



NCC Pediatrics Continuity Clinic Curriculum: **Health Maintenance III**

Overall Goal:

To understand the recommended screening procedures utilized in the health maintenance of children.

Overall Objectives:

Over the last two weeks' and this week's modules, residents will become familiar with the AAP Recommendations for Preventive Pediatric Health Care, as outlined in the Periodicity Schedule © 2008.

The Periodicity Schedule includes the following screening procedures, some of which was covered in these 3 consecutive modules, and some of which will be covered in upcoming continuity modules:

- 1) Measurements:
 - a. Length, Height, Weight, HC, BMI: *Health Maintenance I*
 - b. Blood Pressure: *Hypertension Module (spring)*
- 2) Sensory Screening:
 - a. Vision: *Health Maintenance II*
 - b. Hearing: *Health Maintenance II*
- 3) Developmental/Behavioral Assessment:
Behavior I, II, III & Development I, II, III (29 Aug-17 Oct)
- 4) Procedures:
 - a. Newborn Metabolic/Hemoglobin: *Health Maintenance I*
 - b. Immunization: *Immunizations Module (8 Aug)*
 - c. **Hematocrit or Hemoglobin:** *Health Maintenance III*
 - d. **Lead:** *Health Maintenance III*
 - e. **Tuberculosis:** *Health Maintenance III*
 - f. **Dyslipidemia:** *Health Maintenance III*
 - g. STIs: *Adolescence I & II (28 Nov, 5 Dec)*
- 5) Oral Health: *Dental Health Module (7 Nov)*



NCC Pediatrics Continuity Clinic Curriculum: Health Maintenance III

Pre-Meeting Preparation:

Please read the following enclosures, corresponding to the screening procedures:

- 1) Hematocrit or Hemoglobin: “**Screening for Iron Deficiency**” (PIR)
- 2) Lead: “**Screening for Lead Exposure**” (Excerpts - AAP Policy Statement)
- 3) Tuberculosis: “**TST- CDC Fact Sheet**”; **Risk-Assessment Questionnaire**
- 4) Dyslipidemia: “**Screening for Dyslipidemia**” (Excerpts- AAP Statement)

* **Determine your OWN risk:** Assign 1-point for every positive answer on the Lead, TB, and Cholesterol Risk-Assessments.

* **Bring in an article** from a medical journal OR popular press addressing a “clinical controversy” or “current event” related to this week’s screening procedures (e.g. lead toy recalls, unclear benefits of cholesterol screening, QuantiFERON-Gold TB Test).

Conference Agenda:

- Review **Health-Maintenance III Quiz & Case Scenarios**
- Round-table discussion of “clinical controversy”/ “current events” articles
- Practice placing a PPD on a group member (*record in your procedure log!*)
- Complete Board Review Questions, if time permits.

Extra-Credit:

Review these AAP clinical practice guidelines, corresponding to the listed screening procedures:

- 1) Hct or Hgb: “[Diagnosis & Prevention of Iron Deficiency](#)” (Clinical Report; 2010)
- 2) Lead: “[Lead Exposure in Children](#)” (Policy Statement; reaffirmed 2009)
- 3) Tuberculosis: “[Tuberculin Skin Testing in Children](#)” (CDC Recs; 2006)
- 4) Dyslipidemia: “[Lipid Screening & CV Health in Children](#)” (Clinical Report; 2008)

Screening for Iron Deficiency

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Objectives After completing this article, readers should be able to:

1. Determine the most common cause of iron deficiency in the United States.
2. Describe the pathogenesis of iron deficiency.
3. List populations at high risk for iron deficiency.
4. Outline the common signs and symptoms of iron deficiency.
5. Specify the American Academy of Pediatrics recommendations for screening for iron deficiency.

In the March and April issues of Pediatrics in Review, we published a two-part article on managing anemia in a pediatric office practice. This article expands on the various tests for iron deficiency, including some relatively new ones. These articles should be read as complementary.—RJH

Introduction

Iron deficiency is the most common nutritional deficiency in the world, responsible for a staggering amount of ill health, lost productivity, and premature death. Although its prevalence in the United States has declined since the late 1960s, iron deficiency with or without anemia still is seen frequently in infants, toddlers, adolescent females, and women of childbearing age. In fact, iron deficiency anemia remains the most common hematologic disease of infants and children.

Definitions

Anemia is defined as a low hemoglobin (Hgb) concentration or red blood cell (RBC) mass compared with age-specific norms. Anemia may be caused by decreased RBC production, increased RBC destruction, or blood loss. Based on the size of the RBC, hematologists categorize anemia as macrocytic, normocytic, or microcytic.

Iron is found in different compartments within the body. Total body iron (measured by ferritin), transport iron (measured by transferrin saturation), serum iron, and other hematologic and biochemical markers are used to describe the degrees of iron deficiency. Iron depletion refers to the earliest stage of diminishing iron stores in the setting of insufficient iron supply. Iron deficiency (without anemia) develops as these iron stores are depleted further and begin to impair Hgb synthesis. Finally, iron deficiency anemia results when the iron supply is insufficient to maintain normal levels of Hgb.

Epidemiology

According to current World Health Organization estimates, most of the world's population may be iron-deficient, and at least one third (approximately 2 billion people) have anemia due to iron deficiency. As recently as the late 1960s, iron

Abbreviations

CHR:	reticulocyte hemoglobin content
FEP:	free erythrocyte protoporphyrin
Hct:	hematocrit
Hgb:	hemoglobin
MCV:	mean corpuscular volume
RBC:	red blood cell
RDW:	red blood cell distribution width
TIBC:	total iron-binding capacity
TfR:	serum transferrin receptor
Tfsat:	transferrin saturation
WIC:	Women, Infants and Children (Special Supplemental Food Program)
ZPP:	zinc protoporphyrin

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Drs Wu and Bernstein have a grant from the Bayer Corporation to study the reticulocyte hemoglobin content test.

deficiency with or without anemia was highly prevalent in the United States. In 1971, the American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Nutrition promoted the early use of iron-fortified formula instead of cow milk. One year later, the federal government introduced the Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC) Act to address iron and other nutritional deficiencies.

