# ResearchOnline@JCU

This is the **Accepted Version** of a paper published in the British Journal of Nutrition:

Callander, Emily J., and Schofield, Deborah J. (2016) *Is there a mismatch between who gets iron supplementation and who needs it?* A cross-sectional study of iron supplements, iron deficiency anaemia and socio-economic status in Australia. British Journal of Nutrition, 115 (4). pp. 703-708.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0007114515004912



<u>Is there a miss-match between who gets iron supplementation and who needs it? A cross sectional study of iron supplements, Iron Deficiency Anaemia and socio-economic status in</u> Australia

Emily J. Callander<sup>a</sup>, Deborah J. Schofield<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia; Australian Institute of Tropical Health and Medicine, College of Public Health, Medical and Veterinary Sciences, James Cook University, Townsville, Australia, <a href="mailto:emily.callander@jcu.edu.au">emily.callander@jcu.edu.au</a>

<sup>b</sup>Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia, <u>deborah.schofield@sydney.edu.au</u>

### **Corresponding author:**

Dr Emily Callander
Discipline of Public Health and Tropical Medicine

Building 41

**Douglas Campus** 

Townsville QLD 4811.

Email: emily.callander@jcu.edu.au

Phone: +61 7 47816106 Fax: +61 7 47815254

Running title: Anaemia and iron supplementation in Australia

Keywords: Anaemia; iron supplements; socioeconomic status; Australia.

#### <u>Abstract</u>

1

2 Iron Deficiency Anaemia (IDA) is more prevalent in lower socio-economic groups, however, little is known about who actually receives iron supplements. This paper aims to determine 3 4 whether the groups most likely to have IDA are the most likely to be taking iron 5 supplements. Logistic regression analysis was conducted using the cross-sectional, nationally representative National Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey (NNPAS), and 6 7 National Health Measures Survey (NHMS). After adjusting for other factors, those whose 8 main language spoken at home was not English had twice the odds of having IDA compared 9 to those whose main language spoken at home was English (95%CI: 1.00 – 4.32). Those who 10 were not in the labour force also had twice the odds of having IDA as those who were 11 employed (95%CI: 1.16 – 3.41). Those in income quartile 1 had 3.7 times the odds of having IDA compared to those in income quartile 5 (95%CI: 1.42 – 9.63). Those whose main 12 language spoken at home was not English were significantly less likely to take iron 13 14 supplements (p=0.002) than those whose main language spoken at home was English. There was no significant difference in the likelihood of taking iron supplements between those 15 16 who were not in the labour force and those who were employed (p=0.618); between those who were in income quartile 1 and in higher income quartiles; and between males and 17 18 females (p=0.854), after adjusting for other factors. There is a mismatch between those who are most in need of iron supplements, and those who currently receive them. 19

#### <u>Introduction</u>

1

23

2 The links between iron deficiency anaemia (IDA) and socio-economic status are well 3 established within developed countries (9; 8; 28; 18). With it being noted that women and children from disadvantaged groups - those with low incomes, the poorly educated and 4 5 migrants are at particular risk. However, there is a more limited body of research 6 demonstrating this link in Australia. While it is generally accepted that the same 7 disadvantaged groups are at greater risk, there is very limited information on the prevalence 8 of IDA in Australia and the groups who may be at risk (6). Of the limited research that has 9 been conducted it is generally accepted that Indigenous people within Australia, who are also known to have disproportionately high rates of low income and poor education, are 10 more likely to experience IDA (17). There is also some evidence to suggest that migrants, 11 those living in low income areas and the homeless are also at higher risk (5). 12 13 Despite the general recognition of the inequalities surrounding anaemia, little is known 14 about who actually receives iron supplements, and whether the groups who are most at risk 15 of IDA are actually more likely to use supplements. There is limited evidence from the 16 United States that shows low income women and migrant women were less likely to use iron supplements (11); however, no research has been reported on this relationship in 17 Australia. 18 The Australian Health Survey undertaken in 2012 offers a unique opportunity to address this 19 20 lack of research. This survey, conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, has collected 21 nationally representative data on haemoglobin and ferritin levels collected from patient 22 biomedical tests, and iron supplementation use through its National Nutrition and Physical

Activity Survey and National Health Measures Survey components. This study aims to 1) use

- the Australian Health Survey to identify the groups who are most at risk of IDA and 2)
- 2 determine whether these groups are more likely to use iron supplements.

