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Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review)

Miles LF, Litton E, Imberger G, Story D

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[Intervention Review]

Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults

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A B S T R A C T

Background

Iron deficiency is one of the most common nutritional deficiencies, and has a number of physiological manifestations. Early, or nonanaemic iron deficiency can result in fatigue and diminished exercise capacity. Oral iron preparations have a high incidence of intolerable side effects, and are ineffective in certain forms of iron deficiency. Consequently, intravenous iron preparations are increasingly used in the treatment of non-anaemic iron deficiency. The newer, more stable iron preparations in particular purport to have a lower incidence of side effects, and are now used across a range of different patient populations.

Objectives

To assess the effects of intravenous iron therapy in the treatment of adults with non-anaemic iron deficiency.

Search methods

On 18 October 2019 we electronically searched CENTRAL, MEDLINE, Embase, two further databases and two trials registries 2019. We handsearched the references of full-text extracted studies, and contacted relevant study authors for additional data.

Selection criteria

We included randomised controlled trials that compared any intravenous iron preparation to placebo in adults. We excluded other forms of comparison such as oral iron versus placebo, intramusculariron versus placebo, orintravenous iron studies where otheriron preparations were used as the comparator. We also excluded studies involving erythropoietin therapy or obstetric populations.

Data collection and analysis

Two review authors screened references for eligibility, extracted data and assessed risk of bias. We resolved differences in opinion through discussion and consensus, and where necessary, involved a third review author to adjudicate disputes. We contacted study authors to request additional data where appropriate. The primary outcome measures were haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up, and quality-of-life scores at end of follow-up. Secondary outcome measures were serum ferritin, peak oxygen consumption (as measured by cardiopulmonary exercise testing), adverse effects (graded as mild to moderate and severe) and bacterial infection. We pooled data for continuous outcomes, which we then reported as mean differences (MDs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs). We reported quality-of-life metrics as standardised mean diEerence (SMD), and then converted them back into a more familiar measure, the Piper Fatigue Scale. We analysed dichotomous outcomes as risk ratios (RRs). Given an expected degree of heterogeneity, we used a random-effects model for all outcomes. We performed the analysis with the software package Review Manager 5.

Main results

This review includes 11 studies with 1074 participants. Outcome metrics for which data were available (haemoglobin concentration, quality-of-life scores, serum ferritin, peak oxygen consumption and mild to moderate adverse effects) were similar across the included studies. The incidence of severe adverse events across all studies was zero. None of the studies measured bacterial infection as a specific outcome metric.

Substantial heterogeneity influenced the results of the meta-analysis, arising from differing patient populations, definitions of iron deficiency, iron preparations and dosing regimens, and time to end of follow-up. Consequently, many outcomes are reported with small group sizes and wide confidence intervals, with a subsequent downgrading in the quality of evidence. The level of bias in many included studies was high, further reducing confidence in the robustness of the results.

We found that intravenous iron therapy may lead to a small increase in haemoglobin concentration of limited clinical significance compared to placebo (MD 3.04 g/L, 95% CI 0.65 to 5.42; I² = 42%; 8 studies, 548 participants; low-quality evidence). Quality-of-life scores (Piper Fatigue Scale MD 0.73, 95% CI 0.29 to 1.18; $l^2 = 0$ %; studies = 3) and peak oxygen consumption (MD 2.77 mL/kg/min, 95% CI -0.89 to 6.43; l^2 = 36%; 2 studies, 32 participants) were associated with very low-quality evidence, and we remain uncertain about the role of intravenous iron for these metrics. We were unable to present pooled estimates for the outcomes of serum ferritin at the end of follow-up or mild to moderate adverse effects due to extreme statistical heterogeneity. Ultimately, despite the results of the meta-analysis, the low- or very lowquality evidence for all outcomes precludes any meaningful interpretation of results beyond suggesting that further research is needed. We performed a Trial Sequential Analysis for all major outcomes, none of which could be said to have reached a necessary effect size.

Authors' conclusions

Current evidence is insufficient to show benefit of intravenous iron preparations for the treatment of non-anaemic iron deficiency across a variety of patient populations, beyond stating that it may result in a small, clinically insignificant increase in haemoglobin concentration. However, the certainty for even this outcome remains limited. Robust data for the effectiveness of intravenous iron for non-anaemic iron deficiency is still lacking, and larger studies are required to assess the effect of this therapy on laboratory, patient-centric, and adverseeffect outcomes.

P L A I N L A N G U A G E S U M M A R Y

Intravenous iron for the treatment of non-anaemic iron deficiency in adults

Background

Iron deficiency, when the body does not have enough of the mineral iron, is a common, nutritional deficiency. Iron is used by the body to make haemoglobin, a protein in red blood cells that enables them to carry oxygen around the body. Whilst iron deficiency is most commonly associated with a low level of haemoglobin in the blood (anaemia), early, or 'non-anaemic' iron deficiency can also lead to symptoms such as tiredness and lack of energy. Non-anaemic iron deficiency is often treated with oral iron, which is medicine taken by mouth, such as iron tablets. However, oral iron is likely to cause side effects, is not effective for certain types of iron deficiency, and takes time to work fully. In addition, newer iron preparations, such as intravenous iron, are more stable, have fewer side effects and have maximum benefit in a shorter time period.

Aim of the review

To review the evidence from randomised controlled trials (where people are allocated a treatment at random) on the safety and effects of intravenous iron in the treatment of early, or non-anaemic iron deficiency.

Study characteristics

We found 11 studies with 1074 participants. A broad range of people were included in these studies, including people with heart failure, elite athletes, people with restless legs syndrome and otherwise fit and well women. We excluded studies thatlooked at children, pregnant women, and people being treated with erythropoietin (a hormone that stimulates the production of red blood cells).

Key results

Intravenous iron may lead to a small increase in the level of haemoglobin in the blood. We also assessed the effect of intravenous iron on quality of life, serum ferritin (iron stored in the body), peak exercise capacity, and milder side-eEects of iron administration but we were unable to determine whether or not intravenous iron was of benefit for these outcomes. This is because there were many differences between studies in the types of participants studied, the definition of iron deficiency used, the type of intravenous iron preparation prescribed and the length of the studies. We also tried to collect data on severe side effects and bacterial infection after iron infusion, but we were unable to find any studies that measured these effectively.

Certainty of the evidence

Because of the many differences between the relatively small number of studies included in this review, we are uncertain about the effect of intravenous iron in non-anaemic iron deficiency beyond saying that it might cause an increase in haemoglobin concentration. Furthermore, the starting level of haemoglobin for people included in this review was considered 'normal' prior to their receiving treatment. Therefore, not only is this increase quite small, but the starting level of haemoglobin was considered adequate according to current guidance, and patients may not even notice an improvement in symptoms. We are not suggesting that intravenous iron is not of benefit for adults with non-anaemic iron deficiency, rather that the current quality of evidence is not good enough to be certain about the effects of these drugs.

Conclusions

Overall, the evidence forintravenous iron forthe treatment of non-anaemic iron deficiency is of low or very low quality. Whilst intravenous iron might cause a small increase in haemoglobin concentration from an already normal level, we are uncertain about its effects in other outcomes that we examined as part of this review. Further research examining the effects of intravenous iron for the treatment of adults with non-anaemic iron deficiency is required to help answer this research question.

The evidence is current to October 2019.

S U M M A R Y O F F I N D I N G S

Summary of findings for the main comparison. Intravenous iron compared to placebo for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults

Intravenous iron compared to placebo for non-anaemic iron deficient adults

Patient or population: non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults **Setting:** all healthcare settings (acute, subacute and community care) **Intervention:** intravenous iron

Comparison: placebo

Intravenous

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***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).

