

A Systematic Review of Prevalence, Health Hazards, Risk Factors and Treatment of Pica Behaviour in individuals with Intellectual Disabilities

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Submitted: 01-05-2023

Accepted: 08-05-2023

ABSTRACT

People with intellectual impairments are typically affected by the disease known as pica. Pica is the persistent consumption of non-food items, which can result in severe health-related complications. This systematic review examines the prevalence, risk factors, health hazards, and management of pica in individuals with intellectual disabilities. The review analyses data from a range of studies, including case reports, cohort studies, and clinical trials, to identify the popularity of pica and associated risk factors in individuals with intellectual disabilities. Additionally, the review explores the potential health hazards of pica, such as gastrointestinal obstruction and toxic effects, and examines different treatment approaches, including behavioural, pharmacological, and nutritional interventions. The findings of this review indicate that pica behaviour is common in individuals with intellectual disabilities and that there is a need for effective and individualized treatment approaches to manage this challenging behaviour.

Keywords: Intellectual disability, PICA, Health Hazards, Treatment

I. INTRODUCTION

Intellectual disability or ID is defined as "a condition that starts before 22 years of age and is characterized by considerable limits in both intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviour" by the AAIDD (American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities). "Intelligence," or intellectual functioning, is the general term for a person's capacity for learning, reasoning, problem-solving, and other mental tasks. An IQ test is one tool for assessing intellectual functioning. An IQ score of 70 or higher (up to 75) suggests a serious impairment in intellectual functioning. People learn and employ a variety of social, cognitive, and practical skills on a daily basis, which are referred to as adaptive behaviour. Language and education

attainment, concepts of money, time, and numbers, as well as self-control, are all examples of conceptual abilities. Social skills include things like interpersonal abilities, civic engagement, self-worth, gullibility, naivete (i.e., wariness), social problem-solving, and the capacity to abide by laws and standards in order to prevent being victimized [1]. Intellectual impairments are characterized by challenges in conceptual, intellectual, social, and practical facets of daily life. In accordance with the DSM-5, these illnesses are neurodevelopmental diseases that start in childhood. Three requirements must be met for the DSM-5 to diagnose ID: 1. Deficits in some aspects of intellectual functioning, such as "reasoning, problem-solving, organizing, logical thinking, decision-making, academic learning, and learning from experience," as determined by clinical examination and special IQ tests. 2. Deficits in adaptive abilities that significantly affect a person's ability to fulfil their social commitments and follow the social, cultural, and developmental standards for independence and 3. These deficiencies began to appear in childhood [2].

Pica

Pica is commonly characterized as the continuous ingestion of non-nutritive food or substances for a month during a developmental stage that is improper for this behaviour [3]. The DSM-5 (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition) lists the following as the definition of pica: 1. Regularly consuming non-food, non-nutritive substances for a minimum of one month. 2. Taking into account a person's developmental stage, these substances shouldn't be ingested. 3. Eating conduct is not a practice that is socially or culturally acceptable. 4. If the conduct coexists with another mental disease or medical condition (such as schizophrenia, autism or pregnancy), it is serious enough to call for independent therapeutic treatment [4]. The word "pica" comes from the Latin word,

“magpie” a bird renowned for its huge and unpredictable appetite [5]. Pica can appear in youngsters as early as 2 years old, teenagers, or adults. Pregnant women, [6] young children, and those who may have cognitive disorders like autism are the groups who experience pica most frequently [7].

Approximately it occurs in 75% of infants, 15% of two-three-year-old toddlers and 10-33% in kids with mental retardation that are institutionalized [8]. Pica has been connected to additional psychiatric illnesses. Risk factors for pica include stressors like psychological trauma, maternal scarcity, family problems, paternal negligence, pregnancy, and an unorganised family structure [9][10]

Types of Pica

There is widespread consensus in the literature on labelling given to the pica behaviour marked as -phagias for those substances that have been recognised as objects of pica [11].

1. The practice of consuming clay or soil, known as geophagia, is most prevalent in underdeveloped countries like Africa, among African Americans, and among pregnant women in the southern United States [12]. Nevertheless, geophagia has also been noted in the ID community. People with learning disabilities frequently experience geophagia, especially when they are institutionalized for an extended period of time. In this context, geophagia and other types of pica are linked to a high incidence of complications [13].
2. Pagophagia (eating ice) is a contradiction because, although being one of the most "normal" things named, it is one of the least researched as a distinct behaviour [14][15]. There is a lot of proof that pagophagia and anaemia are linked in the general community [16]. Although most patients are ignorant of this and may not disclose it to their doctor, a persistent craving for ice may be an indication of an underlying condition that needs medical care. It can be difficult for doctor to contemplate pica when a patient presenting pagophagia because it is uncommon in professional practice. Without specialised attention, cases can be conveniently overlooked and incorrectly diagnosed. Thus, doctors are advised to think about pica and determine whether a patient is eating too much ice by asking specific questions [17].
3. Geomelophagia (eating raw potatoes) is a rare kind of food piracy that has been identified, although

it is not frequently done [18].