#### <u>Methods</u>

- 4 The Australian Health Survey has been flagged as the most comprehensive survey to date of
- 5 the health of the Australian population, and includes three components: the National Health
- 6 Survey, the National Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey, and the National Health
- 7 Measures Survey. This study will focus on the National Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey
- 8 (NNPAS) and National Health Measures Survey (NHMS) (4).
- 9 The NNPAS consists of 9,519 households from all areas of Australia, excluding households in
- very remote Australia. The survey also excluded those living in non-private dwellings, such
- as motels, boarding schools, hospitals and nursing homes. Within each state of Australia,
- each person had an equal chance of selection, except those aged 65 and over, who had a
- double chance of selection in order to improve estimates for this age group. The response
- rate for the NNPAS was 77%. Within each household information was collected from one
- adult and one child aged 2 to 17 years, giving a total sample of 12,153 persons. The NNPAS
- 16 was conducted between May 2011 and June 2012. All participants in the NNPAS aged 5
- 17 years and over were then invited to voluntarily participate in the NHMS. This collected
- 18 blood and urine samples from participants aged over 11 years, and urine samples only for
- those aged 5 to 11 years. The response rate for the NHMS was 37% (4).
- 20 In order to adjust the results obtained from the survey sample to be representative of the
- 21 entire Australian population, the Australian Bureau of Statistics assigned weights to each
- 22 person and each household. The weight is a numerical value indicating the number of
- 23 people in the population that each unit (person or household) represents. Weights were

- based upon probability of selection, were adjusted for non-response and calibrated against
- 2 known population benchmarks from the 2006 Census of Population and Housing <sup>(4)</sup>.
- 3 Biomedical measure of anaemia
- 4 The NHMS collected iron biomarkers from blood collections of those aged 12 years and
- 5 over. These consisted of Serum ferritin, Inflammation marker (C-reactive protein), Soluble
- 6 transferrin receptor, and Haemoglobin. People with inflammation (C-reactive protein
- 7 >10mg/L) were excluded by the ABS from the ferritin results as inflammation can affect
- 8 ferritin levels. Based upon Haemoglobin results, the ABS classified individuals as being at risk
- 9 of anaemia based upon the following reference values for normal and abnormal
- 10 Haemoglobin levels published by the Work Health Organisation:
- 11 Non pregnant females: <120g/L
- 12 Pregnant females: <110g/L
- 13 Males aged 12 14 years: <120g/L
- 14 Males aged 15 years and over: <130g/L <sup>(4)</sup>.
- 15 Based upon World Health Organisation recommendations, the authors then identified those
- with Iron Deficiency Anaemia as those at risk of anaemia based upon the above
- 17 Haemoglobin levels, and having Serum ferritin levels less than 15μg/L <sup>(31)</sup>.
- 18 Iron Supplement Use
- 19 Respondents were asked about their supplement use in the past 24 hours, and were able to
- select the exact supplement they used based upon a list of 10,000 dietary supplements
- 21 registered for use in Australia by the Therapeutic Goods Administration. Respondents were

- encouraged to enter the AUST-L numbers on their supplement contains to ensure accurate 1
- matching <sup>(4)</sup>. Based upon the supplements entered, the ABS recorded the nutrient content 2
- 3 of the supplements in mg. The authors then classified anyone who consumed 18mg or more
- of iron per day as a part of their supplement consumption to be taking iron supplements. 4
- 5 This is based upon the National Institutes of Health's classification of the nutrient content of
- a typical multivitamin with iron supplement (22) 6
- 7 Socio-economic variables
- 8 The Australia Health Survey, Nutrition and Physical Activity Release contains a number of
- 9 socio-economic variables. The socio-economic variables included in this study were:
- 10 1. Country of birth: Australia or Overseas
- 11 2. Main language spoken at home: English or Language other than English
- 3. Labour force status: Employed (full time or part time), unemployed or not in the 12 labour force
- 4. Level of non-school qualification: Bachelor degree or above, Advanced Diploma or 14 Diploma or Certificate, or no non-school qualification 15
  - 5. Equivalised household income quantile.
- Statistical Analysis 17