These initiatives have had a tremendous impact on the health and well-being of children. In one review of children ages 6 to 60 months who were participating in public health programs (such as WIC), the prevalence of anemia declined from 7.8% in 1975 to 2.9% in 1985.

Unfortunately, iron deficiency with or without anemia remains relatively common in the United States. In the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (1988 to 1994), 13% of 1-year-olds, 5% of 2-year-olds, 9% of adolescent females (12 to 15 y), and 11% of women of childbearing age (16 to 49 y) were iron-deficient. Iron deficiency anemia was present in 3% of the toddlers studied, 2% of the adolescent females, and 3% to 5% of the women of childbearing age. Despite efforts at prevention and early detection, severe cases still occur.

The high prevalence of iron deficiency anemia in developing countries most often is attributed to nutritional deficiencies worsened by chronic blood loss due to parasitic infections and malaria. In the United States and other industrialized nations, the most common cause of iron deficiency with or without anemia is insufficient dietary iron. Infants, toddlers, adolescents, and pregnant women are particularly susceptible because of their relatively rapid growth and increased demand for iron.

The use of iron-fortified formula helps ensure adequate iron supplies for infants. However, toddlers often have diets that contain minimal amounts of iron-rich foods and large amounts of cow milk. The early introduction of whole cow milk (before 1 year of age) and consumption of greater than 24 oz of whole cow milk per day (after the first year of life) increase the risk of iron deficiency. Cow milk is low in iron and interferes with iron absorption. In addition, cow milk may cause occult gastrointestinal bleeding in some infants.

Adolescent females may become anemic due to menstrual losses. Some children develop anemia due to other causes of blood loss, such as Meckel diverticulum, chronic epistaxis, or inflammatory bowel disease.

Anemia seen during the first 2 to 3 months of life, termed physiologic anemia of infancy, is not due to iron deficiency and, therefore, does not respond to iron therapy. In preterm infants, this physiologic anemia, also called anemia of prematurity, appears at 1 to 2 months of age and is often more severe.

Pathogenesis

Iron, which is present in trace amounts in every cell in the body, performs several vital functions, including oxygen transport. Most of the body's iron is used to make heme groups within the oxygen-carrying molecules Hgb and myoglobin. Iron also is essential for the biologic function of cytochromes and other enzymes involved in cellular respiration.

The early introduction of whole cow milk (ie, before 1 year of age) and consumption of greater than 24 oz/d after the first year of life increase the risk of iron deficiency.

Iron is absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and transported in the blood bound to transferrin. Excess iron is stored primarily in the liver, bone marrow, and spleen as ferritin.

The developing fetus builds iron stores from maternal supplies. Unless maternal iron deficiency is severe, a normal term infant is born having sufficient iron stores for at least 4 to 6 months of postnatal growth. During the first months of life, the newborn uses iron at a high rate for accelerated growth and expansion of blood volume. By 4 months of age, an infant's iron stores have decreased by 50% (and birthweight usually has doubled). The preterm infant has less time to accumulate iron in utero and, therefore, is born with lower iron stores. In addition, the preterm infant has a demonstrably faster rate of postnatal growth than the term infant and may deplete iron stores within 2 to 3 months.

Adequate iron must be available to meet these demands. Although the majority of iron in the body is conserved and reused, some is lost through the gastrointestinal tract, skin, and urine. During the first year of life, normal infants need to absorb approximately 0.8 mg/d of dietary iron (0.6 mg for growth, 0.2 mg to replace ongoing losses).

Toward the end of the second year of life, this swift

rate of growth begins to slow, so routine diets tend to include sufficient iron-rich foods to meet demands. Iron requirements increase again during adolescence due to rapid growth; adolescent females need additional iron to replace losses from menstruation.

There are two types of dietary iron: heme and non-heme. Heme iron already has been incorporated into the heme molecules of Hgb and myoglobin and is well absorbed by the body. Approximately 10% of the iron in a typical Western diet is heme iron, derived from meat, poultry, and fish. The majority of dietary iron is non-heme, in the form of iron salts. The bioavailability (amount absorbed by the body) of nonheme iron is highly variable and influenced by several factors, including current diet and the amount of iron already present in the body. Bran, dietary fiber, calcium, tannins (in tea and coffee), and oxalates, phytates, and polyphenols (in certain plant-based foods) inhibit iron absorption. Absorption is enhanced by reducing substances such as hydrochloric acid and ascorbic acid. The consumption of heme iron, even in small amounts, enhances the absorption of nonheme iron. Absorption of iron also is increased when total body stores are decreased or when the demand for iron increases, such as during adolescent growth spurts.

Mature human milk and cow milk contain the same amount of iron, approximately 0.5 mg/L; fortified formulas contain 10 to 13 mg/L. However, about 50% of iron from human milk is absorbed compared with only 10% from cow milk and less than 5% from iron-fortified formula. The reasons for the enhanced bioavailability of iron from human milk are not well understood, but they include a lower concentration of calcium and a higher concentration of ascorbic acid in human milk.

