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Global prevalences of erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies (iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂) among pregnant women: a systematic review and meta-analysis

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ABSTRACT

Background: Deficiencies of iron, folate, and vitamin B12 micronutrients are considered a global public health issue. These deficiencies not only lead to anemia but are also linked to numerous short- and long-term health risks for both mothers and children. This study aimed to estimate the global prevalence of erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies (iron, folate, and vitamin B12) in pregnant women.

Materials and Methods: We systematically searched three databases, including PubMed, Embase, and Scopus, along with a manual search for observational studies published up to August 26, 2024. Data extraction was independently screened by two reviewers. Random-effects models were employed to pool data on prevalences of iron, folate, and vitamin B12 deficiencies among pregnant women. We identified 43 studies from 28 countries.

Results: Global pooled prevalences of single iron, folate, and vitamin B12 deficiencies were 28.4% (95% CI, 21.1–37%), 11.1% (95% CI, 3.9–27.5%), and 17.1% (95% CI, 8.8–30.6%), respectively. Pooled prevalences of double micronutrient deficiencies of iron or folate were 53.1% (95% CI, 49.8–56.5%) and 49.6% (95% CI, 46.2–53%), respectively; double micronutrient deficiencies of folate or vitamin B12 were 6.2% (95% CI, 1.2–25.8%) and 11.8% (95% CI, 3.3–34.1%), respectively. Pooled prevalences of triple micronutrient deficiencies of iron or folate or vitamin B12 were 36.1% (95% CI, 13.1–68%), 34.3% (95% CI, 16.9–57.3%), and 12.6% (95% CI, 7–74.8%), respectively.

Conclusion: The findings highlight the high prevalences of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies in pregnant women worldwide. Targeted interventions to mitigate these deficiencies during pregnancy.

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Iron deficiency; folate deficiency; vitamin B12 deficiency; pregnant women; worldwide prevalence; meta-analysis

1. Introduction

Adequate maternal nutrition during pregnancy is crucial for fetal growth and development and plays a key role in the long-term health of children [1]. The micronutrient status greatly changes during pregnancy [2]. Due to insufficient dietary intake and increased metabolic requirements, micronutrient

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deficiencies are common in pregnant women [3]. Iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ are essential micronutrients in erythropoiesis, and demands for them further increase during pregnancy [3,4]. Erythropoiesis is stimulated early in pregnancy. Direct, non-radioactive measurements of red cell mass indicate that up to 50% of the total increase occurs during the first trimester [5]. Marginal micronutrient deficiencies in the first trimester could potentially lead to more-severe deficiencies later [6]. Micronutrient deficiencies related to erythropoiesis are categorized as single, double, and triple deficiencies involving iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ [7]. These deficiencies not only lead to anemia but also pose numerous health risks for both mothers and children [8–11]. An iron deficiency during pregnancy can lead to poor fetal growth, prematurity, and even intrauterine death due to severe anemia, along with increased maternal morbidity and mortality [12,13]. Folate is crucial during pregnancy for embryonic formation, particularly during neural tube closure, as well as for preventing birth defects and growth retardation [14–16]. Previous research indicated that inadequate folate is linked to higher risks of adverse pregnancy outcomes, including stillbirths, preterm deliveries, and low birth weights [17,18]. Vitamin B₁₂ deficiency during pregnancy has been associated with adverse outcomes, including spontaneous abortion, low birth weight, intrauterine growth restriction, preterm birth, neural tube defects, developmental delays, and impaired cognitive performance in newborns [19–23].

An iron deficiency is the most prevalent nutrient deficiency worldwide and the leading cause of anemia in pregnancy, with the highest prevalence observed in South-East Asia (48.7%) [24,25]. Folate and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies are also critical public health concerns, affecting millions of people globally [17]. The previous research estimated that over 4 billion people worldwide had inadequate folate intake [26]. In addition, a pooled analysis reported that 25% of pregnant women worldwide were affected by vitamin B₁₂ deficiency [27]. Micronutrient deficits frequently coexist; however, studies on their prevalence and severity are limited in the global pregnant population. Determining these deficiencies is vital to implementing effective prevention and control strategies [28].

Recent studies reported prevalences of deficiencies in iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ among pregnant women in some countries. For instance, in India, respective prevalence rates were 67.7, 26.3, and 74.1% [4], while in Tanzania, they were 37.8, 24, and 9.7% [24]. However, these rates vary across studies. Therefore, we conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to estimate prevalences of both single and multiple erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies (iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂) in pregnant women worldwide.

2. Methods

This research followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA 2020) (Table S1) guidelines [29]. The review protocol was registered in PROSPERO with the registration no. CRD42024548649.

2.1. Eligibility criteria

Eligible published studies were peer-reviewed observational studies that presented the prevalences of single and multiple erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies among pregnant women during any trimester of pregnancy. Serum ferritin, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ levels were evaluated using any methods to determine the prevalence of iron, folate, or vitamin B₁₂ deficiency. We included late erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiency prevalence data from cohort studies if the original papers reported baseline and late pregnancy results.

2.2. Outcomes

For the present review, primary outcomes were estimated prevalences of single micronutrient deficiencies (iron, folate, or vitamin B₁₂), double micronutrient deficiencies (iron or folate, iron or vitamin B₁₂, and folate or vitamin B₁₂), and triple micronutrient deficiency (iron or folate or vitamin B₁₂). A secondary outcome was prevalences of micronutrient deficiencies by trimester. The erythropoiesis-related single,

double, and triple micronutrient deficiencies were defined as the presence of one, two, or three of the following: iron deficiency, folate depletion, or a vitamin B₁₂ deficiency [7].

2.3. Information sources and search strategy

Three electronic databases (PubMed, Embase, and Scopus) were searched without limitations on publication year. We restricted the results to only English-language publications. Literature search terms used included “iron deficiency”, “folic acid deficiency or folate deficiency”, “vitamin B₁₂ deficiency”, “pregnant women,” or “pregnancy” and “prevalence” or “incidence” (Table S2). Search results comprised papers from three databases published up to May 15, 2024, with manual searching continuing until August 26, 2024.

2.4. Study selection

Titles, abstracts, and full texts of relevant publications obtained from systematic searches of the databases and manual searches were independently screened by two authors (N.T.H.N. and A.D.) using pre-defined, piloted forms. Any discrepancies were resolved through discussions with N.T.N. for final inclusion in the analysis.

2.5. Data extraction

The extracted variables included the last author’s name, year of publication, country, income levels, types of erythropoiesis deficiency, gestational age, mean/median age, number of participants, prevalences of erythropoiesis deficiencies of iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂, and diagnostic criteria for erythropoiesis micronutrient deficiencies (by the World Health Organization (WHO), Centers for Disease Control (CDC), individual country, or not reported (NR)). For studies with unclear eligibility, we contacted the corresponding authors at least twice to gain detailed information on the scales used to define erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies.

2.6. Quality assessment

Two researchers independently evaluated the quality of the studies and risk of bias using the Joanna Briggs Institute Critical Appraisal Checklist for Prevalence Studies [30]. Every study was reviewed based on nine questions from the checklist. These include evaluation of the appropriateness of the sampling frame and sampling method, adequacy of the sample size, and detailed description of the study subjects and setting. The checklist also assesses the adequacy of sample coverage, the validity and reliability of methods used to identify the condition, and consistency in measurement across participants. Furthermore, it considers whether appropriate statistical analyses were conducted and whether the response rate was adequate or appropriately managed. The responses to the checklist items were categorized as “yes”, “no”, “not clear,” or “not applicable”. The overall score derived from “yes” answers ranged 0–9. An overall score of ≤ 4 in a study indicated a high risk of bias and low quality, 5 or 6 indicated a moderate risk of bias and moderate quality, and > 6 indicated a low risk of bias and high quality [30]. In cases of disagreements between evaluations, the reviewers discussed the underlying reasons to obtain a consensus, with consultation from a third independent reviewer if needed.

2.7. Data synthesis

We conducted a narrative synthesis for all studies and meta-analyses using quantitative data on prevalences of micronutrient deficiencies (iron, folate, or vitamin B₁₂) among pregnant women. Prevalences of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies were pooled by employing random-effects models. The meta-analysis utilized a logit transformation to model variability among the studies. The “metaprop” function from the “metafor” package in R was used to pool data and calculate effect sizes (v. 4.4.1, R Foundation for Statistical Computing; Vienna, Austria). Heterogeneity was measured utilizing the χ^2

statistic, with a corresponding significance Q test p value. An I^2 value of 0% implies no observed heterogeneity, while values of 25, 50, and 75% respectively reflect low, moderate, and high levels of heterogeneity [31].

