



Published in final edited form as:

J Nutr. 2020 April 01; 150(4): 929–937. doi:10.1093/jn/nxz307.

Age, Ethnicity, Glucose-6-Phosphate Dehydrogenase Deficiency, Micronutrient Powder Intake, and Biomarkers of Micronutrient Status, Infection, and Inflammation Are Associated with Anemia Among Children 6–59 Months in Nepal

Nicole D Ford¹, RP Bichha², Kedar Raj Parajuli², Naveen Paudyal³, Nira Joshi⁴, Ralph D Whitehead Jr.¹, Stanley Chitekwe³, Zuguo Mei¹, Rafael Flores-Ayala¹, Debendra P Adhikari⁵, Sanjay Rijal³, Maria Elena Jefferds¹

¹Nutrition Branch, Division of Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Obesity, United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 4770 Buford Hwy NW, Atlanta, GA, 30341, USA

²Nepal Ministry of Health and Population, Kathmandu 44600, Nepal

³Nutrition Section, United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), Leknath Marg, Kathmandu 44600, Nepal

⁴New ERA, Rudramati Marg, Kalopul, Kathmandu 44600, Nepal

⁵United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Maharajgunj, Kathmandu 44600, Nepal

Abstract

Background—Anemia is a major concern for children in Nepal; however, little is known about context-specific causes of anemia.

Objective—We used cross-sectional data from the 2016 Nepal National Micronutrient Status Survey to evaluate factors associated with anemia in a nationally representative, population-based sample of children 6–59 mo ($n = 1367$).

Methods—Hemoglobin, biomarkers of iron status and other micronutrients, infection, inflammation, and blood disorders were assessed from venous blood samples. Soil-transmitted helminth (STH) and *Helicobacter pylori* infections were assessed from stool. Anthropometry was measured with standard procedures. Sociodemographic and household characteristics, diet, micronutrient powder (MNP) intake, pica, and morbidity recall were ascertained by caregiver interview. Multivariable logistic regression that accounted for complex sampling design, determined predictors of anemia (hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL, altitude adjusted); candidate predictors were variables with $P < 0.05$ in bivariate models.

Address correspondence to NDF (yex9@cdc.gov).

Author disclosures: The authors report no conflicts of interest.

Supplemental Tables 1 and 2 are available from the “Supplementary data” link in the online posting of the article and from the same link in the online table of contents at <https://academic.oup.com/jn>.

Results—Anemia prevalence was 18.6% (95% CI: 15.8, 21.4). MNP intake [adjusted OR (AOR): 0.25, 95% CI: 0.07, 0.86], log (ln) ferritin ($\mu\text{g/L}$) (AOR: 0.49, 95% CI: 0.38, 0.64), and ln RBP ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) (AOR: 0.42, 95% CI: 0.18, 0.95) were associated with reduced odds of anemia. Younger age (6–23 mo compared with 24–59 mo; AOR: 2.29, 95% CI: 1.52, 3.46), other Terai ethnicities (AOR: 2.59, 95% CI: 1.25, 5.35) and Muslim ethnicities (AOR: 3.15, 95% CI: 1.30, 7.65) relative to Brahmin/Chhetri ethnicities, recent fever (AOR: 1.68, 95% CI: 1.08, 2.59), ln C-reactive protein (mg/L) (AOR: 1.23, 95% CI: 1.03, 1.45), and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency (AOR: 2.84, 95% CI: 1.88, 4.30) were associated with increased odds of anemia.

Conclusion—Both nonmodifiable and potentially modifiable factors were associated with anemia. Thus some but not all anemia might be addressed through effective public health policy, programs, and delivery of nutrition and infection prevention and control. *J Nutr* 2019;00:1–9.

Keywords

anemia; micronutrient status; child nutrition; Nepal; iron deficiency; vitamin A deficiency; infection

Introduction

Worldwide, anemia affects an estimated 43% of children aged <5 y (1) and is thought to contribute to an estimated 591,000 perinatal deaths annually (2). Globally, iron deficiency is estimated to cause half of anemias; however, the proportion likely varies by population (2). Beyond iron deficiency, numerous other factors contribute to anemia including problems producing hemoglobin (inflammation-induced iron sequestration, thalassemias), lack of sufficient DNA precursors (folate and vitamin B-12 deficiencies), erythrocyte damage and hemolysis [parasitic infections, blood disorders such as glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency (G6PD), immune-mediated destruction], and blood loss (Figure 1).

Historically, Nepal has had a high anemia burden—with prevalence levels of severe public health significance, according to WHO classifications (3). In 2002, the government of Nepal developed a National Strategy for the Control of Anemia among Women and Children. National-level initiatives targeting anemia among children include interventions to improve infant and young child feeding (IYCF) practices for children aged <2 y. Other related programs include biannual vitamin A supplementation and deworming during child health day campaigns. Despite these initiatives, the prevalence of anemia among children 6–59 mo increased from 46% in 2011 to 53% in 2016, according to Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) (4).

Understanding the context-specific drivers of anemia is crucial to developing effective, evidence-based public health programming. Although the physiology of anemia is relatively well understood globally, less is known about context-specific determinants of anemia among children in Nepal. Previous studies in Nepal have focused on iron status, body size, infant feeding practices, maternal health status, and sociodemographic characteristics (5, 6). Because collecting biological data on other known contributors to anemia can be logistically difficult and expensive, these indicators are not usually included in large-scale population-based surveys. To address this important knowledge gap in context-specific drivers of

anemia, the Nepal National Micronutrient Status Survey (NNMSS) collected data on micronutrient status and potential causes of anemia with the goal of identifying the etiology of anemia and guiding programmatic decision-making. Although the data presented in this paper are comprehensive, it is not sufficient to identify population attributable fractions of anemia; however, the information can be used to help prioritize anemia interventions. These analyses evaluated the factors associated with anemia among children 6–59 mo in Nepal.

Methods

Study population

The 2016 NNMSS was implemented by New ERA with support from the Nepal Ministry of Health and Population (MoHP), EU, USAID, UNICEF Nepal, and the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Through use of stratified multistage cluster sampling without replacement, we selected 180 clusters from 15 strata with probability proportional to size. We then selected 24 households in each cluster by systematic sampling ($n = 4320$). After enumerating all children 6–59 mo (henceforth referred to as children), we sampled at random 12 children from selected households from each cluster. The survey aimed to collect data from 2160 children; sample size was calculated assuming 46% anemia prevalence based on the 2011 DHS, $\pm 3.5\%$ precision nationally, a design effect of 2.25, and household and individual response rates of 95% and 90%, respectively (7). Full details about the study area, study population, and sampling strategy are available in the NNMSS Report (8).

