia and the entire Gulf region, aimed to explore the prevalence of GJH

90   and its associated factors in school-aged children in the Majmaah region.

91

Methods

93 *Study design, setting, and participants*

94 Male and female school-aged children aged 8–14 years from the Majmaah region of Saudi Arabia

95 participated in this cross-sectional study. Permission was obtained from the Information and

96 Planning Authority for Education – Majmaah, under the Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia.

97 Majmaah region consists of 15 primary schools with 1755 children belonging to the 8 -14 age

98 group. Out of the which, 3 schools were selected by cluster sampling method and all the 311

99 children were approached for the study. A letter describing the study design and seeking the

100 cooperation of Headteachers of Schools was sent. The data were collected between October and

101 December 2018 in their respective schools. Children with any apparent or reported disabilities

102 such as cognitive, developmental, or bodily as per the medical data available in school were not

103 included in this study (*Romeo et al., 2016*).

104

105 *Anthropometry measurements*

106 Data related to personal characteristics like age (years), sex, height (centimeters), and weight

107 (kilograms) were collected. Height and weight were measured by the gold standard method (in

108 bare feet; measured to the closest 1 cm and 100 g, respectively). The body mass index (BMI)

109 calculation was performed using a metric formula, weight (in kilograms) divided by height (in

110 meters squared) and children were sorted as underweight (BMI < 18.5), ideal weight (BMI 18.5–

111 24.9), overweight (BMI 25–29.9), or obese (BMI > 30) as per the recommended criteria (*Gerver*

112 *& de Bruin, 2001*).

113

114   ***Beighton score for screening GJH***

115   The screening criteria comprises five clinical tests; each was assigned 0 or 1 based on the subject's

116   ability to complete it. These test scores are summed at the end, and the totals range from 0 to 9.

117   1. Researcher passively performs thumb apposition to the flexor side of the forearm on the

118   right and left sides, and a score of 1 is awarded if the entire thumb touches the flexor side

119   of the forearm (90° of shoulder flexion with elbow extension and forearm pronation);

120   2. Researcher passively performs dorsiflexion of the 5th metacarpophalangeal joint on the

121   right and left sides $\geq 90°$ (sitting on chair, arm abducted to 80°, elbow flexed to 90°, forearm

122   resting on the table in pronation);

123   3. Researcher passively performs hyperextension of the elbow joint on the right and left sides

124    $\geq 10°$ (with subject on a chair with shoulder positioned to 90° of flexion with forearm

125   supinated);

126   4. Researcher passively performs hyperextension of the knee on the right and left sides $\geq 10°$

127   (subject positioned supine lying with legs supported on a table); and

128   5. Subjects asked to flex the trunk with knees in the extended position so that palms rest easily

129   on the ground (*Smits-Engelsman et al., 2011*).

130   The cutoff score ≥ 4 identified GJH (*Clinch et al., 2011*). A cutoff score ≥ 6 was used to analyze

131   any association. A 360° universal goniometer was used to measure joint angles. The measurements

132   and Beighton maneuvers were performed by two physical therapists with 15 years of experience

133   in the pediatric practice and research. The inter-rater reliability of the therapists was measured in

134   20 subjects and determined as 0.98 (Intraclass correlation).

135

136   *Sample size calculation*

137   We calculated sample size using the Sample Size Calculation for Estimating a Single Proportion

138   method. Since this is the first study to investigate the prevalence of GJH in the entire Gulf region,

139   we used the prevalence of 16% reported among Egypt children *(El-Garf et al., 1998)*. The required

140   sample size was 207 with 95% confidence and 5% absolute precision.

141

142   *Ethical consideration*

143   Approval was obtained from Majmaah University Ethical Committee (no. MUREC –

144   Oct21/COM-2018/6). Each child's parents were provided information about the study, after which

145   they provided a written informed consent to permit their child to participate in the research.

146   Moreover, assent was also obtained from the participating children before their enrollment in this

147   study.