2.8. Assessment of heterogeneity

To determine sources of heterogeneity across studies, subgroup meta-analyses were conducted for four pre-specified variables of three categories (age (≤ 25 and > 25 years), region (WHO subregions: Africa, America, Asia, Europe, and Western Pacific) [32], and income level (low middle income, upper middle income, and high income)) based on World Bank Data [33], and diagnostic criteria for erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies (WHO [17,34], CDC [35], individual country, and NR). According to WHO, iron deficiency is defined as serum ferritin level of $< 15 \mu\text{g/L}$ [34], and folate deficiency as serum folate level of $< 4 \text{ ng/mL}$ [17]. Vitamin B12 deficiency is defined as plasma vitamin $B_{12} < 150 \text{ pmol/L}$ (203 pg/mL) according to WHO [17], or plasma vitamin $B_{12} < 148 \text{ pmol/L}$ according to CDC [35].

2.9. Sensitivity analysis

In the sensitivity analysis, we excluded studies that did not specify diagnostic criteria for erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies. We then re-conducted the meta-analysis to evaluate the effect of their removal on the overall pooled prevalence of single micronutrient deficiencies. We further performed a sensitivity analysis by outlier removal and trim-and-fill methods, comparing the original results with the reanalyzed results to confirm the stability and robustness of our main meta-analyses of single micronutrient deficiencies.

2.10. Publication bias

Publication bias was assessed through Egger's asymmetry test [36]. A p value of < 0.05 in Egger's test suggested the presence of potential publication bias. All statistical tests with $p < 0.05$ were considered significant. Data analysis was implemented using R software (v. 4.4.1; R Foundation for Statistical Computing).

3. Results

3.1. Study selection

In total, 4962 publications were initially identified from database searches, with four additional papers found via a manual search. After excluding 1750 duplicated articles in the first stage, 3216 articles were screened according to the titles and abstracts. Subsequently, 3097 publications were removed, and the full text of 119 records was reviewed. Of these, 43 studies satisfied all eligible inclusion criteria for the systematic review and meta-analysis (Figure 1). For single micronutrient deficiencies, 23, 14, and 17 papers were respectively included for analyses of iron [4,24,37–57], folate [4,24,38,47,51,58–66], and vitamin B_{12} [4,24,38,48,58,60,62–64,66–73]. Regarding multiple micronutrient deficiencies, three papers were included for triple micronutrient deficiencies [4,24,38] and two, one, and six articles were respectively included for the double micronutrient deficiencies of iron or folate [47,51], iron or vitamin B_{12} [48], and folate or vitamin B_{12} [58,60,62–64,66]. For micronutrient deficiencies by trimesters, six studies reported on iron deficiency [49,52,74–77], two on folate deficiency [62,66] and two on vitamin B_{12} deficiency [62,66].

3.2. Study and participant characteristics

The 43 studies gathered data from 28 nations, with seven nations carrying out more than one study. Dates of publication ranged from 2002 to 2024. Six studies (14%) had samples collected before 2010 [4,38,43,46,59,66], 22 studies (51.1%) in 2010–2019 [37,39,42,44,45,49,52–54,56–58,60,61,65,67–69,71,73–75], and 15 studies (34.9%) from 2020 or later [24,40,41,47,48,50,51,55,62–64,70,72,76,77] (Table 1). In

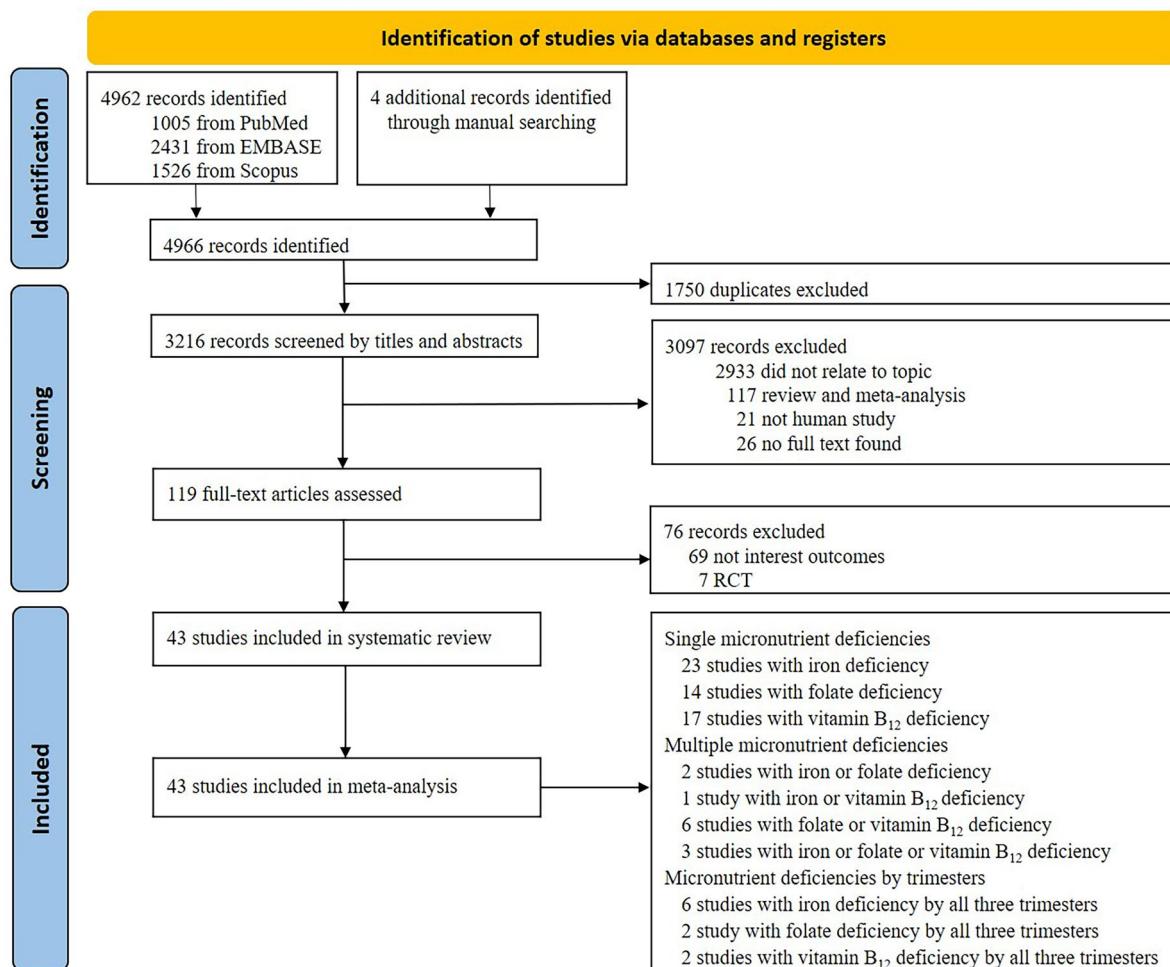


Figure 1. Flow diagram of the literature search process.

terms of study design, 26 studies employed a cross-sectional design [24,37,38,40–42,46–48,50,52,54,58,61–64,66,68–73,76,77], seven studies used a prospective cohort design [44,45,49,53,59,65,67], three studies utilized a retrospective cohort design [55,57,75], and five studies did not specify their study design [4,39,43,56,60]. Almost all of the studies provided the laboratory assays; however, six studies did not report the laboratory assays [48–50,55,75,77]. In addition, two studies did not specify the threshold values for ferritin levels [39,47], and one study did not report the threshold for folate levels [47]. Most studies ($k=30$) reported on erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies across all three trimesters [4,24,39,40,43,45–52,54–62,66–68,70,74–77]. The mean/median age of pregnant women ranged 16–32.7 years (Table 1).

3.3. Quality assessment

The methodological quality of all included studies is summarized in Table S3. We identified seven studies with a moderate quality, all of which were incorporated into the final analysis. No research was categorized as having low quality.