Of the 2160 children planned for data collection, 1728 children were available in the selected clusters. Of those, 1709 (98.9%) completed the interview ($n = 5$ refusals and $n = 14$ were unreachable). We excluded participants with missing or invalid values for hemoglobin ($n = 77$), other blood-based indicators ($n = 75$), stool-based indicators ($n = 158$), anthropometry ($n = 18$), and questionnaire data ($n = 33$) for a final analytic sample of 1367 children (79.1% of available children). With the exception of age, ecological zone, and ethnicity, children who were excluded did not differ with respect to anemia status or other major sociodemographic characteristics from those included in the analytic sample (Supplemental Table 1).

Ethical approval for the study was granted by the Nepal Health Research Council. The respondent for the household interview signed informed consent, and the legal guardians or parents signed informed consent on behalf of their children.

Data collection

Anthropometry—Recumbent length (6–23 mo) or standing height (24–59 mo) was measured without shoes to the nearest 0.1 cm with a Shorr-Board. Weight was measured with light clothing to the nearest 100 g with an electronic SECA digital scale.

Biological specimens—Blood and stool samples were collected to assess blood disorders and micronutrient, infection, and inflammation status. Trained phlebotomists collected nonfasted venous blood samples at the time of interview following standard procedures. Each child's caregiver received a stool collection kit and instructions on the

collection, transfer, and storage of the stool. The study team retrieved stool cups from households within 24 h and stored samples in a cold box.

Laboratory technicians and pathologists processed and read the specimens at a lab station in each cluster. Hemoglobin (HemoCue® Hb 301 analyzer), malaria (CareStart™ malaria antigen combo rapid test kit for *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax*), and visceral leishmaniasis (IT LEISH rK39 antigen rapid test kit) were analyzed at the households. Stool samples were examined for soil-transmitted helminths (STH) (hookworm, *Ascaris*, and *Trichuris*) by microscopic examination within 24 h of collection with the Kato Katz method (9). For blood disorders, whole blood samples were transported to the pathology laboratory in Kathmandu within 7 d of sample collection, maintaining cold chain. Plasma, serum, and stool samples were transported to the National Public Health Laboratory and stored in -86°C freezers until analysis.

VitMin Lab (Willstaett, Germany) analyzed serum C-reactive protein (CRP), α -1-acid glycoprotein (AGP), ferritin, transferrin receptor (sTfR), and retinol-binding protein (RBP) with a sandwich ELISA (10). RBC folate was analyzed with a microbiological assay (11). Serum zinc was analyzed with atomic absorption spectrometry. For blood disorders, G6PD was assessed by the Access Bio Korea Inc. CareStart™ G6PD Biosensor, α - and β -thalassemia and sickle cell by PCR, hemoglobin E by DNA, and complete blood count by HPLC. *Helicobacter pylori* was assessed in stool with an immunoassay (EDI™ Fecal *H. pylori* antigen ELISA kit).

Sociodemographic, health, and other questionnaire data—Sociodemographic characteristics; bed net use; morbidity recall; housing, water, and sanitation characteristics; treatment for acute malnutrition; previous-day recall of breastfeeding and of specific liquids and foods consumed (12), fortified infant foods, tea, and foods prepared with purchased fortifiable staple foods; micronutrient supplement intake; pica; and receipt of high-dose vitamin A supplementation and deworming tablets were collected from caregivers by an in-person interview-administered questionnaire. Household food security was ascertained with a 9-item questionnaire about access to adequate and preferred foods (13).

Variable specification

Anemia—Hemoglobin was adjusted for altitude with standard procedures (3). We defined anemia as altitude-adjusted hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL (3). Anemia severity was classified as mild (altitude-adjusted hemoglobin 10.0–10.9 g/dL), moderate (altitude-adjusted hemoglobin 7.0–9.9 g/dL), and severe (altitude-adjusted hemoglobin <7.0 g/dL) (3).

Anthropometry—We calculated length/height-for-age (HAZ), weight-for-age (WAZ), and weight-for-length/height (WHZ) *z* scores for children with use of the WHO child growth standards (14). Stunting, underweight, and wasting were classified as HAZ, WAZ, and WHZ <-2 SD, respectively (14).

Biomarkers of nutrition status—To adjust for inflammation, we regression-adjusted ferritin, sTfR, RBP, and zinc to a pooled country reference with CRP and AGP (ferritin, RBP, zinc) or AGP only (sTfR) (15). We defined iron deficiency as adjusted ferritin <12.0

$\mu\text{g/L}$ (3) and iron deficiency anemia as altitude-adjusted hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL and adjusted ferritin <12.0 $\mu\text{g/L}$. Vitamin A deficiency was defined as adjusted RBP <0.69 $\mu\text{mol/L}$. To find the population-specific RBP cutoff, we regressed RBP on retinol to determine the RBP equivalent of retinol <0.70 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ based on the subsample of 200 children for whom serum retinol was assessed with HPLC from the same blood draw as RBP (16). We classified risk of folate deficiency as RBC folate <305.0 nmol/L (17). Zinc deficiency was classified as adjusted zinc <65.0 $\mu\text{g/dL}$ for nonfasted, morning samples and <57.0 $\mu\text{g/dL}$ for nonfasted afternoon samples (18).

Infection, inflammation, and blood disorders—We defined STH infection as presence of any eggs in stools compared with no eggs. Malaria, *H. pylori*, visceral leishmaniasis, and fever, diarrhea, and cough during the 2 wk preceding the survey were included as binary variables (yes/no). We included CRP and AGP as continuous variables. Blood disorders were categorized as: 1) G6PD; and 2) hemoglobinopathies.

Dietary intake—Consumption of flesh, organ, or blood-based foods, legumes, green leafy vegetables, vitamin A-rich fruits and vegetables, fortified infant foods (e.g., cerelac, nutrimix, and other fortified complementary foods), and tea during the day preceding the survey were included as binary variables (yes/no). We defined minimum dietary diversity as intake from 4 of the 7 main food groups the day preceding the survey (12). Consumption of foods prepared with purchased fortifiable wheat flour and foods prepared with purchased fortifiable vegetable ghee during the week preceding the survey were included as binary variables (yes/no). We defined pica as any consumption of clay, earth, termite mounds, ice, uncooked rice, or starch during the week preceding the survey.

Child health—Intake of micronutrient powder (MNP), iron syrup or tablets, and zinc supplements during the week preceding the survey were included as binary variables (yes/no). We included treatment for marasmus or kwashiorkor during the 12 mo preceding the survey, receipt of vitamin A supplementation, and receipt of deworming tablets during the previous child health campaign as binary variables (yes/no). Bed net use was categorized as always use bed net compared with sometimes or never use bed net.