Clinical Aspects

The signs and symptoms of iron deficiency with and without anemia depend on the degree of deficiency and the rate at which the anemia develops. Children who have iron deficiency or mild-to-moderate anemia may show few, if any, signs or symptoms. Pallor is the most frequent sign of iron deficiency anemia. As the degree of anemia worsens, fatigue, exercise intolerance, tachycardia, cardiac dilatation, and systolic murmurs may develop. Splenomegaly can be found in 10% to 15% of affected patients. Infants and toddlers may demonstrate irritability and anorexia. However, even severe anemia may be asymptomatic; in one study of severe cases, 45% were diagnosed incidentally.

Iron deficiency anemia in infancy and early childhood is associated with developmental delays and behavior disturbances that may be irreversible. Numerous studies

have documented lower test scores of mental and motor development among infants who had iron deficiency and iron deficiency anemia. In some follow-up studies, test results were normal after reversal of the anemia, but in others, developmental delays persisted, despite adequate treatment. The extent and persistence of brain involvement seem to depend on the age at which anemia first develops as well as its degree and duration. Although additional study is needed, the evidence linking iron deficiency and cognitive impairment is compelling. Iron supplements even have been shown to improve learning and memory in nonanemic iron-deficient adolescent females.

Iron deficiency anemia also is associated with poor growth and may produce other systemic abnormalities, such as blue sclerae, koilonychia, angular stomatitis, increased susceptibility to infection, and functional alterations in the gastrointestinal tract. Iron deficiency increases lead absorption and has been associated with pica, which may result in plumbism.

Making the Diagnosis

The differential diagnosis for anemia in children is broad, but it narrows once the anemia is classified further as microcytic. Iron deficiency and thalassemia minor are the most common causes of microcytic anemia in children. Microcytosis also results from lead poisoning, chronic disease (eg, inflammation, infection, cancer), sideroblastic anemia, and other rare conditions.

An array of tests can be used for evaluating anemia, but there is no single “best” test to diagnose iron deficiency with or without anemia. The “gold standard” for identifying iron deficiency is a direct test—bone marrow biopsy with Prussian blue staining. However, bone marrow aspiration is too invasive for routine use, so indirect assays generally are used. Hematologic tests are based on RBC features (eg, Hgb, mean corpuscular volume [MCV]), and biochemical tests are based on iron metabolism (eg, zinc protoporphyrin [ZPP], serum ferritin concentration). Hematologic tests generally are more readily available and less expensive than biochemical tests. However, biochemical tests detect iron deficiency before the onset of anemia and, therefore, may be worth the additional expense because the deleterious effects of iron deficiency appear to begin before anemia develops. A new hematologic test, reticulocyte hemoglobin content (CHr), may help diagnose iron deficiency before anemia is present.

Laboratory Parameters

The various hematologic and biochemical parameters used for screening and diagnosis are discussed below.

Table 1. Hematologic Markers for Identifying Iron Deficiency

Hematologic Marker	Normal	Iron Depletion	Iron Deficiency Without Anemia	Iron Deficiency Anemia
Hemoglobin (g/dL) (g/L)	N ≥11 (110)	N ≥11 (110)	N ≥11 (110)	D <11* (110)
Mean corpuscular volume (fL)	N 70 to 100	N 70 to 100	N 70 to 100	D <70*
Red blood cell distribution width (%)	N <15	N <15	N <15	I ≥15
Reticulocyte hemoglobin content (pg)	N ≥29	N ≥29	D <29	D <29
Reticulocytes	N 1 to 5	N 1 to 5	N 1 to 5	D <1

N = normal, I = increased, D = decreased
 *Values for ages 6 mo to 2 y.

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the values for these parameters along the spectrum from normal to iron deficiency anemia. In most cases, the results from several tests are necessary to make a definitive diagnosis.

Hematologic Markers (Table 1)

Measurement of Hgb, the concentration of oxygen-carrying protein, is a more sensitive and direct test for anemia than is measurement of hematocrit (Hct), the percentage of whole blood that is occupied by RBCs. Anemia generally is defined as Hgb values below the 5th percentile in a healthy reference population: less than 11.0 g/dL (110 g/L) for infants 6 months to 2 years of age. Both measurements are inexpensive, readily avail-

able tests for anemia and are used most commonly to screen for iron deficiency. However, Hgb and Hct are late markers of iron deficiency, are not specific for iron deficiency anemia, and are less predictive as the prevalence of iron deficiency anemia decreases.

The MCV, the average volume of RBCs, is reported in automated analyses, but it also can be calculated as the ratio of Hct to RBC count. MCV is useful for categorizing anemia as microcytic, normocytic, and macrocytic.

The red blood cell distribution width (RDW) measures variations in the size of RBCs and increases with iron deficiency. In one study of adults, high RDW (>15%) was 71% to 100% sensitive and 50% specific in diagnosing iron deficiency. Another study of 12-month-

Table 2. Biochemical Markers for Identifying Iron Deficiency

Biochemical Marker	Normal	Iron Depletion	Iron Deficiency Without Anemia	Iron Deficiency Anemia
Serum ferritin (mcg/dL) (mcg/L)	N 100±60 (1,000±600)	D <20 (200)	D ≤10 (100)	D <10 (100)
Serum iron (mcg/dL) (mcmol/L)	N 115±50 (20.6±9)	N <115 (20.6)	D <60 (10.7)	D <40 (7.2)
Total iron-binding capacity	N 330±30 (59±5.4)	N 360 to 390 (64.4 to 69.8)	N/I 390 to 410 (69.8 to 73.4)	I ≥410 (73.4)
Transferrin saturation (%)	N 35±15	N <30	D <20	D <10
Serum transferrin receptor (nmol/L)	N <35	I ≥35	I ≥35	I ≥35
Zinc protoporphyrin/Heme (mcmol/mol)	N <40	N <40	I ≥40	I ≥70

N = normal, I = increased, D = decreased

old infants found that high RDW ($>14\%$) was 100% sensitive and 82% specific. Because of its relatively low specificity, RDW is not as useful alone as a screening test, but it is used frequently in conjunction with MCV to differentiate among various causes of anemia. For example, RDW is high in iron deficiency anemia, but low in thalassemia minor.

