

A modelling tool for calculating dietary iron bioavailability in iron sufficient adults

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Short running head: Model to calculate dietary iron bioavailability

Abbreviations:

SF serum ferritin

NDNS National Diet and Nutrition Survey

NANS National Adult Nutrition Survey

NU-AGE New dietary strategies addressing the specific needs of the elderly population for healthy aging in Europe

PRI Population Reference Intake

Clinical Trial Registry number (ClinicalTrials.gov): NCT01754012 (NU-AGE)

1 Abstract

2 **Background:** Values for dietary iron bioavailability are required for setting dietary reference
3 values. Different approaches have been adopted to produce these values, including predictive
4 algorithms, measurements of non-heme iron absorption from meals, and a combined model of
5 iron intake, serum ferritin concentration and estimates of physiological iron requirements.

6 **Objective:** To provide a new interactive tool to predict dietary iron bioavailability in
7 populations where iron intakes and serum ferritin concentrations have been measured.

8 **Design:** Data for iron intake and serum ferritin (a quantitative marker of body iron stores)
9 from three studies, two of which were nationally representative surveys of adults in the UK
10 and Ireland, and one a study in elderly men and women, were used to develop a model for the
11 prediction of dietary iron absorption at each level of serum ferritin concentration. Individuals
12 with raised inflammatory markers or taking supplements that contained iron were excluded.

13 **Results:** Mean iron intakes (mg/d) were 13.6 (SD 5.2), 10.3 (SD 4.1) and 10.9 (SD 3.5), and
14 mean serum ferritin concentrations ($\mu\text{g/L}$) were 140.7 (SD 113.6), 49.4 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (SD 45.8) and
15 96.7 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (SD 72.8) in men, pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women, respectively. The
16 model predicts that at serum ferritin concentrations of 15, 30 and 60 $\mu\text{g/L}$ respectively, mean
17 dietary iron absorption would be 22.3%, 16.3% and 11.6% in men, 27.2%, 17.2% and 10.6%
18 in pre-menopausal women, and 18.4%, 12.7% and 10.5% in post-menopausal women.

19 **Conclusions:** An interactive program for calculating dietary iron absorption at any level of
20 serum ferritin concentration is presented. Differences in iron status were partly explained by
21 age but also by diet, with meat being a key determinant of serum ferritin concentration. The
22 effect of diet was more marked at lower serum ferritin concentrations. The model can be
23 applied to any adult population where representative, good quality data on iron intake and
24 iron status have been collected. Furthermore, dietary iron bioavailability values can be
25 derived for any target level of serum ferritin, thus giving risk managers and public health

26 professionals a flexible and transparent basis upon which to base their dietary
27 recommendations.

28

29 **Keywords:** iron bioavailability, dietary iron absorption, dietary reference values, serum
30 ferritin, iron intake

31

32 **Introduction**

33 The bioavailability of dietary iron can be defined as the proportion (or %) of ingested iron
34 that is absorbed and utilised within the body. A value for dietary iron bioavailability
35 (sometimes referred to as the bioavailability factor) is required to transform physiological
36 requirements (i.e. absorbed iron) into dietary intakes, and hence to derive dietary reference
37 values (DRVs), and to develop dietary recommendations and public health policies. Initially,
38 bioavailability factors were derived from predictive algorithms based on the intake of heme
39 iron and enhancers of non-heme iron absorption (1). This was followed by more complex
40 algorithms which included inhibitors as well as enhancers of non-heme iron absorption (2, 3)
41 where the magnitude of effect of modifiers of non-heme iron absorption was determined from
42 single meal studies. In view of the fact that the effect of enhancers and inhibitors may be
43 exaggerated in single meal studies (4), average absorption of non-heme iron from more than
44 one meal was used to reflect more closely the whole diet (5, 6). However, these do not reflect
45 the diet that is consumed over time, and also an adjustment has to be made to take into
46 account the heme content of the diet, with an assumed absorption value.