148

149   *Statistical analysis*

150   The data were recorded in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and analyzed using SPSS (version 17.0)

151   for Windows. Descriptive statistics were obtained for personal characteristics, the point prevalence

152   of hypermobility, and frequency of Beighton score distribution. The prevalence of GJH was

153   calculated by dividing the number of children diagnosed with GJH (Beighton cutoff score ≥ 4 or

154   ≥ 6) by the total number of students who participated in the study. The data were tested for

155   normality and homogeneity of variance for deciding appropriate statistics. The chi-square statistic

156   was used to compute the association between binary variables and the presence/absence of GJH.

157   The Mann-whitney test was used to determine association between the continuous variables and

158 the presence/absence of GJH. The level of probability of 5% was used to indicate statistical

159 significance.

160

161 **Results**

162 Out of 311 children approached, eight were sick on the day of examination. A total of 303 children

163 participated in this study. Their personal characteristics are presented in Table 1. Most of the

164 participating children were female (53.1%). The mean age of the children was 10.74 years and

165 ranged from 8 to 14 years. Most of the children were underweight (53.1%), whereas 34.7%, 7.9%,

166 and 4.3% were normal weight, overweight, and obese, respectively. Most of the participants were

167 right-handed (95.7%).

168   The distribution of the total Beighton score of the participants is presented in Table 2. Most

169 of the participants (75.6%) did not exhibit hypermobility in any of the tested joints (Beighton score,

170 0). None of the participants in this present study demonstrated hypermobility in all tested sites.

171 The occurrence of GJH as formulated by a Beighton cutoff score ≥4 in the 303 participated primary

172 school children was 15.2% (males, 13.4%; and females, 16.8%). When a more vigorous cutoff

173 (≥6) was used, the prevalence was 7.6% (males, 4.5%; and females, 9.9%).

174   Table 3 represents the distribution of the participants' joint hypermobility. The occurrence

175 of hypermobility was high in the elbows (17.2%), followed by the thumbs (12.5%), little fingers

176 (12.5%), knees (8.6%), and trunk (0.7%). The proportion of males and females with hypermobility

177 of left little finger (15.5% in males vs. 8.1% in females), right little finger (18.3% in males vs.

178 7.4% in females), left thumb (4.9% in males vs. 19.2% in females) and right thumb (4.9% in males

179 vs. 18% in females) were statistically significant (P<0.05). Trunk hypermobility in males was

180   unusual, as none of our 142 male subjects could place their palms flat on the ground with the knees

181   in full extension.

182   The association between personal characteristics and GJH is summarized in Table 4. The

183   prevalence of GJH was higher among females (16.8%) than males (13.4%), but this difference was

184   not statistically significant. The children with GJH (Cut-off ≥4) were younger compared to

185   children without GJH. The difference in age was statistically significant (P< 0.05) for the entire

186   sample and marginally significant (P = 0.05) in males but not in females. The BMI of children

187   with GJH was lesser compared to children without GJH. The difference in BMI was statistically

188   significant (P< 0.05) for the entire sample (Cut-off ≥4) and in females (Cut-off ≥4 and ≥6) but not

189   in males. The children with GJH were similar to children without GJH with regard to hand

190   dominance.

191   **Discussion**

192   This is the first study in the entire Gulf region, reflecting the Arab ethnicity, to report the

193   prevalence of GJH among school children aged 8–14 years. In the present study, the prevalence of

194   GJH was 15.2% with use of the cutoff score ≥4 hypermobile joints from the 9-point Beighton

195   scoring system. The prevalence reported in our study is comparable to those reported of children

196   in Denmark (9.4%), Egypt (16%), and the United Kingdom (19.2%) but lower than those reported

197   of children in Iceland (27.7%), Italy (35.4%), and India (61.2%) (*Clinch et al., 2011; El-Garf et*

198   *al., 1998; Gyldenkerne et al., 2007; Hasija et al., 2008; Leone et al., 2009; Qvindesland &*

