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Title of the article;

Serum ferritin, soluble transferrin receptor and total body iron for the detection of iron deficiency in early pregnancy. A multi-ethnic population-based study with low use of iron supplements.

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Iron deficiency in multi-ethnic pregnancies

Abbreviations list

Adjusted; adj

C-reactive protein; CRP

Coefficient of variation; CV

Confidence intervals; CV

Electro-chemiluminescence immunoassay; ECLIA

Glycosylated hemoglobin; HbA1c

Hemoglobin; Hb

Intrauterine device; IUD

Iron deficiency; ID

R-square; R^2

Standard deviation: SD

Soluble transferrin receptor; sTfR

Statistics and data; Stata

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; SPSS

1 **Abstract**

2 **Background:** Which blood-based indicator best reflects the iron status in pregnant women is
3 unclear. Better assessments of iron status in today's multi-ethnic populations are needed to
4 optimize treatment and clinical recommendations.

5 **Objective:** To determine the prevalence of anemia (hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL in first and <10.5
6 g/dL in second trimester) and iron deficiency (ID) by the iron indicators serum ferritin <15
7 µg/L, serum soluble transferrin receptor (sTfR) >4.4 mg/L and calculated total body iron <0
8 mg/kg, and their associations with ethnicity.

9 **Design:** Population-based cross-sectional study from primary antenatal care of 792 healthy
10 women in early pregnancy in Oslo, Norway. We categorized the women into six ethnic
11 groups; Western European, South Asian, Middle Eastern, Sub-Saharan African, East Asian,
12 and Eastern European.

13 **Results:** Anemia was found in 5.9% (Western Europeans: 1.8%, non-Western: 0 – 14%
14 ($P<0.05$)). ID from ferritin was found in 33% (Western Europeans: 15%, non-Western: 27 –
15 55% ($P<0.05$)). ID from sTfR was found in 6.5% (Western Europeans: 0.3%, non-Western: 0
16 – 20%, $P<0.01$). Calculated total body iron indicated ID in 11% (Western Europeans: 0.6%,
17 non-Western: 7.0 – 28%, $P<0.01$). The prevalence of ID was significantly higher by all
18 measures in South Asian, Sub-Saharan African and Middle Eastern than in Western European
19 women, and the ethnic differences persisted after adjusting for confounders. South Asians,
20 Sub-Saharan Africans, and Middle Easterners had lower iron levels by all measures for all
21 hemoglobin intervals. Anemia related to ID varied from 35% (sTfR), 46% (total body iron) to
22 72% (ferritin) dependent on the iron indicator used.

23 **Conclusion:** Women at highest risk of ID and anemia were of South Asian, Middle Eastern
24 and Sub-Saharan African origin. The prevalence of ID differed considerably depending on
25 the iron indicator used.

26 INTRODUCTION

27 The WHO report on anemia (1) states that the prevalence in pregnant women it is about 38 %
28 globally and 25 % in Europe, further that approximately half of anemia cases are caused by
29 iron deficiency (ID), although this proportion differs by population. Both gestational anemia
30 and ID are far more common in low-income countries, and in women who have migrated
31 from low- and middle-income countries to high-income countries (2, 3) compared to women
32 in high-income countries.

33 During pregnancy, iron requirements increase due to the expansion of the red blood
34 cell mass and the transfer of increasing amounts of iron to the placental structures and the
35 growing fetus (4-6). Maternal anemia is associated with preterm birth, small-for-gestational-
36 age birth, low birthweight and stillbirth (5, 6). There is less evidence for associations between
37 maternal iron status and adverse birth outcomes, although a review found that both ID and
38 high iron status were associated with low birthweight and preterm delivery (6). Maternal ID
39 may lead to poorer neonatal iron stores, and ID in infancy and childhood is associated with
40 reduced mental and motor development, fatigue and reduced immune function (5-8).

41 To meet the increased iron requirements, most low-income countries follow
42 recommendations endorsed by WHO on 60 mg iron daily to all pregnant women during 6
43 months of pregnancy (7), however, the recommendations in high-income countries, and even
44 within Scandinavian countries differ (9-13).

45 As in clinical practice, most studies use serum ferritin as indicator on ID in pregnancy.
46 However, the validity of this measure can be questioned as inflammation, infection, and the
47 physiological hemodilution in pregnancy influence the ferritin concentration (7, 14). Serum
48 soluble transferrin receptor (sTfR) is not influenced by pregnancy-related changes (15), but a
49 standardized assay and a definite cut-off value for diagnostic use are still lacking. Total body

50 iron, based on both serum ferritin and sTfR concentrations, has been introduced as an
51 indicator that might better reflect iron status in pregnancy (15-18).