47

48 We recently developed a novel predictive model for estimating dietary iron bioavailability
49 based on measurements of total iron intake (heme and non-heme iron), serum ferritin (SF)
50 concentration and factorial calculations of iron requirements (7). The latter were derived
51 using the National Academy of Medicine approach for estimating iron losses (8). Individual

52 data for 495 men and 378 pre-menopausal women were used for a model that estimated the
53 prevalence of dietary intakes that were assumed to be insufficient to meet the needs of men
54 and women (separately) based on their daily iron intake and a series of absorption values. The
55 prevalence of SF concentrations below selected cut-off values was derived and an estimate of
56 dietary iron absorption required to maintain specific SF values was then calculated by
57 matching the observed prevalence of insufficiency with the prevalence predicted for the
58 series of absorption estimates. It was therefore possible to estimate dietary iron absorption
59 (bioavailability) at a population level from the individual measurements of total iron intake
60 and SF concentration. In this article, we describe the results of applying the model to other
61 studies, and present a refined interactive model that can be used as a tool to predict dietary
62 iron bioavailability in populations where iron intakes and serum ferritin concentrations have
63 been measured.

64

65 **Subjects and Methods**

66 Data were used from three studies, the National Diet and Nutrition Survey (NDNS), the
67 National Adult Nutrition Survey (NANS) and the New Dietary Strategies Addressing the
68 Specific Needs of the Elderly Population for Healthy Ageing in Europe study (NU-AGE).
69 Briefly, NDNS (9) and NANS (10) were nationally representative samples of adults
70 (excluding pregnant and breast-feeding women) in the UK (19-64 years) and Republic of
71 Ireland (19 years and older), respectively. The NU-AGE study was a randomised controlled
72 multicentre trial of healthy, independent older people (without frailty, heart failure or serious
73 chronic illness) aged 65–79 years with the aim of assessing the effects of a one year dietary
74 intervention on markers of inflammation and health (11, 12). We used baseline data from the
75 UK participants only, as their dietary patterns were likely to be similar to the other UK
76 surveys; the data were collected between September 2012 and January 2014. The detailed
77 methods for data collection have been previously published (9, 10, 11, 12), but the

78 information pertinent to this article (dietary assessment and analytical methods) are
79 summarised below.

80

81 Dietary intake was assessed using seven-day food diaries in NDNS and NU-AGE and four-
82 day semi-weighed food records in NANS. Participants were asked to record detailed
83 information on the amount and type of all foods and drinks consumed over consecutive days.
84 To ensure accuracy of recording, participants were interviewed or a researcher visited
85 participants in their homes to review the food records and clarify any inconsistencies.

86

87 Height was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using the Leicester height measure in all three
88 studies and weight was measured to the nearest 100g using calibrated scales (Soehnle
89 Quantatron scales, NDNS; Tanita body composition analyzer BC-420MA (NANS): and
90 Seca electronic column scales, NU-AGE).

91

92 Blood samples reached laboratories within five hours of collection and were processed and
93 stored at -80°C until required for further analysis. Serum ferritin (SF) was measured either
94 using a microparticle enzyme immunoassay assay (IMx, Abbott Laboratories, NDNS),
95 automated analyser (RX Daytona, Randox, NANS) or an electrochemiluminescence
96 immunoassay (Cobas 6000, Roche Diagnostics, NU-AGE). Hemoglobin concentrations
97 were determined using either a Bayer H3 automated analyzer (NDNS), Coulter LH700 series
98 analyser (NANS) or Sysmex XN (NU-AGE).

99

100 SF is an acute phase reactant, therefore in the presence of infection or inflammation, the
101 concentration does not accurately reflect iron stores. C-reactive protein (CRP) and α -1-
102 antichymotrypsin (ACT) are two of the biomarkers used to detect the presence of infection or
103 inflammation and hence enable the exclusion of individuals with artificially high SF values

104 (13). Serum CRP (hs-CRP) concentrations were measured using an automated analyser, RX
105 Daytona, Randox (NANS) or ProcartaPlex kits (Affimetrix) (NU-AGE) and any participants
106 with a raised hs-CRP (>5 mg/L) were excluded. For the NDNS the acute phase reactant ACT
107 was measured.