4. Since lead ingestion has long been known to be a major cause of lead poisoning, plumbophagia (lead eating) has been accepted as the framework despite the fact that the pathology of plumbism is rarely explored [19].
5. Less commonly is trichophagia (the ingestion of hair) noted in the texts. The discussion of pica, which is frequently caused by IDA and is frequently a cause of lead toxicity, was spurred by the discovery of a history of trichophagia [20].
6. Few cases of Cautopyreiophagia, or eating charred matchsticks, have been documented in the literature to date. Only two adult instances have been documented so far [21].
7. Lithophagia is the consumption of stones. In the context of autism, it is primarily documented in the paediatric community. According to the research, there are numerous problems that frequently call for operation, including colitis, intestinal obstruction, and volvulus. This instance proves that cautious administration is possible [22].
8. Coprophagia, or eating faeces, is a common occurrence in institutional environments among people with intellectual disabilities and is linked to scatolia [23]. Some people with developmental impairments experience coprophagia, which is linked to a number of health hazards. (e.g., diarrhoea, intestinal parasites, blood-borne pathogens). A dearth of evidence-based evaluations (such as functional analysis) and inadequate examples of experimental control have limited studies that have assessed operant-based treatments for coprophagia [24].
9. The practice of consuming the butts of cigarettes (tobaccophagia) is also frequently described in people living in facilities who have intellectual disabilities [25][26].
10. Acuphagia, or ingesting sharp items, is a potentially fatal habit that has been linked to autism [27]. It can sometimes result in emergency conditions like intestinal obstruction, perforation, peritonitis, bleeding, acute weight loss, poisoning, and even mortality and can be very severe in some instances [28].
11. Paper intake is a symptom of the eating disease xylophagia. The typical foods consumed by those with his eating problem include paper, pens, tree bark, and other wooden objects. Consuming paper is the most common form of xylophagia, but there are also

common types of pica that have been documented in the literature [29].

12. Metal eating disease, also known as metallophagia, is rarely reported even though it is considered one of the types of pica. There are not many. In actuality, there aren't many instances described in the relevant literature. Metal-eating disease has been documented in psychiatric patients despite being an uncommon condition in people [30].
13. Hyalophagia is the intake of glass products. Most foreign objects that are consumed into the digestive system travel through the rectum

asymptotically, but objects that are pointed, long, or jagged may not be able to do so. These items may result in surgery investigation due to potential consequences like impaction, which can result in intestinal blockage, ulceration, perforation, and bleeding [31].

There have been other substances as well that are not labelled as -phagia but are identified as pica objects if taken in quantities as great as 9 bunches of celery and 10 litres of ice. And those include Ashes, Chalk, Cloth, Cigarette butts, Crayons, Cottonballs, Detergent, Metal, Paper, Plastic, Pencil erasers, Soap etc [11].

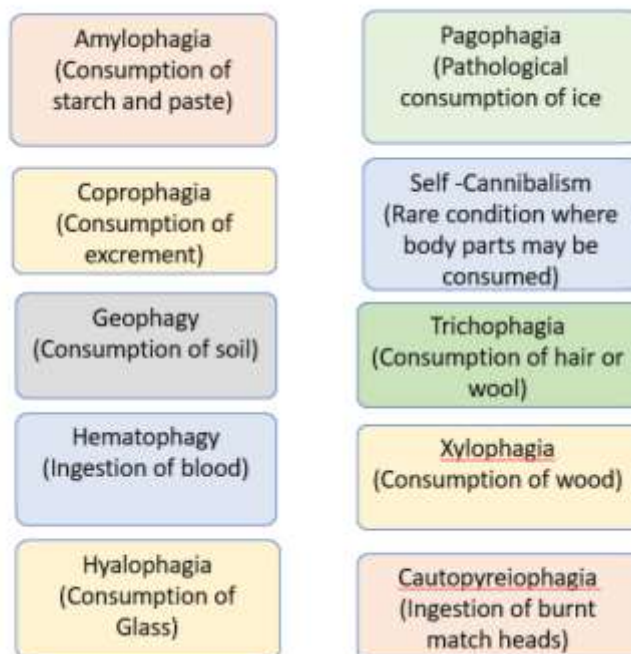


Fig 2: Types of PICA disorder

Prevalence

Pica has appeared in three distinct contexts: in youthful toddlers, in some societies as a socially acceptable behavior, and idiosyncratically. There are documented idiosyncratic instances from both people with cerebral disabilities and people with average ability [32].