199   *Jonsson,1999*) . The difference in the prevalence of GJH reported in this study as compared to

200   some other locations may be attributed to the ethnic influence. Earlier researchers also

201   demonstrated an influence of ethnic background on GJH; specifically, a high prevalence of GJH

202   among Asian and African populations compared to the Western population (*Beighton et al., 1973;*

203 *Bird, 2005; Carter et al., 1964; Jessee et al., 1980*). The prevalence of GJH was higher among

204 females (16.8%) than males (13.4%), but this difference was not statistically significant (P < 0.05).

205 This finding is consistent with the rates reported by El-Garf et al. of Egyptian children (males,

206 14.4%; females, 18%) (*El-Garf et al., 1998*). Gyldenkerne et al. reported a significantly higher

207 occurrence of GJH among female children (16.6%) than among male children (3%) in Denmark

208 (*Gyldenkerne et al., 2007*). None of the earlier studies reported a higher incidence of GJH in males

209 than in females (*Clinch et al., 2011; El-Garf et al., 1998; Gyldenkerne et al., 2007; Hasija et al.,*

210 *2008; Leone et al., 2009; Qvindesland & Jonsson,1999*).

211   The female children in our study predominantly presented with hypermobility of the thumb

212 and elbow, whereas the male children were commonly presented with hypermobility at the fingers

213 and elbows. It was fascinating that our subjects showed considerably less hypermobility in the

214 lumbar spine. This may be described by the factuality that the most of the range of flexion of the

215 lumbar spine is a conjoint of extensibility of the hamstrings and actual vertebral flexion (*Corben*

216 *et al., 2008*); short hamstrings would be a factors that are associated with reduced lumbar flexion

217 in males (*Gajdosik et al., 1994*). A perceived reduction in flexion of the lumbar spine may have

218 been caused by tight hamstrings, which in turn could be a reason for the low occurrence of

219 hypermobility of the lumbar spine among the boys in the present study.

220   In our study, the rate of hypermobility decreased as age increased in male but not female

221 subjects. Studies of Egyptian and Swedish children reported an inverse age-related decrease in the

222 prevalence of GJH in both males and females (*El-Garf et al., 1998; Jansson et al., 2004*). The

223 degree of collagen cross-linking is related to joint hypermobility, which is believed to increase the

224 collagen's ability to attract and hold water and thereby increase joint mobility. As age increases,

225 body water decreases and cross-linking of collagen molecules increases, accounting for the

226   decrease in joint hypermobility. Increased muscle fiber diameter is another factor that would

227   reduce joint mobility at an older age (*Lamari et al., 2005; Smits-Engelsman et al., 2011*). Beighton

228   et al. stated that joint laxity is at its maximum at birth and decreases quickly during childhood, less

229   quickly in adolescence, and more slowly during adulthood (*Beighton et al., 1999*).

230   In our study, the prevalence of GJH was positively associated with BMI in females but not

231   in males. The BMI of female children with GJH was lesser compared to those without GJH. Clinch

232   et al. also reported a positive association between GJH and BMI among females but not males.

233   But in their study, obese females were 2.7 times more likely to be hypermobile than underweight

234   females (*Clinch et al., 2011*). In contrast, a previous study from India reported an association

235   between hypermobility and moderate to severe malnutrition (*Hasija et al., 2008*). Using cut-off

236   ≥6, the prevalence of GJH was associated with BMI in females and not in males. No other

237   associations were seen using cut-off ≥6 to define GJH. A previous study in the United Kingdom

238   using a Beighton score cutoff ≥6 compared with ≥4 to measure generalized joint laxity (GJL),

239   reported stronger evidence of associations between physical activity and maternal education. The

240   authors also suggested raising the cutoff from ≥4 to ≥6 to determine GJH (*Clinch et al., 2011*). We

241   also recommend the use of criteria proposed by International Consortium on the EDS; Cut-off ≥6

242   for prepubertal children and adolescents to define GJH in the future studies *(Malfait et al., 2017)*.