CI: confidence interval; **MD:** mean difference; **RCT:** randomised controlled trial; **RR:** risk ratio

(390 to 583)

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence

High quality: further research is very unlikely to change our confidence in the estimate of effect.

Moderate quality: further research is likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and may change the estimate.

Low quality: further research is very likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and is likely to change the estimate.

Very low quality: we are very uncertain about the estimate.

1Downgraded one level for inconsistency: there was moderate statistical heterogeneity and multiple points of methodological heterogeneity, with the dose of iron administered and the time to end of follow-up.

²Downgraded one level for imprecision: the confidence interval around the point prevalence estimate of effect is wide, and on Trial Sequential Analysis, the generated effect size falls short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power.

3Downgraded one level for risk of bias: none of the included studies were at low risk of bias, and we judged the largest included study to be at high risk of bias from multiple protocol deviations and no reporting of the per protocol analysis.

4Downgraded one level for inconsistency: despite mild or negligible statistical heterogeneity, we observed multiple points of methodological heterogeneity, with the dose of iron administered and the time to end of follow-up.

 5 Downgraded two levels for inconsistency: there was substantial statistical heterogeneity in the pooled result (I 2 = 100%) and multiple points of methodological heterogeneity, with dose of iron administered and time to end of follow-up.

 6 Downgraded two levels for imprecision: the point prevalence estimates in each of the included studies are highly imprecise, as reflected by the large confidence interval of the total result. The generated effect size is considerably less than the required effect size calculated by Trial Sequential Analysis.

7Downgraded one level forrisk of bias: one ofthe two included studies was at high risk of bias for participant blinding. The outcome in question could potentially be compromised by performance bias.

8Downgraded two levels for imprecision: the generated effect size falls short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power. There is considerable difference in the mean difference in the two included studies.

9Downgraded one level for imprecision: on Trial Sequential Analysis, the generated effect size falls short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power.

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B A C K G R O U N D

Description of the condition

Elemental iron is ubiquitous in the biosphere and has been incorporated into the essential physiological processes of many organisms, including humans [\(Abbaspour](#page-24-0) 2014). Depletion of bodily iron stores has a number of manifestations, with profound physiological consequences. The most recognised complication of iron deficiency is anaemia, as the lack of iron results in failure of haemoglobin production ([WHO 2001\)](#page-27-0). However, anaemia is effectively the final stage of iron deficiency, and early forms of the disease can be of detriment to physical health and well-being, with fatigue, diminished mental acuity, reductions in work capacity and productivity, and reduced exercise tolerance all being reported in the literature [\(Musallam 2018](#page-26-0)).

The identification and management of iron deficiency (particularly early, or non-anaemic iron deficiency) is made challenging by different forms of the disease. Broadly speaking, iron deficiency takes the following two forms ([Goodnough 2012\)](#page-25-0).

- 1. Absolute iron deficiency: this refers to the absence of sufficient iron stores to maintain effective erythropoiesis [\(Goodnough](#page-25-1) [2011;](#page-25-1) [Pasricha](#page-27-1) 2013). This is normally due to increased requirements in excess of stored iron, decreased intake of dietary iron, increased red cell loss or decreased absorption of dietary iron [\(Nelson 1994](#page-26-1); [Reveiz](#page-27-2) 2011). The condition is not associated with a derangement in iron regulatory or erythropoietic mechanisms.
- 2. Functional iron deficiency: this exists where, despite an apparently adequate store, iron cannot be effectively mobilised to participate in erythropoiesis [\(Pasricha](#page-27-3) 2010). Understanding the pathophysiology of functional iron deficiency was greatly enhanced by the discovery of the 25-amino acid peptide, hepcidin [\(Beard](#page-24-1) 2001; [Drakesmith](#page-25-2) 2012; [Ganz 2003](#page-25-3); [Goodnough](#page-25-1) [2011;](#page-25-1) [Jordan](#page-26-2) 2009; [Krause](#page-26-3) 2000; [Nemeth](#page-26-4) 2004a; [Nemeth](#page-26-5) 2004b; Park [2001](#page-27-4); [Weiss 2005](#page-27-5)).

In a healthy person, simple indices of iron status such as ferritin (a storage form of iron predominantly found in the liver, which is detectable in serum as it leaks into the circulation) and transferrin saturation (percentage occupation of iron carrier molecules in the circulation) are sufficient to diagnose iron deficiency ([Lim](#page-26-6) [2018](#page-26-6)). However, in the setting of inflammation, ferritin acts as an acute-phase reactant and serum concentration increases, meaning interpretation of ferritin alone as a measure of iron deficiency becomes unreliable. Simultaneously, in response to the same inflammatory process that makes serum ferritin difficult to interpret, a 25-amino acid protein is produced, known as hepcidin. The functions of hepcidin are two-fold:

- 1. prevention of iron overload through limiting excessive iron absorption in the proximal small intestine and regulation of iron release from macrophages participating in recycling ([Ganz](#page-25-3) [2003\)](#page-25-3), and;
- 2. prevention of iron acquisition by pathogens as a component of innate immunity ([Krause](#page-26-3) 2000).

Hepcidin impairs the function of the key iron regulatory protein, ferroportin, thereby preventing the transport of iron across basement membranes [\(Nemeth](#page-26-4) 2004a). This inhibits the uptake of iron from the gastrointestinal tract, the transport of stored

iron out of the liver, and the reclamation of iron from circulating macrophages. Whilst serum levels of ferritin appear high, iron is unable to circulate or be delivered to the bone marrow, which in turn leads to iron-restricted erythropoiesis [\(Weiss 2005\)](#page-27-5). There is increasing evidence that ferritin is a key modulator of the inflammasome, and that this increased ferritin seen in inflammation may be an active player in innate immunity, as opposed to a consequence of cell damage and leakage (Kell [2014\)](#page-26-7).

Estimation of the incidence of iron deficiency is difficult, as many clinicians will only think to perform iron studies after first making a diagnosis of anaemia. In the perioperative context, iron deficiency in one form or another is relatively common, affecting 35% to 37% of cardiac surgical patients ([Miles 2018a](#page-26-8); [Rössler](#page-27-6) 2019), and an even higher proportion of colorectal surgical patients [\(Miles](#page-26-9) [2019a](#page-26-9)). In the context of heart failure, 50% of patients are affected by iron deficiency (von [Haehling](#page-27-7) 2019), although an estimate of the relative proportions between anaemic and non-anaemic is not possible for the reasons previously stated. In a recent audit of hospital inpatients with heart failure and anaemia, only 29% had an appropriate assessment of iron status, suggesting that the appropriate assessment of non-anaemic patients is likely to be even poorer [\(Simon 2019\)](#page-27-8). An overall estimate of non-anaemic iron deficiency across every patient population, and the distribution between absolute and functional iron deficiency cannot be given at this time, although upcoming prospective work in a variety of populations will likely be useful in providing much needed demographic data.

Description of the intervention

In this systematic review, we have investigated intravenous iron therapy as an intervention for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults. Current guidelines recommend oral iron as the first line of treatment for people who are iron-deficient. However, oral iron therapy is associated with some issues relating to compliance and efficacy.