52 Little is known about the prevalence of anemia and ID in pregnant women with
53 different ethnicities living in Europe. Guidelines that reflect today's multi-ethnic populations
54 are needed, as well as a standardized definition of ID in pregnant women. Therefore, the aims
55 of this study were to describe the prevalence of anemia and ID by different indicators in early
56 pregnancy, and associations with ethnicity.

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75 **SUBJECTS AND METHODS**

76 **Study population and sample selection**

77 Data from the STORK Groruddalen Cohort study are from the pregnant multiethnic
78 population in three administrative districts in Oslo, collected at Child Health Clinics for
79 primary antenatal care in the period 2008 – 2010. The study design has been described in
80 detail elsewhere (19). In short, information material and questionnaires were translated into
81 Arabic, English, Sorani, Somali, Tamil, Turkish, Urdu and Vietnamese and quality checked
82 by bilingual health professionals. Women were eligible if they (I) lived in the district, (II)
83 planned to give birth at one of the two study hospitals, (III) were in <20 gestational week
84 calculated from self-reported first day on their last menstrual period, (IV) were not suffering
85 from diseases necessitating intensive hospital follow-up during pregnancy, (V) could
86 communicate in Norwegian or any of the specified languages and (VI) were able to provide
87 written consent. Maternal data were collected through interviews by authorized study
88 personnel, assisted by professional interpreters when needed (19). Clinical measurements and
89 blood samples were collected according to the study protocol, and covered a wide range of
90 demographic and health issues. In total, 823 pregnant healthy women from 65 countries were
91 included, and the participating women were found representative for the main ethnic groups
92 of pregnant women attending the Child Health Clinics (19). Ethical approval was obtained by
93 The Regional Ethics Committee, and written consent was received from all participants.

94 At the time our study was conducted, pregnant women in Norway were offered
95 screening for anemia during pregnancy, but not for iron status. Anemic women were offered
96 iron supplementation in adequate doses (9). In this study we present cross-sectional data from
97 early pregnancy in the Stork Groruddalen Cohort study. We excluded pregnant women with
98 missing serum ferritin or hemoglobin measurements (n=31). Our final sample included 792
99 pregnant women. See **Supplemental Figure 1** under “Online Supporting Material” for the

100 flow chart of participant recruitment. Missing value of serum sTfR (n=11) were equally
101 distributed in the ethnic groups and resulted in a subsample of 781 women.

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103 **Laboratory analysis and variable definitions**

104 **Measures of iron deficiency and anemia**

105 For this study, serum ferritin ($\mu\text{g/L}$) and hemoglobin (g/dL) were analyzed consecutively at
106 the Department of Multidisciplinary Laboratory Medicine and Medical Biochemistry in
107 Akershus University Hospital, Oslo, Norway. Serum ferritin was measured using an electro-
108 chemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA) method (Unicel DxI 800 from Beckman Coulter)
109 with an inter-assay coefficient of variation (CV) of $<7\%$. Hemoglobin was measured using a
110 SLS method (XE 5000 from Sysmex) with an inter-assay CV of 0.7% .

111 After storage at -80°C , serum samples were thawed and high sensitivity C-reactive
112 protein (CRP) and serum sTfR analyzed at the Department of Medical Biochemistry at Oslo
113 University Hospital, Oslo, Norway in 2016. CRP was measured using a particle-
114 enhanced turbidimetric immunoassay (CRP Vario from Sentinel on Vitros 5.1 FS) with an
115 inter-assay CV of $<5\%$. We measured serum sTfR by using ELISA (Modular P800 from
116 Roche) with an inter-assay CV of $<5\%$.

117 We calculated total body iron according to Cook et al (16) on the basis of the ratio of
118 sTfR concentration to ferritin concentration: $-\left[\log_{10}(\text{sTfR} \times 1000 \div \text{ferritin}) - 2.8229\right] \div$
119 0.1207). Positive values of total body iron represent storage iron and negative values indicate
120 a deficient iron supply to peripheral tissues (15, 16, 20). This model is based on sTfR
121 concentration by Flowers assay. To convert our Roche sTfR concentration to Flowers sTfR
122 concentrations, we used the previously described conversion equation (21) Flowers sTfR =
123 $1.5 \times \text{Roche sTfR} + 0.35 \text{ mg/L}$.

124 Anemia was defined as hemoglobin concentrations <11.0 g/dL in the first trimester
125 and hemoglobin concentrations <10.5 g/dL in the second trimester (1, 22). In addition, three
126 established definitions for ID were used: ferritin concentration <15 µg/l (14), sTfR
127 concentration >4.4 mg/L according to the manufacturer's guidelines, and total body iron <0
128 mg/kg (16-18). Hemoglobinopathy was either self-reported, identified from the HPLC (Tosoh
129 G8, Tosoh Corporation) analysis of HbA1c (glycosylated hemoglobin) or from a combination
130 of microcytic anemia and high ferritin.