Up to 18 months of age, pica—the practice of new-borns using their lips to examine objects—is accepted as typical activity. But there are dangers associated with infantile pica, and cases of parasite infections and lead poisoning have been observed [33]. In a study, 3,250 infants were assessed between the ages of 10 and 36 months over the course of three years in a private clinic and 11.56% of those found to have pica [34].

Additionally, pica has been connected to cultural and religious factors. The cultural theory notes that in Africa eating earth was believed to suppress nausea in pregnancy and promote well-being while Muslims use to consume chalk dust out of respect for brook. Clay eating was encouraged among the male youths of Greece [35]. Pregnant women are more prone to participate in this activity, while it can happen to people of all sexes, including both kids and grownups. Reid refers to 1975 research in which 56 women from a county in Mississippi were questioned. Ten people regularly used clay, whereas 22 occasionally did so [36].

Both intellectually disabled people and people of

ordinary ability have been characterised as having idiosyncratic examples of pica. Pica is observed in a variety of situations in individuals with average intellect. The elderly with dementia, persons with eating problems, and adults with mineral deficiencies are a few examples. It is the most frequent eating problem among institutionalized people with cerebral disabilities [37].

According to some interesting trends, the likelihood of having pica has been shown to rise after the age of 70, decline with age, and increase with the severity of an intellectual disability. [25][38]. Kinnell (1985) found that pica was more common in people with autism than in people with Down syndrome in a group of 70 mentally disabled people [27]. Danford and Huber (1982) also found a prevalence of 25.8% for overall pica, with rates of 5.4% for food pica, 16.7% for non-

food pica, and 3.7% for mixed pica. They discovered that those with severe disabilities had a higher likelihood of mixed and non-

food pica, whereas people with borderline intellectual disabilities were experiencing food pica [25].

Adults who also exhibit challenging conduct are more likely to have pica, with prevalence rates varying from a low of 11.0% to a high of 21.0% [39][40]. In a group of 940 people with a dual diagnosis (i.e., ID and a mental illness co-existing), Dudley, Ahlgrim-Delzell, and Calhoun (1999) investigated the incidence rates of the psychiatric disorders and behavioural issues and discovered that 3.7% had pica. These figures need to be carefully evaluated because they are not representative of ID in the general population because these studies estimated frequency based on people who exhibited difficult habits or had a dual diagnosis, which can result in exaggerated estimates [41].

Pica Prevalence in ID individuals:

Definition of pica	Method	Population	Prevalence	Study
Repeated ingestion of non-food items lacking nutritional value	SEED methodology	n= 3161	31.6%	Fields et al.(2021)
Ingestion of non-food items	interrater reliability instrument	n= 1008	21.8%	Ashworth et al.(2008)
Eating objects not considered to be food	Questionnaire	n=311	2.9%	Hove(2004)
The frequent consumption of non-food and food-related substances	Survey questionnaire redistributed to staff, residents	n=689	22.1%	Swift et al.(1999)
DSM-IV criteria: the eating of non-nutritive substances	Direct observation and psychological and functional assessment	n=790	5.7%	Matson & Bamburg (1999)
Ingestion of non-food items and particular food substances (ice cold food, food from rubbish bins, and discarded food)	Direct observation by nursing staff and review of case notes	n=246	10.2%	Tewari et al.(1995)
Mouthing and/or ingestion of non-nutritive items	Direct observation and use of pica survey every year	n=1010	16.7%	Witkowski(1990)

Eating non-food substances	Direct observation over a 28-day period; Semi-structured interview using the eating behaviour section of the Present Behavioural Examination-Mental Handicap	n=48	4.1%	O'Brien & Whitehouse (1990)
The ingestion of non-food items	Review of medical records; individual habilitation plans; and individual behaviour programs for behaviours of pica	N=806	15.8%	Lofts, Schroeder, Mair (1990)

Implications of pica Medical implications

Pica can cause a variety of social and health issues that can have a minor to fatal impact on one's health. Malnutrition, toxicity, parasitic infections, gastrointestinal blockages and perforations, respiratory issues, tooth damage, mouth difficulties, and mortality are the ten health problems caused by pica. Isolation, stigma, and a strain on the support network are examples of social repercussions. It's crucial to remember that most people who swallow foreign items are asymptomatic because the majority of them naturally move through the digestive system [42][43].