243   This will hopefully facilitate comparison between the results and reduces the ambiguity in the

244   future.

245

246   ***Study limitations***

247   One of the limitations of the present study is that the clinical symptoms studied by previous

248   researchers were not assessed (*El-Garf et al., 1998; Hasija et al., 2008; Leone et al., 2009;*

249   *Qvindesland & Jonsson,1999; Seçkin et al., 2005*). Thus, the correlations between GJH and

250   clinical symptoms are unclear. Al-Rawi et al., who studied university students aged 20–24 years,

251   reported a correlation between joint hypermobility and symptoms/signs including joint complaints

252   and ligamentous sprains (*Al-Rawi et al., 1985*). Mikkelson and Qvindesland studied 12-year-old

253   children and reported that hypermobility was not associated with any kind of joint symptoms

254   (*Grahame, 1999; Mikkelsson et al., 1996; Qvindesland & Jonsson,1999*). A further limitation of

255   the present study is that parental or sibling hypermobility, which could be an added risk factor for

256   hypermobility, was not assessed. Like the limitations encountered in any other observational

257   studies, we can neither rule out confounders and chance nor establish causal or temporal

258   relationships of the reported associations.

259

260   **Conclusion**

261   Using the Beighton score cutoff ≥ 4 and ≥ 6, 15.2% and 7.6% of the school children in our study

262   were diagnosed with GJH respectively. The prevalence reported in this study among school-aged

263   children was comparable with those reported worldwide. The elbow joints were the most common

264   hypermobile joints and the trunk was the least involved. The children with GJH were younger and

265   had lesser BMI compared to children without GJH.

266

267

268   **Acknowledgments**

269   The authors thank the Deanship of Scientific Research at Majmaah University for supporting this

270   work (project no. 38/146). The authors also thank the Information and Planning Authority for

271   Education – Majmaah, under the Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia, for permitting this study.

272   Finally, the authors thank the school authorities, school children, and parents for their cooperation

273   and participation in this research.

274

275   **Disclosure**

276   The authors report no conflicts of interest in this work.

277

278

279   **References**

280   Al-Rawi ZS, Al-Aszawi AJ, Al-Chalabi T. 1985. Joint mobility among university students in

281   Iraq. *Br J Rheumatol* 24:326–331.

282

283   Alsiri N, Cramp M, Barnett S, Palmer S. 2020. Gait biomechanics in joint hypermobility

284   syndrome: a spatiotemporal, kinematic and kinetic analysis. *Musculoskeletal Care* : 1– 14.

285

286   Armon K, Bale P. 2012. Identifying heritable connective tissue disorders in childhood. *The*

287   *Practitioner* 256(1752):19-24.

288

289   Beighton P, Solomon L, Soskolne CL. 1973. Articular mobility in an African population. *Ann*

290   *Rheum Dis* 32:413–418.

291

292   Beighton P, Grahame R, Bird H. Hypermobility of joints. 1999. 3rd ed. London: Springer-

293   Verlag.

294

295   Bird HA, Tribe CR, Bacon PA. 1978. Joint hypermobility leading to osteoarthrosis and

296   chondrocalcinosis. *Ann Rheum Dis* 37:203–211.

297

298   Bird HA. 2005. Joint hypermobility in children. *Rheumatology* 44:703–704.

299

300   Bulbena A, Duro JC, Porta M, Faus S, Vallescar R. 1992. Clinical assessment of hypermobility

301   of joints: assembling criteria. *J Rheumatol* 19:115–122.

302

303   Carter C, Wilkinson J. 1964. Persistent joint laxity and congenital dislocation of the hip. *J Bone

304   Joint Surg Br* 46:40–45.

305

306   Clinch J, Deere K, Sayers A, Palmer S, Riddoch C, Tobias JH, Clark EM. 2011. Epidemiology

307   of generalized joint laxity (hypermobility) in fourteen-year-old children from the UK: a

308   population-based evaluation. *Arthritis Rheumatism* 63:2819–2827.