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132 **Other variables**

133 Ethnic groups were defined as each participant's country of birth or the participant's mother's
134 country of birth if the participant's mother was born outside of Europe or North America. The
135 Western European group comprised participants born in Norway (93%), Sweden, Denmark,
136 other Western European countries and North America. The non-Western groups were
137 categorized as South Asians (primarily from Pakistan and Sri Lanka), Middle Easterners
138 (mainly from Iraq, Morocco and Turkey), East Asians (primarily from Vietnam and The
139 Philippines), Sub-Saharan Africans (primarily from Somalia) and Eastern Europeans
140 (primarily from Poland, Kosovo and Russia). Parity was dichotomized into no children
141 (nulliparous) and one or more children (parity ≥ 1). Education level was dichotomized into
142 <10 years and ≥ 10 years. All participants were asked about their intake of iron supplements
143 during the past two weeks and intake of iron supplements was dichotomized into "yes" and
144 "no".

145 All participants were asked of conditions increasing the risk of anemia or iron status
146 from their medical history, use of medication and contraception use prior to pregnancy. This
147 variable was categorized into 3 groups: (I) no chronic illness/medication, (II) chronic illness
148 and/or medication associated with normochromic anemia (rheumatism or kidney disease,

149 regular medication where anemia is listed as a possible side effect in their profile) and (III)
150 chronic illness/medication associated with hypochromic anemia (gastrointestinal disease or
151 use of copper intrauterine device (IUD) before the current pregnancy).

152 Pre-pregnancy BMI (in kg/m^2) was calculated from self-reported weight before
153 pregnancy and height measured at inclusion. Smoking was dichotomized into regular-
154 smoking and non-smoking/not regular smoking three months before pregnancy. Other
155 variables of interest were age and gestational week at inclusion, calculated from self-reported
156 first day on their last menstrual period.

157 Data from a food frequency questionnaire, developed to capture dietary components in
158 a multi-ethnic sample, was collected at the participants second visit (gestational week 28) and
159 self-reported dietary patterns were extracted through cluster analysis using the Ward's method
160 (23). We further dichotomized these four clusters into "healthy" and "unhealthy". The healthy
161 diet contained a more frequent intake of meat, vegetables, wholegrain bread with pate and
162 meat spread.

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164 **Statistical analyses**

165 Descriptive statistics were presented as frequencies with proportions for categorical variables
166 and mean with standard deviations (SD) and medians with 25th and 75th percentile for
167 continuous variables. The distribution of sTfR, total body iron and hemoglobin were
168 approximately normal. We calculated percentages of abnormal values for ferritin ($<15 \mu\text{g}/\text{l}$),
169 sTfR ($>4.4 \text{ mg}/\text{L}$), total body iron ($<0 \text{ mg}/\text{kg}$) and hemoglobin ($<11.0 \text{ g}/\text{dL}$ in the first and
170 $<10.5 \text{ g}/\text{dL}$ in the second trimester) for the total sample, and for each ethnic group. The
171 differences in prevalence between Western Europeans and each non-Western group were
172 tested by chi-square tests. In a sensitivity analysis, women with elevated CRP concentration
173 were excluded to explore the possible effect of inflammation. We chose trimester-specific

174 cutoffs for elevated CRP, as reported in a study that assessed reference values for CRP in
175 pregnancy (24); (I) >12 mg/L in gestational week 8-16, (II) >14 mg/L in gestational week 17-
176 24, (III) >20 mg/L in gestational week 24-27, and (IV) >37 mg/L in gestational week 28-31).

177 To examine associations between ethnic groups and ID and anemia, we performed
178 linear regression analyses with sTfR, total body iron, and hemoglobin as the outcome
179 variables, and logistic regression analyses with ferritin <15 µg/L as the outcome variable.
180 Ethnic origin was the variable of greatest interest, while gestational week, age, parity,
181 education, iron supplements, chronic illness/medication affecting iron status and anemia, pre-
182 pregnant BMI, smoking and dietary pattern were considered as possible confounders. Factors
183 with a p-value <0.2 in the univariate analysis were included into the multiple regression
184 analyses. Further, stepwise backward selection was performed by deleting the least significant
185 variable, one at a time, until all included variables were statistically significant. Interactions
186 with ethnicity were examined graphically and by entering cross-product terms one-by-one. No
187 significant interactions were observed. Results from linear regressions are presented as β -
188 coefficients and results from logistic regression as odds ratios, both with accompanied 95 %
189 confidence intervals (CV). Model fit is presented by adjusted R^2 or Nagelkerke R^2 , as
190 appropriate. *P*-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant. SPSS (Statistical
191 Package for the Social Sciences; Version 24, IBM SPSS statistics, NY, USA) and Stata
192 (Statistics and data; Version 15.0, Stata Corp LLC, Collage Station, Texas, USA) software
193 were used for statistical analysis.