The reticulocyte count measures circulating immature RBCs and decreases with iron deficiency. However, the reticulocyte count increases with blood loss. In severe cases of iron deficiency anemia coupled with blood loss, the reticulocyte count may be slightly elevated. This parameter often is used for assessing the response to iron supplements.

CHr, the concentration of iron-containing protein in reticulocytes, can be measured in some hematology laboratories by using the same automated flow cytometer that provides RBC and reticulocyte indices. CHr has been shown to be an early indicator of iron deficiency in healthy subjects receiving recombinant human erythropoietin. A retrospective laboratory analysis performed on

including iron absorption from meals, infection, inflammation, and diurnal variation.

Total iron-binding capacity (TIBC) measures the availability of iron-binding sites. Extracellular iron is transported in the body bound to transferrin, a specific carrier protein. Hence, TIBC indirectly measures transferrin levels, which increase as serum iron concentration (and stored iron) decreases. Unfortunately, this test also is affected by factors other than iron status. For example, TIBC is decreased with malnutrition, inflammation, chronic infection, and cancer.

Transferrin saturation (Tfsat) indicates the proportion of occupied iron-binding sites and reflects iron transport rather than storage. Tfsat is calculated from two measured values: serum iron concentration divided by TIBC, expressed as a percent. Low Tfsat implies low serum iron levels relative to the number of available iron-binding sites, suggesting low iron stores. Tfsat decreases before anemia develops, but not early enough to identify iron depletion. Tfsat is influenced by the same factors that affect TIBC and serum iron

concentration and is less sensitive to changes in iron stores than is serum ferritin.

Serum transferrin receptor (TfR) also can be detected in some laboratories via immunoassay. This receptor is present on reticulocytes and is shed from the membrane as the reticulocyte matures. With tissue iron deficiency, there is a proportional increase in the number of

transferrin receptors. Although not a readily available test, TfR is useful as an early marker of iron deficiency, but it also may differentiate between iron deficiency anemia and anemia of chronic disease. In one study, TfR was increased in patients who had iron deficiency anemia, but not in patients who had anemia in the setting of acute infection.

ZPP is formed when zinc is incorporated into protoporphyrin in place of iron during the final step of heme biosynthesis. Under normal conditions, the reaction with iron predominates, but when iron is in short supply, the production of ZPP increases and the ZPP/heme ratio becomes elevated. ZPP/heme reflects iron status during hemoglobin synthesis and detects iron deficiency before the onset of anemia. This test is reported most accurately as the ZPP/heme ratio, but it also is reported simply as ZPP. ZPP is not the same as free erythrocyte protoporphyrin (FEP) or erythrocyte protoporphyrin, which is created in the laboratory when zinc is stripped from ZPP and also is used as a marker of iron deficiency without

Zinc protoporphyrin reflects iron status during hemoglobin synthesis and detects iron deficiency before the onset of anemia.

210 children showed that low CHr was the best predictor of iron deficiency compared with Hgb, MCV, serum iron, RDW, and transferrin saturation.

Biochemical Markers (Table 2)

Ferritin is a storage compound for iron, and serum ferritin levels normally correlate with total iron stores. As iron stores are depleted, serum ferritin levels decline and are the earliest marker of iron deficiency. Serum ferritin has high specificity for iron deficiency, especially when combined with other markers such as Hgb. However, the test is expensive and has limited availability in a clinic setting; therefore, it is not used commonly for screening. In addition, serum ferritin is an acute-phase reactant that can become elevated in the setting of inflammation, chronic infection, or other diseases.

Serum iron concentration can be measured directly and generally decreases as iron stores are depleted. However, serum iron may not reflect iron stores accurately because it is influenced by several additional factors,

Table 3. Diet Counseling to Prevent Iron Deficiency in Children

Age of Child	Preventive Counseling
Birth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage breastfeeding exclusively for 4 to 6 months after birth and continue breastfeeding until 12 months of age. For infants who are not breastfed, recommend only iron-fortified formula (10 to 12 mg/L). For breastfed infants who were preterm or of low birthweight, recommend 2 to 4 mg/kg per day of iron drops to a maximum of 15 mg/d and screen for anemia before 6 months of age.
4 to 6 months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recommend starting iron-fortified infant cereal.
6 months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recommend two or more servings per day of iron-fortified infant cereal to meet iron requirements. Recommend one feeding per day of foods rich in vitamin C (fruits and vegetables) to improve iron absorption.
9 to 12 months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Begin introducing plain pureed meats. Provide appropriate counseling for vegetarian families. Discourage introduction of cow milk before 12 months of age.
1 to 5 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage iron-rich foods. Limit milk consumption to 24 oz/d.
≥6 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage iron-rich foods and foods rich in vitamin C to improve iron absorption, especially in menstruating females.

anemia. Although ZPP and FEP can be measured by using affordable, clinic-based methods, both are elevated with lead poisoning and chronic disease, making them less useful for the diagnosis of anemia.