3.4. Primary outcomes of meta-analysis

3.4.1. Pooled and stratified prevalence of single erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies

Overall prevalence of single iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies were 28.4% (95% CI, 21.1–37%) (Figure 2), 11.1% (95% CI, 3.9–27.5%) (Figure 3), and 17.1% (95% CI, 8.8–30.6%) (Figure 4), respectively,

Table 1. Characteristics of included studies ($n=43$).

| Study | Country | Geographic region | No. of participants (n) | Study design | Erythropoiesis deficiencies | Gestational age (trimester) | Laboratory assays | Maternal mean or median* age (years) | Threshold values |
|------------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---|--|
| Abbas et al. 2017 [37] | Sudan | Africa | 423 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | First trimester | 26.8 | Serum ferritin was measured using radioimmunoassay gamma counter (Riostad, Germany) and kits provided by Beijing Isotope Nuclear Electronic Co., Beijing, China | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 µg/L) |
| Abdelrahim et al. 2009 [38] | Sudan | Africa | 279 | Cross-sectional study | Iron, folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | NR | 25.9 | Concentrations of ferritin, folate, and vitamin B ₁₂ were determined by immunofluorescent assay using IMMULITE kits (SIEMENS Healthcare, Los Angeles, CA, USA) | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 µg/L) Serum folate < 15 nmol/L (6.6 ng/mL) |
| Adaikalakoteswari et al. 2015 [58] | United Kingdom | Europe | 91 | Cross-sectional study | Folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 32.7 | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ and folate were determined by electrochemiluminescent immunoassay using a Roche Cobas immunoassay analyzer (Roche Diagnostics UK, Burgess Hill, UK) | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 110.7 pmol/L (150 pg/mL) |
| Akinbo et al. 2019 [39] | Nigeria | Africa | 154 | NR | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 30 | Serum ferritin was measured using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Buck Scientific 210 VGP, East Norwalk, CT) | Serum folate < 10.5 nmol/L (4.6 µg/L) Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 140.9 pmol/L (191 ng/L) |
| Akowuah et al. 2022 [40] | Ghana | Africa | 220 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 30.5 | Serum ferritin levels were measured using the DPC Immulite 1 ferritin assay (Diagnostic Products Corporation, Los Angeles, USA) | Serum ferritin < 0.036 nmol/L (16 µg/L) |
| Arija et al. 2013 [74] | Spain | Europe | 285 | Longitudinal study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 31.1 | Serum ferritin was determined by turbidimetric immunoassay. Ferritin measurements were performed in an ILab 900 (Instrumentation Laboratories) | Serum ferritin < 0.027 nmol/L (12 mg/L) |
| Babah et al. 2024 [41] | Nigeria | Africa | 872 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | Second and third trimesters | 25* | Serum ferritin was measured using ARCHIECT Ferritin assay method | Serum ferritin < 0.057 nmol/L (30 ng/mL) |
| Baingana et al. 2015 [42] | Uganda | Africa | 151 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | First and second trimesters | 27 | Serum ferritin was measured using a commercial solid-phase ELISA method (Ramco Laboratories Inc., Stafford, TX, USA) | Serum ferritin < 0.027 nmol/L (12 mg/L) |
| Baker et al. 2009 [59] | United Kingdom | Europe | 306 | Prospective cohort study | Folate | All 3 trimesters | 16 | Serum folate was measured using competitive enzyme immunoassay (Bayer Diagnostics Europe Ltd, Newbury, United Kingdom) | Serum folate < 7 nmol/L (3.1 µg/L) |
| Barnabé et al. 2015 [60] | Brazil | America | 291 | NR | Folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 26* | Serum folate and vitamin B12 were measured using Chemiluminescence immunoassays (Elecys/Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) | Serum folate < 9.1 nmol/L (4 ng/mL) Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pg/mL) |
| Bergmann et al. 2002 [43] | Germany | Europe | 240 | NR | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 25 | Serum ferritin was measured using immunoturbimetric method with a latex enhanced Kit on Hitachi 911 | Serum ferritin < 0.027 nmol/L (12 µg/L) |

(Continued)

Table 1. Continued.

| Study | Country | Geographic region | No. of participants (n) | Study design | Erythropoiesis deficiencies | Gestational age (trimester) | Maternal mean or median* age (years) | Laboratory assays | Threshold values |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|--|
| Calje et al. 2017 [75] | New Zealand | Europe | 189 | Retrospective cohort study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 31* | NR | Serum ferritin < 0.045 nmol/L (20 µg/L) |
| Costa et al. 2016 [44] | Portugal | Europe | 201 | Prospective cohort study | Iron | First and second trimesters | 31* | Serum ferritin was measured using Quimiluminescent assay | Serum ferritin < 0.067 nmol/L (30 mg/L) |
| Duffy et al. 2010 [45] | Republic of Seychelles | Africa | 220 | Prospective cohort study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 26.9 | Serum ferritin was measured using automated enzyme immunoassay (United Hospitals H & SS Trust, Antwerp, UK) | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 ng/mL) |
| Engmann et al. 2008 [46] | Ghana | Africa | 428 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 29 | Serum ferritin was measured using DPC Immulite 1 ferritin assay (Diagnostic Products Corporation, Los Angeles, USA) | Serum ferritin ≤ 0.036 nmol/L (16 µg/L) |
| Finkelstein et al. 2019 [67] | New York | America | 124 | Prospective cohort study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 17.3 | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was measured using IMMULITE 2000 immunoassay system (Siemens Medical Solutions Diagnostics, Los Angeles, CA, US) | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pg/mL) |
| Fite et al. 2023 [47] | Ethiopia | Africa | 397 | Cross-sectional study | Iron, folate | All 3 trimesters | 24.9 | Serum ferritin was measured using the sandwich electrochemiluminescence principle Serum folate was measured using the competition electrochemiluminescence principle | NR |
| García-Casal et al. 2005 [66] | Venezuela | America | 1260 | Cross-sectional study | Folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 20 | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ and folate were measured using a radio immunoassay from DPC (Diag nostic Product Corporation, Los Angeles, CA, USA) | Serum folate < 6.8 nmol/L (3 ng/mL) Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pg/mL) |
| Gopal et al. 2022 [48] | India | Asia | 139 | Cross-sectional study | Iron, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 24.5 | NR | Serum ferritin ≤ 0.034 nmol/L (15 ng/mL) Serum vitamin B ₁₂ ≤ 150 pmol/L (203 pg/mL) |
| Harvey et al. 2016 [49] | France | Europe | 605 | Prospective cohort study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 29.9 | NR | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 µg/L) |
| Jeruzska-Bielak et al. 2017 [68] | Canada | America | 320 | Cross-sectional study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 31* | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was measured using microparticle Enzyme Immunoassay technology (Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL, USA) | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pmol/L) |

(Continued)

Table 1. Continued.

| Study | Country | Geographic region | No. of participants (n) | Study design | Erythropoiesis deficiencies | Gestational age (trimester) | Maternal mean or median* | Threshold values |
|----------------------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| John et al. 2023 [24] | Tanzania | Africa | 420 | Cross-sectional study | Iron, folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 25.5 | Serum ferritin levels were measured by standard immunoturbidimetric assays using a Roche Cobas 400+ biochemistry analyzer (Roche Diagnostics, Germany). Serum folate was measured at the TFNC laboratory using CDC folate microbiological assay protocol. Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was also measured at the TFNC laboratory by using standard electrochemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA) based on Roche Cobas e411 immunoassay platform (Roche Diagnostics, Germany). |
| Kangalgil et al. 2021 [50] | Turkey | Asia | 142 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 29.1 | NR |
| Mamme et al. 2023 [51] | Ethiopia | Africa | 446 | Longitudinal study | Iron, folate | All 3 trimesters | 25.7 | Serum ferritin and folate levels were measured using the electrochemiluminescence method on a fully automated Cobas e411 (Cobas 4000 analyser series; Germany and Japan) immunoassay analyser |
| Mei et al. 2021 [52] | United State | America | 1171 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 27.5 | Serum ferritin was measured using a single-incubation 2-site immunoradiometric assay (BioRad Lab oratories, Hercules, CA) and RocheTina-quant ferritin immunoturbidimetric assay on the Hitachi 912 clinical analyzer (RocheDiagnostics) |
| Mgamb et al. 2017 [61] | Kenya | Africa | 247 | Cross-sectional study | Folate | All 3 trimesters | 29 | Serum folate was measured using electrochemiluminescence immunoassay |
| Ndem et al. 2021 [62] | Nigeria | Africa | 180 | Cross-sectional study | Folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 30.0 | Serum levels of folate and vitamin B ₁₂ were assayed by ELISA method using AccuDiag™ ELISA Kit (Diagnostic Automation/Cortez Diagnostics, Inc. USA) |