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198 **RESULTS**

199 A total of 792 women, 59 % of other ethnic origin than Western European, were included
200 (**Table 1**). The mean \pm SD age was 29.8 ± 4.8 years, 46 % were nulliparous, pre-pregnant
201 BMI was 24.5 ± 4.8 kg/m² and 11 % smoked regularly 3 months before conception. At the
202 time of examination, mean \pm SD gestational week was 15.4 ± 3.5 . The non-Western women
203 were younger, had higher parity, and lower education than Western European women, and
204 86 % of the non-Western women reported an unhealthy dietary pattern. In total, 18 % of the
205 women used iron supplements (14 % of Western Europeans and 21% of non-Western). There
206 were no significant differences between the study sample and the 31 excluded women for
207 ethnicity, age, gestational week, parity, pre-pregnant BMI and education (data not shown).

208 The mean \pm SD hemoglobin concentration was 12.5 ± 1.0 g/dL (**Table 2**) and the
209 prevalence of anemia (abnormal value of hemoglobin; hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL in the first and
210 <10.5 g/dL in the second trimester) was 5.9 % in the whole sample. Women with Sub-
211 Saharan African, South Asian, Middle Eastern and East Asian ethnic origin had significant
212 higher prevalence of anemia (abnormal value of hemoglobin, $P < 0.01 - 0.05$) compared to
213 Western Europeans. In total, 65 women had low red blood cell mean corpuscular volume
214 values (<80 fL), of whom 63 were of non-Western origin (data not shown) and three had
215 hemoglobinopathy (Table 2).

216 The prevalence of ID (abnormal value of serum ferritin, sTfR and total body iron;
217 Table 2) differed by iron indicator, and was significantly higher by ferritin than by sTfR and
218 total body iron (chi-square, $P < 0.01$). Further, the prevalence of ID by total body iron was
219 significantly higher than that from sTfR (chi-square, $P < 0.01$). Of the women with ID from
220 total body iron, 98 % were also iron deficient from ferritin, and 52 % were iron deficient by
221 sTfR. Further, in women with normal total body iron, 25 % were iron deficient from ferritin
222 and 1% from sTfR. Of the anemic women in the total sample, 72 % had ID defined by

223 ferritin, however, only 35 % and 46 % from sTfR and total body iron (data not shown). The
224 prevalence of ID by all iron indicators differed between ethnic groups, and was consistently
225 higher in women of South Asian, Middle Eastern, and Sub-Saharan African origin compared
226 to Western European women (Table 2). To study the distribution of total body iron, we
227 categorized the values into nine equally wide groups, presented as grouped midpoint. **Figure**
228 **1** illustrates that the total body iron concentration shifted to the left for all non-Western
229 groups compared to Western Europeans.

230 Further, we categorized hemoglobin concentration into four groups, presented as
231 grouped midpoint, to explore the distribution of the three different iron indicators within the
232 four hemoglobin intervals by ethnicity. **Figure 2** shows that by increasing hemoglobin
233 concentration, women of South Asian, Middle Eastern, and Sub-Saharan African origin had
234 consistently lower mean iron stores than Western European women by all measures.

235 In unadjusted regression analyses, the hemoglobin concentration was lower, and the
236 iron status was poorer by all three iron indicator (i.e. serum sTfR was higher, total body iron
237 was lower, and the risk for ID by ferritin was higher) in women of South-Asian, Middle
238 Eastern and Sub-Saharan African origin, compared to Western European women (**Table 3**
239 **and table 4**). These ethnic differences persisted after adjustment for possible confounders
240 (gestational week, age, parity, education, pre-pregnant BMI, iron supplements, chronic illness
241 and medication affecting iron status and anemia, smoking and dietary pattern). In addition,
242 women of Eastern European origin had lower total body iron and increased risk for ID from
243 ferritin, compared to Western European women. High gestational week was associated with
244 low hemoglobin and poor iron status by all three iron indicators (i.e. serum sTfR was higher,
245 total body iron was lower, and the risk for ID by ferritin was higher), whereas multiparity (≥ 1)
246 and low education (< 10 years) were associated with poorer iron status (i.e. serum sTfR was
247 higher, total body iron was lower, and the risk for ID by ferritin was higher) only. In addition,

248 low pre-pregnant BMI, low age and use of iron supplements were independently associated
249 with low total body iron. Lastly, low pre-pregnant BMI and use of iron supplements were also
250 independently associated with low hemoglobin, as well as chronic illness and medication
251 affecting iron status and hypochromic anemia. The ethnic groups with highest prevalence of
252 anemia and iron deficiency also had the highest prevalence of an unhealthy dietary pattern
253 (Table 1), but our dietary pattern variable was not independently associated with any iron
254 indicator in the multiple regression analyses. The sensitivity analysis indicated that 11 % (2 –
255 13 % within the different ethnic groups) of the women had elevated CRP concentrations.
256 Excluding these women with possible inflammation from the analyses, resulted in modest
257 changes in the prevalence of ID (**Supplemental Table 1** under “Online Supporting
258 Material”).