Diet

Dietary history may be suggestive of iron deficiency and has been studied as a possible marker for microcytic anemia. In one study of healthy inner-city children between the ages of 15 and 60 months, dietary iron deficiency was defined as: 1) fewer than 5 servings per week each of meat, cereals or bread, vegetables, and fruit; 2) more than 16 oz per day of milk; or 3) daily intake of fatty snacks or sweets or greater than 16 oz of soda. As a screening test for microcytic anemia, the study found that diet history had 71% sensitivity, 79% specificity, and 97% negative predictive value. Similarly, low specificity was demonstrated in another prospective study that used a questionnaire to assess diet, WIC participation, and medical and family history. Response to a clinical trial of iron therapy is used by most clinicians as a practical method of diagnosing iron deficiency anemia.

Because of the low specificity of dietary history for iron deficiency anemia, it cannot eliminate the need for further laboratory testing. However, dietary history may be useful in identifying children at low risk for iron deficiency (negative predictive value) and is essential

for the prevention and management of iron deficiency anemia.

Prevention

Clinicians play an essential role in preventing iron deficiency and its related medical and developmental problems. Primary prevention involves counseling at routine health supervision visits from infancy through adolescence to help ensure that ingestion of dietary iron is adequate (Table 3). Secondary prevention involves regular screening, prompt diagnosis, and appropriate treatment of iron deficiency.

Hgb and Hct are the most commonly used screening tests for iron deficiency. They are readily available and cost-effective markers of anemia. However, the use of anemia as a marker for iron deficiency depends on the prevalence of iron deficiency anemia in a population.

Increased prevalence improves the positive predictive value of anemia as a screening test for iron deficiency.

The American Academy of Pediatrics recommends universal screening with Hgb or Hct once between ages 9 and 12 months of age and again 6 months later in communities and populations that have a high prevalence of iron deficiency anemia, including children eligible for WIC, children of migrant workers, or recently arrived refugee children. For communities that have low rates of anemia, selective screening at the same intervals is recommended for children at risk for iron deficiency, including preterm or low-birthweight infants, infants fed a diet of noniron-fortified infant formula, infants introduced to cow milk before age 12 months, breastfed infants who are receiving inadequate dietary iron after age 6 months, and children who consume more than 24 oz of cow milk per day.

After 2 years of age, routine screening usually is not necessary. Risk can be assessed regularly and children screened who have a previous history of iron deficiency, evidence of low iron intake, or special health needs that increase the risk for iron deficiency (eg, chronic infection, inflammatory disorders, chronic or acute blood loss, restricted diets, use of medications that interfere with iron absorption).

The American Academy of Pediatrics recommends screening all adolescents once between ages 11 and 21

years and screening menstruating females annually. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention recommend annual screening of adolescent females if their risk is increased (eg, excessive menstrual blood loss, low iron intake, previous diagnosis of iron deficiency); otherwise, anemia should be screened for every 5 to 10 years.

In the appropriate clinical setting, an abnormally low Hgb or Hct combined with a dietary history of low iron intake strongly suggests iron deficiency anemia. Further laboratory testing, such as measurement of serum ferritin, will help to confirm the diagnosis, but in most cases is not necessary. Response to a therapeutic trial of supplemental iron is considered clinically diagnostic. If a child who has a normal diet that contains adequate servings of iron-rich foods is anemic, additional evaluation may be indicated to look for blood loss (eg, occult rectal bleeding).

Presumptive iron deficiency is treated with oral iron salts, most commonly over-the-counter ferrous sulfate, which is inexpensive and relatively well absorbed. Dosages are calculated for elemental iron: children receive 3 to 6 mg/kg per day (qd or tid), and adolescents receive 60 mg/dose (qd or bid). If the iron deficiency is nutritional, the response to iron typically is rapid. Parenteral iron can be given if oral iron is not tolerated; intramuscular iron injections usually are not appropriate. Erythrocyte transfusion should be used only if the anemia is causing severe cardiovascular compromise; hypervolemia and cardiac dilatation may result from rapid correction of the anemia.

After 1 month of therapy, the Hgb measurement should be repeated. An increase of 1 g/dL (10 g/L) or greater confirms the diagnosis of iron deficiency anemia. No improvement in Hgb should prompt further evaluation of the anemia with additional laboratory tests, including MCV, RDW, and serum ferritin, and a search for possible sources of blood loss. Iron therapy should be continued for an additional 2 to 3 months after Hgb has returned to a normal level, and Hgb should be remea-

sured approximately 6 months after discontinuation of iron therapy.

The evidence is clear that early diagnosis and adequate treatment of iron deficiency are critical to prevention or reversal of any negative medical or behavioral effects. As advocates for children, pediatricians must screen for this common nutritional deficiency actively and accurately. Hgb and Hct are the most readily available and cost-effective screening tests, but newer tests that detect iron deficiency before the onset of anemia (eg, CHr) are being studied prospectively in healthy infants and may gain widespread acceptance, particularly as the prevalence of iron deficiency anemia decreases.

Suggested Reading

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PIR Quiz

Quiz also available online at www.pedsinreview.org.

9. The *most* common presenting sign of iron deficiency anemia is:
 - A. Exercise intolerance.
 - B. Fatigue.
 - C. Pallor.
 - D. Splenomegaly.
 - E. Tachycardia.

10. An 18-month-old boy presents with pallor. He has a history of drinking 40 oz of cow milk a day. Laboratory studies reveal: hemoglobin, 8.8 g/dL (88 g/L); mean corpuscular volume, 63 fL; white blood cell count, $5.9 \times 10^3/\text{mcL}$ ($5.9 \times 10^9/\text{L}$); platelet count, $655 \times 10^3/\text{mcL}$ ($655 \times 10^9/\text{L}$); and 45% neutrophils, 46% lymphocytes, 5% monocytes, and 4% eosinophils. The *most* appropriate step to establish a diagnosis is to:
 - A. Measure reticulocyte hemoglobin content.
 - B. Measure serum ferritin.
 - C. Measure serum iron and total iron binding capacity.
 - D. Measure serum transferrin receptor.
 - E. Institute a trial of oral iron and repeat the hemoglobin measurement in 3 to 4 weeks.