(Continued)

Table 1. Continued.

| Study | Country | Geographic region | No. of participants (n) | Study design | Erythropoiesis deficiencies | Gestational age (trimester) | Maternal mean or median* |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| Pathak et al. 2007 [4] | India | Asia | 283 | NR | Iron, folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | 22.9 |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin levels were assessed by the standard enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) method with the use of a Micro-well Enzyme Immunoassay Human Ferritin Quantitative ELA Kit (Bioplus). Serum folate was assessed by estimating the serum folate levels by the standard radioimmunoassay method with the use of the Simul TRAC-SNB Radioassay Kit. Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was estimated by the microbiological method. |
| Pobee et al. 2021 [76] | Ghana | Africa | 109 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 27.1 |
| Ramírez-Vélez et al. 2016 [69] | Colombia | America | 1781 | Cross-sectional study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | NR | Serum ferritin was determined via ELISA (Ramco Laboratories TX, USA) |
| Rayis et al. 2023 [63] | Sudan | Africa | 300 | Cross-sectional study | Folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | NR | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was measured using the method of direct chemiluminescence (ADVIA Centaur equipment, Siemens) |
| Rezgale et al. 2022 [77] | United Kingdom | Europe | 933 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | 26* |
| Rizwan et al. 2021 [70] | Pakistan | Asia | 190 | Cross-sectional study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | All 3 trimesters | Serum folate and vitamin B ₁₂ were performed by immunofluorescent assay following the manufacturer's instructions (Immulite kits, Siemens Healthcare, Los Angeles, CA, USA) |
| Samuel et al. 2013 [71] | India | Asia | 352 | Cross-sectional study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | First trimester | NR |
| Saravanan et al. 2021 [64] | United Kingdom | Europe | 4746 | Cross-sectional study | Folate, vitamin B ₁₂ | First trimester | Serum ferritin < 10 nmol/L (15 µg/L) |
| Siridamrongvattana et al. 2013 [53] | Vietnam | Asia | 399 | Prospective cohort study | Iron | First trimester | Serum ferritin < 0.027 nmol/L (12 ng/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum folate < 6.8 nmol/L (3 ng/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 µg/L) |
| | | | | | | | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 µg/L) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 110.7 pmol/L (150 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 0.067 nmol/L (30 µg/L) |
| | | | | | | | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 221.4 pmol/L (300 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 150 pmol/L (203 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 10 nmol/L (4.4 ng/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 150 pmol/L (203 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 220 pmol/L (298 pg/mL) |
| | | | | | | | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 ng/mL) |

(Continued)

Table 1. Continued.

| Study | Country | Geographic region | No. of participants (n) | Study design | Erythropoiesis deficiencies | Gestational age (trimester) | Laboratory assays | Maternal mean or median* | Threshold values |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---|--|------------------|
| Sobowale et al. 2022 [72] | Bangladesh | Asia | 404 | Cross-sectional study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | First and second trimesters | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was measured using electrochemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA) on a Roche automated immunoassay analyzer Cobas e601 using a commercial kit, Elecsys Vitamin B12 II (Roche Diagnostics, GmbH&68305 Mannheim, Germany) | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 150 pmol/L (203 pg/ml) | |
| Strour et al. 2018 [54] | Palestine | Asia | 300 | Cross-sectional study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | Serum ferritin was measured using ferritin reagent kits and the automated chemistry analyzer machine (Abbott, USA) per the instructions of the manufacturer | Serum ferritin < 0.034 nmol/L (15 ng/ml) | |
| Teichman et al. 2021 [55] | Canada | America | 25880 | Retrospective cohort study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | NR | Serum ferritin < 0.067 nmol/L (30 µg/L) | |
| Visentin et al. 2016 [73] | Canada | America | 219 | Cross-sectional study | Vitamin B ₁₂ | First and second trimester | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ was measured using the Access competitive-binding immunoenzymatic assay (Beckman Coulter) | Serum vitamin B ₁₂ < 148 pmol/L (200 pg/ml) | |
| Weyers et al. 2016 [56] | South Africa | Africa | 103 | NR | Iron | All 3 trimesters | Serum ferritin was measured using the Advia Centaur XP immunoassay system (Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics Inc, Tarrytown, NY, USA) | Serum ferritin < 0.067 nmol/L (30 µg/L) | |
| Yila et al. 2016 [65] | Japan | Asia | 15266 | Prospective cohort study | Folate | First trimester | Serum folate was measured using direct chemiluminescent acridinium ester technology | Serum folate < 6.8 nmol/L (3 ng/ml) | |
| Yuan et al. 2019 [57] | China | Asia | 11569 | Retrospective cohort study | Iron | All 3 trimesters | Serum ferritin was analyzed by means of chemiluminescent immunoassay, immune turbidimetry and particle enhanced immunonephelometry using automated analyzer UniCel Dxl 800 Access, Beckman Coulter Inc., USA | Serum ferritin < 0.027 nmol/L (12 µg/L) | |

Abbreviation: NR, not reported.

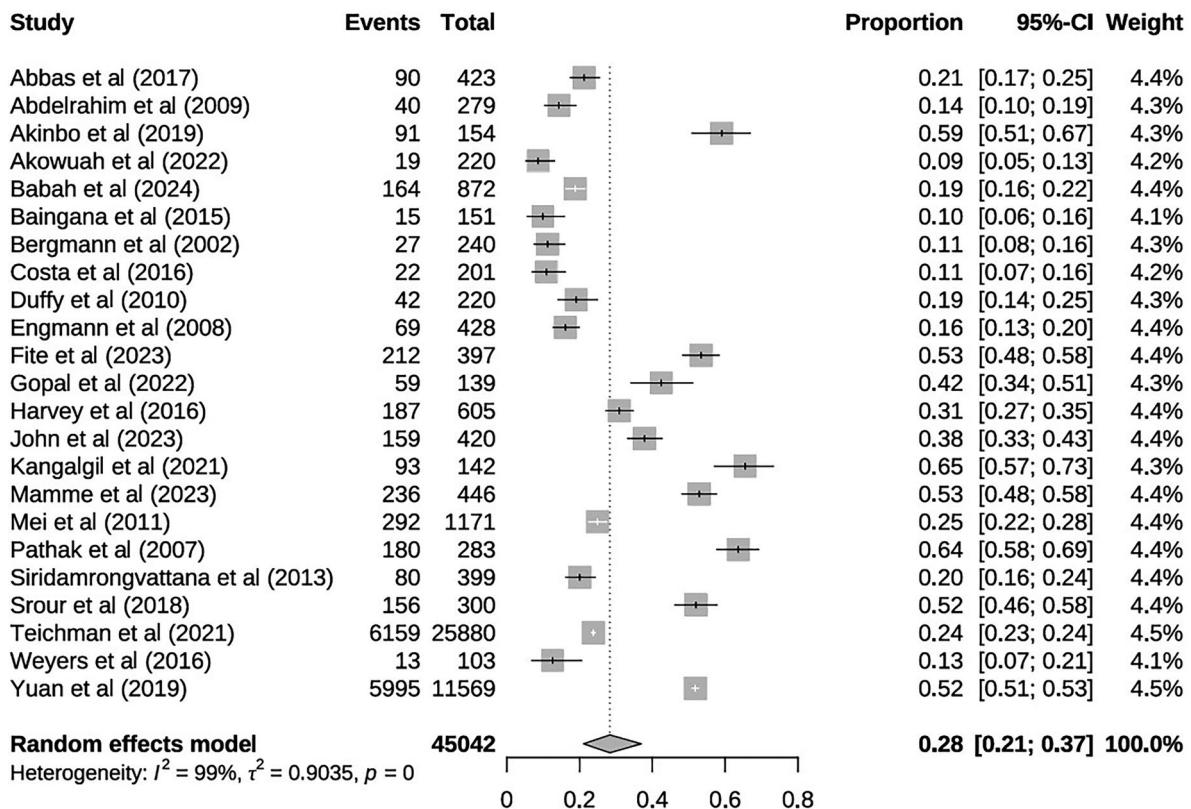


Figure 2. Forest plot of the prevalence of single iron deficiency among pregnant women. Horizontal bar at each study represents the 95% confidence interval. CI, confidence interval.