- 1. Oral iron may result in gastrointestinal side effects, meaning that adherence to therapy may be poor ([Cancelo-Hidalgo](#page-25-4) [2013;](#page-25-4) [Gereklioglu](#page-25-5) 2016). Whilst recent research findings have suggested alternate or third daily dosing strategies may minimise side effects (Stoffel 2017), current guidelines still recommend daily dosing.
- 2. Use of oral therapy does not lead to rapid incorporation of iron into the body. This is especially true in functional iron deficiency, where inflammation prevents the transport of iron across the enterocyte due to the activity of the hepcidin-ferroportin axis ([Goodnough 2012](#page-25-0); [Nemeth](#page-26-4) 2004a; [Nemeth](#page-26-5) 2004b; [Nemeth](#page-27-10) [2009\)](#page-27-10).
- 3. Correction of haemoglobin levels using oral therapy alone may be slow, sometimes requiring weeks of therapy until substantive gains are made, and gains may be attenuated by ongoing blood loss ([Cançado](#page-25-6) 2011; [Johnson-Wimbley](#page-25-7) 2011). This is of particular relevance in the urgent surgery population, where emerging evidence is beginning to suggest a contribution of non-anaemic iron deficiency to poor post-operative outcome ([Miles 2018a;](#page-26-8) [Miles 2019a;](#page-26-9) [Rössler](#page-27-6) 2019), and hence a more rapid correction of iron status may be desirable [\(Muñoz](#page-26-10) 2017).

These issues are avoided by giving iron through the intravenous route. By bypassing the hepcidin-ferroportin axis, the treatment has an improved clinical effect in the setting of inflammation,

and does not have the same gastrointestinal side effects of oral iron. Consequently, intravenous iron preparations are being used more widely for patients who, under previous guidelines, would not have received this therapy as first-line treatment [\(Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014). Previously, parenteral iron preparations were highly labile and prone to the excessive release of free iron into the circulation, with an associated risk of side effects [\(Bailie 2012\)](#page-24-2). However, the development of newer, high-molecular-weight and more stable preparations has markedly reduced the incidence of these events (Avni [2015\)](#page-24-3). Consequently, administration of parenteral iron is becoming more widespread.

How the intervention might work

Iron therapy has been increasingly advocated in a variety of clinical scenarios including perioperative optimisation of haemoglobin [\(Clevenger](#page-25-8) 2015). Iron is a limiting factor to oxygen transport and storage when iron is insufficient for erythropoiesis ([Ganz](#page-25-9) 2012). Iron deficiency may also affect adenosine triphosphate (ATP) production and increase the predominance of energy production towards anaerobic sources, such as anaerobic glycolysis ([Hinton](#page-25-10) [2014](#page-25-10); [Melenovsky](#page-26-11) 2016).

Accordingly, even in the absence of anaemia, insufficient iron stores may have non-haematological effects that are detrimental to health, well-being and functional status [\(Musallam 2018](#page-26-0)). This hypothesis has been tested in people with heart failure, where insufficient iron stores are associated with impaired exercise performance, increased fatigue and reduced health-related quality of life [\(Jankowska](#page-25-11) 2016; [Klip 2013](#page-26-12)). In this setting, administration of iron therapy may improve symptoms.

As noted previously, oral iron therapy for the treatment of iron deficiency has several limitations related to efficacy and compliance, particularly when oral supplements are administered daily. The use of intravenous iron in scenarios where a rapid response is required (such as the individual undergoing urgent surgery), or where inflammation is present, is considered preferable. It has been hypothesised that the administration of large amounts of intravenous iron, and subsequent overload of the reticuloendothelial capacity for iron, leads to a transient and compensatory reduction in hepcidin expression, allowing replenishment of iron stores through export from the plasma [\(Cançado](#page-25-6) 2011).

Why it is important to do this review

It has been recognised for some time that iron deficiency is a staged process, and that anaemia, whilst the most recognisable manifestation of this pathology, effectively represents the end stage of the disease [\(Suominen 1998\)](#page-27-11). Observational studies from different populations have highlighted the impact of the pathology on exercise performance and fatigue ([Barberan-Garcia](#page-24-4) 2015; [Pratt](#page-27-12) [2016](#page-27-12)), as well as the benefits of correction ([Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014). Recently, a number of perioperative guidelines and consensus statements have advocated for the correction of iron deficiency in people about to undergo major surgery (National Blood [Authority](#page-26-13) 2012; [Muñoz](#page-26-10) [2017](#page-26-10)).

Pathological organisms also rely on iron for key functions. It is increasingly recognised that certain regulatory processes in the body exist to reduce the availability of free iron in the circulation at times of inflammation and infection [\(Drakesmith](#page-25-2) 2012; [Ganz](#page-25-3)

[2003;](#page-25-3) [Nemeth](#page-27-10) 2009). It has been postulated that administration of parenteral iron to bypass these regulatory mechanisms may lead to an increased risk of bacterial infection [\(Drakesmith](#page-25-2) 2012). Evidence for this effect is conflicting. A systematic review in hospital inpatients found a 33% increased risk of infection where parenteral iron was administered [\(Litton](#page-26-14) 2013), but this is not reflected in large, retrospective cohort analyses ([Muñoz](#page-26-15) 2014), or other meta-analyses examining the safety of newer, highmolecular-weight iron preparations (Avni [2015;](#page-24-3) [Rognoni](#page-27-13) 2016). Evidence from developing countries suggests that populationbased interventions to address the high incidence of nutritional iron deficiency concomitantly increased the incidence of infectious diseases [\(Pasricha](#page-27-1) 2013).

Given these apparent conflicts, we perceived a need for further clarification of the role of iron therapy to treat non-anaemic iron deficiency. There are several reasons to assess the effects of intravenous iron on the correction of non-anaemic iron deficiency across patient groups:

- 1. the current definition of anaemia in the non-pregnant adult is not dependent on the presence or absence of comorbidities and is based on historical expert consensus [\(Butcher](#page-25-12) 2017);
- 2. a haemoglobin concentration above the historical threshold for anaemia may still be clinically important, particularly for women ([Blaudszun](#page-24-5) 2018; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Miles 2019b\)](#page-26-16);
- 3. intravenous iron therapy for people with anaemia is associated with an increase in haemoglobin in a wide variety of clinical scenarios;
- 4. in patients undergoing major surgery, a higher haemoglobin at the start of operation has been shown to be the only correctable factor protecting against allogeneic blood transfusion ([Klein](#page-26-17) [2017\)](#page-26-17);
- 5. iron depletion may have pronounced metabolic effects, even in the absence of anaemia, particularly with respect to fatigue and cognition [\(Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014); and
- 6. iron depletion (even in the absence of anaemia) worsens the functional capacity (and the effect of corrective interventions) of a variety of different patient populations ([Barberan-Garcia](#page-24-4) 2015; [Pratt](#page-27-12) 2016).

There is yet to be a systematic review determining the aggregate effect of intravenous iron therapy in isolation on features of iron deficiency other than anaemia. This review has the potential to substantially guide practice in this evolving area, where intravenous iron therapy is increasingly being used for the management of non-anaemic iron deficiency. A high-quality summary of the evidence is required to adequately inform practice, and direct the development of future randomised controlled trials.

O B J E C T I V E S

To assess the effects of intravenous iron therapy in the treatment of adults with non-anaemic iron deficiency.

M E T H O D S

Criteria for considering studies for this review

Types of studies

We considered randomised controlled trials (RCTs) for inclusion in this review. We included RCTs irrespective of blinding, language of

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publication, publication status, date of publication, study setting or sample size. We did not include quasi-randomised trials, cross-over trials or other non-RCT designs. We considered quasi-randomised trials to be any controlled trial where the method of allocation was not truly random (i.e. allocation based on medical record number, date of birth, day of week, etc.). We considered cluster-randomised trials for inclusion if the method of randomisation was truly random (i.e. random number sequence, coin flip, etc.). We excluded crossover trials as we felt this was an inappropriate design to assess this intervention.