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273 **DISCUSSION**

274 To the best of our knowledge, this is one of very few population-based studies from Europe
275 assessing anemia and ID in a multiethnic sample of healthy pregnant women, and the only
276 study comparing three indicators of ID. Of note, only 18% of women in the sample used iron
277 supplements in early pregnancy, and the prevalence of anemia in Western Europeans was low.
278 The prevalence of ID varied substantially depending on the iron indicator used. The highest
279 prevalence of ID was found for ferritin, and the lowest for sTfR. Women from South Asia,
280 Middle East, and Sub-Saharan Africa were more prone to anemia and ID by all iron
281 indicators, and these ethnic differences persisted after adjustments for confounders. Further,
282 the iron level remained lower for these ethnic minority groups regardless of the hemoglobin
283 concentration interval. In Western European women, the prevalence of ID from sTfR and total
284 body iron was low.

285 In our study, the overall prevalence of anemia (5.9 %) in early pregnancy is
286 comparable to other studies from Europe (3, 25-27) and the United States (18, 28), although
287 some epidemiological European studies in pregnant women report a prevalence of anemia up
288 to 30% (29). The low prevalence of anemia in Western Europeans (1.8%) in our study is in
289 accordance to the prevalence in Caucasians in other studies from Europe and the United
290 States (3, 18, 28). The prevalence of anemia in non-Western women (0 – 14 %) in our study is
291 comparable to reports on non-Caucasians from the United States (4 – 18 %) (18, 28), but
292 lower than in a Danish study (3) and considerably lower than the prevalence of anemia in
293 their countries of origin (1).

294 Women who has migrated to Western Europe from low – and middle income
295 countries are generally more iron deficient (3, 26, 27, 30) than Western European women.
296 The overall prevalence of ID from ferritin in early pregnancy in our study was relatively high
297 (33%) compared to other epidemiologic studies performed in Europe (6 – 23 %) (31) as well

298 as in two population-based studies from the United States (NHANES) (7 %) (18) and
299 Australia (20 %) (32). However, in Western Europeans, our findings were similar to the
300 prevalence in Caucasians in a British study and in NHANES (20 – 23 %) (18, 26), but for
301 non-Western the prevalence was higher (45%) compared to results from NHANES (23 –
302 39 %) (18), although the composition of ethnic groups differed.

303 The overall prevalence of ID by sTfR (6.5%) and total body iron (11%) in our study
304 was similar to findings in first trimester in NHANES (18), but lower than in an Australian
305 study (32). However, in contrast to findings in NHANES, where 12 – 13 % of the Caucasians
306 were iron deficient by sTfR and total body iron, less than 1% of Western Europeans in our
307 study were iron deficient by these indicators. The prevalence of ID in non-Westerners in our
308 study was similar to the findings of non-Caucasians in NHANES (18).

309 Generally, comparisons between studies are hampered by different sampling methods,
310 assays or cut-off values. Without information from the “gold standard” method, iron staining
311 of bone marrow during, the ‘true’ prevalence of ID is unknown, and we cannot calculate the
312 sensitivity or specificity for the proxy indicators. In the first study of total body iron, the
313 change in iron parameters after repeated phlebotomy was reported (20). In 2003, a stronger
314 correlation was found for total body iron than for sTfR or serum ferritin between a given iron
315 dose and the increase in the iron indicators in anemic pregnant women (16). The large
316 difference in the prevalence of ID between the iron indicators in our study contrasts somewhat
317 with findings from the United States and Australia (18, 32). Interestingly, a study from
318 Belgium found even lower prevalence of ID by ferritin and sTfR, and higher median total
319 body iron in early pregnancy than in our study, but the use of iron supplements in the study
320 population was higher than in our (27). The low prevalence on ID from both sTfR and total
321 body iron in the Western Europeans might indicate that these measures better reflect the low
322 prevalence of anemia in these groups than serum ferritin.

323 Although we lack detailed information about dietary iron intake in our study, about
324 90% in the ethnic minority groups with highest prevalence of ID had an unhealthy dietary
325 pattern. Results from other Norwegian studies, indicated that the diet of pregnant women of
326 South Asian origin was richer on phytates, inhibiting the iron absorption (2), but even in
327 ethnic Norwegian pregnant women the estimated daily intake of iron was less than
328 recommended for pregnant women (33).

329 Regarding iron loss, 10% in our sample reported a chronic disease or used relevant
330 medication that could induce anemia or ID, with no difference between ethnic groups. We
331 can, however, not rule out that iron loss might be aggravated in some ethnic minority women
332 due to intestinal - or other infections. However, when it comes to increased iron requirements,
333 the higher parity of non-Western women might contribute to their higher prevalence of iron
334 deficiency and anemia (14, 34).