13

- 18 Initial descriptive analysis was undertaken to determine which socio-economic groups had
- 19 the highest proportion of people with anaemia. Univariate analysis was initially undertaken
- 20 to determine the relationship between having anaemia and age, gender, country of birth,
- main language spoken at home, level of non-school qualification, and income. A logistic 21
- regression model was constructed of anaemia, with country of birth, main language spoken 22

- at home, labour force status, level of non-school qualification, and income included as
- 2 explanatory variables. The model was also adjusted for age and sex.
- 3 The analysis was then repeated to look at iron supplement use by socio-economic group. All
- 4 analysis was undertaken on weighted data, unless otherwise stated and significance was set
- 5 at the 0.05 level.

#### **Results**

- 7 There were 123 records on the National Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey and National
- 8 Health Measures Survey who had IDA. Based upon weighted results from the National
- 9 Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey and National Health Measures Survey, there were 318
- 200 people whose haemoglobin levels put them at risk of anaemia (3% of the population) in
- 2012. Of these people, 71% had Serum ferritin levels that indicated they had IDA (225 600
- people). Of the people with IDA, 30% were classified as being overweight based upon their
- 13 BMI (39% in non-IDA population) and 15% were classified as being obese (37% in non-IDA
- 14 population).
- 15 Table 1 shows the correlation matrix between the variables included in the modelling:
- gender, country of birth, main language spoken at home, employment status, level of
- education attainment, income quartile, and age. Table 2 shows that those whose main
- language spoken at home, were not in the labour force, were female and in the lowest
- income quartiles all had the highest proportion of people with IDA.
- 20 The results of the univariate analysis show that males were significantly less likely to have
- 21 anaemia than females (OR 0.046, 95% CI: 0.013 0.158, p<.0001); and those in income
- 22 quantile 1 (OR 5.212, 95% CI: 1.332 20.425, p=0.0177), income quantile 3 (OR 9.315, 95%
- 23 CI: 2.446 35.472, p=0.0011) and income quantile 4 (OR 4.191, 95% CI: 1.043 16.845,

- 1 p=0.0435) were all significantly more likely to have anaemia than those in income quantile
- 2 5.
- 3 The univariate analysis showed no difference in the likelihood of having anaemia between
- 4 those born overseas and those born in Australia (p=0.7913); those whose main language
- 5 spoken at home was English (p=0.1017) and those whose main language spoken at home
- 6 was not English; between those who were unemployed (p=0.2029) and not in the labour
- 7 force (p=0.2465), compared to those who were employed; and between those with a
- 8 Bachelor's degree or above (p=0.9210), those with an Advanced Diploma, Diploma or
- 9 Certificate (p=0.7103) and those with no non-school qualification.
- 10 Table 2 also shows the results of the logistic regression model of IDA, with country of birth,
- main language spoken at home, labour force status, education level, income, gender and
- age all included as explanatory variables. Males had 0.34 times the odds of having IDA
- compared to females (95% CI: 0.20 0.59), after adjusting for country of birth, main
- 14 language spoken at home, labour force status, education level, income and age. After
- adjusting for other factors, those whose main language spoken at home was not English had
- twice the odds of having IDA compared to those whose main language spoken at home was
- 17 English (95% CI: 1.00 4.32). Similarly, those who were not in the labour force also had
- twice the odds of having IDA as those who were employed (95% CI: 1.16 3.41), after
- controlling for country of birth, main language spoken at home, education level, income,
- 20 gender and age. After adjusting for other factors, there was an increasing chance of having
- 21 IDA with declining household income, with those in income quartile 1 having 3.7 the odds of
- 22 having IDA compared to those in income quartile 5 (95% CI: 1.42 9.63).