11. The screening of hemoglobin or hematocrit is recommended by the American Academy of Pediatrics for:
 - A. Adolescents annually.
 - B. Adolescents once between 13 and 19 years of age.
 - C. Children between 9 and 12 months of age and again 6 months later.
 - D. Menstruating females annually.
 - E. All 2-year-olds.

12. A 14-month-old boy is found to have iron deficiency due to poor dietary intake of iron. His hemoglobin is 6.7 g/dL (67 g/L). You counsel the parents on necessary dietary measures. The *most* appropriate next step in the management of this child is to:
 - A. Administer intramuscular iron.
 - B. Administer oral ferrous sulfate in a dose of 3 to 6 mg/kg per day of elemental iron divided tid.
 - C. Measure folic acid to determine whether pernicious anemia is present.
 - D. Measure hemoglobin again in 1 month.
 - E. Transfuse red blood cells.

13. From which of the following is iron *best* absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract?
 - A. Human milk.
 - B. Cow milk.
 - C. Dietary fiber.
 - D. Heme iron.
 - E. Tea.

Screening for Lead Exposure

The AAP Policy Statement was published in 2005 and re-affirmed in May 2009.
(See "Extra Credit" materials for full policy statement)

A. A Basic Personal-Risk Questionnaire*

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	1. Does your child live in or regularly visit a house or child care facility built before 1950?
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	2. Does your child live in or regularly visit a house or child care facility built before 1978 that is being or has recently been renovated or remodeled (within the last 6 months)?
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	3. Does your child have a sibling or playmate who has or did have lead poisoning?

* Adapted from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and previously used at both WRAMC and NNMC. The state or local health department may recommend alternative or additional questions based on local conditions.

* If the answers to the questions are "no," a screening test is not required, although the provider should explain why the questions were asked to reinforce anticipatory guidance. If the answer to any question is "yes" or "not sure," a screening test should be considered.

* Note that all Medicaid-eligible children must be screened both at 1 and 2 years of age.

B. A Detailed Clinical Evaluation of the Child with Lead Exposure

Medical history

- Symptoms
- Developmental history
- Mouthing activities; Pica
- Previous blood lead levels
- Family history of lead poisoning

Nutritional history

- Take a dietary history, specifically iron intake
- Does the child receive/ have access to imported food, cosmetics, folk remedies?
- Is food prepared or imported in pottery or metal containers?
- Ask about history of food stamps or participation in WIC

Continued on next page ➔

Environmental history

- What is the age and condition of the residence/ other structure in which the child spends time?
- Is there evidence of chewed or peeling paint on woodwork, furniture, or toys?
- How long has the family lived at their residence?
- Have there been recent renovations or repairs to the house?
- Does the home contain vinyl blinds made overseas and purchased before 1997?
- Are the windows new?
- Are there other sites at which the child spends significant amounts of time?
- What is the condition of indoor play areas?
- Do outdoor play areas contain bare soil that may be contaminated?
- How does the family attempt to control dust and dirt?
- Does the child exhibit much hand-to-mouth activity or eating of non-edible objects (pica)?
- Are the child's hands washed before meals and snacks?
- What are the occupations and hobbies of adult household members? (Fishing, working with ceramics or stained glass, and hunting increase risk of lead exposure.)
- Are painted materials or unusual materials burned in household fireplaces?

At Risk Areas by Zipcode:

- [District of Columbia](#) (interactive map)
- [Maryland](#) (school health form: page 2)
- [Virginia](#)

C. Some Prevention Strategies to Decrease Lead Exposure

Source	Prevention Strategy
Paint	Identify and abate
Dust	Wet mop, remove blinds
Soil	Restrict play in area, plant ground cover, wash hands frequently
Drinking Water	Flush cold water pipes by running the water until it becomes as cold as it will get
Parental occupations	Remove work clothing at work; wash work clothes separately
Hand-to-mouth activity (or pica)	Frequent hand washing; minimize food on floor
Inadequate nutrition	Adequate intake of calcium, iron, vitamin C
Some toys, crayons, folk remedies, old cookware	Avoid use

D. Recommended Follow-up Services, According to Diagnostic BLL

BLL (µg/dL)	Action
<10	No action required
10-14	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Obtain a confirmatory venous BLL within 1 month. - If still within this range, provide education to decrease blood lead exposure - Repeat BLL test within 3 months
15-19	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Obtain a confirmatory venous BLL within 1 month. - If still within this range, take environmental history and provide education to decrease exposure. - Repeat venous BLL test within 2 months. <p><i>Proceed according to actions for 20–44 µg/dL if:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The follow-up blood lead concentration is still in this range at least 3 months after initial test; or • Blood lead concentration increases
20-44	<p>Obtain a confirmatory venous BLL within 1 week.</p> <p><i>If still within this range:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct a complete history & physical (including an environmental and nutritional assessment) • Provide education to decrease blood lead exposure and to decrease lead absorption • Refer the patient to the local health department for case management that should include a detailed environmental investigation with lead hazard reduction and appropriate referrals for support services. • Check CBC and iron stores • Neurodevelopmental monitoring • Abdominal radiography (if particulate lead ingestion is suspected)
45-69	<p>Obtain a confirmatory venous BLL within 2 days.</p> <p><i>If still within this range:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begin chelation after consulting clinicians experienced in lead toxicity treatment • Conduct a complete history & physical (including an environmental and nutritional assessment) • Provide education to decrease blood lead exposure and to decrease lead absorption • Refer the patient to the local health department for case management that should include a detailed environmental investigation with lead hazard reduction and appropriate referrals for support services. • Check CBC and iron stores • Check free EP or ZPP • Neurodevelopmental monitoring • Abdominal radiography (if particulate lead ingestion is suspected)
≥ 70	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Obtain a confirmatory BLL immediately. - Hospitalize the patient. - The rest of the management should be as for children with <i>BLL 45-69 µg/dL</i>.