335 In total, we found indications of hemoglobinopathy in only three women. This is an
336 underestimate when we compare our findings to a British study (26) , although our results are
337 in line with the results in a study from Oslo University Hospital where all hemoglobin
338 samples with mean corpuscular volume less than 70 fL were tested for hemoglobinopathies
339 (35).

340 Strengths of the present study include its population-based sample, and several
341 adaptations to reduce barriers for inclusion of ethnic minorities even illiterate women (19).
342 We collected a broad, high quality data set, which enabled us to explore relations between
343 several indicators of iron status, and we adjusted for a range of possible confounders. As the
344 majority of the women in our study did not use iron supplements, our study adds important
345 knowledge on the iron status in early pregnancy and helps to detect high risk women. We also
346 added sensitivity analyses where women with elevated CRP and possible inflammation that
347 could influence our results were excluded.

348 However, there are also limitations to report. First, it was not feasible in a primary
349 care setting of pregnant women, to use iron staining of bone marrow to measure ID. Second,
350 as women were recruited consecutively as they attended Child Health Clinics, the gestational
351 week differed somewhat, indicating that the degree of hemodilution affecting ferritin
352 concentrations varied, and we therefor adjusted for gestational week (36). Further, the
353 collected food frequency data was used to identify dietary patterns, not directly the iron intake
354 (23). In addition, the usefulness of serum sTfR as a marker of ID is limited by lack of
355 standardized commercial immunoassays for sTfR. Lastly, as few women had anemia, these
356 estimates are less precise.

357 As clinical implications of our research, we suggest enhanced awareness of the high
358 prevalence of anemia and ID in pregnant women of South Asian, Middle Eastern and Sub-
359 Saharan African origin. Our findings also support that these women should be offered
360 screening for ID in pregnancy even with normal hemoglobin concentrations, in line with some
361 clinical guidelines (11, 12), but not all (13). Lastly, good-quality studies exploring the
362 optimal level of iron indicators in relation to important clinical outcomes, as well as a
363 threshold defining ID by different measures in pregnancy are required.

364 To conclude, we present the first population based study from Europe on ID from
365 three different blood-based indicators in a multi-ethnic sample of healthy, pregnant women
366 where few women used iron supplements. The prevalence of anemia was low in the WHO
367 context (1), and the ID prevalence differed substantially by indicator. Clinicians should be
368 aware of the substantially higher prevalence of anemia and ID by all three iron indicators in
369 pregnant women with origin from South Asia, Middle East and Sub-Saharan Africa compared
370 to women with origin from Western Europe and lower iron levels by all measures for all
371 hemoglobin intervals.

372

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384

385 **The authors' responsibilities were as follows:** MNA had full access to all data in this study
386 and is responsible for the integrity of data and accuracy of the data analysis; MNA, ÅRE,
387 JPB, and AKJ contributed to the study concept and design, to analysis, tables and
388 interpretation of data, and critical revision of the manuscript. RSF guided the statistical
389 analysis, revised the tables and the manuscript. None of the authors have conflicts of interest
390 to report.

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No / not regular	695 (89)	262 (81)	433 (94)	196 (99)	114 (93)	56 (97)	40 (91)	27 (66)
Regular	90 (11)	61 (19)	29 (6)	1 (1)	8 (7)	2 (3)	4 (9)	14 (34)
Dietary pattern ⁴								
Healthy	241 (33)	183 (60)	58 (14)	16 (9)	10 (9)	9 (19)	10 (25)	13 (32)
Unhealthy	491 (67)	120 (40)	371 (86)	173 (91)	102 (91)	38 (81)	30 (75)	28 (68)
Iron supplements								
No	650 (82)	281 (86)	369 (79)	152 (77)	102 (83)	45 (78)	32 (73)	38 (88)
Yes	142 (18)	45 (14)	97 (21)	46 (23)	21 (17)	13 (22)	12 (27)	5 (12)
Chronic illness/medication								
No	716 (90)	290 (89)	426 (91)	184 (93)	110 (89)	54 (94)	38 (87)	40 (93)
Yes, with normochromic anemia ⁵	23(3)	11(3)	12 (3)	3 (2)	6 (5)	2 (3)	1 (2)	0 (0)
Yes, with hypochromic anemia ⁶	53 (7)	25 (8)	28 (6)	11 (5)	7 (6)	2 (3)	5 (11)	3 (7)

¹ Values are n (%) if not stated otherwise.

²missing information in 6 women.

³self-reported smoking 3 months before conception. Missing information in 7 women.

⁴self-reported dietary pattern in gestational week 28. Missing information in 60 women.

⁵women with chronic illness or medication affecting iron status and normochromic anemia (rheumatism or kidney disease, regular medication where anemia is listed as a possible side effect in their profile).