- 1 Iron supplement use
- 2 There were an estimated 143,000 people in 2011-12 who took iron supplements,
- 3 representing 0.5% of the Australian population. Those who were born in Australia, those
- 4 whose main language spoken at home was English, were not in the labour force, were in the
- 5 highest income quartile, the employed, and those who had a Bachelor's degree had the
- 6 highest rate of iron supplement use (Table 3).
- 7 After adjusting for country of birth, labour force status, education level, income, gender and
- 8 age, those whose main language spoken at home was not English were significantly less
- 9 likely to take iron supplements (p=0.002) than those whose main language spoken at home
- was English. There was no significant difference in the likelihood of taking iron supplements
- between those who were not in the labour force and those who were employed (p=0.618),
- after adjusting for other factors. There was also no significant difference in the likelihood of
- taking iron supplements between those who were in income quartile 1 and in higher income
- quartiles, after adjusting for other factors. Similarly there was no significant difference in
- the likelihood of taking iron supplements between males and females (p=0.854), after
- adjusting for other factors.

#### **Discussion**

- 18 Using the biomedical results from the National Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey and
- 19 National Health Measures Survey, we have demonstrated that the socio-economic
- differences in IDA reported internationally (9; 8; 28; 18) are also seen within the Australian
- 21 population. People who mainly speak a language other than English at home, and are in
- lower income quantiles were all more likely to experience IDA. The difference in the
- 23 likelihood of IDA between groups with different levels of highest education attainment

- 1 reported in the univariate analysis was accounted for in the full regression model by the
- 2 other explanatory variables, most likely income level.
- 3 The impacts of anaemia are well documented for children and pregnant women: IDA in
- 4 pregnancy is associated with numerous adverse outcomes, including low birthweight (27; 13),
- 5 preterm birth (33; 26; 27), fetal growth retardation (19), neonatal mortality and stillbirth (32; 25),
- 6 and reduced iron status in mother and infant <sup>(2)</sup> which, in turn, is linked with impaired
- 7 mother-infant interactions <sup>(23)</sup>, delayed psychomotor development, lower IQ and poor
- 8 school performance (21; 29; 10). Despite prompt correction of IDA in infancy, significant
- 9 cognitive disadvantage persists more than ten years later (20). This parallels the irreversible
- 10 effects of iron deficiency on myelination and glial and neurotransmitter function in rodents
- at critical periods of early development. (7). The impacts of IDA in adulthood are less studied,
- 12 however anaemia has been linked to poor workforce performance (12), and iron
- supplementation has been shown to improve attention, concentration and IQ (14).
- 14 Given the consistent findings regarding the unequal distribution of IDA between different
- socio-economic groups and the known severity of the impacts of IDA, it was expected that
- the groups most at risk of IDA would also be more likely to use iron supplements. However,
- the results have shown that there was no significant difference in the likelihood of using
  - iron supplements between males and females, and those in the lowest income quantile and
- 19 those in higher income quantiles. Furthermore, those whose main language spoken at home
- was not English were actually less likely to take iron supplements than those whose main
- 21 language spoken at home was English.

- 22 This mismatch between those who are at high risk of IDA and the use of iron supplements
- 23 shows that there is a serious need for targeted education programs to raise the awareness

- of the impacts of IDA and the treatments that are available. Internationally, education and
- 2 supplement programs targeted at low income mothers have been shown to be effective at
- 3 reducing future cases of IDA amongst their children (24), and a similar program may be
- 4 suitable for adaption within Australia to target children and adults from disadvantaged
- 5 groups . The results also show that there may be shortcomings within the health care
- 6 system that ensures those at highest risk of IDA are aware of the implications of IDA and the
- 7 treatment options available. It is known, for example, that migrant women who are not
- 8 proficient in English are less likely to utilise health services (16), and thus may be less likely to
- 9 be aware of IDA.
- 10 Previous studies have shown that IDA is more prevalent amongst individuals who are
- classified as being obese, and following from this, it has also been noted that obesity may be
- associated with an impaired ability to absorb iron <sup>(1)</sup>. Thus, iron supplementation may not be
- a simple solution to IDA amongst obese patients. While only a small proportion of
- individuals with IDA in this study were also measured as being obese based upon their BMI
- 15 (15%), this is an issue that warrants consideration when tailoring the most suitable course of
- treatment for iron deficiency. A number of studies have reported that normal dietary iron
- absorption was re-established when obese subjects experienced weight loss in a healthy,
- sustainable manner (3; 30; 15). Thus, iron supplementation in obese subjects coupled with a
- 19 healthy weight loss program may be a more suitable treatment option.