309

310   Corben T, Lewis JS, Petty NJ. 2008. Contribution of lumbar spine and hip movements during

311   the palms to floor test in individuals with diagnosed hypermobility syndrome. *Physiother

312   Theory Pract* 24:1–12.

313

314   El-Garf AK, Mahmoud GA, Mahgoub EH. 1998. Hypermobility among Egyptian children:

315   prevalence and features. *J Rheumatol* 25:1003–1005.

316

317   Gajdosik RL, Albert CR, Mitman JJ. 1994. Influence of hamstring length on the standing

318   position and flexion range of motion of the pelvic angle, lumbar angle and thoracic angle. *J

319   Orthop Sports Phys Ther* 20:213–219.

320

321   Gerver WJM, de Bruin R. 2001. Paediatric morphometrics: A reference manual. 2nd ed.

322   Maastricht, Germany: Universitaire Pers Maastricht.

323

324   Grahame R. 1999. Joint hypermobility and genetic collagen disorders: are they related? *Arch

325   Dis Child* 80:188–191.

326

327   Grahame R. 2000. Hypermobility—not a circus act. *Int J Clin Pract* 54:314–315.

328

329 Gyldenkerne B, Iversen K, Roegind H, Fastrup D, Hall K, Remvig L. 2007. Prevalence of

330 general hypermobility in 12–13-year-old school children and impact of an intervention against

331 injury and pain incidence. *Advan Physiother* 9:10–15.

332

333 Hasija RP, Khubchandani RP, Shenoi S. 2008. Pediatric rheumatology-joint hypermobility in

334 Indian children. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 26:146–150.

335

336 Hudson N, Starr MR, Esdaile JM, Fitzcharles MA. 1995. Diagnostic associations with

337 hypermobility in rheumatology patients. *Br J Rheumatol* 34:1157–1161.

338

339 Jaffe M, Tirosh E, Cohen A, Taub Y. 1988. Joint mobility and motor development. *Archives

340 of disease in childhood* 63(2):159-161.

341

342 Jansson A, Saartok T, Werner S, Renström P. 2004. General joint laxity in 1845 Swedish

343 school children of different ages: age- and gender-specific distributions. *Acta Pædiatrica*

344 93:1202–1206.

345

346 Jessee EF, Owen DS, Jr, Sagar KB. 1980. The benign hypermobile joint syndrome. *Arthritis

347 Rheum* 23:1053–1056.

348

349 Juul-Kristensen B, Schmedling K, Rombaut L, Lund H, Engelbert RHH. 2017. Measurement

350 properties of clinical assessment methods for classifying generalized joint hypermobility— A

351 systematic review. *Am J Med Genet Part C Semin Med Genet* 175C:116–147.

352

353 Juul B, Rogind H, Jensen DV, Remvig L. 2007. Inter-examiner reproducibility of tests and

354 criteria for generalized joint hypermobility and benign joint hypermobility syndrome.

355 *Rheumatology* 46:1835–1841.

356

357 Lamari NM, Chueire AG, Cordeiro JA. 2005. Analysis of joint mobility patterns among

358 preschool children. *Sao Paulo Med J* 123:119–123.

359

360   Larsson LG, Baum J, Mudholkar GS. 1987. Hypermobility: features and differential incidence
361   between the sexes. *Arthritis Rheum* 30:1426–1430.

362

363   Leone V, Tornese G, Zerial M, Locatelli C, Ciambra R, Bensa M, Pocecco M. 2009. Joint
364   hypermobility and its relationship to musculoskeletal pain in schoolchildren: a cross-sectional
365   study. *Arch Dis Childhood* 94:627–632.