⁶women with chronic illness or medication affecting iron status and hypochromic anemia (gastrointestinal disease or use of copper intrauterine device (IUD) before the current pregnancy)

Abbreviations used: IUD; intrauterine device, n; number of observations, SD, standard deviation.

Group designation; Western Europe; participants with origin from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, other Western European countries and North America. Non-Western; participants from South Asia, Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa, East Asia and East Europe. South Asia; participants with origin primarily from Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Middle East; participants with origin primarily from Iraq, Morocco and Turkey. East Asia; participants with origin primarily from Vietnam and The Philippines. Sub-Saharan Africa; participants with origin primarily from Somalia. East Europe participants with origin primarily from Poland, Kosovo and Russia.

Table 2: Values for serum ferritin, serum soluble transferrin receptor (sTfR), total body and sTfR concentrations) and serum hemoglobin, and prevalence of abnormal values (iron deficiency and anemia) in pregnant women in STORK-Groruddalen study

		Ferritin	sTfR	Total body iron	Hemoglobin
	n	µg/L	mg/L	mg/kg	g/dL
Mean ± SD	¹	32.5 ± 33.0	2.5 ± 1.2	4.8 ± 4.0	12.5 ± 1.0
Median (25th and 75th percentile)	¹	21 (12, 40)	2.2 (1.8, 2.9)	4.9 (2.2, 7.7)	12.1 (11.4, 12.7)
Prevalence of abnormal values ²					
Total sample	¹	33 (30, 36)	6.5 (5.0, 8.5)	11 (8.9, 13)	5.9 (4.5, 7.8) ³
By ethnic groups ⁴					
Western Europe	322	15 (12, 20)	0.3 (0.04, 2.2)	0.6 (0.2, 2.5)	1.8 (0.8, 4.1)
South Asia	195	50 (43, 57)**	12 (7.9, 17)**	21 (15, 27)**	11 (7.0, 16)**
Middle East	123	43 (35, 52)**	11 (6.8, 18)**	17 (11, 25)**	7.3 (3.8, 14)**
Sub-Saharan Africa	54	55 (42, 68)**	20 (11, 34)**	28 (17, 42)**	14 (6.9, 26)**
South Asia	44	27 (16, 43)*	4.5 (1.1, 17)**	9.1 (3.3, 23)**	6.8 (2.1, 20)*
Eastern Europe	43	37 (24, 53)**	0	7.0 (2.2, 20)**	0

¹ n=792 for serum ferritin and hemoglobin, n=781 for sTfR and total body iron

² Abnormal values presented as percentage; 95% CI in parentheses; defined as serum ferritin <15 mcg/L, serum sTfR >4.4 mg/L, total body iron <0 mg/kg, and hemoglobin <0 mg/kg, and hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL for pregnant women in the first trimester and <10.5 g/dL in the second trimester.

³ Hemoglobinopathy (n=3) was either self-reported, identified from the HPLC Tosoh G8, Tosoh Corporation) analysis of HbA1c or from a combination of microcytic anemia and high ferritin

⁴ The differences in prevalence of abnormal values between Western Europeans and each non-Western group were tested by chi-square test; * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$

Abbreviations used: CI, confidence interval; HbA1c; glycosylated hemoglobin, n; number of observations, SD, standard deviation; sTfR soluble transferrin receptor.

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Table 3: Linear regression analyses of the iron indicators serum soluble transferrin receptor (sTfR) concentration and total body iron concentration (calculated from serum ferritin and sTfR concentrations), and of hemoglobin concentration in pregnant women with different ethnic origin in the STORK-Groruddalen study ^{1,2}

	sTfR (mg/L)		Total body iron (mg/kg)		Hemoglobin (g/dL)	
	β , 95% CI ¹	adj β ^{1,2} (95% CI)	β (95% CI) ¹	adj β ^{1,3} (95% CI)	β (95% CI) ¹	adj β ^{1,4} (95% CI)
		R ² = 0.19		R ² = 0.30		R ² = 0.20
Ethnicity						
(Western European ref)						
South Asia	1.0 (0.8, 1.2)**	0.9 (0.7, 1.8)**	-3.8 (-4.5, -3.2)**	-2.9 (-3.6, -2.3)**	-0.6 (-0.8, -0.4)**	-0.4 (-0.6, -0.3)**
Middle East	0.7 (0.5, 0.9)**	0.5 (0.3, 1.1)**	-3.0 (-3.8, -2.3)**	-2.0 (-2.8, -1.3)**	-0.5 (-0.7, -0.3)**	-0.4 (-0.6, -0.2)**
Sub-Saharan Africa	1.3 (0.9, 1.6)**	1.0 (0.7, 1.4)**	-4.1 (-5.1, -3.1)**	-2.9 (-4.0, -1.9)**	-0.6 (-0.8, -0.3)**	-0.4 (-0.6, 0.1)**
East Asia	0.3 (-0.03, 0.7)	0.2 (-0.2, 0.5)	-0.2 (-1.3, 0.9)	0.8 (-0.3, 1.8)	-0.4 (-0.7, -0.1)*	-0.2 (-0.4, 0.1)
Eastern Europe	0.0 (-0.3, -0.4)	0.0 (-0.4, 0.3)	-1.6 (-2.8, -0.5)*	-1.4 (-2.5, -0.3)*	0.1 (-0.3, 0.3)	0.1 (-0.2, 0.3)

¹ n=781 for serum sTfR and total body iron, n=792 for serum hemoglobin.