108

109 In NANS, 1500 individuals were recruited to the study and hsCRP was measured in 849
110 subjects. Those with a CRP < 5 mg/L (n=719) who were not taking supplements containing
111 iron (n=656) and in whom SF had been measured (n=650) were included in the analysis. In
112 the UK arm of the NU-AGE study 272 participants were recruited. Complete data on all
113 relevant parameters were available for 246 participants, but 13 participants (5%) with raised
114 hs-CRP levels (>5 mg/L) were subsequently excluded and 37 participants were excluded
115 because they were taking supplements containing iron; this left 196 subjects whose data were
116 included in the current analysis. In the NDNS data we used the same exclusion criteria as for
117 the other two studies (i.e. excluded if taking supplements containing iron and/or having raised
118 inflammatory markers). This has been described previously (7).

119

120 Iron absorption was estimated from the measured iron intakes along a scale of assumed iron
121 absorption values (1-40%). Requirements for absorbed iron were predicted using the
122 Institute of Medicine's distribution of dietary intake requirements, with values interpolated to
123 derive iron absorption requirements for each 0.5th percentile (9). These values were
124 compared to each individual's absorbed iron estimate at each point on the 1-40% scale and
125 the average absorption for the population was calculated. Subtracting these values from 100
126 gave the estimated percentage of the population who require a higher iron absorption to meet
127 their requirements (i.e. the estimated prevalence of inadequate iron intakes). A model was
128 created for the prediction of dietary iron absorption at each level of SF concentration using

129 the assumption that the estimated prevalence of inadequate intakes would be equivalent to the
130 observed prevalence of iron insufficiency, as defined by SF concentrations.

131

132 **Ethics**

133 Ethical approval for NDNS was granted by The South Thames Multi-Centre Research Ethics
134 Committee

135 (https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/216484/dh_1
136 28550.pdf), for NANS by University College Cork Clinical Research Ethics Committee of
137 the Cork Teaching Hospitals (ECM 3 (p) 04/11/08), and for NU-AGE by the National
138 Research Ethics Committee East of England (12/EE/0109). Written informed consent was
139 obtained from all participants.

140

141 **Statistics**

142 In view of the effects of sex and menstrual blood loss in women on iron status, all analyses
143 were stratified by sex and by menopausal status. Differences in the characteristics of the
144 participants in the three study cohorts were compared using one-way ANOVA. The
145 distribution of SF was calculated individually for each sex and menopausal group and the
146 cumulative frequencies calculated.

147

148 We examined associations between estimated iron intake from meat and SF concentrations.
149 Quintiles of intake were calculated and ANCOVA was used to calculate adjusted means and
150 evaluate statistical trends with adjustment for age, BMI, total iron intake and study cohort.

151

152 Statistical analysis was performed using Stata version 14 (StataCorp, College Station, Texas,
153 USA) and R version 3.2.3 (14).

154

155 Results

156 A flow chart (**Supplemental Figure 1**) showing the numbers of participants recruited and
157 excluded at different stages of the 3 studies is available as Online Supplemental Material.
158 Details of the three studies, including study subjects, exclusion criteria, analytical methods
159 and dietary assessment are summarised in **Supplemental Table 1**. The characteristics of the
160 participants from the three studies are presented in **Table 1** and individual data are given in
161 **Supplemental File 1**. The % of individuals with acute phase reactant values indicative of
162 inflammation or infection (hsCRP >5 mg/L or α -1-ACT >0.65 g/L) were 0% in NDNS, 15%
163 in NANS, and 5% in NU-AGE. These individuals were excluded from the analysis as their
164 SF concentration may have been elevated and therefore not reflect iron stores accurately.