1. Malnutrition

Pica may result from a deficiency in minerals like iron, zinc, or calcium. To come up with the nutrients in the body, patients consume unusual items, like laundry starch, ice and soil clay. Both clay and starch can bind iron in the gastrointestinal tract, worsening the deficiency [44]. Another view contends that pica directly prevents mineral absorption, whilst one hypothesis claims pica is a response to mineral deficits. Zinc insufficiency, for example, has been connected to ID and pica in people who are institutionalised. [45][46], especially in those who practiced geophagia [37]. This result supports the idea that soil and clay can prevent or chelate iron and zinc uptake. In contrast, malnutrition may develop from pica when

the person consumes non-nutritive items instead of the regular diet, which reduces body weight and appetite [25].

2. Toxicity

Pica may cause exposure to harmful compounds like heavy metals, despite the fact that such cases are uncommon. The most well-known of these is lead poisoning, which is brought on by ingesting paint chips, household dust, ink, lead objects, and lead-contaminated soil. Negative effects of lead are seen in both cognitive and emotional development. As a result, lead exposure might worsen ID sufferers' behavioral issues and cause more brain damage. People suffering from pica are still in danger even if governments have put policies in place to prevent environmental exposure to lead, such as regulating levels of lead in paint [47][48][49]

3. Parasitic infection

Pica also forms association with pathogens present in intestine, especially in coprophagic and geophagic individuals [23][50]. For instance, Foxx and Martin discovered three people who had intellectual disability (ID) and coprophagia, who also had whipworms; these people were parasite-free once their pica level dropped as the outcome of behavioral intervention [50]. Additionally, Danford & Huber discovered that

institutionalized people both with pica and ID and had substantially more frequently than people without pica [25].

4. Gastrointestinal infection

Faecal impaction and digestive constipation have also been listed as symptoms of pica [25] [50]. Additionally, pica results in nausea, vomiting, fever, discomfort, and distension in the abdomen [42]. GI tract disorders were more common in those with pica, according to a chart analysis of 64 residential adults with developmental impairments, and those with autism and pica had a greater risk of GI diseases than those with autism but no pica behaviour [51].

5. Surgery for obstructions and perforations

Pica surgical complications are rare, but they can happen. Decker examined the medical files of 35 Huronia Regional Centre patients with pica and ID who had 56 treatments for pica-related problems between 1976 and 1991. He discovered that in 42 instances (or 75% of the cases), surgery was necessary, especially laparotomies to remove foreign objects [52]. Similar to this, 43 documented cases of surgical complications from pica were evaluated in the literature. The most frequent consequence was an intestinal blockage, which was then followed by perforation with peritonitis (abdominal lining inflammation) and hardened abdominal masses (i.e., bezoars) [53]. Certain substances are riskier than others. Compared to smooth things like pennies or plastic beads, sharp and big objects tend to cause more tissue injury and necessitate surgery [42]. For instance, according to one research, vinyl gloves used for personal hygiene are challenging to remove after ingestion because they harden and occasionally form sharp bezoars (some kind of foreign object that cannot transit through the intestines). Obstruction, perforation, inflammation, and ulceration in the gastrointestinal system with bleeding are possible consequences as a result [54].

6. Respiratory conditions

Foreign objects trapped in the esophagus can cause choking, breathing problems, breathlessness, and wheezing. Undiscovered foreign objects in the esophagus could cause recurrent asthma. In addition to causing neck swelling, esophageal foreign bodies can harm and perforate the esophagus [42].

7. Dental Damage

In several case studies, pica is connected to tooth surface loss. In particular, prolonged pica with hard materials, such as stones, metals, or ice, may cause tooth harm [55].

8. Oral complications

Some people with pica like to consume cigarette butts. Because of this, those who consume cigarette butts on a regular basis face the danger of acquiring oral cancer, periodontal disease, and gingival recession [25] [26] [56] [57].

9. Death

Pica sufferers, especially those with serious and ongoing pica, run the danger of suffocation and intestinal blockage leading to death. Three fatalities (3.2%) had connections to pica in research that looked at the causes of mortality among 94 patients in a hospital for developmentally delayed kids [58]. According to a report, 4 (11%) of the 35 pica afflicted people who were hospitalized within a hospital over a 15-year period died from complications associated with their condition. The significant mortality risk linked to pica is noted in many case reports [52] [59].

Social implications

The societal effects of pica have been the subject of a very scant amount of study. As a consequence of heightened stigma from others, people with pica may experience greater social isolation [23] [60]. Staff members are more likely to avoid and exclude people who have coprophagia (eating faeces) from events. This is because they are worried about cross-contamination [32] [23]. The individuals may be prevented from engaging in worthwhile activities by pica and its related behaviors, or they may be prevented from doing so by the safety gear they are wearing [61] [62]. People who have pica may also go on fewer community excursions and/or may not be allowed to go anywhere where there are possible triggers for their pica behaviour. The responsibilities of providing for a person with pica may also have an impact on their informal support system, leading to more contentious relationships and decreased social interaction with relatives for people with pica.