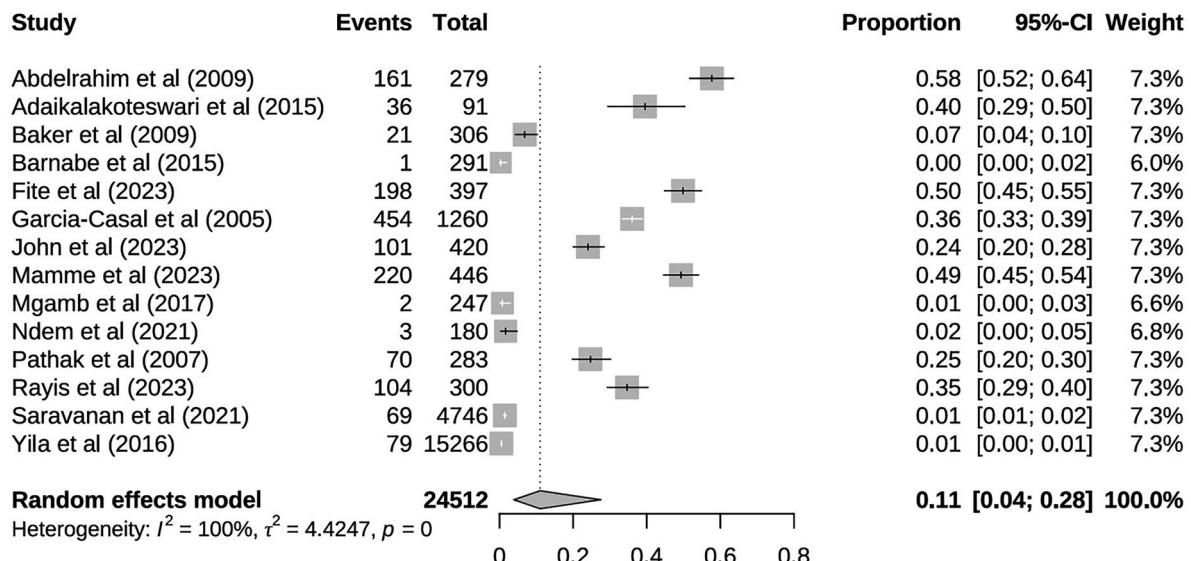


Figure 3. Forest plot of the prevalence of single folate deficiency among pregnant women. Horizontal bar at each study represents the 95% confidence interval. CI, confidence interval.

with significant heterogeneity present (all $p < 0.001$). Countries with the highest prevalence of single iron deficiency were India (67.7%) and Turkey (65.5%) (Figure 5). Sudan (57.7%) and Ethiopia (49.9%) showed the highest prevalence of single folate deficiency (Figure 6). India (74.1%) and Venezuela (61.4%) were observed to have the highest prevalence of single vitamin B₁₂ deficiency (Figure 7).

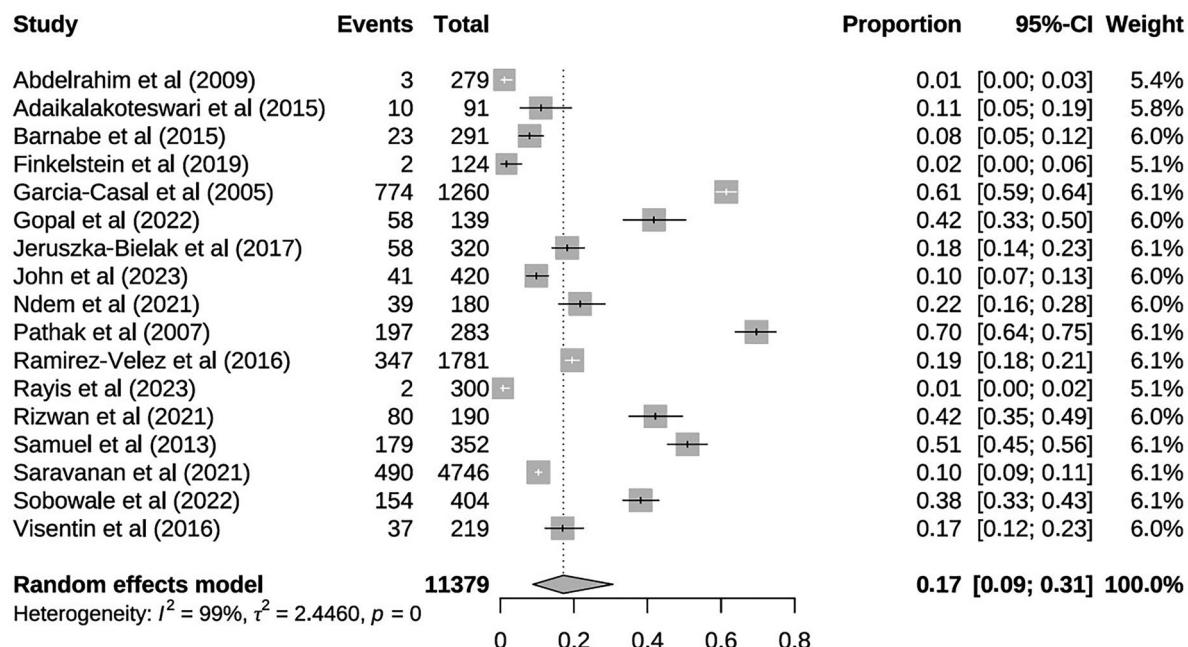


Figure 4. Forest plot of the prevalence of single vitamin B₁₂ deficiency among pregnant women. Horizontal bar at each study represents the 95% confidence interval. CI, confidence interval.

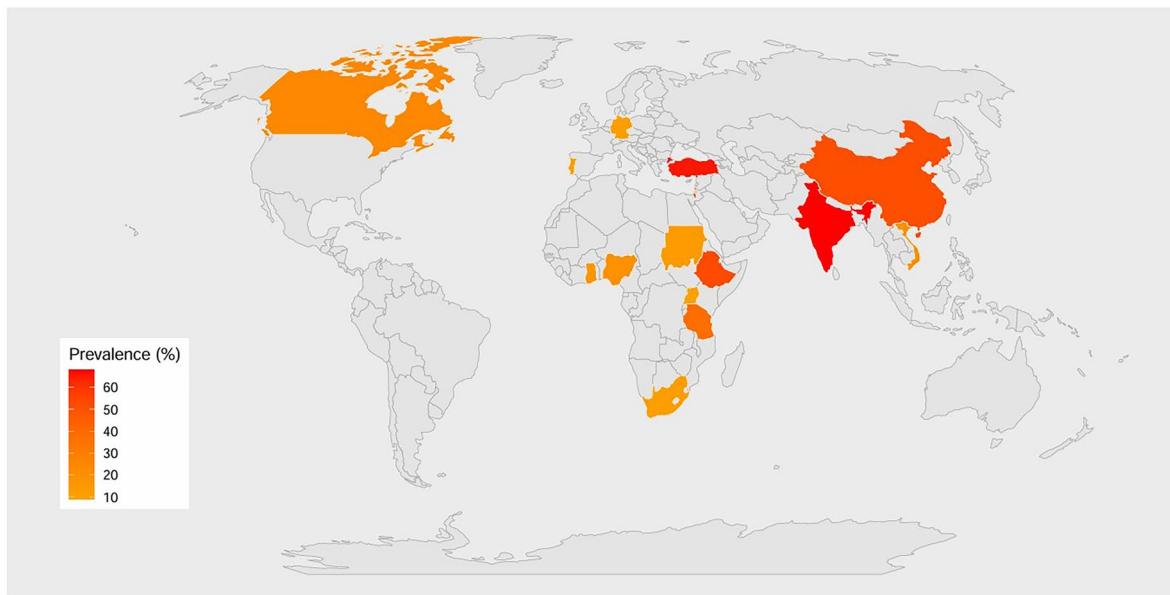


Figure 5. Prevalence of single micronutrient deficiency across countries. Color gradient depicts different prevalence of iron deficiency in each country; the darker the color, the higher the prevalence of iron deficiency. The highest prevalence was in India (67.7%) and Turkey (65.5%).