165

166 The combined mean iron intakes were 13.6 (SD 5.2), 10.3 (SD 4.1) and 10.9 (SD 3.5) mg/d
167 in men, pre- and post-menopausal women, respectively. For post-menopausal women, the
168 mean intake was very close to the Population Reference Intake (PRI) of 11 mg/d, and for men
169 it was higher than the PRI of 11 mg/d, but for pre-menopausal women the intake was lower
170 than the PRI of 16 mg/d (15). However, all groups had intakes above the Average
171 Requirement (6, 7, and 6 mg/d for men, pre- and post-menopausal women respectively).

172

173 The majority of the participants (95%) were iron sufficient (SF >15 μ g/L). Mean SF values
174 were 140.7 μ g/L (\pm 113.6), 49.4 μ g/L (\pm 45.8) and 96.7 μ g/L (\pm 72.8) in men, pre-
175 menopausal women and post-menopausal women, respectively; the cumulative distributions
176 of SF concentrations are shown in **Figure 1**. There was a significant difference in mean SF
177 concentrations between the three cohorts, with higher values reported in the NANS across all
178 sex and menopausal status groups. Despite higher SF levels, iron intake was not higher in the
179 NANS compared to the other two cohorts although iron intake from meat was significantly
180 higher.

181

182 **Figure 2** shows the predicted prevalence of inadequate iron intakes at different levels of
183 estimated iron absorption, using combined data from the three cohorts. When iron absorption
184 was 18% the predicted prevalence of inadequate iron intakes were 5%, 35% and 3% in men,
185 pre-menopausal women and post-menopausal women, respectively. These data reflect the
186 capacity of the diet to meet iron requirements and when combined with SF values allow
187 prediction of the dietary absorption required to maintain a specific iron status (see
188 **Supplemental File 2**). For example, at SF concentrations below 15 $\mu\text{g/L}$ the mean dietary
189 iron absorption ranges from 19% in post-menopausal women to 27% in pre-menopausal
190 women, compared to 11-12 % for SF concentrations of 60 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (**Figure 3**).

191

192 In both men and women there was a positive association between iron intake from meat and
193 SF after adjustment for total iron intake, age and BMI (**Figure 4**). There was a difference in
194 iron intake from meat between extreme quintiles of intake of 4.3 mg for men and 3.0 mg for
195 women. SF was 32.0 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (± 11.8) higher in quintile 5 compared to quintile 1 of intake for
196 men (P-trend = 0.02) and 14.9 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (± 6.1) higher for women (P-trend = 0.01).

197

198 The program for calculating dietary iron absorption at any level of SF concentration can be
199 found in Supplemental File 2.

200

201 **Discussion**

202 In our model, the differences in iron status between the 3 study population groups were partly
203 explained by age (post-menopausal women have a lower iron status than pre-menopausal
204 women due to their lower iron requirements) but also by diet i.e. the higher intake of meat in
205 the NANS groups was associated with higher SF concentration. When adequate body iron
206 stores are present at a SF concentration of 60 $\mu\text{g/L}$, the efficiency of iron absorption is no

207 longer upregulated (16), and the computed differences in dietary iron absorption were
208 minimal, but with a lower SF, the effect of diet became more marked, illustrating the
209 importance of applying iron intake and SF data collected in populations with different dietary
210 patterns. In particular, it appears that meat consumption is a key determinant of body iron
211 status.

212

213 Although iron requirements for individuals can be estimated reasonably accurately (15) the
214 dietary intake needed to supply this quantity of absorbed iron is notoriously difficult to
215 estimate because of the uncertainty about dietary iron absorption. In healthy individuals, the
216 key determinants of fractional iron absorption are dietary factors (17) and body iron status
217 (18), plus short-term regulation related to previous exposure of the mucosal cells to iron (19).
218 However, when reliable measures of total iron intake and body iron status exist, the unknown
219 variable (dietary iron absorption) can be computed by taking into account calculated
220 physiological requirements. A strength of our study is the use of high quality data for iron
221 intake and iron status. Furthermore, individuals with raised inflammatory markers were
222 removed from the dataset used to derive the model as they may have had an artificially high
223 SF concentration that did not reflect body iron stores accurately. We also excluded
224 individuals who had been taking supplements containing iron as it impossible to quantify
225 their contribution to total iron intake.