² Univariate and multiple regression estimates for [sTfR], adjusted for gestational week, age, parity, education, smoking and dietary pattern. *; $P < 0.05$, **; $P < 0.01$.

³ Univariate and multiple regression estimates for [total body iron], adjusted for gestational week, age, parity, education, pre-pregnant BMI, iron supplement, smoking and dietary pattern. *; $P < 0.05$, **; $P < 0.01$.

⁴ Univariate and multiple regression estimates for [hemoglobin], adjusted for gestational week, parity, education, pre-pregnant BMI, iron supplement, chronic illness/medicine, smoking and dietary pattern. *; $P < 0.05$, **; $P < 0.01$.

Abbreviations: adj; adjusted, CI, confidence interval; n; number of observations, ref; reference; R²; R square, sTfR, soluble transferrin receptor.

Group designation; Western Europe; participants with origin from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, other Western European countries and North America. Non-Western; participants from South Asia, Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa, East Asia and East Europe. South Asia; participants with origin primarily from Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Middle East; participants with origin primarily from Iraq, Morocco and Turkey. East Asia; participants with origin primarily from Vietnam and The Philippines. Sub-Saharan Africa; participants with origin primarily from Somalia. East Europe participants with origin primarily from Poland, Kosovo and Russia.

Table 4: Logistic regression analyses of serum ferritin concentration < 15 µg/dL in pregnant women with different ethnic origin in the STORK-Groruddalen study (n = 792)¹

	OR (95% CI)	Adj OR (95% CI) ¹
		R ² = 0.26
Ethnicity (Western European ref)		
South Asia	5.6 (3.7, 8.5)*	4.4 (2.9, 6.8)*
Middle East	4.3 (2.7, 6.8)*	3.0 (1.8, 5.0)*
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.0 (3.8, 12.7)*	4.4 (2.2, 8.6)*
East Asia	2.1 (1.0, 4.4)	1.3 (0.6, 2.8)
East Europe	3.4 (1.7, 6.7)*	3.2 (1.5, 6.7)*

¹ Univariate and multiple regression estimates for serum ferritin concentration < 15 µg/dL, adjusted for gestational week, parity, education, pre-pregnant body mass index, iron supplement, smoking and dietary pattern. *; $P < 0.01$

Abbreviations: Adj, adjusted; CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio, ref; reference, n; number of observations, R²; Nagelkerke R-square

Group designation; Western Europe; participants with origin from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, other Western European countries and North America. Non-Western; participants from South Asia, Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa, East Asia and East Europe. South Asia; participants with origin primarily from Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Middle East; participants with origin primarily from Iraq, Morocco and Turkey. East Asia;

participants with origin primarily from Vietnam and The Philippines. Sub-Saharan Africa; participants with origin primarily from Somalia. East Europe participants with origin primarily from Poland, Kosovo and Russia.

Figure legends

Figure 1.

Title: Distribution of Total body iron (calculated from serum ferritin and soluble transferrin receptor concentrations) in pregnant women by ethnic group from STORK-Groruddalen study. Nine total body iron concentration intervals presented as grouped midpoint.

Nonstandard abbreviations: Group designation; Western Europe; participants with origin from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, other Western European countries and North America. South Asia; participants with origin primarily from Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Middle East; participants with origin primarily from Iraq, Morocco and Turkey. East Asia; participants with origin primarily from Vietnam and The Philippines. Sub-Saharan Africa; participants with origin primarily from Somalia. East Europe participants with origin primarily from Poland, Kosovo and Russia.

Figure 2.

Title: Median ferritin concentration ($\mu\text{g/L}$), mean serum sTfR (mg/L), and mean total body iron (mg/kg) in four hemoglobin concentration (g/dL) intervals.

Nonstandard abbreviations: Hb; hemoglobin. Group designation; Western Europe; participants with origin from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, other Western European countries and North America. South Asia; participants with origin primarily from Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Middle East; participants with origin primarily from Iraq, Morocco and Turkey. East Asia; participants with origin primarily from Vietnam and The

Philippines. Sub-Saharan Africa; participants with origin primarily from Somalia. East Europe participants with origin primarily from Poland, Kosovo and Russia.