Sociodemographic variables—We categorized age as 6–23 mo and 24–59 mo. Ethnicity was categorized as Brahmin/Chettri, Dalit, Janajati, other Terai ethnicities (including Terai/Madhese ethnicities but not including Terai or Madhese Brahmin or Chettri), Newar, and Muslim (19). We defined improved water source as having piped water, tube well borehole, protected well or spring, stone tap, rainwater, or bottled water (20). Severe household food insecurity was defined as households who often cut back on meal size or number of meals and/or ever experienced any of the 3 most severe conditions (no food to eat of any kind in the household because of lack of resources to get food; any household member goes to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food; and any household member goes a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food) during the 12 mo preceding the survey (13). We included improved water source, open defecation, earth floor, and severe household insecurity as binary variables (yes/no). Household location was defined as rural compared with urban per Nepal

administrative classifications. We created a household wealth score through use of principal components analysis of housing characteristics and assets, then divided wealth into tertiles.

Statistical methods

We set micronutrient status indicators to missing where outliers were likely because of processing error or sample contamination ($n = 3$ for zinc, $n = 6$ for RBC folate, $n = 4$ for RBP, $n = 14$ for sTfR, and $n = 5$ for ferritin). Biologically implausible WAZ (<-6 or >5), HAZ (<-6 or >6), and WHZ (<-5 or >5) were set to missing based on WHO child growth guidelines ($n = 1$ for WAZ, $n = 11$ for HAZ, and $n = 13$ for WHZ) (14).

We assessed for influential outliers with Cook's D Method and Studentized Pearson Residuals (21). Three outliers were detected for ferritin (84 $\mu\text{g/L}$, 119.4 $\mu\text{g/L}$, and 125.8 $\mu\text{g/L}$); however, these values are biologically plausible, so we retained them in the analysis. We assessed nonlinearity between continuous predictor variables and log-odds of anemia with the Box-Tidwell test (22). Because CRP, ferritin, and RBP were nonlinear, we log transformed these variables.

To identify factors that were associated with anemia in our study population, we conducted bivariate analyses between anemia status and the candidate predictors with use of Rao-Scott chi-square tests and linear contrast tests for categorical and continuous predictor variables, respectively. A data manifest is presented in Supplemental Table 2. Categorical predictor variables with more than 2 levels (e.g., ethnicity) were tested as a group and not each level individually. In the multivariable logistic regression model, we included all candidate predictors with $P < 0.05$ in bivariate models. Eigenvalues < 0.01 and conditionality index > 30 identified potential collinearity. We assessed the model's goodness of fit with Harrell's C statistic (23).

All analyses were conducted in SAS v.9.4 (SAS Institute Inc.) with PROC SURVEY procedures. We accounted for complex sample design with sampling weights and SAS STRATA and CLUSTER statements. In addition, we accounted for clustering at the household level; 1033 households had 1 sampled child while 149 households had 2 sampled children, and 12 households had 3 sampled children. Statistical significance was set a priori at 2-sided $P < 0.05$.

Results

Overall, 18.6% (95% CI: 15.8, 21.4) of children 6–59 mo had anemia (Table 1), of which 74.4% (95% CI: 67.7, 81.1) cases were mild and 25.5% (95% CI: 18.8, 32.1) of cases were moderate.

Candidate predictors ($P < 0.05$ in bivariate analyses) in the multivariable model included both nonmodifiable (age, ecological zone, ethnicity, household wealth, G6PD) and potentially modifiable factors [open defecation, stunting, underweight, fever, diarrhea, inflammation (CRP, AGP), micronutrient status (ferritin, sTfR, RBP), MNP intake, bed net use, and deworming]. We removed sTfR from the model because of collinearity with ferritin.

Ferritin is the WHO-recommended indicator to assess iron status (3). Harrell's C statistic of 0.77 suggests that our multivariable model had good fit (23).

In the multivariable model, children with recent fever had higher odds of anemia [adjusted OR (AOR): 1.68, 95% CI: 1.08, 2.59] (Table 2). Log (ln) CRP (mg/L) was associated with increased odds of anemia (AOR: 1.23, 95% CI: 1.03, 1.45).

Child micronutrient status was also associated with anemia. Ln ferritin ($\mu\text{g/L}$) and ln RBP ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) were both associated with reduced odds of anemia (AOR: 0.49, 95% CI: 0.38, 0.64 and AOR: 0.42, 95% CI: 0.18, 0.95, respectively). Although overall MNP intake the week preceding the survey was low (1.9%, 95% CI: 0.9, 2.8), MNP was associated with 75% lower odds of anemia (AOR: 0.25, 95% CI: 0.07, 0.86).

Three nonmodifiable indicators were also associated with anemia. Children 6–23 mo had 2.29 times higher odds of anemia compared to children 24–59 mo (AOR: 2.29, 95% CI: 1.52, 3.46). Relative to Brahmin/Chettri ethnicities, Other Terai ethnicities and Muslim ethnicities had 2.59 (95% CI: 1.25, 5.35) and 3.15 (95% CI: 1.30, 7.65) times higher odds of anemia, respectively. G6PD was associated with a nearly 3-fold increase in anemia odds relative to those without this enzyme deficiency (AOR: 2.84, 95% CI: 1.88, 4.30).

Discussion

Through use of a national representative sample of children 6–59 mo, we identified both potentially modifiable and nonmodifiable factors associated with anemia in Nepal. In total, 18.6% of children had anemia—a prevalence level of mild public health significance, according to the WHO (3). Potential modifiable factors including fever and acute inflammation (CRP) were associated with increased odds of anemia while MNP intake, ferritin, and RBP were associated with reduced odds of anemia. Nonmodifiable factors included age, ethnicity, and presence of G6PD. Overall, this analysis and the broader literature suggest strengthening nutrition and infection prevention and control strategies in Nepal may address some, but not all, anemia among children 6–59 mo.

Both iron (ferritin) and vitamin A (RBP) were inversely associated with anemia odds. Among those with anemia, 54.2% (95% CI: 46.2, 62.1) had iron deficiency and 5.0% (95% CI: 1.7, 8.3) had vitamin A deficiency. Iron deficiency is considered the leading nutritional cause of anemia globally (2), and vitamin A is essential for erythropoiesis, mobilization of iron stores, and immune function (24). We found no differences in consumption of iron-rich or vitamin A-rich foods, fortified infant foods, foods prepared with purchased wheat flour (potentially fortified with iron and vitamin A), or minimum dietary diversity by anemia status. Our findings are similar to those from a study of children aged 4–17 mo in south central Nepal that found no associations between dietary intake indicators and anemia (5). Although we were unable to estimate total intake of either iron or vitamin A, consumption of nutrient-dense food groups was low in the overall population.

MNP intake during the week before the survey was associated with 75% lower odds of anemia. MNP are single-serve sachets of iron, vitamin A, and other micronutrients used to fortify foods right before consumption to reduce anemia and iron deficiency (25). For

children aged 2–12 y, a 2016 systematic review which included studies from countries such as India, Bangladesh, and Kenya found that iron-containing MNP reduced anemia prevalence by 34% (prevalence ratio: 0.66; 95% CI: 0.49, 0.88) and the prevalence of iron deficiency by 65% (prevalence ratio: 0.35, 95% CI: 0.27, 0.47) relative to a placebo (26). Because the MNP formulation in Nepal includes 15 micronutrients, it could be addressing deficiencies for which we lack data, such as riboflavin and thiamin.