#### **Conclusion**

- 21 The biomedical results contained within the National Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey
- 22 conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics has allowed nationally representative
- estimates of the groups who are most at risk of IDA to be produced. However, this study has

- shown that these groups are not the most likely to use iron supplements. As such, it appears
- that there is a mismatch between those who are most in need of iron supplements, and
- 3 those who currently receive them.

#### **Funding source**

Funding for the work came from a National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC)

Project Grant (APP 1070370). Part of the funding for Dr Callander's salary comes from an

NHMRC Early Career Fellowship. All authors are independent from the funder and the

funder played no part in the study.

- 4 <u>Competing interests</u>
- 5 The author(s) declare that they have no competing interests.
- 6 <u>Author contributions</u>
- 7 EC designed the study, undertook the data analysis and drafted the manuscript. DS provided
- 8 input to the study design, assisted with the interpretation of the results and edited the
- 9 manuscript.
- 10 <u>Acknowledgements</u>
- 11 None.

#### References

- 2 1. Aigner E, Feldman A & Datz C (2014) Obesity as an emerging risk factor for iron deficiency.
- 3 Nutrients 6, 3587-3600.
- 4 2. Allen LH (2000) Anemia and iron deficiency: effects on pregnancy outcome. Am J Clin Nutr 71,
- 5 1280S-1284S.
- 6 3. Amato A, Santoro N, Calabro P et al. (2010) Effect of body mass index reduction on serum
- 7 hepcidin levels and iron status in obese children. *International Journal of Obesity* **34**, 1772-1774.
- 4. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2012) Australian Health Survey: Users' Guide, 2011-13, ABS Cat.
- 9 No. 4363.0.55.001. Canberra: ABS.
- 10 5. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1994) Australia's Food and Nutrition. Canberra: AIHW.
- 11 6. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (2012) Australia's Food and Nutrition. Canberra: AIHW.
- 12 7. Beard J (2007) Recent evidence from human and animal studies regarding iron status and infant
- 13 development. *J Nutr* **137**, 524S-530S.
- 14 8. Bodnar LM, Cogswell ME & Scanlon KS (2002) Low income postpartum women are at risk of iron
- deficiency. *The Journal of nutrition* **132**, 2298-2302.
- 9. Bodnar LM, Scanlon KS, Freedman DS et al. (2001) High prevalence of postpartum anemia among
- 17 low-income women in the United States. American journal of obstetrics and gynecology 185, 438-
- 18 443.
- 19 10. Chang S, Zeng L, Brouwer ID et al. (2013) Effect of Iron Deficiency Anemia in Pregnancy on Child
- 20 Mental Development in Rural China. *Pediatrics*.
- 21 11. Cogswell ME, Kettel-Khan L & Ramakrishnan U (2003) Iron supplement use among women in the
- 22 United States: science, policy and practice. *The Journal of nutrition* **133**, 1974S-1977S.
- 23 12. Edgerton V, Gardner G, Ohira Y et al. (1979) Iron-deficiency anaemia and its effect on worker
- productivity and activity patterns. *Bmj* **2**, 1546-1549.
- 25 13. Elhassan EM, Abbaker AO, Haggaz AD et al. (2010) Anaemia and low birth weight in Medani,
- Hospital Sudan. BMC Res Notes 3, 181.
- 27 14. Falkingham M, Abdelhamid A, Curtis P et al. (2010) The effects of oral iron supplementation on
- cognition in older children and adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Nutr J 9, 1-16.
- 29 15. Gong L, Yuan F, Teng J et al. (2014) Weight loss, inflammatory markers, and improvements of
- iron status in overweight and obese children. *The Journal of pediatrics* **164**, 795-800. e792.
- 31 16. Kelaher M, Williams G & Manderson L (1999) Towards evidence-based health promotion and
- service provision for new migrants to Australia. *Ethnicity and Health* **4**, 305-313.
- 17. Khambalia AZ, Aimone AM & Zlotkin SH (2011) Burden of anemia among indigenous populations.
- 34 *Nutrition reviews* **69**, 693-719.
- 35 18. Kim J, Shin S, Han K et al. (2014) Relationship between socioeconomic status and anemia
- 36 prevalence in adolescent girls based on the fourth and fifth Korea National Health and Nutrition
- 37 Examination Surveys. *European journal of clinical nutrition* **68**, 253-258.
- 38 19. Kozuki N, Lee AC & Katz J (2012) Moderate to severe, but not mild, maternal anemia is
- associated with increased risk of small-for-gestational-age outcomes. J Nutr 142, 358-362.
- 40 20. Lozoff B, Jimenez E, Hagen J et al. (2000) Poorer behavioral and developmental outcome more
- than 10 years after treatment for iron deficiency in infancy. *Pediatrics* **105**, E51.
- 42 21. Lozoff B, Jimenez E & Wolf AW (1991) Long-term developmental outcome of infants with iron
- 43 deficiency. *N Engl J Med* **325**, 687-694.
- 22. National Institutes of Health (2015) Iron Dietary Supplement Fact Sheet. Washington D.C.: US
- 45 Department of Health and Human Services.
- 46 23. Perez EM, Hendricks MK, Beard JL et al. (2005) Mother-infant interactions and infant
- 47 development are altered by maternal iron deficiency anemia. J Nutr 135, 850-855.
- 48 24. Rivera JA, Sotres-Alvarez D, Habicht J-P et al. (2004) Impact of the Mexican program for
- 49 education, health, and nutrition (Progresa) on rates of growth and anemia in infants and young
- 50 children: a randomized effectiveness study. *Jama* **291**, 2563-2570.