3.4.2. Subgroup analysis and heterogeneity

Due to the high heterogeneity, a subgroup meta-analysis was performed and revealed that age, region, and diagnosis criteria were significant factors influencing prevalences of single erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies. A subgroup analysis by income level demonstrated no significant association in the prevalence of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies. Classification according to geographic region showed that Asian region had the highest prevalence of iron deficiency at 48.6% (95% CI, 34.4–63%) (Table 2), while African region recorded the highest prevalence of folate deficiency at 19.8%

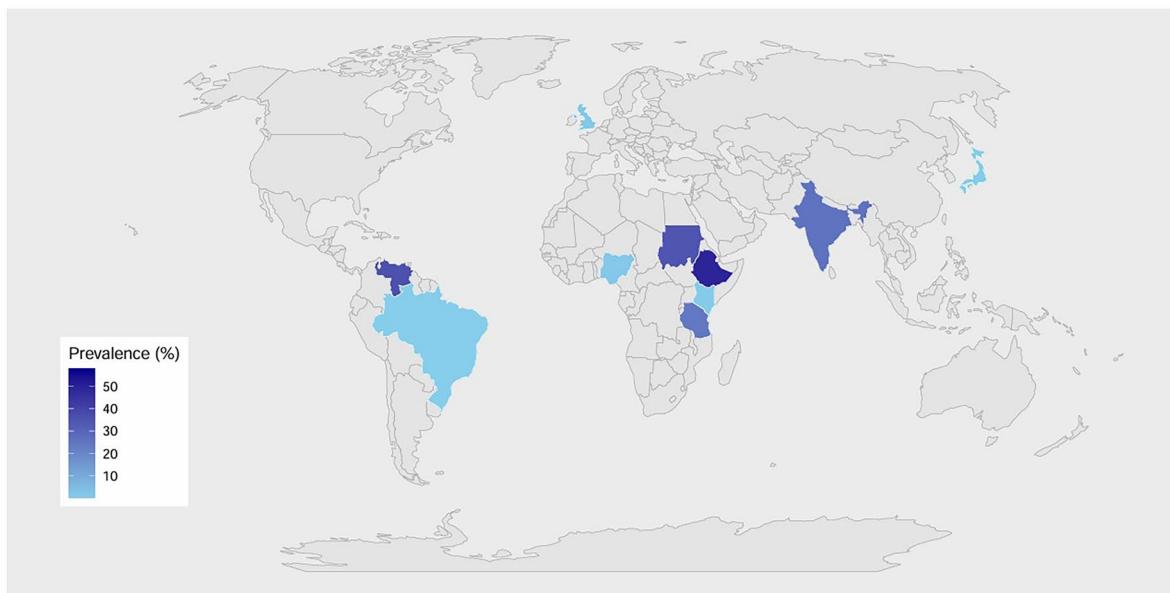


Figure 6. Prevalence of single micronutrient deficiency across countries. Color gradient depicts different prevalence of folate deficiency in each country; the darker the color, the higher the prevalence of folate deficiency. The highest prevalence was in Sudan (57.7%) and Ethiopia (49.9%).

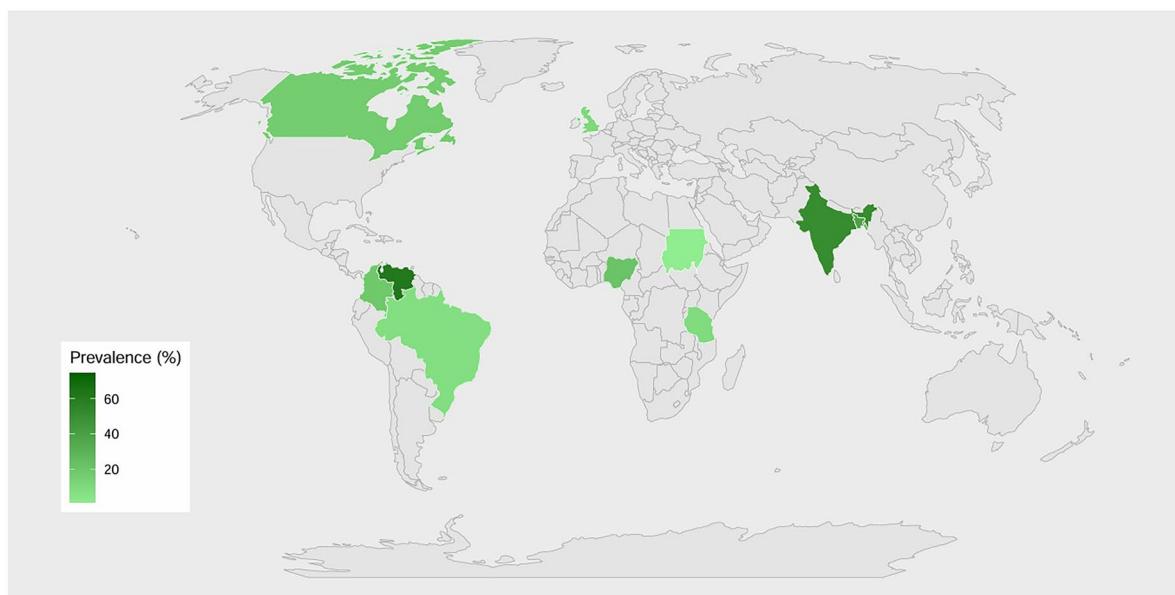


Figure 7. Prevalence of single micronutrient deficiency across countries. Color gradient depicts different prevalence of vitamin B₁₂ deficiency in each country; the darker the color, the higher the prevalence of vitamin B₁₂ deficiency. The highest prevalence was in India (74.1%) and Venezuela (61.4%).

(95% CI, 5.3–52%) (Table 3). Additionally, the Asian region also had the highest prevalence of vitamin B₁₂ deficiency at 48.7% (95% CI, 37.3–60.2%) (Table 4).

In terms of diagnostic criteria, among 12 studies utilizing the WHO standard, the pooled prevalence of an iron deficiency, defined as serum ferritin of < 15 µg/L [34], was 31.5% (95% CI, 22.9–41.5%). Nine studies that applied individual country classifications demonstrated that 19.8% (95% CI, 10.9–33.1%) suffered from an iron deficiency. The prevalence of iron deficiency in two studies that did not report the standard of serum ferritin levels was 55.4% (95% CI, 50–60.6%) (Table 2). As to folate deficiencies, among six studies employing the WHO standard, the pooled prevalence of folate deficiency, identified as serum folate of < 4 ng/mL [17], was 6.6% (95% CI, 1–32.3%). Seven studies that applied individual country

Table 2. Subgroup analysis of prevalence differences of single iron deficiency outcomes.

| Characteristic | No. of studies | n | Iron deficiency prevalence % (95% CI) | I^2 | P value ^a |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------|---------------------------------------|--------|----------------------|
| Age | | | | | 0.76 |
| ≤25 years | 7 [4, 41–43, 47, 48, 56] | 2185 | 26.4% (13.3%–45.7%) | 98.3%* | |
| >25 years | 16 [24, 37–40, 44–46, 49–55, 57] | 42857 | 29.5% (20.6%–40.3%) | 99.6%* | |
| Geographic region | | | | | < 0.01 |
| Africa | 12 [24, 37–42, 45–47, 51, 56] | 4113 | 24% (15.5%–35.1%) | 97.7%* | |
| Europe | 3 [43, 44, 49] | 1046 | 16.3% (7.7%–31.4%) | 96.2%* | |
| Asia | 6 [4, 48, 50, 53, 54, 57] | 12832 | 48.6% (34.4%–63%) | 97%* | |
| Americas | 2 [52, 55] | 27051 | 23.8% (23.3%–24.3%) | 0% | |
| Diagnosis criteria | | | | | < 0.01 |
| WHO | 12 [24, 37, 38, 41, 45, 48–51, 53–55] | 30125 | 31.5% (22.9%–41.5%) | 97.8%* | |
| Self-country classification** | 9 [4, 40, 42–44, 46, 52, 56, 57] | 14366 | 19.1% (9.7%–34.2%) | 98.8%* | |
| NR | 2 [39, 47] | 551 | 55.4% (50%–60.6%) | 31% | |
| Income level | | | | | 0.72 |
| Low middle income | 13 [4, 24, 37–42, 46–48, 51, 53] | 4611 | 29% (19.1%–41.3%) | 98%* | |
| Upper middle income | 4 [45, 50, 56, 57] | 12034 | 34.3% (13.7%–63.1%) | 97.6%* | |
| High income | 6 [43, 44, 49, 52, 54, 55] | 28397 | 23.2% (12%–40.2%) | 97.7%* | |

Iron deficiency is defined as serum ferritin of < 15 µg/L according to WHO.

^aanalyzed by chi-squared test.

*p value < 0.05.

**Diagnosis criteria were defined by each country's guidelines.

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; n, number of participants; NR, not reported; WHO, World Health Organization.