National IYCF programs focused on supporting intake of iron- and vitamin A-rich food sources, as well as effective implementation and sustained rollout of the MNP intervention may help reduce anemia by improving overall micronutrient status. IYCF programs are the primary mechanism to address nutritional status among children 6–59 mo in Nepal. The MoHP's strategies include supporting optimal breastfeeding and promoting complementary feeding practices by promoting diverse diet of nutrient-rich, energy-dense foods with specific emphasis on the intake of iron- and vitamin A-rich foods starting at age 6 mo. By adhering to the advice in the program, improving diets should improve both iron and vitamin A status among children. In addition, the MoHP has integrated MNP distribution into the IYCF program for children 6–23 mo in 23 of the country's 77 districts. Expanding MNP distribution nationwide and potentially expanding the target age range to 6–59 mo should improve iron and vitamin A status and reduce anemia.

Acute inflammation and fever were associated with increased odds of anemia. Inflammation can cause anemia through immune-mediated mechanisms wherein cytokines cause dysregulation of iron homeostasis (27). Exposure to infection—especially during periods of rapid growth—increases risk of iron deficiency and anemia (28). Given the high prevalence of infection and inflammation and their role in mucosal absorption of iron (29), both low intake and poor absorption may influence iron deficiency and anemia in the survey population.

We found several nonmodifiable factors associated with anemia. Consistent with studies in Nepal and elsewhere, younger age was associated with higher odds of anemia among children (5, 30–32). The association between age and anemia could be a result of changes in diet in the postweaning period; however, we were unable to explore these potential relationships because of limited dietary data among children 24–59 mo. We also found that, relative to Brahmin/Chhetri ethnicities, other Terai ethnicities and Muslim ethnicities had significantly increased odds for anemia. Ethnicity was also a significant determinant of anemia among 4–17 mo children in south central Nepal (5). While age and ethnicity are nonmodifiable, information about anemia patterning could be used to target anemia prevention and control initiatives.

Children with G6PD had nearly 3 times higher odds of anemia in our analyses. Although many individuals with G6PD are asymptomatic, infection, illness, and exposure to certain foods and drugs including sulfonamides, some anthelmintics, and quinine-derived antimalarials can induce acute hemolysis (33). Although inherited disorders are nonmodifiable, acute hemolytic anemia could be prevented by identifying cases with newborn screening, informing those affected of their risk and providing them information about which foods and drugs to avoid (34). Further, understanding patterning of G6PD is

useful for program planning and crucial to make sense of monitoring and evaluation data. Even with well-designed and implemented anemia control programs, G6PD prevalence might explain differential success in reducing anemia.

Our findings suggest a significantly lower anemia prevalence compared to the 2016 DHS, which reported 53% prevalence among children 6–59 mo (4). In a comparison of DHS and national micronutrient surveys conducted simultaneously within the same country, DHS reported lower hemoglobin concentrations and larger standard errors among children 6–59 mo relative to national micronutrient surveys, resulting in 20–35 percentage point differences in anemia prevalence (35). Differences in hemoglobin measurement possibly account for some of the difference in anemia prevalence. DHS used single drops of blood from capillary blood samples collected by wicking method and measured on a HemoCue® Hb 201 analyzer while the NNMSS used venous blood samples and measured on a HemoCue® Hb 301 analyzer. To date, several studies have explored the variation in hemoglobin concentrations by blood type and instrument; however, available data does not allow the distinction of venous compared with capillary blood from instrument/assessment method variation (36). Although further analysis is needed to better understand the differences in anemia prevalence in Nepal, the discrepancies between surveys conducted close in time in Nepal are not unique.

We used comprehensive, nationally representative data on multiple potential causes of anemia—many of which are rarely included in large-scale surveys in low- and middle-income countries. To our knowledge, this analysis is the first to examine a wide range of known potential causes of anemia in a nationally representative sample of children 6–59 mo in Nepal. The NNMSS did not collect data on all micronutrients for which deficiency could lead to anemia. Although we measured plasma vitamin B-12, they were excluded from these analyses because of issues with data quality. We were unable to assess the role of some key IYCF indicators because these questions were only asked of children 6–23 mo. Dietary recall questions were limited in scope. Caregiver recall could have introduced bias for report of IYCF and consumption data, vitamin and mineral supplement intake, treatment for malnutrition, and household food insecurity; however, potential bias was not likely to be differential by anemia status because caregivers completed the survey questionnaire before the hemoglobin assessment. *P* values were not adjusted for multiple testing, which may have introduced the potential for type I error. Reduced sample size because of missing data may have reduced our power to detect small effect sizes. Because we used cross-sectional data, we were unable to determine causality between the candidate predictors and anemia status or assess population attributable fraction.

Our analysis suggests a combination of prevention and treatment strategies effectively implemented could potentially reduce anemia among children 6–59 mo in Nepal, including addressing micronutrient status and infections. Finally, while nonmodifiable, understanding the patterning of blood disorders among children in Nepal can help inform program planning and provide context to program monitoring and evaluation data.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

The authors' responsibilities were as follows—MEJ, RDW, ZM, RF-A, NP, SC, SR, KRP, RPB, and NJ: designed the research; NJ, NP, SC, DPA, SR, KRP, and RPB: conducted the research; NJ: performed the initial database cleaning; NDF: performed the statistical analyses and wrote the paper; NDF, NP, NJ, RPB, KRP, RDW, SC, SR, ZM, RF-A, DPA, and MEJ: edited subsequent drafts; NDF: had primary responsibility for the final content; and all authors: read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding and in kind technical assistance for this survey was provided by the Ministry of Health and Population, Government of Nepal (MoHP, GoN); the European Union; United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF); United States Agency for International Development (USAID); and the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The findings and conclusions in this manuscript are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the United States Agency for International Development, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, or the U.S. government.