- 1 25. Rohilla M, Raveendran A, Dhaliwal LK et al. (2010) Severe anaemia in pregnancy: a tertiary
- 2 hospital experience from northern India. *J Obstet Gynaecol* **30**, 694-696.
- 3 26. Scanlon KS, Yip R, Schieve LA et al. (2000) High and low hemoglobin levels during pregnancy:
- 4 differential risks for preterm birth and small for gestational age. *Obstet Gynecol* **96**, 741-748.
- 5 27. Scholl TO (2005) Iron status during pregnancy: setting the stage for mother and infant. Am J Clin
- 6 Nutr 81, 1218S-1222S.
- 7 28. Skalicky A, Meyers AF, Adams WG et al. (2006) Child food insecurity and iron deficiency anemia
- 8 in low-income infants and toddlers in the United States. Maternal and child health journal 10, 177-
- 9 185.

22

- 10 29. Tamura T, Goldenberg RL, Hou J et al. (2002) Cord serum ferritin concentrations and mental and
- psychomotor development of children at five years of age. *J Pediatr* **140**, 165-170.
- 12 30. Tussing-Humphreys LM, Nemeth E, Fantuzzi G et al. (2010) Decreased serum hepcidin and
- improved functional iron status 6 months after restrictive bariatric surgery. *Obesity* **18**.
- 14 31. World Health Organisation (2011) Serum ferritin concentrations for the assessment of iron status
- and iron deficiency in populations. Vitamin and Mineral Nutrition Information System. . Geneva:
- 16 World Health Organisation (WHO).
- 17 32. Zeng L, Dibley MJ, Cheng Y et al. (2008) Impact of micronutrient supplementation during
- pregnancy on birth weight, duration of gestation, and perinatal mortality in rural western China:
- double blind cluster randomised controlled trial. *BMJ* **337**, a2001.
- 20 33. Zhou LM, Yang WW, Hua JZ et al. (1998) Relation of hemoglobin measured at different times in
- 21 pregnancy to preterm birth and low birth weight in Shanghai, China. Am J Epidemiol 148, 998-1006.