Table 3. Subgroup analysis of prevalence differences of single folate deficiency outcomes.

| Characteristic | No. of studies | n | Folate deficiency prevalence % (95% CI) | I^2 | P value ^a |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------|---|--------|----------------------|
| Age | | | | | 0.12 |
| ≤25 years | 4 [4, 47, 59, 66] | 2246 | 25.7% (10.5%–50.5%) | 97.7%* | |
| >25 years | 10 [24, 38, 51, 58, 60–65] | 22266 | 7.4% (1.8%–26%) | 99.6%* | |
| Geographic region | | | | | 0.74 |
| Africa | 7 [24, 38, 47, 51, 61–63] | 2269 | 19.8% (5.3%–52%) | 96.8%* | |
| Europe | 3 [58, 59, 64] | 5143 | 8.2% (1%–43.4%) | 99.2%* | |
| Asia | 2 [4, 65] | 15549 | 4% (0.1%–70.6%) | 99.8%* | |
| American | 2 [60, 66] | 1551 | 5% (0%–87.7%) | 96.1%* | |
| Diagnostic criteria | | | | | < 0.01 |
| WHO | 6 [24, 51, 60, 61, 63, 64] | 6450 | 6.6% (1%–32.3%) | 99.4%* | |
| Self-country classification** | 7 [4, 38, 58, 59, 62, 65, 66] | 17665 | 12.5% (3%–40.1%) | 99.6%* | |
| NR | 1 [47] | 397 | 49.9% (45%–54.8%) | – | |
| Income level | | | | | 0.06 |
| Low middle income | 7 [4, 24, 38, 47, 51, 62, 63] | 2305 | 29.2% (13.2%–52.8%) | 96.6%* | |
| Upper middle income | 3 [60, 61, 66] | 1798 | 2.7% (0.1%–39.8%) | 96.7%* | |
| High income | 4 [58, 59, 64, 65] | 20409 | 4.2% (0.6%–25.6%) | 99.3%* | |

Folate deficiency is defined as serum folate of < 4 ng/mL according to WHO.

^aanalyzed by chi-squared test.

*p value < 0.05.

**Diagnosis criteria were defined by each country's guidelines.

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; n, number of participants; NR, not reported; WHO, World Health Organization.

classifications revealed a folate deficiency prevalence of 12.5% (95% CI, 3–40.1%). One study that did not reveal the cutoff level for a serum folate deficiency reported the highest prevalence at 49.9% (95% CI, 45–54.8%) (Table 3). For vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies, there was no significant difference as shown in 17 studies regarding diagnosis criteria using the WHO [17], CDC [35], and individual country classifications (Table 4). In age-based classification, pregnant women aged ≤ 25 years had a significantly highest vitamin B₁₂ deficiency prevalence at 34.9% (95% CI, 15.2–61.6%).

3.4.3. Pooled prevalence of multiple erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies

The pooled prevalences of a double deficiency of iron or folate were 53.1% (95% CI, 49.8–56.5%) and 49.6% (95% CI, 46.2–53%), respectively (Table S4). The pooled prevalences of a double deficiency of

Table 4. Subgroup analysis of prevalence differences of single vitamin B₁₂ deficiency outcomes.

| Characteristic | No. of studies | n | Vitamin B ₁₂ deficiency prevalence % (95% CI) | <i>I</i> ² | <i>p</i> value ^a |
|-------------------------------|--|------|--|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Age</i> | | | | | 0.02 |
| ≤25 years | 7 [4, 48, 66, 67, 69, 71, 72] | 4343 | 34.9% (15.2%–61.6%) | 99.1%* | |
| >25 years | 10 [24, 38, 58, 60, 62–64, 68, 70, 73] | 7036 | 9.8% (4.7%–19.6%) | 95.8%* | |
| <i>Geographic region</i> | | | | | <0.01 |
| Africa | 4 [24, 38, 62, 63] | 1179 | 4.1% (0.7%–19.5%) | 94.5%* | |
| Europe | 2 [58, 64] | 4837 | 10.3% (9.5%–11.2%) | 0% | |
| Asia | 5 [4, 48, 70–72] | 1368 | 48.7% (37.3%–60.2%) | 94.4%* | |
| America | 6 [60, 66–69, 73] | 3995 | 15.7% (5.7%–36.3%) | 99.3%* | |
| <i>Diagnosis criteria</i> | | | | | 0.26 |
| WHO | 7 [24, 38, 48, 63, 64, 71, 72] | 6640 | 111.7% (3%–36.1%) | 99%* | |
| Self-country classification** | 6 [4, 58, 60, 66, 69, 70] | 3896 | 30.7% (13%–56.7%) | 99.3%* | |
| CDC | 4 [62, 67, 68, 73] | 843 | 12.3% (4.6%–29.1%) | 80.1%* | |
| <i>Income level</i> | | | | | 0.43 |
| Low middle income | 9 [4, 24, 38, 48, 62, 63, 70–72] | 2547 | 19.7% (6.4%–46.8%) | 97.7%* | |
| Upper middle income | 3 [60, 66, 69] | 3332 | 24.5% (5.7%–63.3%) | 99.7%* | |
| High income | 5 [58, 64, 67, 68, 73] | 5500 | 11.1% (6.3%–18.8%) | 88.2%* | |

Vitamin B₁₂ deficiency is defined as plasma vitamin B₁₂ < 150 pmol/L (203 pg/mL) according to WHO, or plasma vitamin B₁₂ < 148 pmol/L according to CDC.

^aanalyzed by chi-squared test.

**p* value < 0.05.

**Diagnosis criteria were defined by each country's guidelines.

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; n, number of participants; NR, not reported; WHO, World Health Organization.

folate or vitamin B₁₂ were 6.2% (95% CI, 1.2–25.8%) and 11.8% (95% CI, 3.3–34.1%), respectively (Table S5). Pooled prevalences of a triple deficiency of iron or folate or vitamin B₁₂ were 36.1% (95% CI, 13.1–68%), 34.3% (95% CI, 16.9–57.3%), and 12.6% (95% CI, 0.7–74.8%), respectively (Table S6).

3.5. Secondary outcome of meta-analysis

3.5.1. Pooled prevalence of erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies by trimester

The pooled prevalences of iron and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies were estimated to increase with gestational age (iron deficiency at 11.3, 35.3, and 45.1% and vitamin B₁₂ deficiency at 10.3, 31.5, and 69.7% in the first, second, and third trimesters, respectively). A folate deficiency was prevalent in 10.4, 6.2, and 19.2% during the first, second, and third trimesters, respectively (Table S7).

3.6. Sensitivity analysis

After excluding studies that did not report the diagnostic criteria of micronutrient deficiencies, a sensitivity analysis incorporating 21 studies with a single iron deficiency [24,37,39–57], and 13 studies with a single folate deficiency [4,38,50,53,58–66] revealed the pooled prevalences of single iron and folate deficiencies were 26.1% (95% CI 19.2–34.5%) and 9.5% (95% CI 3.2–25.2%), respectively (Figure S1). In a further sensitivity analysis using the outlier removal method, no outliers were identified. Next, we applied the trim-and-fill method and concluded that no significant difference was observed between the new prevalence and the original prevalence (all *p* values > 0.05) (Table S8).

3.7. Publication bias

Egger's tests revealed no publication bias in the prevalence of single iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies (*p*=0.83, *p*=0.32, and *p*=0.82, respectively) (Table S9).

4. Discussion

In the current systematic review and meta-analysis, we compiled the most comprehensive and up-to-date data on prevalences of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies from 43 studies involving pregnant women across 28 countries and five global regions. Single iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies were respectively observed in 28.4, 11.1, and 17.1% of the pregnant population.

Our study estimated that a single iron deficiency was prevalent in pregnant women, especially in Asia, results that align with a previous study [78]. A previous systematic review and meta-analysis conducted in an Asian country estimated comparable prevalences of 31.6–34.6% of pregnant women with an iron deficiency [78], while another study by Zhou et al. [79] revealed that nearly half of Chinese pregnant women experienced an iron deficiency, which is higher than our finding. Serum ferritin was reported to be a reliable marker of iron storage levels. Routine screening for serum ferritin in pregnant women is recommended to initiate interventions and prevent iron deficiency anemia during pregnancy [80,81]. WHO recommended daily iron supplementation (30–60 mg elemental iron, often combined with folic acid) throughout pregnancy in low- and middle-income countries to prevent maternal anemia, puerperal sepsis, low birth weight, and preterm birth [82]. Additionally, previous findings suggested that an iron deficiency is the most common nutritional problem worldwide, especially in various developing countries [12]. Furthermore, it remains the most common nutritional deficiency in the developed world, with up to 50% of cases stemming from insufficient iron intake [12]. This underscores the significance of iron supplementation throughout the gestational period to prevent an iron deficiency [83].