226

227 There are some limitations that should be considered when using the model. Although the
228 three datasets used for this study were obtained from 4/7-day dietary intakes (see
229 Supplemental Table 1), participant burden should be considered, particularly for large-scale
230 epidemiology studies or surveys. Data collected using other dietary assessment methods, such
231 as 24 hr recall or Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ) may still be applied to the model, but
232 the limitations of these intake methods should be acknowledged in the conclusions. Although

233 we were able to exclude users of supplements containing iron and also individuals with
234 elevated inflammatory markers from the datasets, there was insufficient information available
235 to assess whether any individuals were taking prescribed or over-the-counter medicines, or
236 had particular medical conditions, that could affect iron absorption or body iron status.
237 Individuals with chronic conditions were generally excluded from participation in the studies,
238 although the aim was to select a cohort that was representative of the population group.
239 Furthermore, evidence for the effect of specific medical conditions and medicines on iron
240 absorption and/or status is limited, and a large proportion of the general population routinely
241 take some form of medication, therefore excluding these individuals is not practical and
242 would result in a very limited dataset. However, it remains important to consider all of these
243 potential issues when collecting data for the model and interpreting the results.

244

245 Although it is not possible to measure iron requirements accurately in large numbers of
246 individuals, particularly women of child-bearing age whose requirements are largely dictated
247 by the magnitude of menstrual blood loss, population means can be computed, and these are
248 what are needed to set DRVs, and to develop dietary guidelines and public health policies.
249 When setting DRVs for adults, the National Academy of Medicine (2001) used an iron
250 bioavailability value of 18%. This was computed by assuming 10% of dietary iron was heme
251 iron, with an absorption of 25%, and that the absorption of the remaining 90% of iron (non-
252 heme) was 16.8% in individuals with a SF of 15 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (4). WHO/FAO took variations in the
253 properties of the diet into account when proposing bioavailability figures, and set DRVs
254 based on 4 different values: 15% and 12% for Western-type diets, depending mainly on the
255 level of meat intake, and 10% and 5% for developing countries (20). In Europe, the European
256 Food Safety Authority (EFSA) (15) applied the probability model developed by Dainty et al
257 (7) to derive values of 16% for men and 18% for pre-menopausal women with a population
258 mean SF concentration of 30 $\mu\text{g/L}$. The UK Committee on Medical Aspects of Food Policy

259 (21) selected 15% absorption as typical in industrialised countries, and the Nordic countries
260 (22) also applied an iron absorption value of 15% when setting DRVs.

261

262 The lack of consensus in values for dietary iron absorption reflect, in part, differences in the
263 type of diet that is considered representative for the adult population in the country (or group
264 of countries) under consideration, but also illustrates differences in the selection and
265 interpretation of evidence upon which to base the value. We have further evaluated the model
266 developed by Dainty et al (7) using survey data from populations consuming Western-diets
267 and the interactive model is provided in Supplemental File 2. Use of this model would
268 facilitate harmonisation in deriving values for dietary iron absorption, and thereby reduce
269 uncertainty. It can be applied to any adult population where representative, good quality data
270 on iron intake and iron status have been collected. Furthermore, dietary iron bioavailability
271 values can be derived for any target level of SF, thus giving risk managers and public health
272 professionals a flexible and transparent basis upon which to base their dietary
273 recommendations.

274

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278 AJ conducted research; JRD and AJ analysed data; SFT wrote paper and had primary
279 responsibility for final content; all authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Table 1: Characteristics, iron status and dietary intake of participants, stratified by study, sex and menopausal status¹