366

367   Malfait F, Francomano C, Byers P, Belmont J, Berglund B, Black J, Bloom L, Bowen JM,
368   Brady AF, Burrows NP, Castori M, Cohen H, Colombi M, Demirdas S, Backer JD, Paepe AD,
369   Fournel-Gigleux S, Frank M, Ghali N, Giunta C, Grahame R, Hakim A, Jeunemaitre X,
370   Johnson D, Juul-Kristensen B, Kapferer-Seebacher I, Kazkaz H, Kosho T, Lavallee ME, Levy
371   H, Mendoza-Londono R, Pepin M, Pope FM, Reinstein E, Robert L, Rohrbach M, Sanders L,
372   Sobey GJ, Damme TV, Vandersteen A, Mourik CV, Voermans N, Wheeldon N, Zschocke J,
373   Tinkl B. 2017. The 2017 international classification of the Ehlers–Danlos syndromes. *Am J*
374   *Med Genet Part C Semin Med Genet* 175C:8–26.

375

376   Mikkelsson M, Salminen JJ, Kautiainen H. 1996. Joint hypermobility is not a contributing
377   factor to musculoskeletal pain in pre-adolescents. *J Rheumatol* 23:1963–1967.

378

379   Palmer S, Cramp F, Lewis R, Muhammad S, Clark E. 2015. Diagnosis, management and
380   assessment of adults with joint hypermobility syndrome: A UK-wide survey of physiotherapy
381   practice. *Musculoskeletal Care* 13(2):101-11.

382

383   Palmer S, Bailey S, Barker L, Barney L, Elliott A. 2014. The effectiveness of therapeutic
384   exercise for joint hypermobility syndrome: a systematic review. *Physiotherapy* 100(3):220-7.

385

386   Qvindesland A, Jonsson H. 1999. Articular hypermobility in Icelandic 12-year-olds.
387   *Rheumatology* 38:1014–1016.

388

389   Reuter PR, Fichthorn KR. 2019. Prevalence of generalized joint hypermobility,
390   musculoskeletal injuries, and chronic musculoskeletal pain among American university
391   students. PeerJ ;7:e7625.

392

393   Romeo DM, Lucibello S, Musto E, Brogna C, Ferrantini G, Velli C, Cota F, Ricci D, Mercuri
394   E. 2016. Assessing joint hypermobility in preschool-aged children. *J Pediatr* 176:162–166.

395

396   Seçkin Ü, Tur BS, Yılmaz Ö, Yağcı İ, Bodur H, Arasıl T. 2005. The prevalence of joint
397   hypermobility among high school students. *Rheumatol Intl* 25:260–263.

398

399   Silman AJ, Day SJ, Haskard DO. 1987. Factors associated with joint mobility in an adolescent
400   population. *Ann Rheum Dis* 46:209–212.

401

402   Sirajudeen MS. 2020. Physical Therapy Management for Child with Generalized Joint
403   Hypermobility. *Majmaah Journal of Health Sciences* 8(1):113-119.

404

405   Smits-Engelsman B, Klerks M, Kirby A. 2011. Beighton score: a valid measure for generalized
406   hypermobility in children. *J Pediatr* 158:119–123.

407

408   Vougiouka O, Moustaki M, Tsanaktsi M. 2000. Benign hypermobility syndrome in Greek
409   schoolchildren. *Eur J Pediatr.* 159:628.

410

Manuscriptto be reviewed

Personal characteristics of participating children

1   **Table 1** Personal characteristics of participating children

Characteristic	Frequency (%)/Mean (SD)
Sex	
Male	142 (46.9)
Female	161 (53.1)
Age (years)	10.74 (1.24)
Height	138.10 (11.7)
Weight	37.90 (12.1)
BMI	
Underweight	161 (53.1)
Normal weight	105 (34.7)
Overweight	24 (7.9)
Obese	13 (4.3)
Hand dominance	
Left	13 (4.3)
Right	290 (95.7)

Notes:

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; SD, standard deviation

Frequency distribution of total Beighton score and prevalence of generalized joint hypermobility (based on cutoff ≥4 or ≥6)