Pica Risk Factors

Even though the precise cause of pica is unclear, most studies believe that there are

several contributing factors [63]. Age, gender, mineral deficiency, genetic disorders linked to ID, mental illnesses, and social environment are the most frequent risk factors associated with pica, all of which enhance the possibility that people with ID may participate in pica.

1. Age

While some investigations have discovered that pica tends to occur in older [64] or that the number of pica cases increases after 70 years of age [25], others report no association with age [26][46][65], pica rates are typically greater in younger ID patients than elderly patients [25][38][57]. According to some experts, pica continues throughout life because it is frequently misdiagnosed, underreported, and neglected because it is not perceived as being as detrimental as other difficult behaviors, like aggression [25]. When analyzing the correlation between age and pica, it is crucial to take into account that individuals with ID are aging just like the normal population is. Some hypothesized that past research may have observed a lower level of pica prevalence in later ages simply because the ID community as a whole had a younger age structure [66]. This is usually true of individuals with profound and severe levels of ID who reside in institutions and are at a higher risk of passing away than their peers with higher functioning [67].

2. Gender

Males are diagnosed with pica more frequently than females; the ratio of male to female ranges from 1.3 : 1 to 2:1 [26][38][45][46][57]. Swift discovered that in a case control study gender was not substantially connected to pica.

3. Level of ID or Severity

The most compelling results in the pica literature is the tendency for people with deep and severe levels of ID to display pica more frequently than people with moderate levels of ID [25][26][38][41][45][46][57]. Particularly, the occurrence of pica is inversely correlated with the level of ID (as established by IQ), so that pica incidence rises with greater ID severity or lower IQ scores. The research has provided large number of theories for this relationship, ranging from developmental mouthing difficulties associated to the ID itself, to sensory stimulation, to those with significant cognitive disability being unable to distinguish

between inedible and edible objects. According to Hove (2004), pica might indicate ID population's lack of self-care and eating adaptations skills [65].

4. Mineral Deficiencies

Pica has also been associated to mineral deficiencies, particularly in those who are part of the normal population, including those in iron, zinc, copper, and magnesium. It is believed that individuals who have low amount of certain minerals in their bodies have an innate behavioral reaction or urge to seek out certain minerals from unexpected sources, including inedible things [32]. However, pica frequently occurs even when there are no mineral deficiencies [38], and the majority of research demonstrate that people with ID and pica consume foods that are extremely deficient in minerals.

Among the first to look into the dietary explanation in individuals with ID of pica was Danford et al. (1982). They observed that plasma zinc and iron levels were considerably lower in those who have pica, whereas magnesium and copper levels were not statistically different between the two groups, when comparing 60 individuals with pica to 60 individuals without pica [25].

Similar to this, a study by Lofts et al. (1990) found that 54% people with pica (n=69) had low blood zinc levels (zinc levels less than 0.90 ug/dl), as opposed to 7% of 14 people in the control group. Additionally, they discovered that people with ID, pica, and low serum zinc levels could benefit from zinc supplementation through 100 milligrams of chelated zinc. This reduced the frequency of pica incidents from 23 per person to 4.3 per person within the space of two weeks, but it did not completely eliminate their pica [45].

Swift et al. (1999) expanded on the outcomes of the first two investigations and created among the most meticulously planned case-control studies in this area. They specifically contrasted 152 patients with ID plus pica to 152 controls who had ID only in their blood samples. After correcting for the person's level of ID, they discovered that individuals with low blood zinc and iron levels had 5.43 times and 6.25 times, respectively, the probabilities of developing pica. This is the first study to demonstrate that mineral status, while accounting for an individual's degree of ID, is a separate risk factor for pica [46].

To acquire more accurate estimations of the connection between mineral deficiency and pica, future research will be required to build on this model and incorporate all known risk

factors for the condition.

Intellectual disability

Autism

According to estimates, 30.0% of people with ID have autism as a point prevalence [68]. Pica is typical in autistic individuals [26][27][41][58][65][69], and others. In fact, a study by Hove (2004) indicated that individuals with autism were much more probable than people with the eating disorder to have pica [65], while a different study found that individuals with pica have a considerably more likelihood of having autism [41]. This result is not unexpected considering that severe to profound levels of ID, a review found that an average of 55.5% of individuals with autism have a recognised susceptibility for pica [70].