Types of participants

We included all adults (18 years and above) with functional or absolute non-anaemic iron deficiency. Non-anaemia was defined as haemoglobin (Hb) greater than 130 g/L for men and greater than 120 g/L for non-pregnant women. Studies that did not differentiate a Hb between men and women, and set a non-anaemic definition of greater than 120 g/L for both sexes were also included.

In order to capture the broadest possible population, we reviewed a series of RCTs from the existing literature to define iron deficiency, and chose the least restrictive definition [\(Beck-da-Silva](#page-24-6) 2013). We defined iron deficiency as:

- 1. absolute iron deficiency: ferritin less than 100 µg/L;
- 2. functional iron deficiency: ferritin more than 100 µg/L and transferrin saturation (TSAT) less than 20%.

We excluded pregnant and puerperal women because of considerable differences in the definition of anaemia in pregnancy. We also excluded studies from paediatric populations.

We excluded participants who were treated with erythropoietin or other erythropoiesis-stimulating agents (ESA) alone or in combination with iron.

Types of interventions

We considered any study comparing any formulation of intravenous iron with placebo. We considered all doses and preparations of intravenous iron. We excluded oral iron preparations from the review because the therapeutic benefit of oral iron is difficult to assess due to the presence of multiple confounding factors (principally poor compliance due to side effects, or malabsorption due to concomitant inflammation or duodenal pathology). We feared that this would introduce substantial and unquantifiable heterogeneity into the analysis, especially as the included studies would cover a wide range of patient populations, some of which, by definition, would be unable to take oral iron. In order to adequately assess the biological effect of iron loading across multiple patient groups, we necessarily excluded oral iron interventions.

Types of outcome measures

Primary outcomes

- 1. Haemoglobin concentration (g/L), measured at the end of follow-up
- 2. Overall quality of life, taken at the end of follow-up, as measured by a quantitative quality-of-life measurement scale

The outcomes chosen reflected key quantitative and qualitative endpoints forthis intervention.Quality-of-life scoring systems have

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the ability to assess the clinical effects of iron replenishment separate from changes in haemoglobin concentration. There is considerable controversy in this area, particularly with respect to existing definitions of anaemia and evidence of continued haemoglobin response to iron replenishment despite haemoglobin concentration being apparently 'normal' ([Butcher](#page-25-12) 2017; [Favrat](#page-22-1) [2014\)](#page-22-1). We used an assessment of both a laboratory parameter of response to iron therapy (haemoglobin concentration) and quality-of-life metrics to determine if observed improvements with iron therapy in previous studies are related to improvements in haemoglobin concentration or another, as yet undefined metric.

Secondary outcomes

- 1. Serum ferritin measured at the end of follow-up
- 2. Peak oxygen consumption (VO₂ peak or VO₂ max), as measured by cardiopulmonary exercise testing taken at the end of followup
- 3. Risk of bacterial infections. We included this outcome from studies where there was a clear definition of how a bacterial infection was detected and where measurement occurred equally in both groups.
- 4. Risk of serious adverse events atthe end of follow-up, defined as any event that would increase mortality; were life-threatening; required inpatient hospitalisation or resulted in persistent or significant disability; or any important medical events that might jeopardise the participant or that required intervention to prevent them within 30 days of cessation of treatment ([ICH-GCP](#page-25-13) [1996\)](#page-25-13).
- 5. Risk of mild adverse events at the end of follow-up, defined as any event that did not meet the definition of a serious adverse event but that required treatment or resulted in patient discomfort. Examples include headache, rash or nausea. We included hypophosphataemia of any severity in this category.

Information size calculation

For all meta-analyses performed, we used Trial Sequential Analysis software [\(Copenhagen](#page-25-14) Trial Unit 2016), in order to consider the adequacy of the power [\(Imberger](#page-25-15) 2015; [Mascha 2015\)](#page-26-18). We used a type 1 error risk of 5% and a type 2 error risk of 10%, the pooled standard deviation for continuous data and unweighted mean ofthe control eventrate for categorical data, and the diversity calculated from the actual meta-analysis.

Information size in meta-analysis can be considered similar to an a priori power calculation for a planned RCT, powered to observe a particular magnitude of effect. We undertook hypothetical calculations for information size using G*Power v3.1 for each of the primary outcome measures. It should be noted that these calculations did not take into account inherent heterogeneity between studies.

- 1. Overall quality of life, taken at the end of follow-up: [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014 described mental quality-of-life scores (SF-12) taken at 56 days for intervention (47.3 \pm 8.7) and control (45.1 \pm 9.1). Based on this, an appropriately powered RCT to examine this effect size, with a type 1 error risk of 5% and a type 2 error risk of 10%, is 692.
- 2. Concentration of haemoglobin, taken at the end of follow-up: [Anker](#page-22-2) 2009 described haemoglobin concentration at 24 weeks for intervention $(133 \pm 1.0 \text{ g/L})$ and control $(132 \pm 1.0 \text{ g/L})$ groups. Based on this, an appropriately powered RCT to examine this

effect size, with a type 1 error risk of 5% and a type 2 error risk of 10%, is 46.

Search methods for identification of studies

In order to reduce publication and retrieval bias we did not restrict our search by language, date or publication status.

Electronic searches

The Cochrane Injuries Group's Information Specialist searched the following databases on 18 October 2019:

- 1. Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (which contains the Cochrane Injuries Trials Register; CENTRAL; 2019, Issue 10) in the Cochrane Library ([Appendix 1](#page-48-1));
- 2. MEDLINE Ovid (1946 to October 2019; [Appendix 2\)](#page-48-2);
- 3. Embase Ovid (1947 to October 2019; [Appendix 3\)](#page-49-0);
- 4. Web of Science: Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-EXPANDED; 1970 to October 2019; [Appendix 4\)](#page-49-1);
- 5. Web of Science: Conference Proceedings Citation Index-Science (CPCI-S; 1990 to October 2019; [Appendix 4](#page-49-1));
- 6. Clinicaltrials.gov (www.clinicaltrials.gov; [Appendix 5\)](#page-50-4);
- 7. World Health Organization (WHO) International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP; www.who.int/ictrp; [Appendix 6\)](#page-50-5).

Searching other resources

We screened the reference lists of all included studies and previous review articles for potential additional studies.

Data collection and analysis

We conducted this review with adherence to the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* ([Higgins 2019a\)](#page-25-16).

We are aware that the wide range of intravenous iron preparations currently available implies that a network meta-analysis could be considered more informative. However, the body of literature was not large enough to justify this approach. A future update of this review may uncover sufficient evidence to enable such an analysis.

Selection of studies

Two review authors (LFM and EL) identified studies for inclusion independently of each other. We resolved any disagreement between review authors through discussion, or, if required, through involvement of a third review author (DS). We listed excluded studies along with the reason for exclusion. We investigated all eligible articles as full text. Where information in studies was unclear or missing we contacted the authors of individual studies directly for clarification and information.

Data extraction and management

Independent of one another, two review authors (LFM and EL) extracted data into a specifically-designed and pilot-tested form for this review, which included the following.

- 1. Country of study participant recruitment
- 2. Year and language of publication
- 3. Year the study was conducted
- 4. Study design
- 5. Sample size
- 6. Inclusion and exclusion criteria
- 7. Study population characteristics and clinical settings
- 8. Iron therapy details, including dose, route, frequency and duration
- 9. Study-specific outcomes
- 10.Outcomes included in this review
- 11.Information to assess the risk of bias
- 12.Details of prospective study registration
- 13.Details of ethical review committee approval
- 14.Sources of support and study funding

Assessment of risk of bias in included studies

We assessed included studies for risk of bias according to the criteria outlined in Table 8.5.d in the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* [\(Higgins 2019b\)](#page-25-17). The domains used to assess the risk of bias were: selection bias (random sequence generation and allocation concealment); blinding bias (blinding of participants and personnel and blinding of outcome assessment); attrition bias (amount, nature and handling of incomplete outcome data); reporting bias (selective reporting of outcome data); other bias (bias not covered elsewhere such as source of funding bias).