Abbreviations used

AGP	α -1-acid glycoprotein
AOR	adjusted OR
CRP	C-reactive protein
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys
G6PD	glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency
HAZ	length/height-for-age <i>z</i> score
IYCF	infant and young child feeding
MNP	micronutrient powder
MoHP	Ministry of Health and Population
NNMSS	Nepal National Micronutrient Status Survey
RBP	retinol-binding protein
STH	soil-transmitted helminths
sTfR	transferrin receptor
WAZ	weight-for-age <i>z</i> score
WHZ	weight-for-length/height <i>z</i> score

References

1. Stevens GA, Finucane MM, De-Regil LM, Paciorek CJ, Branca F, Bhutta ZA, Ezzati M; the Nutrition Impact Model Study Group (Anemia). Global, regional, and national trends in haemoglobin concentration and prevalence of total and severe anaemia in children and pregnant and

- non-pregnant women for 1995–2011: a systematic analysis of population-representative data. *Lancet Glob Health* 2013;1(1):e16–25. [PubMed: 25103581]
2. Ezzati M, Lopez AD, Rodgers AA, Murray CJL. Comparative quantification of health risks: global and regional burden of disease attributable to selected major risk factors. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 2004.
 3. WHO. Nutritional anaemias: tools for effective prevention and control Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 2017 License: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO.
 4. Ministry of Health Nepal, New ERA, ICF. Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2016 Kathmandu (Nepal): Ministry of Health Nepal; 2017.
 5. Siegel EH, Stoltzfus RJ, Shatry SK, LeClerq SC, Katz J, Tielsch JM. Epidemiology of anemia among 4- to 17-month-old children living in south central Nepal. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2006;60:228–35. [PubMed: 16234835]
 6. Chandyo RK, Henjum S, Ulak A, Thorne-Lyman AL, Ulvik RJ, Shrestha PS, Fawzi W, Strand TA. The prevalence of anemia and iron deficiency is more common in breastfed infants than their mothers in Bhaktapur, Nepal. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2016;70:456–62. [PubMed: 26626049]
 7. Ministry of Health and Population—MOHP/Nepal, New ERA/Nepal, and ICF International. Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2011. Kathmandu (Nepal): MOHP/Nepal, New ERA/Nepal, and ICF International; 2012.
 8. Ministry of Health, New ERA, UNICEF, EU, USAID, CDC. Nepal National Micronutrient Status Survey—2016. Kathmandu (Nepal): Ministry of Health, Nepal; 2018.
 9. WHO. Bench aids for the diagnosis of intestinal parasites. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 1994.
 10. Erhardt JG, Estes JE, Pfeiffer CM, Biesalski HK, Craft NE. Combined measurement of ferritin, soluble transferrin receptor, retinol binding protein, and c-reactive protein by an inexpensive, sensitive, and simple sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay technique. *J Nutr* 2004;134(11):3127–32. [PubMed: 15514286]
 11. Pfeiffer CM, Zhang M, Lacher DA, Molloy AM, Tamura T, Yetley EA, Picciano MF, Johnson CL. Comparison of serum and red blood cell folate microbiologic assays for national population surveys. *J Nutr* 2011;141(7):1402–9. [PubMed: 21613453]
 12. WHO. Indicators for assessing infant and young child feeding practices. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 2010.
 13. Ballard TJ, Coates J, Swindale A, Deitchler M. 2011 Household hunger scale: indicator definition and measurement guide. Washington (DC): FANTA-2 Bridge, FHI 360.
 14. WHO Multicentre Growth Reference Study Group. WHO child growth standards: length/height for-age, weight-for-age, weight-for-length, weight-for-height and body mass index-for-age: methods and development. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 2006.
 15. Namaste SML, Aaron GJ, Varadhan R, Peerson JM, Suchdev PS. Methodologic Approach for the Biomarkers Reflecting Inflammation and Nutritional Determinants of Anemia (BRINDA) Project. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2017;106(Suppl 1):333S–47S. [PubMed: 28615254]
 16. WHO. Indicators for assessing vitamin A deficiency and their application in monitoring and evaluating intervention programmes. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 1996.
 17. Institute of Medicine, Food and Nutrition Board. Dietary Reference Intakes: thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, vitamin B6, folate, vitamin B12, pantothenic acid, biotin, and choline. Washington (DC): National Academy Press; 1998.
 18. IZiNCG Technical Brief. No. 2, 2012. Assessing population zinc status with serum zinc concentration. [Internet]. [Cited 2018 Jul 16]. Available from: https://static1.squarespace.com/static/56424f6ce4b0552eb7fdc4e8/t/5774378f414fb5410541b748/1467234199261/IZiNCG_TechBrief2_2012-3.pdf.
 19. Government of Nepal Central Bureau of Statistics. Statistical pocketbook of Nepal 2014. Katmandhu (Nepal): Government of Nepal; 2014.
 20. WHO and UNICEF. Progress on drinking water, sanitation and hygiene: 2017 update and SDG baselines. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund; 2017.

21. Hosmer DW Jr., Lemeshow S, Sturdivant RX. Applied logistic regression, United States: John Wiley & Sons; 2013.
22. Box GE, Tidwell PW. Transformation of the independent variables. *Technometrics* 1962;4(4):531–50.
23. Austin PC, Steyerberg EW. Interpreting the concordance statistic of a logistic regression model: relation to the variance and odds ratio of a continuous explanatory variable. *BMC Med Res Methodol* 2012;12(1):82. [PubMed: 22716998]
24. Semba RD, Bloem MW. The anemia of vitamin A deficiency: epidemiology and pathogenesis. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2002;56(4):271–81. [PubMed: 11965502]
25. WHO. WHO guideline: use of multiple micronutrient powders for point-of-use fortification of foods consumed by infants and young children aged 6–23 months and children aged 2–12 years. Geneva (Switzerland): World Health Organization; 2016.
26. De-Regil LM, Jefferds MED, Peña-Rosas JP. Point-of-use fortification of foods with micronutrient powders containing iron in children of preschool and school-age, *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2017; (11):CD009666. [PubMed: 29168569]
27. Weiss G, Goodnough LT. Anemia of chronic disease. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352(10):1011–23. [PubMed: 15758012]
28. Balarajan Y, Ramakrishnan U, Özaltın E, Shankar AH, Subramanian SV. Anaemia in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet* 2011;378:2123–35. [PubMed: 21813172]
29. Jaeggi T, Moretti D, Kvalsvig J, Holding PA, Tjalsma H, Kortman GA, Joosten I, Mwangi A, Zimmerman MB. Iron status and systemic inflammation, but not gut inflammation, strongly predict gender-specific concentrations of serum hepcidin in infants in rural Kenya. *PLoS One* 2013;8(2):e57513. [PubMed: 23460869]
30. dos Santos RF, Gonzalez ESC, de Albuquerque EC, de Arruda IK, Diniz Ada S, Figueroa JN, Pereira AP. Prevalence of anemia in under five-year-old children in a children's hospital in Recife, Brazil. *Rev Bras Hematol Hemoter* 2011;33(2):100–4. [PubMed: 23284255]
31. Habib MA, Black K, Soofi SB, Hussain I, Bhatti Z, Bhutta ZA, Raynes-Greenow C. Prevalence and predictors of iron deficiency anemia in children under five years of age in Pakistan, a secondary analysis of National Nutrition Survey data 2011–2012. *PLoS One* 2016;5(11):e0155051.
32. Khan RJ, Awan N, Misu F. Determinants of anemia among 6–59 months aged children in Bangladesh: evidence from nationally representative data. *BMC Pediatr* 2016;16:3. [PubMed: 26754288]
33. Beutler E Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency: a historical perspective. *Blood* 2008;111(1):16–24. [PubMed: 18156501]
34. WHO. Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency. WHO Working Group. *Bull World Health Org* 1989;67(6):601–11.
35. SPRING. Anemia assessment in micronutrient and demographic and health surveys: comparisons in Malawi and Guatemala Arlington (VA): Strengthening Partnerships, Results, and Innovations in Nutrition Globally (SPRING) Project 2018.
36. Neufeld LM, Larson LM, Kurpad A, Mburu S, Martorell R, Brown KH. Hemoglobin concentrations and anemia diagnosis in venous and capillary blood: biological basis and policy implications. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 2019;1450(1):172–89. [PubMed: 31231815]