Tuberculin Skin Testing

What is it?

The Mantoux tuberculin skin test (TST) is the standard method of determining whether a person is infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. Reliable administration and reading of the TST requires standardization of procedures, training, supervision, and practice.

How is the TST Administered?

The TST is performed by injecting 0.1 ml of tuberculin purified protein derivative (PPD) into the inner surface of the forearm. The injection should be made with a tuberculin syringe, with the needle bevel facing upward. The TST is an intradermal injection. When placed correctly, the injection should produce a pale elevation of the skin (a wheal) 6 to 10 mm in diameter.

How is the TST Read?

The skin test reaction should be read between 48 and 72 hours after administration. A patient who does not return within 72 hours will need to be rescheduled for another skin test.

The reaction should be measured in millimeters of the induration (palpable, raised, hardened area or swelling). The reader should not measure erythema (redness). The diameter of the indurated area should be measured across the forearm (perpendicular to the long axis).

How Are TST Reactions Interpreted?

Skin test interpretation depends on two factors:

- Measurement in millimeters of the induration
- Person's risk of being infected with TB and of progression to disease if infected

Classification of the Tuberculin Skin Test Reaction

<p>An induration of 5 or more millimeters is considered positive in</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HIV-infected persons • A recent contact of a person with TB disease • Persons with fibrotic changes on chest radiograph consistent with prior TB • Patients with organ transplants • Persons who are immunosuppressed for other reasons (e.g., taking the equivalent of >15 mg/day of prednisone for 1 month or longer, taking TNF-alpha antagonists) 	<p>An induration of 10 or more millimeters is considered positive in</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recent immigrants (< 5 years) from high-prevalence countries • Injection drug users • Residents and employees of high-risk congregate settings • Mycobacteriology laboratory personnel • Persons with clinical conditions that place them at high risk • Children < 4 years of age • Infants, children, and adolescents exposed to adults in high-risk categories 	<p>An induration of 15 or more millimeters is considered positive in any person, including persons with no known risk factors for TB. However, targeted skin testing programs should only be conducted among high-risk groups.</p>
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What Are False-Positive Reactions?

Some persons may react to the TST even though they are not infected with *M. tuberculosis*. The causes of these false-positive reactions may include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Infection with nontuberculosis mycobacteria
- Previous BCG vaccination
- Incorrect method of TST administration
- Incorrect interpretation of reaction
- Incorrect bottle of antigen used

What Are False-Negative Reactions?

Some persons may not react to the TST even though they are infected with *M. tuberculosis*. The reasons for these false-negative reactions may include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Cutaneous anergy (*anergy* is the inability to react to skin tests because of a weakened immune system)
- Recent TB infection (within 8-10 weeks of exposure)
- Very old TB infection (many years)
- Very young age (less than 6 months old)
- Recent live-virus vaccination (e.g., measles and smallpox)
- Overwhelming TB disease
- Some viral illnesses (e.g., measles and chicken pox)
- Incorrect method of TST administration
- Incorrect interpretation of reaction

Who Can Receive a TST?

Most persons can receive a TST. TST is contraindicated only for persons who have had a severe reaction (e.g., necrosis, blistering, anaphylactic shock, or ulcerations) to a previous TST. It is not contraindicated for any other persons, including infants, children, pregnant women, persons who are HIV-infected, or persons who have been vaccinated with BCG.

How Often Can TSTs Be Repeated?

In general, there is no risk associated with repeated tuberculin skin test placements. If a person does not return within 48-72 hours for a tuberculin skin test reading, a second test can be placed as soon as possible. There is no contraindication to repeating the TST, unless a previous TST was associated with a severe reaction.

What is a Boosted Reaction?

In some persons who are infected with *M. tuberculosis*, the ability to react to tuberculin may wane over time. When given a TST years after infection, these persons may have a false-negative reaction. However, the TST may stimulate the immune system, causing a positive, or boosted reaction to subsequent tests. Giving a second TST after an initial negative TST reaction is called two-step testing.

Why is Two-Step Testing Conducted?

Two-step testing is useful for the initial skin testing of adults who are going to be retested periodically, such as health care workers or nursing home residents. This two-step approach can reduce the likelihood that a boosted reaction to a subsequent TST will be misinterpreted as a recent infection.

Can TSTs Be Given To Persons Receiving Vaccinations?

Vaccination with live viruses may interfere with TST reactions. For persons scheduled to receive a TST, testing should be done as follows:

- Either on the same day as vaccination with live-virus vaccine or 4-6 weeks after the administration of the live-virus vaccine
- At least one month after smallpox vaccination

Additional Information

American Thoracic Society and CDC. Diagnostic standards and classification of tuberculosis in adults and children. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2000; 161. <http://ajrccm.atsjournals.org/cgi/content/full/161/4/1376>

CDC. Guidelines for preventing the transmission of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in health-care settings, 2005. *MMWR* 2005; 54 (No. RR-17). www.cdc.gov/tb/publications/guidelines/infectioncontrol.htm

CDC. Mantoux Tuberculin Skin Test: Training Materials Kit.