We categorised individual studies as being at low, high or unclear risk of bias overall according to the following criteria:

- 1. low risk of bias (plausible bias unlikely to seriously alter the results);
- 2. unclear risk of bias (plausible bias that raises some doubt about the results); or
- 3. high risk of bias (plausible bias that seriously weakens confidence in the results).

Measures of treatment effect

We used different treatment effects depending on the type of data. We calculated the mean difference (MD), with 95% confidence intervals (CIs), for continuous outcomes (e.g. iron store indices), and standardised mean difference (SMD) with 95% CIs for assessing treatment effect in quality of life (taking into account different scales used across studies). Subsequently, we transformed this into the quality-of-life measure used for the highest number of participants in the study, the Piper Fatigue Index. We used risk ratio (RR) with 95% CIs to measure treatment effects for dichotomous variables.

Unit of analysis issues

The unit of analysis was the individual participant with iron deficiency who was undergoing treatment. As we did not consider cross-over trials, we did not encounter any unit of analysis issues.

Dealing with missing data

We contacted all authors of the included studies with the aim of obtaining missing information. Where no response was forthcoming, we took the percentage of missing data into account when analysing and interpreting the results. If appropriate, we estimated any such data from available information using the mean value from the relevant group for the required outcome. For continuous measures, where possible we obtained SDs from other measures, such as standard errors (SEs), CIs, and P values. Where

Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review) Copyright © 2019 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

we were unable to extract any meaningful data, and it was not possible to estimate data, we necessarily excluded these studies.

For dichotomous measures, we obtained proportions or percentages to estimate the number of events or participants assessed for that outcome.

Assessment of heterogeneity

Given a lack of common protocols used in research studies we expected a certain amount of clinical heterogeneity in the included studies. This was related to a number of factors but some potential sources of heterogeneity included variations in patient groups, different iron treatment regimens used and disparity in the quality of the study conduct. We used the Chi² test to explore heterogeneity of included studies with a significant alpha level of 0.10. We also measured heterogeneity using the I 2 statistic ([Higgins 2003\)](#page-25-18), to quantify inconsistencies and D2 to adjust information size calculations as part of Trial Sequential Analysis ([Wetterslev](#page-27-14) 2009).

In addition to statistical assessments, we provided a descriptive assessment of heterogeneity as per the 'PICO' (population, intervention, comparison, outcome) model as part of the discussion. We expected heterogeneity in a number of areas, necessitating the use of a random-effects model. Specific areas where heterogeneity was expected include the following.

- Population: we expected marked differences in population, ranging from otherwise healthy people ([Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014), to people with heart failure [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009).
- Intervention: we expected different preparations and dosages of iron. Whilst most modern treatment regimens contain fairly standardised dosages of elemental iron, we did not know what the effects of more historical preparations or regimens would be.
- Comparison: comparison was limited to placebo. We expected minimal heterogeneity.
- Outcomes: there was some heterogeneity due to differences in quality-of-life scores that the studies used. We hoped that the use of SMD would ameliorate some of this.

Assessment of reporting biases

As there was fewer than 10 studies for all outcome measures, a formal assessment of publication bias using funnel plots, and subsequently Egger's test [\(Egger](#page-25-19) 1997) was not possible.

Data synthesis

If there were two or more studies with data for our defined outcomes, and data were sufficiently homogeneous, we performed a meta-analysis. We used the software package Review Manager 5 (Review [Manager](#page-27-15) 2014). We calculated the effect estimate using a random-effects model. We pooled data using the Mantel-Haenszel technique and subsequently assessed these outcomes using RRs. We pooled continuous variables using the inverse variance method, and reported results as mean ± SD.

We considered the estimate of heterogeneity in our interpretation of the results, including an assessment of how the quantity of heterogeneity, and its source, may have affected the reliability of our conclusions.

Where studies used difference scales for the assessment of continuous outcomes (i.e. quality-of-life score), we used SMD, with When studies used a lower score to indicate superiority [\(Favrat](#page-22-1) [2014;](#page-22-1) [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009), we transformed it to a positive integer for statistical analysis by multiplying the mean effect by -1.

Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity

We performed the following three subgroup analyses if there were more than two studies included in each analysis. We performed the subgroup analyses for three categories of participant.

- 1. Underlying pathology: participants who received iron as part of a treatment regimen for heart failure. Given that a single article dealt with a post-operative population, but this population was cardiac-specific, we elected to classify this study as pertaining to heart failure [\(Johansson 2015\)](#page-22-4).
- 2. Underlying pathology: participants who were not otherwise classified into a pathology-specific category by the original protocol. These included athletes, participants with restless leg syndrome, and otherwise well participants.
- 3. Time to follow-up: we stratified this to those participants who completed follow-up at less than 10 weeks, as opposed to more than 10 weeks.

Sensitivity analysis

We planned to conduct a sensitivity analysis on the primary outcome for each of the main analyses, by excluding any studies that demonstrated high or unclear risk of bias in any of the five domains. We also planned to assess the impact of any study that had a large effect size on the results of the meta-analysis, and assessed the effects of [missing](#page-10-0) data (Dealing with missing data). However, given the low or very low quality of the evidence assessed, and the relatively small number of studies included in the review, we elected not to perform this analysis.

Trial Sequential Analysis

We performed Trial Sequential Analysis to preserve the risk of type 1 and type 2 errors at desired levels in the setting of sparse data and potential repeated testing ([Wetterslev](#page-27-14) 2009). For all meta-analyses performed, we used Trial Sequential Analysis [\(Copenhagen](#page-25-14) Trial [Unit 2016\)](#page-25-14), in order to consider the adequacy of the power and to adjust the 95% confidence intervals if the data were sparse [\(Imberger](#page-25-15) 2015; [Mascha 2015](#page-26-18)). Preserving a type 1 error risk of 5% and a type 2 error risk of 10%, we constructed monitoring boundaries using the pooled SD for continuous data and the unweighted mean ofthe control eventrate for categorical data, and the diversity calculated from the actual meta-analysis.

Summary of findings and assessment of the certainty of the evidence

We have presented the results of this review for all comparisons in a 'Summary of findings' table. We included the following outcomes.

1. Mean difference in concentration of haemoglobin (g/L) , taken at the end of follow-up

a subsequent transformation back into a single outcome measure. Due to the heterogeneity of scoring systems and population, we arbitrarily elected to present the data as the score used by the highest number of participants included in the meta-analysis (Piper Fatigue Scale).

- 2. Standardised mean difference in quality-of-life scores in healthrelated quality of life. We 'back-translated' these into the Piper Fatigue Score for presentation.
- 3. Mean difference in ferritin (μ g/L), taken at the end of follow-up
- 4. Mean difference in incidence of bacterial infection
- 5. Mean difference in peak oxygen consumption (VO₂ peak or VO₂ max), taken at the end of follow-up
- 6. Riskof serious adverse events (anaphylaxis, circulatory collapse, hospitalisation)
- 7. Risk of mild adverse events (headache, dizziness, rash, hypophosphataemia)

We prepared the 'Summary of findings' table using GRADEpro GDT software [\(GRADEpro](#page-25-20) GDT). In accordance with the GRADE approach we undertook an assessment of the quality of evidence for each outcome. We examined the risk of bias within studies, directness of evidence, heterogeneity, precision of effect estimates and risk of publication bias, and assessed the quality of evidence as either high, moderate, low or very low [\(Schünemann 2019\)](#page-27-16).