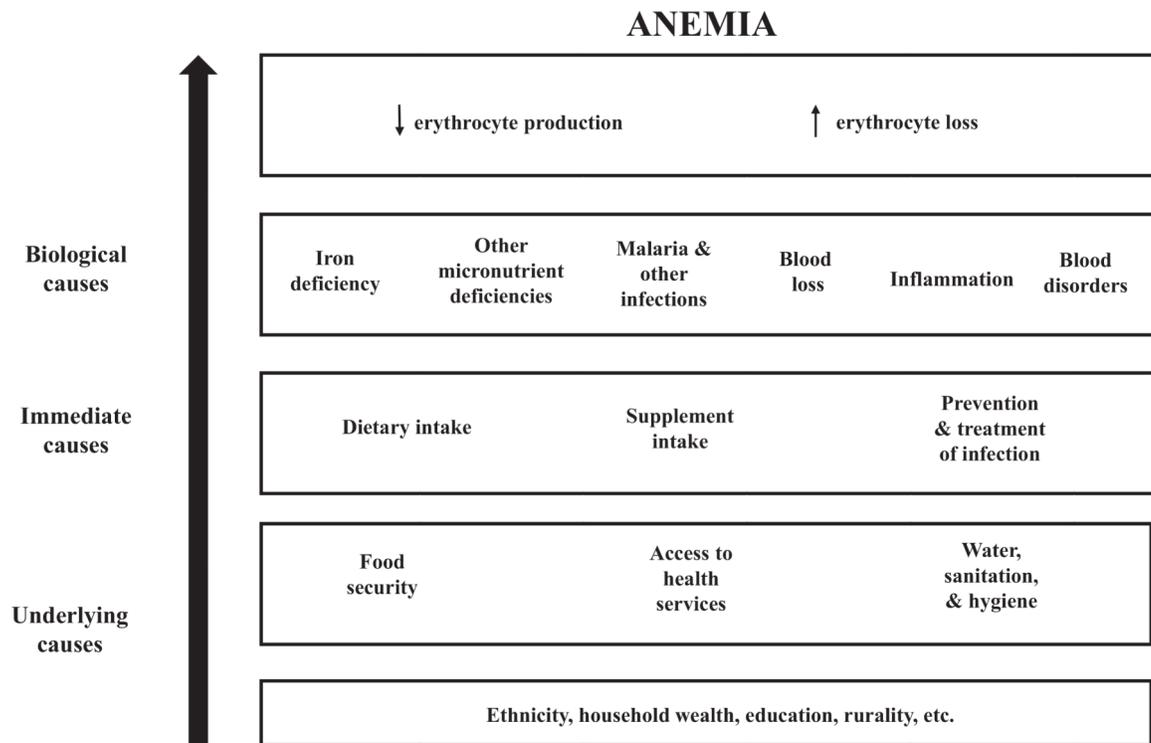


FIGURE 1. Globally, iron deficiency is estimated to cause half of anemias; however, the proportion likely varies by population. Beyond iron, additional factors contribute to anemia through underproduction or excessive loss of RBCs including problems producing hemoglobin (inflammation-induced iron sequestration, thalassemias), lack of sufficient DNA precursors (folate and vitamin B-12 deficiencies), erythrocyte damage and hemolysis (parasitic infections, blood disorders like glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency (G6PD), immune-mediated destruction), and blood loss. Further, food security, access to health services, and sociodemographic characteristics underlie many of the intermediate causes of anemia, such as dietary intake.

Selected sociodemographic and health characteristics of children 6–59 mo, by anemia status, Nepal National Micronutrient Status Survey, Nepal, 2016 ($n = 1367$)¹

TABLE 1

	Anemia ² [$n = 231$, 18.6% (95% CI: 15.8, 21.4)]	No anemia ² [$n = 1136$, 81.4% (95% CI: 78.6, 84.2)]	Total ($n = 1367$)
	n	n	n
			P^3
Sociodemographic characteristics			
Sex, %			0.4
Female	129	575	704
Male	102	561	663
Age group, %			<0.0001
6–23 mo	113	265	378
24–59 mo	118	871	989
Location, %			0.4
Rural	204	989	1193
Urban	27	147	174
Ecological zone, %			0.0007
Mountain	34	194	228
Hill	83	511	594
Terai	114	431	545
Household wealth tertile			0.03
Poorest	88	418	506
Middle	85	351	436
Wealthiest	58	367	425
Ethnicity, %			<0.0001
Brahmin/Chettri	67	421	488
Dalit	51	246	297
Janajati	64	339	403
Other Terai ethnicities ⁴	29	61	90
Newar	5	39	44