	Males				Pre-menopausal females			Post-menopausal females			
	NANS	NDNS	NU-AGE	<i>P</i>	NANS	NDNS	<i>P</i>	NANS	NDNS	NU-AGE	<i>P</i>
<i>n</i>	336	494	77		197	363		117	158	119	
Age (y)	42.8 (16.4)	42.4 (12.0)	70.2 (3.8)	<0.001	34.8 (9.4)	34.9 (7.4)	0.80	62.4 (8.9)	57.5 (4.1)	69.8 (3.9)	<0.001
Weight (kg) ²	87.1 (13.6)	83.7 (14.1)	82.4 (12.2)	0.001	69.7 (12.1)	67.8 (14.3)	0.13	72.0 (12.7)	71.2 (13.2)	68.7 (10.9)	0.09
BMI (kg/m ²) ²	28.0 (4.0)	27.1 (4.3)	27.0 (3.7)	0.01	25.9 (4.4)	25.9 (5.5)	0.97	28.0 (4.7)	27.7 (5.1)	26.4 (3.7)	0.02
Hemoglobin (g/dL) ³	15.2 (1.1)	15.1 (1.1)	14.7 (0.9)	<0.001	13.3 (1.1)	13.4 (1.0)	0.69	13.4 (1.0)	13.5 (1.1)	12.9 (3.6)	0.07
Serum ferritin (ug/L)	172 (135)	119 (92.5)	146 (102)	<0.001	57.9 (57.8)	44.7 (37.0)	0.001	116 (90.8)	77.0 (55.3)	104 (67.6)	<0.001
Iron (mg/d)	13.8 (5.7)	13.4 (5.1)	14.3 (3.4)	0.37	11.1 (4.6)	9.8 (3.8)	0.001	10.2 (3.3)	10.9 (3.8)	11.6 (3.1)	0.01
Iron from meat (mg/d)	2.8 (1.7)	2.6 (1.6)	1.3 (0.8)	<0.001	1.8 (1.4)	1.5 (1.1)	0.002	1.7 (1.2)	1.5 (1.1)	1.0 (0.7)	<0.001

¹Values are mean (SD), n=1861. NANS= National Adult Nutrition Survey; NDNS=National Diet and Nutrition Survey; NU-AGE= New dietary

strategies addressing the specific needs of the elderly population for healthy aging in Europe. ^{2,3}Missing data for ²n=21 and ³n=20

Legends for Figures

Figure 1: The cumulative distribution of serum ferritin concentrations for men, pre- and post-menopausal women by study.

Values are the percentage of participants in each group. The number of participants were; men $n=336$, $n=494$ and $n=77$, pre-menopausal women $n=197$ and $n=363$ and post-menopausal women $n=117$, $n=158$ and $n=119$. Mean (\pm SD) serum ferritin values were $140.7 \mu\text{g/L}$ (± 113.6), $49.4 \mu\text{g/L}$ (± 45.8) and $96.7 \mu\text{g/L}$ (± 72.8) in men, pre-menopausal women and post-menopausal women, respectively. NANS= National Adult Nutrition Survey; NDNS=National Diet and Nutrition Survey; NU-AGE= New dietary strategies addressing the specific needs of the elderly population for healthy aging in Europe.

Figure 2: The predicted prevalence of inadequate iron intakes at different levels of iron absorption in men, pre- and post-menopausal women.

Values for predicted prevalence of inadequate iron intake for dietary absorption values ranging from 0 to 40%.

Figure 3: Estimated dietary iron absorption for selected serum ferritin values for men, and pre- and post-menopausal women.

Predicted dietary iron absorption (%) for serum ferritin concentrations ranging from <15 to $100 \mu\text{g/L}$.

Figure 4: Adjusted serum ferritin values by quintile of iron intake from meat, stratified bysex.

Values are adjusted means (SE), means are adjusted for age (y), BMI (kg/m^2), total iron intake (mg/d) and study cohort. Mean \pm SD values for iron intake from meat in each quintile were as follows; females Q1 = 0.2 ± 0.2 , Q2 = 0.8 ± 0.1 , Q3 = 1.3 ± 0.1 , Q4 = 1.9 ± 0.2 , Q5 = 3.2 ± 1.2 ; males Q1 = 0.6 ± 0.3 , Q2 1.5 ± 0.2 , Q3 2.3 ± 0.2 , Q4 3.1 ± 0.3 , Q5 5.0 ± 1.5 . *P*-trend calculated using ANCOVA.