In particular, we considered the appropriateness of extrapolating our results from all participants with iron deficiency to the perioperative setting and how the indirectness in this interpretation is likely to decrease the certainty in our results.

R E S U L T S

Description of studies

Results of the search

The search conducted by the Cochrane Injuries Group Information Specialist yielded 2582 references. After de-duplication and reviewing the reference lists of the included articles we screened the study reports for inclusion. Following primary screening, we selected 61 articles for full-text screening, and ultimately included 11 studies in qualitative and quantitative analysis [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4); [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) [2017](#page-22-9); [Wong 2016;](#page-22-10) [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11).

Included studies

Population

The 11 included studies provided 1074 participants. Of these studies, five examined a heart failure cohort [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Charles-](#page-22-6)[Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017; [Wong 2016\)](#page-22-10),two examined elite athletes (Burden 2015a; [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11), two examined otherwise well, pre-menopausal women [\(Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) [2011](#page-22-7)), one examined people with restless legs syndrome ([Grote](#page-22-3) [2009](#page-22-3)), and one examined a post-operative cardiac surgical cohort [\(Johansson 2015\)](#page-22-4). All included studies were RCTs of intravenous iron preparations versus placebo. All studies were available through database searches as full manuscripts, with the exception of [Wong 2016,](#page-22-10) which was a conference extract.

The studies used different definitions of iron deficiency depending on the study and population [\(Table](#page-45-2) 1).

Intervention

Studies used a variety of different treatment regimens for the administration of the study drug [\(Table](#page-46-0) 2). Five studies ([Burden](#page-22-5)

[2015a](#page-22-5); [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4); [Wong](#page-22-10) [2016\)](#page-22-10) used a single administration, whilst six [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Grote](#page-22-3) [2009;](#page-22-3) [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; Okonko 2008; Van Veldhuisen 2017; [Woods](#page-22-11) [2014\)](#page-22-11), used repeat dosing at various points throughout the study. Ferric carboxymaltose was the preferred iron preparation in eight studies ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Favrat](#page-22-1) [2014;](#page-22-1) [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017; [Wong 2016](#page-22-10); [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11), iron sucrose in two studies [\(Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008), and iron isomaltoside in one [\(Johansson 2015\)](#page-22-4). The total dose of administered iron where calculation was possible ranged between 300 mg [\(Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11), up to 2500 mg (Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017).

Comparator

Most included studies used 0.9% sodium chloride as a placebo comparator. Two studies were open-label interventions ([Okonko](#page-22-8) [2008;](#page-22-8) Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017). Studies used variable blinding to conceal the characteristic reddish-brown colour of iron-containing solutions. We discuss these in the 'Risk of bias' discussion for individual studies.

Outcome

Time to end of follow-up differed substantially between included studies, and ranged from between 2 to 24 weeks [\(Table](#page-46-1) 3).

With respect to primary outcome, five studies aimed to improve various quality-of-life scoring systems ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Wong 2016\)](#page-22-10), three aimed to optimise Hb concentration or total Hb mass [\(Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Johansson 2015;](#page-22-4) [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11), and two aimed to improve VO₂ peak or other markers of exercise capacity [\(Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017). Whilst [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019 did have VO₂ and quality of life available as outcome metrics, they did not present subgroup results for nonanaemic participants.

Forthe majority of outcomes specified a priori, datawere expressed as mean \pm SD. Where data were expressed as mean \pm SD for baseline participant characteristics, and were subsequently reported as change in variable from baseline, these outcomes were necessarily excluded ([Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011). Where data were expressed graphically and not numerically, we contacted the study authors to request these data. Where we were unable to obtain the information, we excluded these outcomes too [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Favrat](#page-22-1) [2014\)](#page-22-1).

Excluded studies

After selection for full-text screening, we excluded 50 articles for ineligible patient population, ineligible study design, ineligible route of administration, not measuring outcomes of interest or ineligible comparator.

We identified some studies as containing information on the relevant population and outcomes that study authors could potentially extract so we could include them in the review. Where our attempts to contact the study authors were unsuccessful, and we could extract no further relevant data without the assistance of the study authors, we had to exclude these studies [\(Boomershine](#page-22-12) 2018; [Filippatos](#page-23-0) 2013; [Fontana](#page-23-1) 2014; [Gybel-Brask](#page-23-2) [2018;](#page-23-2) [Trenkwalder](#page-24-7) 2017; Van [Craenenbroeck](#page-24-8) 2013). The reasons for exclusion of full-text articles is listed in the PRISMA flowchart for this review [\(Moher 2009;](#page-26-19) [Figure](#page-13-0) 1), and in [Characteristics](#page-40-0) of excluded [studies.](#page-40-0)

Figure 1. Flow diagram of studies included in the systematic review

Figure 1. (Continued)

included in quantitative synthesis (meta-analysis)

Risk of bias in included studies

Graphical representations of risk of bias are shown in [Figure](#page-15-0) 2 and [Figure](#page-16-0) 3. The assessment of risk of bias is individually displayed for each included study in [Figure](#page-15-0) 2 and proportionally ranked for each 'Risk of bias' indicator in [Figure](#page-16-0) 3.

Figure 2. 'Risk of bias' summary: review authors' judgements about each 'Risk of bias' item for each included study

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Figure 3. 'Risk of bias' graph: review authors' judgements about each 'Risk of bias' item presented as percentages **across all included studies.**

Allocation

We did not consider any included studies at high risk of selection bias. However, we considered five of the included studies at unclear risk of selection bias due to poorly specified or unspecified randomisation schedules ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) [2011](#page-22-7); Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017; [Woods 2014](#page-22-11)), and five due to poorly specified or unspecified allocation concealment ([Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017; [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11). Four studies had unclearrisk of bias for both selection bias domains [\(Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017; [Woods](#page-22-11) [2014](#page-22-11)). We judged the remaining studies to be at low risk of selection bias in both random sequence generation and allocation concealment domains [\(Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4); [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; [Wong 2016\)](#page-22-10).

Blinding

Performance bias

Due to the distinct colour of iron-containing solutions, blinding of participants and personnel must necessarily involve the use of opaque syringes or administration bags and tubing to prevent performance bias. Three of the included studies were at high risk performance bias. Two of these were open-label studies [\(Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017), and one did not blind the study investigators and the use of opaque administration sets was unclear [\(Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014). We considered two studies at unclear risk of performance bias ([Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4)), as these studies stated that they were blinded, but did not specifically reference the techniques they used in the study. The remaining six studies specifically referred to the use of concealed study drug administration and we considered them at low risk of performance bias [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) [2011](#page-22-7); [Wong 2016;](#page-22-10) [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11).

Detection bias

We did not consider any of the included studies at high risk of detection bias. We considered four studies at unclear risk of detection bias as they did not explicitly state separation of outcome

assessors from study drug administration in the manuscript [\(Favrat](#page-22-1) [2014;](#page-22-1) [Johansson 2015;](#page-22-4) [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017). We judged the remaining studies [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Charles-](#page-22-6)[Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Wong 2016](#page-22-10); [Woods](#page-22-11) [2014\)](#page-22-11) to be at low risk of detection bias.

Incomplete outcome data

We did not consider any studies at high risk of attrition bias. We considered outcome reporting to be completewith a lowrisk of bias in eight studies [\(Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Johansson 2015;](#page-22-4) [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) [2017;](#page-22-9) [Wong 2016\)](#page-22-10). We considered three studies at unclear risk of attrition bias because they only displayed relevant data in graphical form [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Woods 2014](#page-22-11)).