In an observational research, Kinnell compared 70 people who had autism to 70 people with Down's syndrome in relation to pica behaviour and discovered that people with autism (60%) were more likely than people with Down's syndrome (4% to practise pica) [27]. Just 4% of people with pica and Down's syndrome also had autism or schizophrenia concurrently. Pica may be syndrome-specific, but the overall level of this relationship has not yet been demonstrated [46]. Fields et al. evaluated pica in kids between the ages of 30 and 68 months both with and without ASD (median = 55.4 months). Children with ASD (23.2%) and DD had high rates of pica (8.4%), as well as in the following subgroups: ASD with ID (28.1%), ASD without ID (14.0%), DD with ID (9.7%), DD with ASD characteristics (12.0%), and DD with both ID and ASD characteristics (26.3%). In contrast, children with DD who did not have ID or ASD traits did not have a greater incidence of pica. [71]

Psychiatric or mental disability OCD

According to some, pica is considered among the obsessive-compulsive spectrum disorders, where the consumption of unusual substances results in a depletion in anxiety or tension in the normal population [72][73]. In people with ID who display extreme or persistent pica, the theorist that pica can be productively understood as obsessive behavior; however, no formal research has tested this association [74].

Upadhyaya et al. describe an instance of an illiterate tribal woman who experienced pica as the only symptom of obsessive-compulsive disorder that started while she was pregnant. The patient was compelled to consume raw rice or wheat, which gave her

toothaches and stomach pain. In three successive pregnancies, she had this behaviour. It spontaneously resolved after puerperium in the first two pregnancies but remained in the final one. Thus, coming to the conclusion that pica might either merely be a symptom of obsessive-compulsive disorder during pregnancy or it could be an OCD spectrum condition. [75]

In the other case report a 16-year-old kid with a history of melancholy and anxiety as well as 10 prior deliberate foreign body ingestions involving sharp items including needles, forks, and thumbtacks, is the subject of this case. He admits to eating a nail lately and dismisses any current obsessions. He was transferred from an early involuntary receiving institution because his recent bowel motions had reduced. There are suggestions for practitioners as well as takeaways to consider. This example provides evidence in favour of the literature's contention that pica falls within the range of OCD-related illnesses [76].

Schizophrenia

Pica behaviours are prevalent in the setting of schizophrenia, as demonstrated by Osuji and Onu's assessment of 206 incident cases of schizophrenia, which revealed a high proportion of these incompatible behaviours (14.3%) in the early stages of the illness [77]. Given the paucity of research in the field, some potential causes of pica behaviours in schizophrenia include: (1) Psychotropic-induced compulsive eating behaviour of inedible materials, such as a case report of pica behaviours following continuous, chronic olanzapine treatment, which was attributed to cortico-basal ganglia dysfunction via blocking 5-HT_{2a} receptors and increasing dopamine release in the midbrain and frontal cortex; (2) Prolonged malnutrition or micronutrient deficiencies syndrome brought on by long-term schizophrenia symptoms; (3) Comorbidity between schizophrenia and obsessive-compulsive disorder; (4) Hematopoietic inhibition brought on by long-term schizophrenia or long-term psychoactive drug use; (5) Hyperorality in the context of cognitive deficits and temporal lesions; (6) As a symptom of disorganisation over the course of schizophrenia; (7) Secondary to delusional behaviour [78].

A case report describes a case of 34-year-old male with decompensated schizophrenia. His active psychosis, which included delusions, jumbled mental processes, and weakening of connections, was shown to be the cause of his pica [79]. As an alternative, it has been asserted that

frontotemporal dementia in young adults may be mistakenly classified as schizophrenia because the condition's early symptoms are more akin to that of illness before progressing to dementia symptoms in its later stages [80]. Pica may, to a lesser extent, be connected to delusions or paranoid thinking, according to the literature [59]. With the exception of the two case studies published, little is known about the connection between schizophrenia and pica in the ID population. They described two cases of people who were diagnosed with ID and schizophrenia early in childhood and later acquired pica (i.e., age 40 and 76) [59]. These findings go against the typical observation that pica is more prevalent in younger people.

Dementia

Although the prevalence is unknown, several studies have shown that older adults with dementia exhibit abnormal eating patterns, including pica behaviour [81][82][83][84]. For instance, Morris et al. (1989) discovered that among 33 dementia sufferers, 15% attempted to consume inedible substances (such as faeces, soap, or flowers) and 15% consumed inappropriate substances (i.e., uncooked food, pet food). They proposed that eating inedible objects might be explained by an inability to rec

ognise objects (agnosia) or a loss of the disgust mechanism [84]. According to Hope et al.'s study, 22% of 85 dementia patients reported chewing or swallowing non-food items [81]. Ikeda et al. (2002), on the other hand, compared the eating habits of people with three different subtypes of dementia: frontal variant frontotemporal dementia (fv-FTD) (n = 23), semantic dementia (n = 25), and Alzheimer's disease (n = 43). While semantic dementia only refers to the atrophy of the temporal lobes, frontotemporal dementia refers to the progressive focal atrophy of the frontal and anterior temporal lobes (Ikeda et al., 2002). In comparison, dementia of the Alzheimer's variety exhibits a pattern of brain atrophy that is more evenly dispersed and encompasses atrophy of the frontal, temporal, and parietal areas [82].