## 1 Table 1: Correlation matrix for variables used in modelling

	Male	Born OS	Language	Employed	Unemployed	Not in the labour force	No non- school	Adv. Dip/ Dip/ Cert.	Bachelor degree	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4	Quartile 5	Age
Male	1														
Born OS	0.46	1													
Language	0.13	0.35	1												
Emp.	0.15	0.18	-0.01	1											
Unemp.	-0.01	-0.01	0.06	-0.22	1										
Not in the labour force	-0.15	-0.15	0.00	-0.90	-0.06	1									
No non- school qualification	0.43	0.60	0.19	0.30	-0.02	-0.27	1								
Adv. Dip/ Dip/ Cert.	-0.01	-0.18	-0.07	-0.11	0.02	0.14	-0.42	1							
Bach. degree	-0.44	-0.44	-0.13	-0.14	0.00	0.19	0.64	-0.36	1						
Quart 1	-0.08	-0.09	0.14	-0.43	0.08	0.43	-0.21	0.09	0.13	1					
Quart 2	-0.04	-0.11	0.11	-0.31	0.06	0.29	-0.18	0.13	0.06	-0.12	1				
Quart 3	-0.02	-0.10	0.07	-0.08	0.02	0.05	-0.15	0.19	-0.03	-0.13	-0.13	1			
Quart 4	-0.03	-0.11	0.02	0.03	0.01	-0.05	-0.06	0.14	-0.07	-0.13	-0.14	-0.14	1		
Quart 5	0.11	0.26	-0.21	0.50	-0.11	-0.45	0.39	-0.36	-0.05	-0.36	-0.38	-0.40	-0.42	1	
Age	-0.30	-0.34	-0.20	-0.33	-0.07	0.47	-0.41	0.19	0.34	0.24	0.14	-0.01	-0.02	-0.21	1

## 1 Table 2: Model of Iron Deficiency Anaemia by socio-economic status

Socio-economic	Proportion with IDA	Logistic regression model of having I							
<u>characteristic</u>		<u>OR</u>	95% CI	<u>p-value</u>					
Country of Birth									
Australia	1.9	REFERENCE							
Overseas	1.8	1.30	0.75 – 2.25	0.352					
Main language spoken at home									
English	1.7								
Language other than English	3.2	2.08	1.00 – 4.32	0.050					
Labour force status									
Employed	1.1								
Unemployed	2.1	1.02	0.17 - 6.03	0.980					
Not in the labour	5.4	1.99	1.16 – 3.41	0.013					
force									
Level of non-school qualification									
No non-school	2.3	REFERENCE							
qualification									
Advanced Diploma or	2.3	1.09	0.57 – 2.10	0.113					
Diploma or Certificate									
Bachelor degree or	1.5	1.58	0.89 – 2.77	0.798					
above									
Income (Quartile 1 cont	ains those with the low	est income)							
Quartile 5	0.7		REFERENCE						
Quartile 4	2.4	2.84	1.14 – 7.04	0.025					
Quartile 3	3.0	3.41	1.29 – 9.03	0.014					
Quartile 2	3.7	3.22	1.29 - 8.00	0.012					
Quartile 1	5.1	3.70	1.42 – 9.63	0.007					
Gender									
Females	3.2	REFERENCE							
Males	0.9	0.34	0.20 - 0.59	>.001					

1 Table 3: Model of use of Iron Supplements by socio-economic status

Socio-economic	Proportion taking	Logistic regression model of taking iron						
<u>characteristic</u>	iron supplements							
		<u>OR</u>	<u>95% CI</u>	<u>p-value</u>				
Country of Birth								
Australia	0.51	REFERENCE						
Overseas	0.42	0.57	0.31 - 1.04	0.067				
Main language spoken at home								
English	0.49		REFERENCE					
Language other than	0.42	0.09 0.02 – 0.04		0.002				
English								
Labour force status								
Not in the labour	0.62	REFERENCE						
force								
Employed	0.56	1.26	0.50 - 3.18	0.618				
Unemployed	0.03	0.10	0.01 - 0.79	0.029				
Level of non-school qualification								
No non-school	0.54	REFERENCE						
qualification								
Advanced Diploma or	0.51	0.78	0.32 - 1.89	0.579				
Diploma or Certificate								
Bachelor degree or	0.66	1.40 0.69 – 2.82		0.354				
above								
Income (Quartile 1 cont	ains those with the low	est income)						
Quartile 1	0.48	REFERENCE						
Quartile 5	0.59	0.76	0.29 – 2.00	0.574				
Quartile 4	0.25	0.46	0.12 – 1.79	0.263				
Quartile 3	0.61	1.04	0.36 - 3.01	0.943				
Quartile 2	0.44	0.79   0.26 – 2.44   0		0.865				
Gender								
Females	0.50	REFERENCE						
Males	0.46	0.94	0.51 - 1.74	0.854				