A folate deficiency was estimated to have the lowest prevalence among all single erythropoiesis micronutrients at 11.1%. This suggests that the recommendation for folate supplementation is effective in mitigating the deficiency prevalence during pregnancy [84,85]. A previous systematic review and meta-analysis highlighted the benefits of folic acid intake both before and immediately after conception [86]. The significance of an adequate periconceptional folate supply and the association of the mother's folate status with fetal neural tube defects and other congenital malformations are widely acknowledged [86]. A prior systematic review and meta-analysis indicated that the overall prevalence of a folate deficiency among pregnant women was estimated to be 20.01% [80], which was twice as high as our finding. This indicates that a folate deficiency is a substantial public health issue among pregnant women [87]. In terms of a single vitamin B₁₂ deficiency, we estimated that 17.1% of individuals suffered from this micronutrient deficiency during pregnancy, which was lower than the range of 40–70% of Indian pregnant women reported by Behere et al. in a recent systematic review and meta-analysis [20]. Finkelstein et al. found that 26–51% of pregnant women had a vitamin B₁₂ deficiency [88], which was greater than our finding. Some factors may account for the differences between our study and previous systematic reviews on the prevalence of folate and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies. Our systematic review and meta-analysis included more recent studies, which could reflect improvements in maternal nutrition, supplementation practices, and national fortification programs across the countries [89]. Additionally, differences in geographical location and population in the included studies could have influenced the pooled estimates, since the nutritional status of pregnant women could vary substantially across the regions and socioeconomic contexts [89]. Furthermore, our study incorporated broader global data, potentially yielding different prevalence estimates.

To prevent neural tube defects, folic acid supplementation during pregnancy has been implemented in many countries [90]. WHO guidelines recommended daily oral iron and folic acid supplementation (400 µg) to all pregnant women, starting as early as possible during pregnancy [82]. Sununtnasuk et al. [91] conducted a study across 20 countries and reported that 83% of pregnant women had at least one antenatal care visit, of whom 81% received iron-folic acid tablets. Another study indicated that the compliance rate of iron and folic acid supplement was 66.6% in Ethiopia [92]. A maternal imbalance characterized by high levels of folate and low levels of vitamin B₁₂ (referred to as a "folate-vitamin B₁₂ imbalance") may contribute to metabolic disorders [93]. Previous studies observed that high blood folate/vitamin B₁₂ ratio could increase the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus [64,94,95]. Methionine cycle-related metabolites, including S-adenosylmethionine, S-adenosylhomocysteine, and homocysteine, may mediate the effects of folate and vitamin B₁₂ on the development of gestational diabetes mellitus [93].

Our data demonstrated that deficiency prevalences of iron and vitamin B₁₂ were predicted to increase with gestational age, in line with previous studies. An iron deficiency was shown to be higher in pregnant women in their second and third trimesters [81,96]. Iron requirements could be changed throughout the pregnancy, initially driven by the expansion of maternal red cell mass and later by the increasing demands of the placenta and fetus, which could further lead to a progressive decline in ferritin levels [97,98]. This highlights the challenge of applying uniform thresholds for the deficiency across all trimesters and supports the need for trimester-specific reference ranges or cutoffs [97,98]. In addition, Behere

et al. reported that the prevalence of a vitamin B₁₂ deficiency increased by 10–20% between early to later pregnancy. Meanwhile, another study showed that pooled estimates of a vitamin B₁₂ deficiency in the first, second, and third trimesters were 21, 19, and 29%, respectively [19]. Our findings showed that iron and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies were significantly more common in the Asian region. This can be attributed to the predominantly plant-based diets in Asia, especially in South Asia, which might lead to deficiencies. Non-heme iron from plant-based foods is less efficiently absorbed by the body compared to animal-derived heme iron. Additionally, diets low in animal products can lead to vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies [99]. Geographic variations were reported to contribute to differences in prevalences of vitamin B₁₂ deficits during pregnancy [20]. As to the income status, authors proposed that income level was a factor contributing to observed variations in prevalences of micronutrient deficiencies. High deficiency prevalences of iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ during pregnancy were reported in countries with low socioeconomic conditions [100,101] and developing countries [102]. This is inconsistent with our results, which did not indicate a significant relationship between income level and erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies. One possible reason for this inconsistency is that the countries with lower socioeconomic conditions have implemented nationwide fortification programs and antenatal supplementation initiatives, which could mitigate the expected disparities in micronutrient deficiencies [89]. In addition, the difference could be due to heterogeneity in study populations. Our analysis incorporated a wider range of recent studies from diverse regions, dietary patterns, and health systems, which could have captured more variability in contextual factors compared with earlier reviews. Our findings observed the variance in prevalence rates of the three micronutrients (iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂) between the regions and significant variances between the countries of the same region. This could be attributed to the variations in national fortification programs, access to healthcare, and overall population nutritional status [89].

However, this meta-analysis has some limitations. First, incorporating multiple diagnostic standards for erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies contributed to the high heterogeneity. We performed subgroup meta-analyses to indicate sources of this heterogeneity and strengthen our findings. Second, given the limited data available for risk factors associated with these micronutrient deficiencies in pregnant women, additional studies are needed to investigate these associations. Third, the inclusion of only English-language studies may lead to the omission of some relevant research. Nevertheless, previous evidences indicated that the exclusion of non-English studies generally exerts only a minor effect on pooled estimates in systematic reviews [103–105]. Considering the large number and wide geographical distribution of studies included, it is unlikely that any missed studies would have significantly impacted our overall findings. Four, the variations in assays and threshold values used to determine serum ferritin, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies could influence the prevalence estimates. The previous research observed that commonly used methods for measuring ferritin concentrations generally demonstrated comparable accuracy and performance [106]. The reference values for serum folate and vitamin B₁₂ were consistent when the data were assessed by the same method, and the results across different techniques showed a strong correlation [107]. Nonetheless, the assay variability remains an important methodological factor. For instance, one recent study reported that Beckman Coulter assays tended to underestimate total vitamin B₁₂ concentrations, whereas Abbott assays overestimated them compared with Roche assays traceable to the WHO international standard [21]. Further research is needed to clarify the influence of assay variability on the prevalence estimates of iron, folate, and vitamin B₁₂ deficiencies. Future meta-analyses should account for the assay method as a source of heterogeneity to enhance the validity. Five, the search strategy was conducted by the research team without the involvement of an information specialist. Additionally, our analysis focused solely on iron deficiency, and further research should comprehensively examine both iron deficiency and iron deficiency anemia. Our study presents the most recent findings on prevalences of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies in pregnant women around the world, accompanied by a thorough analysis to resolve heterogeneity among the studies. Despite certain limitations, our findings offered valuable insights for early detection and prevention of micronutrient deficiencies during pregnancy, and could inform policymakers, stakeholders, and clinicians in designing targeted interventions, clinical recommendations, and public health policies, as well as serve as a foundation for further research and meta-analyses.

5. Conclusions

In summary, this meta-analysis displayed high prevalences of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies in pregnant women worldwide. We highlighted that age, geographic region, and diagnostic criteria significantly impacted prevalences of single micronutrient deficiencies in pregnant women. Asia had the greatest iron and vitamin B₁₂ deficiency prevalences. Pregnant women aged ≤ 25 years exhibited the highest prevalence of a vitamin B₁₂ deficiency. The iron and vitamin B₁₂ deficiency prevalences were estimated to increase with gestational age. While these findings offer important insights, the study also identified country- and region-level differences in the prevalence of erythropoiesis-related micronutrient deficiencies, along with substantial variability in the underlying data, assay methods, and threshold values used to determine deficiency status and derive pooled estimates. These factors may contribute to uncertainty regarding the precise magnitude of the reported prevalences. Nonetheless, the results underscore the need for improved data quality and greater methodological consistency. Further epidemiological and nutritional research as well as additional meta-analyses are needed to elucidate the risk factors and identify appropriate remedies for mitigating high prevalences of erythropoiesis-associated micronutrient deficiencies in pregnant women.

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Authors contributions

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Data availability statement

All data relevant to this study are included in the article or uploaded as [supplementary materials](#). The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon the request.

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