	Anemia ² [n = 231, 18.6% (95% CI: 15.8, 21.4)]		No anemia ² [n = 1136, 81.4% (95% CI: 78.6, 84.2)]		Total (n = 1367)	
	n	%	n	%	n	
Muslim	15	9.1 (3.0, 15.1)	30	3.0 (1.9, 4.2)	45	4.2 (2.6, 5.7)
Improved water source, ⁶ %	224	96.8 (93.8, 99.7)	1095	96.1 (94.6, 97.6)	1319	96.2 (94.8, 97.6)
Open defecation, %	34	24.7 (16.5, 32.9)	121	16.2 (13.0, 19.4)	155	17.8 (14.7, 20.9)
Earth floor, %	175	70.5 (62.2, 78.7)	779	65.1 (61.4, 68.8)	954	66.1 (62.6, 69.6)
Severe household food insecurity, %	19	6.4 (2.9, 9.9)	90	6.6 (4.9, 8.3)	109	6.6 (5.0, 8.1)
Health characteristics						
Hemoglobin, ⁷ g/dL	231	10.2 (10.0, 10.3)	1136	12.2 (12.2, 12.3)	1367	11.8 (11.7, 11.9)
Anemia severity, ⁸ %						
No anemia	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	1136	100.0 (100.0, 100.0)	1136	81.4 (78.6, 84.2)
Mild	170	74.4 (67.7, 81.1)	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	170	13.8 (11.4, 16.3)
Moderate	60	25.5 (18.8, 32.1)	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	60	4.7 (3.3, 6.2)
Severe	1	0.2 (0.0, 0.5) ⁵	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	1	0.0 (0.0, 0.1) ⁵
Anthropometry, ⁹ %						
Stunting	105	43.7 (36.1, 51.4)	408	33.1 (29.9, 36.3)	513	35.1 (32.1, 38.1)
Underweight	90	39.0 (31.7, 46.4)	322	28.2 (24.9, 31.5)	412	30.2 (27.2, 33.2)
Wasting	29	13.5 (8.3, 18.7)	117	11.7 (9.2, 14.2)	146	12.0 (9.8, 14.3)
Treatment for malaria/kwashiorkor, ¹⁰ %	3	0.5 (0.0, 1.0) ⁵	13	1.1 (0.3, 2.0)	16	1.0 (0.3, 1.7)
2-wk morbidity recall, %						
Fever	102	45.8 (37.4, 54.3)	396	34.2 (30.9, 37.6)	498	36.4 (33.1, 39.6)
Diarhea	57	30.1 (22.1, 38.1)	205	17.8 (15.2, 20.5)	262	20.1 (17.4, 22.8)
Cough	83	38.8 (30.5, 47.2)	428	38.0 (34.5, 41.5)	511	38.1 (34.9, 41.4)
CRP, mg/L	231	0.88 (0.64, 1.19)	1136	0.47 (0.42, 0.52)	1367	0.52 (0.47, 0.58)
AGP, g/L	231	0.85 (0.78, 0.93)	1136	0.73 (0.71, 0.76)	1367	0.75 (0.73, 0.78)
Malaria, %	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)
<i>Helicobacter pylori</i> , %	32	16.2 (9.9, 22.5)	240	20.3 (17.4, 23.1)	272	19.5 (16.9, 22.1)
Visceral leishmaniasis, %	0	0.0 (0.0, 0.0)	3	0.2 (0.0, 0.4) ⁵	3	0.1 (0.0, 0.3) ⁵
Soil-transmitted helminth infection, ¹¹ %	34	17.3 (10.6, 23.9)	138	11.5 (9.3, 13.7)	172	12.6 (10.4, 14.8)

	Anemia ² [n = 231, 18.6% (95% CI: 15.8, 21.4)]		No anemia ² [n = 1136, 81.4% (95% CI: 78.6, 84.2)]		Total (n = 1367)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
G6PD, %	68	33.2 (25.8, 40.6)	148	12.8 (10.5, 15.1)	216	16.6 (14.2, 19.0)
Hemoglobinopathies, ¹² %	27	12.7 (7.5, 17.9)	75	8.1 (6.1, 10.2)	102	9.0 (7.0, 10.9)
Caregiver report of Child Health Day participation, %						
Vitamin A supplementation	213	92.1 (87.9, 96.2)	1062	93.2 (91.3, 95.0)	1275	92.9 (91.2, 94.7)
Deworming	170	74.9 (68.3, 81.5)	970	84.3 (81.6, 87.0)	1140	82.5 (80.0, 85.0)
Always sleeps under bed net, %	147	74.5 (68.1, 81.0)	658	66.4 (63.2, 69.6)	805	67.9 (65.1, 70.8)
Micronutrient status						
Serum ferritin, ¹³ µg/L	231	12.1 (10.4, 14.1)	1136	21.9 (20.7, 23.1)	1367	19.6 (18.5, 20.7)
Iron deficiency, ¹⁴ %	124	54.2 (46.2, 62.1)	220	20.7 (17.7, 23.7)	344	26.9 (23.9, 30.0)
Serum sTfR, ¹³ mg/L	231	11.1 (10.2, 12.1)	1136	7.5 (7.3, 7.7)	1367	8.1 (7.9, 8.3)
Serum RBP, ¹³ µmol/L	231	1.02 (0.97, 1.07)	1136	1.10 (1.08, 1.12)	1367	1.08 (1.07, 1.10)
Vitamin A deficiency, ¹⁵ %	11	5.0 (1.7, 8.3)	28	2.6 (1.5, 3.7)	39	3.0 (1.9, 4.1)
RBC folate, nmol/L	231	682.5 (630.9, 738.3)	1136	630.1 (611.1, 649.7)	1367	639.5 (621.4, 658.2)
Risk of folate deficiency, ¹⁶ %	13	8.5 (3.3, 13.6)	57	5.3 (3.4, 7.2)	70	5.9 (4.1, 7.8)
Serum zinc, ¹³ µg/dL	231	76.0 (70.8, 81.7)	1136	81.2 (78.7, 83.8)	1367	80.2 (77.0, 83.6)
Zinc deficiency, ¹⁷ %	59	24.6 (18.2, 31.1)	252	20.7 (18.0, 23.5)	367	26.0 (23.0, 29.0)
Dietary and supplement intake						
Micronutrient powder intake, ¹⁸ %	3	0.6 (0.0, 1.3) ⁵	20	2.2 (1.0, 3.3)	23	1.9 (0.9, 2.8)
Prior day food consumption, %						
Flesh, organ, or blood-based foods	49	21.7 (15.0, 28.5)	341	28.0 (24.7, 31.4)	390	26.9 (23.9, 29.9)
Legumes	167	76.4 (70.3, 82.6)	828	74.4 (71.2, 77.5)	995	74.7 (71.9, 77.6)
Green, leafy vegetables	59	28.7 (21.0, 36.5)	434	36.7 (33.1, 40.2)	493	35.2 (31.9, 38.4)
Vitamin A-rich fruits or vegetables	22	10.0 (4.9, 15.1)	174	16.8 (14.0, 19.6)	196	15.5 (13.0, 18.0)
Fortified infant foods ¹⁹	15	6.9 (3.0, 10.8)	67	7.0 (5.1, 8.9)	82	7.0 (5.2, 8.7)
Tea or Tibetan tea	83	39.5 (31.3, 47.7)	558	47.6 (43.9, 51.3)	641	46.1 (42.7, 49.5)

	Anemia ² [<i>n</i> = 231, 18.6% (95% CI: 15.8, 21.4)]		No anemia ² [<i>n</i> = 1136, 81.4% (95% CI: 78.6, 84.2)]		Total (<i>n</i> = 1367)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	
Minimum dietary diversity ²⁰	96	46.7 (38.5, 54.9)	548	47.7 (43.9, 51.5)	644	47.5 (44.0, 51.0)
Consumption of foods prepared with purchased fortifiable staples, % ¹⁸						
Maida or Aata wheat flour	47	23.3 (15.6, 30.9)	273	27.7 (24.2, 31.2)	320	26.9 (23.6, 30.1)
Vegetable ghee	3	1.0 (0.0, 2.2) ⁵	19	2.2 (1.1, 3.2)	22	2.0 (1.1, 2.9)
Pica, % ¹⁸	42	14.9 (9.4, 20.4)	156	10.1 (8.2, 11.9)	198	11.0 (9.2, 12.8)

¹ *n*s are unweighted. Values presented are geometric mean (95% CI) or % (95% CI). All estimates account for complex sampling design with sample weights and SAS STRATA and CLUSTER statements. AGP, α -1 acid glycoprotein; CRP, C-reactive protein; G6PD, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency; sTfR, transferrin receptor; RBP, retinol-binding protein.