Selective reporting

We considered four studies at high risk of reporting bias due to failure to report baseline or follow-up data for prespecified outcomes ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Wong 2016\)](#page-22-10). Three studies reported all outcomes specified in the study methods and we considered them at low risk of reporting bias [\(Burden](#page-22-5) [2015a](#page-22-5); [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4)). The risk of bias was unclear in four studies as there was inadequate information to determine if they had reported all relevant data, or they had reported data as specified in the protocol but in a form not amenable to extraction [\(Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017; [Woods](#page-22-11) [2014\)](#page-22-11).

Other potential sources of bias

Nine studies received some form of pharmaceutical company support. In four of these, a study author was a direct employee of the company in question, and we assessed the study as high risk of bias ([Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4); [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011; [Van](#page-22-9) [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017). We assessed the risk of bias in the remaining five studies as unclear ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008; [Wong 2016](#page-22-10)). Two studies had no pharmaceutical company involvement and we assessed them as low risk of bias [\(Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Woods 2014\)](#page-22-11).

Effects of interventions

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See: **Summary of findings for the main [comparison](#page-5-1)** Intravenous iron compared to placebo for [non-anaemic,](#page-5-1) iron-deficient adults

The summary of findings for the full study population is displayed in Summary of findings for the main [comparison](#page-5-1).

Primary outcomes

Haemoglobin concentration

Eight studies reported haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up ([Analysis 1.1\)](#page-42-1). Meta-analysis suggested that the mean difference in haemoglobin concentration taken at the end of followup was 3.04 g/L higher in the intervention group (95% CI 0.65 to 5.42; 1^2 = 42%; 8 studies, 548 participants). We rated the overall quality of evidence for this outcome as 'low' according to GRADE criteria. Consequently, whilst intravenous iron may result in a small (and likely clinically insignificant) increase in haemoglobin taken at the end of follow-up, our confidence in the effect estimate is limited.

- 1. Risk of bias: none of the included studies were at low risk of bias, and two were unblinded. However, as loss to follow-up was minimal, and the outcome is entirely objective, we did not downgrade the evidence level.
- 2. Inconsistency: we noted moderate statistical heterogeneity $(1^2 = 42\%)$. There were multiple points of methodological heterogeneity, with the dose of iron administered and the time to end of follow-up. We downgraded the evidence one level.
- 3. Indirectness: whilst the included studies examined multiple different populations, these were consistent with the study question. The intervention, comparator and outcome were consistent across the included studies. We did not downgrade the evidence level.
- 4. Imprecision: the confidence interval around the point prevalence estimate of effect is wide, and on Trial Sequential Analysis, the generated effect size falls short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power. We downgraded the evidence one level.

Quality of life

Three studies reported overall quality of life measured at the end of follow-up ([Analysis 1.2](#page-43-0)). Meta-analysis suggested that the SMD of quality-of-life scores was 0.35 points higher in the intervention group at the end of follow-up (95% CI 0.14 to 0.57 higher). We converted this back to the quality-of-life scoring system used by the largest number of participants in the included studies, Piper Fatigue Scale ([Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014). Using this metric, intravenous iron had a mean difference in Piper Fatigue Scale 0.73 points lower (95% CI 0.29 to 1.18 points lower; $1^2 = 0\%$; 3 studies, 344 participants). We rated the overall quality of evidence forthis conclusion as 'very low' according to GRADE criteria. Consequently, we are uncertain about the effect of intravenous iron on quality-of-life scoring taken at the end of follow-up.

- 1. Risk of bias: none of the included studies were at a low risk of bias, and we judged the largest included study to be at high risk of bias from multiple protocol deviations and no reporting ofthe per protocol analysis. We downgraded the evidence two levels.
- 2. Inconsistency: we saw negligible statistical heterogeneity as reflected by the I² statistic value. There were multiple

points of methodological heterogeneity, with the dose of iron administered and the time to end of follow-up. Accordingly, we downgraded the evidence one level.

- 3. Indirectness: whilst the included studies examined multiple different populations, these were consistent with the study question. The intervention, comparator and outcome were consistent across the included studies. Accordingly, we did not downgrade the evidence level.
- 4. Imprecision: the generated effect size falls considerably short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power. We downgraded the evidence one level.

Secondary outcomes

Ferritin concentration

Seven studies reported ferritin concentration at the end of followup. The pooled results of this meta-analysis were typified by extreme statistical heterogeneity, and wide confidence intervals, with marked differences in means and SDs between the included studies. This is due to differences in definition of iron deficiency, differences in iron regimen and differences to time to end of follow-up. Consequently, we have not presented a pooled analysis of ferritin concentration as part of this review. Nevertheless, in all seven studies, we observed a higher ferritin concentration in the intervention group relative to the control. We undertook a subgroup analysis for this outcome based on underlying pathology [\(Analysis 1.3;](#page-43-1) see also 'Exploration of heterogeneity' section below). We undertook a GRADE assessment of the quality of evidence despite not presenting a global pooled result for this outcome.

- 1. Risk of bias: none of the included studies were at low risk of bias, and one was unblinded.However, as loss to follow-up is minimal and the outcome is entirely objective, we did not downgrade the quality of evidence.
- 2. Inconsistency: we observed substantial statistical heterogeneity in the pooled result ($12 = 100\%$). There were multiple points of methodological heterogeneity, with dose of iron administered and time to end of follow-up. We downgraded the evidence two levels.
- 3. Indirectness: whilst the included studies examined multiple different populations, these were consistent with the study question. Intervention, comparator and outcome were consistent across the included studies. We did not downgrade the evidence level.
- 4. Imprecision: the point prevalence estimates in each of the included studies are highly imprecise, as reflected by the large confidence interval of the total result. The generated effect size is considerably less than the required effect size calculated by Trial Sequential Analysis. We downgraded the evidence two levels.

Peak oxygen consumption

Only two studies reported peak oxygen consumption $(VO₂$ peak or VO₂ max) measured at the end of follow-up [\(Analysis 1.4\)](#page-44-0). Metaanalysis suggested that the mean peak oxygen consumption taken at the end of follow-up in the intervention group was 2.77 mL/kg/ min higher (95% CI 0.89 lower to 6.43 higher; $1^2 = 36\%$; 2 studies, 32 participants). We rated the overall quality of evidence for this conclusion as 'very low' according to GRADE criteria. Consequently, we are uncertain about the effect of intravenous iron on peak oxygen consumption taken at the end of follow-up.

- 1. Risk of bias: one of the two included studies was at high risk of bias for participant blinding. The outcome in question could potentially be compromised by performance bias, and we downgraded the evidence one level.
- 2. Inconsistency: we observed minor statistical heterogeneity $(1^2 = 36\%)$. There were multiple points of methodological heterogeneity, with the dose of iron administered and the time to end of follow-up. Accordingly, we downgraded the evidence one level.
- 3. Indirectness: whilst the included studies examined multiple different populations, these were consistent with the study question. The intervention, comparator and outcome were consistent across the included studies. Accordingly, we did not downgrade the evidence level.
- 4. Imprecision: the generated effect size falls short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power. There is considerable difference in the mean point estimate of effect in the two included studies. We downgraded the evidence two levels.