Table 2 Frequency distribution of total Beighton score and prevalence of generalized joint hypermobility (based on cutoff ≥4 or ≥6)

Score	Frequency (%)
0	229 (75.6)
1	5 (1.7)
2	22 (7.3)
3	1 (0.3)
4	21 (6.9)
5	2 (0.7)
6	13 (4.3)
7	1 (0.3)
8	9 (3)
9	0 (0)
Hypermobility	
Cutoff ≥4	46 (15.2)
Cutoff ≥6	23 (7.6)

Point prevalence of joint hypermobility at various sites used in the Beighton criteria

Table 3 Point prevalence of joint hypermobility at various sites used in the Beighton criteria (Cut-off $\geq$4)

Beighton Site	All (n = 303) Frequency (%)	Male (n = 142) Frequency (%)	Female (n = 161) Frequency (%)	P Value[#]
Little Finger				
Left	35 (11.5)	22 (15.5)	13 (8.1)	0.043[*]
Right	38 (12.5)	26 (18.3)	12 (7.4)	0.004[*]
Thump				
Left	38 (12.5)	7 (4.9)	31 (19.2)	0.000[*]
Right	36 (11.9)	7 (4.9)	29 (18)	0.002[*]
Elbow				
Left	52 (17.2)	25 (17.6)	27 (16.8)	0.618
Right	52 (17.2)	25 (17.6)	27 (16.8)	0.636
Knee				
Left	26 (8.6)	9 (6.3)	17 (10.6)	0.191
Right	24 (7.9)	8 (5.6)	16 (9.9)	0.166
Trunk	2 (0.7)	0 (0)	2 (1.2)	0.182
[#] - P Value for Chi square test, [*]- Statistically significant P< 0.05				

Association between personal characteristics and presence of generalized joint hypermobility (based on Beighton score ≥4 , or ≥6)

Table 4 Association between personal characteristics and presence of generalized joint hypermobility (based on Beighton score ≥4 , or ≥6)

Characteristics	Hypermobility (Beighton score ≥4)			Hypermobility (Beighton score ≥6)		
	Yes	No	P Value	Yes	No	P Value
Total (N = 303)						
Sex						
Male	19	123	0.411[a]	7	135	0.100[a]
Female	27	134		16	145	
Age (years) ; Mean (SD)	10.39 (1.10)	10.79 (1.25)	0.025[b]*	10.34 (1.33)	10.76 (1.22)	0.167 [b]
BMI; Mean (SD)	17.87 (3.64)	19.71 (4.97)	0.029[b]*	17.64 (2.97)	19.58 (4.93)	0.090 [b]
Hand dominance						
Left	3	12	0.441[a]	2	13	0.291[a]
Right	43	245		21	267	
Males (N = 142)						
Age (years); Mean (SD)	10.69 (0.83)	11.04 (1.23)	0.055 [b]	11 (0.58)	10.99 (1.21)	0.694 [b]
BMI; Mean (SD)	18.72 (3.84)	19.87 (5.46)	0.75	18.75 (2.91)	19.77 (5.37)	0.973[b]
Hand dominance						
Left	2	9	0.745[a]	1	10	0.455[a]
Right	17	114		6	125	
Females (N = 161)						
Age (years); Mean (SD)	10.19 (1.25)	10.59 (1.25)	0.146 [b]	10.07 (1.49)	10.57 (1.22)	0.163 [b]
BMI; Mean (SD)	17.28 (3.44)	19.57 (4.50)	0.011 [b]*	17.15 (2.95)	19.41 (4.50)	0.041[b]*
Hand dominance						
Left	1	3	0.433[a]	1	3	0.561[a]
Right	26	131		15	142	
BMI – Body mass index, SD – Standard deviation, [a] – P Value for Chi-square test, [b] – P Value for Mann-Whitney Test						
* - Statistically significant (P < 0.05)						