² Anemia defined as altitude-adjusted hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL (3).

³ *P* values calculated for Rao-Scott chi-square tests (categorical) and linear contrast tests (continuous).

⁴ Other Terai ethnicities include Terai/Madheshi ethnicities not including Terai/Madheshi Brahmin/Chettri (19).

⁵ Interpret with caution. Estimates may be unstable because of small *n*.

⁶ Water source based on caregiver report. Improved water source defined as piped water, tubewell borehole, protected well or spring, stone tap, rainwater, or bottle water (20).

⁷ Hemoglobin adjusted for altitude (3).

⁸ Anemia severity categorized as mild (adjusted hemoglobin 10.0–10.9 g/dL), moderate anemia (adjusted hemoglobin 7.0–9.9 g/dL), and severe (adjusted hemoglobin <7.0 g/dL) (3).

⁹ Stunting defined as length/height-for-age *z* score < -2 SD. Underweight defined as weight-for-age *z* score < -2 SD. Wasting defined as weight-for-length/height *z* score < -2 SD (14).

¹⁰ Caregiver reported child treated for marasmus/kwashiorkor during the 12 mo preceding the survey.

¹¹ Soil-transmitted helminths including hookworm, *Trichuris trichura*, and *Ascaris lumbricoides*.

¹² Hemoglobinopathies include α - and β -thalassemia, hemoglobin E, and sickle cell.

¹³ Biomarker was regression-adjusted to a pooled country reference to adjust for inflammation, with CRP and AGP (ferritin, RBP zinc) or AGP only (sTfR) (15).

¹⁴ Iron deficiency defined as inflammation-adjusted serum ferritin <12.0 μ g/L (3).

¹⁵ Vitamin A deficiency defined as inflammation-adjusted serum RBP <0.69 μ mol/L. To find the population-specific RBP cutoff, we regressed RBP on retinol to determine the RBP equivalent of retinol <0.70 μ mol/L based on the subsample of 200 children for whom serum retinol was assessed with HPLC from the same blood draw as RBP (16).

¹⁶ Folate cutoff based on the risk of megaloblastic anemia defined as RBC folate <305.0 nmol/L (17).

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

¹⁷ Zinc deficiency defined as inflammation-adjusted serum zinc <65.0 µg/dL for nonfast, morning (i.e., before 12:00) samples and <57.0 µg/dL for nonfasted, afternoon (i.e., after 12:00) samples (18).

¹⁸ During the 7 d preceding the survey.

¹⁹ Fortified infant foods such as cerelac, lito from superfloor, unilito, nutrimix, champion, and other fortified complementary foods.

²⁰ Minimum dietary diversity defined as intake from 4 of the 7 main food groups the day preceding the survey (12).

Bivariate and multivariable logistic regression predicting anemia among children 6–59 mo, Nepal National Micronutrient Status Survey, Nepal, 2016 ($n = 1367$)¹

TABLE 2

	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	P
Age 6–23 mo (compared with 23–59 mo)	2.89 (2.07, 4.02)	2.29 (1.52, 3.46)	<0.0001
Ecological zone (ref. Plains)			
Mountain	0.59 (0.36, 0.94)	0.70 (0.35, 1.42)	0.3
Hill	0.55 (0.37, 0.81)	0.84 (0.47, 1.49)	0.5
Ethnicity (ref. Brahmin/Chettri)			
Other Terai ethnicities ²	3.29 (1.80, 6.01)	2.59 (1.25, 5.35)	0.01
Dalit	1.31 (0.76, 2.28)	0.98 (0.54, 1.77)	0.9
Janajati	1.33 (0.83, 2.13)	1.53 (0.91, 2.55)	0.1
Newar	0.65 (0.20, 2.11)	0.74 (0.26, 2.12)	0.6
Muslim/Other	4.69 (2.01, 10.92)	3.15 (1.30, 7.65)	0.01
Household wealth tertile (ref. poorest)			
Middle	1.50 (0.97, 2.30)	1.17 (0.66, 2.08)	0.6
Wealthiest	0.86 (0.55, 1.35)	0.69 (0.38, 1.26)	0.2
G6PD	3.39 (2.31, 4.96)	2.84 (1.88, 4.30)	<0.0001
Open defecation	1.69 (1.03, 2.77)	0.59 (0.31, 1.14)	0.1
Stunting ³	1.57 (1.11, 2.22)	1.31 (0.76, 2.26)	0.3
Underweight (ref. normal/overweight) ⁴	1.63 (1.15, 2.32)	1.42 (0.80, 2.59)	0.2
Recent fever ⁵	1.63 (1.13, 2.35)	1.68 (1.08, 2.59)	0.02
Recent diarrhea ⁶	1.99 (1.30, 3.02)	1.27 (0.80, 2.02)	0.3
Always sleeps under bed net (compared with sometimes/never)	1.48 (1.02, 2.14)	1.04 (0.64, 1.71)	0.9
Received deworming	0.56 (0.37, 0.83)	0.86 (0.55, 1.34)	0.5
Micronutrient powder intake	0.27 (0.07, 0.98)	0.25 (0.07, 0.86)	0.03
Ln CRP in mg/L	1.28 (1.12, 1.46)	1.23 (1.03, 1.45)	0.02
AGP in g/L	1.72 (1.27, 2.32)	1.04 (0.65, 1.65)	0.8
Ln ferritin in $\mu\text{g/L}$ ⁷	0.42 (0.33, 0.53)	0.49 (0.38, 0.64)	<0.0001

	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	P
Ln RBP in $\mu\text{mol/L}$ ⁷	0.27 (0.12, 0.62)	0.42 (0.18, 0.95)	0.04

¹ Estimates are unadjusted and adjusted OR and 95% CI from bivariate and multivariable logistic regression, respectively. All variables included in the model are presented in the table. All estimates account for complex sampling design with sample weights and SAS STRATA and CLUSTER statements. Anemia was defined as altitude-adjusted hemoglobin <11.0 g/dL (WHO 2011). Candidate predictors were those where $P < 0.05$ in bivariate analyses. AGP, α -1 acid glycoprotein; CRP, C-reactive protein; G6PD, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency; RBP retinol-binding protein.

² Other Terai ethnicities include Terai/Madheshi ethnicities not including Terai/Madheshi Brahmin/Chettri (19).

³ Stunting defined as height/length-for-age z score < -2 SD (14).

⁴ Underweight defined as weight-for-age z score < -2 SD (14).

⁵ Recent fever defined as caregiver report of fever during the 2 wk preceding the survey.

⁶ Recent diarrhea defined as caregiver report of diarrhea during the 2 wk preceding the survey.

⁷ Biomarker was regression-adjusted to a pooled country reference to adjust for inflammation, with CRP and AGP (15).