Collectively, these studies indicate that pica is linked to dementia, and more research is needed to confirm Ikeda's finding that pica is more common in people with semantic/temporal lobe dementia. Dementia and pica in people with ID have not yet been the subject of any research that are currently available. Given that people with Down's syndrome have a higher chance of developing Alzheimer's disease than the general population and may exhibit higher rates of pica, this may be a crucial field of study to look into.

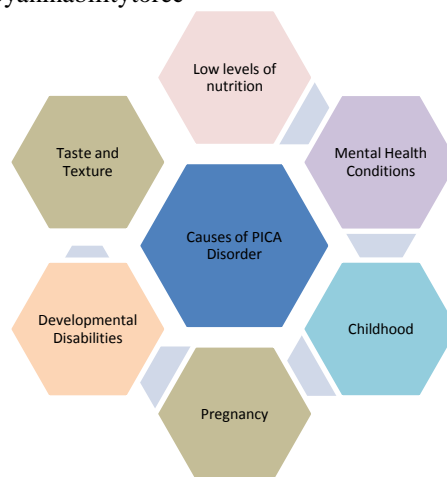


Fig. 1. Causes of PICA Disorder

Treatment

The medicinal, dietary, and behavioral therapies used to treat pica in people with ID are reviewed in this section. Burke and Smith (1999) have issued a warning that the majority of conclusions are drawn from studies with small sample numbers (case studies), brief time spans, and baiting (items are placed in the environment as pica targets)

[85]. Furthermore, since most intervention trials have been done on children, it is unclear how well the therapies work for adults with ID. Future studies must concentrate on adult patients with ID and pica who need therapies.

1. Medications

Medications, particularly psychotropics and anticonvulsants, have been found to be significantly asso

ciated with persons with ID and pica [25][52][86]. Neuroleptic medication, it is argued, may have a direct link with pica, due to “anti-dopaminergic effects” which may worsen pica behaviour [87]. On the other hand, the higher rate of neuroleptic medication

may reflect the treatment of choice for pica. These associations, however, are likely to be confounded by indication. That is, individuals with higher levels of cognitive impairment may be more likely to be prescribed these agents for other reasons besides pica (e.g., behavioural disturbance, epilepsy), whereas less severely cognitively impaired individuals would not use these. Therefore, the relationship between psychotropic and anticonvulsant medications and pica are questionable and requires a more appropriate study design to fully assess the reasons for using particular drugs among individuals with ID and pica. The use of medications to treat pica has not been adequately studied in the literature. Two adults and one adolescent with normal intellect have pica, and treatment with selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitors (SSRIs) has been proven to lessen the severity of the pica. The antipsychotic drug thioridazine, however, was found to have no effect on the reduction of pica in three adolescents with profound ID [88].

Comparing the placebo and antipsychotic medication periods, these patients had decreased rates of pica. As opposed to the placebo phase, the injection of a stimulant (methylphenidate) reduced the rate of pica in these people [87].

2. Nutritional

Several studies have shown that dietary supplements lessen the frequency of pica [45][89][90]. 69 persons with ID who were living in an institution and suffering from zinc shortage received 100mg of chelated zinc which worked for them [45].

The average number of pica incidents per person decreased from 23 episodes to 4.3 incidents after taking the nutritional zinc supplement. Using an A-B-A design, Bugle and Rubin (1993) demonstrated that Vivonex, a nutritional supplement, decreased the occurrence of coprophagia in two adults and one child with ID compared to their regular diet, although it did not completely eradicate it. A child with ID and pica had similar outcomes to those found by Pace and Toyer (2000) [89][90].

3. Behavioural therapies

The research that is now accessible offers a variety of behavioural therapies for the treatment of pica, albeit the most successful method has not yet been found. Environmental, sensory, and discrimination training are the least intrusive interventions, while response blocking, overcorrection, aversive substances, negative practice, self-protection tools, and physical restraint are the most intrusive interventions.

The current study discusses the behavioural management of pica in a female 3-year-old with usual development. A multiple baseline across settings single-case experimental design was used to show the effects of differential reinforcement, extinction, and a token economy treatment package to reduce rates of pica after a pre-treatment functional assessment showed that pica was maintained by carer attention. In all conditions, there was a decrease in pica. Pica rates remained low as a result of the final treatment plan's integrity-driven implementation by carers. This case study showed that when medical measures are unsuccessful, behavioural therapies can reduce pica in children who are usually developing [91].