CDC. Targeted tuberculin testing and treatment of latent tuberculosis infection. *MMWR* 2000; 49 (No. RR-6). www.cdc.gov/MMWR/PDF/rr/rr4906.pdf

Screening for Tuberculosis (Please read previous CDC Fact Sheet)

A Basic Risk-Assessment Questionnaire*

- 1) Was your child born outside the United States (Latin America, Africa, Asia)?
 - 2) Has your child traveled outside the United States?
 - 3) Has your child been exposed to anyone with TB?
 - 4) Does your child have close contact with a person who has had a positive TB skin test result?
 - 5) Does your child spend time with anyone who has been in jail or a shelter, uses illegal drugs, or has HIV?
 - 6) Has your child drunk raw milk or eaten unpasteurized cheese?
 - 7) Does your child have a household member who was born outside the U.S.?
 - 8) Does your child have a household member who has traveled outside the U.S.?
-

* A risk-assessment questionnaire was developed by the CDC to facilitate latent tuberculosis infection (LTBI) screening by pediatric healthcare providers. **A child or adolescent should be tested with TST only if >1 risk factor is present.**

Screening for Dyslipidemia

Screening with fasting lipid profiles should be done **after 2 years** of age but **no later than 10 years** of age, and be **repeated every 3-5 years** if normal, in children with these risk factors:

- Family history of lipid or triglyceride disorders
- Family history of premature cardiovascular disease (55 years ♂; 65 years ♀)
- Unknown family history
- Overweight and obese patients (85th percentile for BMI)
- Hypertension (95th percentile for blood pressure)
- Cigarette smokers
- Diabetes mellitus

Cutoffs for Elevated (90th Percentile) Lipid Concentrations in Children

	Males			Females		
	5-9 yrs	10-14 yrs	15-19 yrs	5-9 yrs	10-14 yrs	15-19 yrs
LDL	117	123	123	125	126	129
Triglycerides	70	94	125	103	104	112

Health Screening Quiz- Part III:

1. For each blood test, list the AAP recommendations for risk assessment and actual testing:

- a. H/H:
- b. Pb:
- c. TB:
- d. Lipids:

2. What are the TWO most common age-groups for nutritional iron deficiency and what is the etiology in each of these age groups?

3. Fill in the parameters (Normal, Increased, or Decreased) for the hematologic and biochemical markers for iron deficiency anemia. Which marker is the first to be abnormal?

- Hemoglobin _____
- MCV _____
- RDW _____
- Reticulocytes _____
- Serum Ferritin _____
- Serum iron _____
- TIBC _____
- TFN saturation _____

4. Match the action with the blood lead levels (more than one correct answer):

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| A. < 10 µg/dL | 1. Referral to local health department _____ |
| B. 10-14 µg/dL | 2. Immediate hospitalization _____ |
| C. 15-19 µg/dL | 3. Chelation indicated _____ |
| D. 20-45 µg/dL | 4. Detailed environmental history _____ |
| E. 45-69 µg/dL | |
| F. >70 µg/dL | |

5. Match the following populations with the criteria for positive TST:

- a. Child with no risk factors: _____ mm
- b. Healthy child < 4 years: _____ mm
- c. Dr. Jones patient on high-dose steroids: _____ mm

6. Flashback: How can you code for these screening tests? Which garners the most RVUs?

- a. Newborn Screen
- b. Visual Acuity Testing
- c. Hgb/Hct
- d. Tuberculin Skin Test

Board Review Questions—Part III:

1. You are seeing a 1-year-old patient in your clinic for a health supervision visit. You explain the recommended screening tests for this visit to the medical student who accompanies you.

Of the following, the MOST appropriate recommended screening test at this visit is:

- A. blood lead concentration by fingerstick
- B. blood lead concentration by venipuncture
- C. complete blood count with differential count
- D. serum ferritin
- E. serum iron

2. A medical student notes on rounds that a 2-year-old girl admitted for pneumonia has a complete blood count (CBC) that includes a hematocrit of 35% (0.35), hemoglobin of 11.5 g/dL (115.0 g/L), mean corpuscular volume of 68.0 fL, and platelet and white blood cell counts that are normal for age. During the bedside encounter with the child's mother, you advise her to start the child on a multivitamin with iron and have her primary care physician obtain another CBC in a month or so. The medical student asks why you recommended iron supplementation when the child has a normal hematocrit.

Of the following, the BEST reason to prescribe supplemental iron therapy for this child at this time is to prevent

- A. diminished cognitive abilities
- B. fatigue
- C. rapid progression to anemia
- D. recurrent infections
- E. short stature

3. As you are leaving the supermarket, the cashier tells you that she is worried because her child recently had a positive tuberculin skin test. She had to take him to the health department for skin testing because he had been in contact with her father, who recently was diagnosed with active pulmonary tuberculosis. They told her that the boy's skin test was positive at "25," but his chest radiograph was normal. She is concerned because the doctor told her that the case is a little unusual because of the type of tuberculosis her father has. She asked the physician at the health department to write it down, and she hands you a piece of paper that says "INH resistant." The mother asks you what type of medication her boy should receive.

Of the following, the MOST appropriate antituberculous agent to prescribe for this boy is

- A. ciprofloxacin
- B. ethambutol
- C. isoniazid
- D. pyrazinamide
- E. rifampin

4. A family has just relocated to your community, and you are evaluating their 12-year-old son for the first time this afternoon. Family history reveals that the boy's father and grandmother had premature cardiovascular disease. The boy's parents are concerned about his risk of heart disease.

Of the following, the MOST important next step in this child's evaluation is:

- A. Echocardiography
- B. Electrocardiography
- C. Fasting lipoprotein analysis
- D. Random cholesterol measurement
- E. Referral to the cardiology clinic