4. Environmental Interventions Physical setting

To help limit the amount of time the person must be watched over or restrained, environmental controls that are frequently employed to reduce pica behavior include removing and locking up objects from the area that could be consumed by the individual (i.e., “picaproofing”) [92].

Societal setting

Some discovered that individuals with ID tended to participate in pica when they were by themselves or unoccupied and that the frequency of pica could be decreased by adding toys to their environment [93]. A research showed that a 10-year-old autistic child's pica behavior was reduced when she had access to a “pica box” comprising safe edible and inedible objects [94].

5. Oral Stimulation

This approach is founded on the idea that automatic reinforcement maintains pica and that safer alternatives to oral stimulation (such as toys, food, drinks, and gum) are offered to compete with the individual's pica. For instance, by using thread-stitch toys, Piazza, Hanley, Blakeley-Smith, and Kinsman (2000) taught a blind toddler to discover substitute mouthing toys to replace his pica

behavior. A more focused strategy is to give the person stimuli that closely resemble the sensory characteristics of the inedible objects they want to consume [49].

In one adolescent and one kid with ID who showed a propensity to consume firm non-edible items, the supply of firm-textured meals (e.g., carrot sticks, rice cakes) was more effective in reducing pica rates than soft textured foods (e.g., gelatin) [95].

On the other hand, additional study is required to determine how oral stimulation affects adults with ID.

6. Response Blocking

Response blocking tactics, such as the use of verbal cues, physical assistance, or physical removal, stop or prevent the person from engaging in pica. Response blocking alone was less successful than response blocking combined with redirection to alternate food options at reducing pica and hostility in an adult with ID [96].

7. Discrimination Training

Many claim that pica behavior in people with ID is caused by a lack of discrimination between edible and inedible items [48] [97] though it is unlikely that teaching people to discriminate on their own will successfully treat pica over time because people with pica often have cognitive impairments [60].

8. Overcorrection

Overcorrection is the term for attitude modification through excessive practice and instruction [98]. When used alone or in combination after a person exhibits pica behavior, oral hygiene practices like cleaning teeth, washing hands and faces, and tidying have been shown to lower pica rates in adults and teens with ID [23] [99].

9. Aversive Substances

When used as a form of discipline, aversive liquids like water mist, lemon juice, and ammonia are either squirted in the person's face or lips or inhaled by them (in the case of ammonia) [100].

In an autistic teenager, Rojahn et al. (1980) found that water mist was more successful at reducing pica than ammonia [62].

10. Negative Practice

Aversive practices like negative practice are often used on the idea that repeating a behavior will ultimately make it unpleasant for the person doing it. For instance, Duker and Nielen (1993) used a negative

practice in which the staff would press the adult with ID's palm holding the non-edible object to her lips and prevent her from biting on it for two minutes after each instance of pica. After numerous iterations of this harmful practice process, the person's pica rates were decreased but not entirely eradicated [101].

11. Self-protection Devices

Self-protective tools that stop the person from engaging in pica are used when pica is severe and life-threatening or dangerous objects (such as nails or glass) are sought [98]. These tools include mechanical restraints, such as mesh bags or hoods, jackets that restrain the person's arms and hands, and fencing masks or helmets with a face shield that prevent access to the person's mouth. When an adolescent with ID and pica used a time-out helmet for 15 minutes each time he participated in it, along with food incentives when his pica did not appear, Ausman, Ball, and Alexander (1974) found a decrease in pica behavior [102]. Similar results were found by Rojahn, Schroeder, and Mulick (1980), who discovered that three adults with ID's pica was diminished when they wore camisoles and fencing masks for two hours each workday, despite their lowered work and social contacts [62]. Using the example of a child who was able to consume pieces of the restraint system, Le Blanc, Piazza, and Krug (1997) argue that pica could be decreased just as effectively without the use of self-protective apparatus [61].

12. Physical Restraints

Physical restraint methods are used to limit the person's chances to participate in pica, much like self-protective devices. According to studies, adults and teenagers who experience pica may benefit from short-term physical restriction in the form of holding their arm at their sides for 10 seconds [99] [103].

II. CONCLUSION

Based on the systematic review conducted, it can be concluded that pica behavior is prevalent among individuals with intellectual disabilities. The review found that several risk factors, such as age, sex, and severity of the disability, are associated with pica behavior. The health hazards associated with pica behavior are numerous, including gastrointestinal obstruction, malnutrition, and poisoning.

The review also highlighted the importance of identifying and treating pica behavior

in individuals with intellectual disabilities. The treatment options include behavioral interventions, medication, and dietary modifications. However, more research is needed to determine the effectiveness of these interventions.

Overall, the review underscores the need for health care providers and caregivers to be aware of pica behavior in individuals with intellectual disabilities and to take appropriate measures to address it to prevent negative health consequences.

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