Incidence of mild to moderate adverse effects

Four studies reported incidence of mild to moderate adverse effects (Analysis 1.5). These referred to essentially participantreported side effects such as headache, fatigue and nausea. No studies reported data on hypophosphataemia. We did not consider adverse events that were unrelated to study drug administration (i.e. admission to hospital for exacerbation of heart failure) to be an adverse effect of study drug infusion. For example, we considered all adverse events in [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4) to be unrelated to study drug administration, and so did not consider these data further. Meta-analysis of the remaining three studies suggested that whilst intravenous iron was associated with a point prevalence increase in the risk of mild to moderate adverse events (RR 1.19, 95% CI 0.97 to 1.45; $1^2 = 0\%$; 3 studies, 440 participants), the test for subgroup differences did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the subgroups. We rated the overall quality of evidence for this conclusion as 'very low' according to GRADE criteria. Consequently, we are uncertain about the effect of intravenous iron on the incidence of mild to moderate adverse effects taken at the end of follow-up.

- 1. Risk of bias: the largest included study was at high risk for participant blinding, and had multiple protocol deviations. Most side effects were qualitative, with no objective verification. We downgraded the evidence one level.
- 2. Inconsistency: we observed minimal statistical heterogeneity (I² = 0%) but noted methodological heterogeneity regarding the dose of iron administered and the time to end of follow-up. We downgraded the evidence one level.
- 3. Indirectness: whilst the included studies examined multiple different populations, these were consistent with the study question. Intervention, comparator and outcome were consistent across the included studies. We did not downgrade the evidence quality.
- 4. Imprecision: the generated effect size falls short of a conservatively estimated effect size to deliver appropriate statistical power. There is a relatively consistent difference in the mean difference in the three included studies. We downgraded the evidence one level.

Bacterial infection

Only one study ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009), recorded data on the incidence of bacterial infection. As we were not able to separate data for anaemic and non-anaemic participants for this outcome for this study, we were not able to draw conclusions about these data.

Incidence of severe adverse effects

No studies reported any serious adverse events.

Exploration of heterogeneity using subgroup analysis

We specified a number of different subgroup analyses a priori (Subgroup analysis and investigation of [heterogeneity](#page-11-0)). As specified in the protocol ([Miles 2018b\)](#page-27-17), we undertook subgroup analyses differentiating between underlying pathology and time to end of follow-up (less than 10 weeks versus 10 weeks or more). We did not undertake a planned subgroup analysis based on type of iron deficiency because studies included in the functional iron deficiency group all used a combination definition of iron deficiency, including a patient population who, on the basis of the inclusion criteria specified a priori, would have met criteria for both functional and absolute iron deficiency. It was not possible to separate these data, nor were data presented on the relative proportions of absolute and functional iron deficiency in these studies.

Underlying pathology

A sufficient number of studies were available to perform analyses for haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up [\(Analysis](#page-42-1) [1.1\)](#page-42-1), and ferritin concentration at the end of follow-up [\(Analysis](#page-43-1) [1.3\)](#page-43-1).

Haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up

Participants with heart failure demonstrated a modest improvement in haemoglobin concentration at the end of followup (MD 3.79 g/L, 95% CI 0.40 to 7.18; I 2 = 66%; 5 studies, 461 participants). Participants with other pathologies had a point prevalence difference suggesting a lower incrementation in haemoglobin concentration with lower heterogeneity (MD 1.41 g/L, 95% CI -3.36 to 6.18; I² = 0%; 3 studies, 87 participants), although the confidence intervals forthis metric crossed 0 and P = 0.43. There is no statistically significant difference between these two groups. Aspreviouslymentioned, substantial confoundingofthis resultwas present, and the studies that examined heart failure as a pathology (with the addition of [Johansson 2015\)](#page-22-4), were also the studies that used functional iron deficiency as a definition [\(Analysis 1.1](#page-42-1); [Table](#page-47-0) 4).

Ferritin concentration at the end of follow-up

Extreme statistical heterogeneity was demonstrated on the primary meta-analysis for this outcome, preventing the publication of a pooled result. We hypothesised that because those studies that examined heart failure were more likely to include participants with functional iron deficiency, the higher starting ferritin in these participants would result in a higher ferritin level at the end of follow-up, resulting in the aforementioned heterogeneity. To confirm this hypothesis, and following the published protocol for this review ([Miles 2018b\)](#page-27-17), we proceeded to perform separate analyses for those studies that examined people with heart failure [\(Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Johansson 2015](#page-22-4); [Okonko](#page-22-8) [2008\)](#page-22-8), and those that examined 'other' populations ([Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Woods 2014](#page-22-11)).

In those participants with heart failure, the results of the metaanalysis suggested that intravenous iron resulted in an increase in serum ferritin (MD 268.94 µg/L, 95% CI 264.99 to 272.90; I 2 = 0%; 4 studies, 291 participants), relative to those participants with other pathologies (MD 59.94 µg/L, 95% CI −12.94 to 132.83; $1² = 96%$; 3 studies, 87 participants). The difference between these two groups was statistically significant at $P = 0.01$. However, the wide confidence intervals, the persistence of extreme statistical heterogeneity in the other-populations group, and very low-quality evidence means that we remain uncertain of the exact effect of intravenous iron on serum ferritin in this latter subgroup. However, some narrative synthesis of this evidence is possible, and may partially highlight the origin of this heterogeneity. [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a randomised elite athletes to receive intravenous iron or placebo. Both groups were similar at baseline with a serum ferritin of 20.3 \pm 7.2 µg/L in the intravenous iron group and 19.3 \pm 6.9 µg/ L in the control group. At 24 hours, the intravenous iron group demonstrated an increase in serum ferritin to 70.7 \pm 10.0 µg/L, but this level had returned to baseline by the end of follow-up at four weeks (23.4 \pm 4.0 µg/L). In contrast, serum ferritin fell over the course of the study in the placebo group to 15.1 ± 6.2 µg/ L. These results stand in contrast to the other two studies in this subgroup. [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009 (a study conducted in patients with restless legs syndrome), observed a sustained increase in serum ferritin (from 20.1 \pm 11.9 µg/L to 118.4 \pm 75.4 µg/L) in participants in the intravenous iron arm at 11 weeks after dosing. [Woods 2014](#page-22-11) (again conducted in elite athletes) observed a similar sustained increase in the intravenous iron arm, with serum ferritin increasing from 62.8 \pm 21.9 µg/L to 127.0 \pm 66.3 µg/L over four weeks. We performed a sensitivity analysis excluding the results of [Burden](#page-22-5) [2015a](#page-22-5) from the subgroup analysis, which resulted in a drop in statistical heterogeneity to 32%, suggesting that this failure to maintain sustained incrementation was the source of the initial result. One potential mechanism for this finding was the dosing strategy used by [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a [\(Table](#page-46-0) 2): in contrast to [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009 and [Woods 2014,](#page-22-11) [Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a used a single dose of intravenous iron instead of multiple doses over the course of study. On the basis of the current available evidence, it is not possible to confirm the biological plausibility of this theory, and given the very low quality of the evidence as outlined above, we remain uncertain as to the exact effect of intravenous iron in facilitating a sustained increase in serum ferritin in patients with absolute iron deficiency ([Analysis](#page-43-1) [1.3;](#page-43-1) [Table](#page-47-1) 5).

Time to follow-up

A sufficient number of studies were available to perform an analysis for haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up ([Analysis](#page-45-0) [2.1\)](#page-45-0). Sufficient studies were available to perform an analysis for ferritin concentration at the end of follow-up, but due to the previously described issues with statistical heterogeneity, we did not perform it. We saw a similar point prevalence increase in haemoglobin concentration in participants who concluded followup at less than 10 weeks (MD 2.90 g/L, 95% CI −2.16 to 7.96; I 2 = 0%' 4 studies, 80 participants) and participants who completed their follow-up in more than 10 weeks (MD 3.37 g/L, 95% CI −0.02 to 6.76; I 2 = 72%; 4 studies, 468 participants).

Trial Sequential Analysis

We performed Trial Sequential Analysis to preserve the risk of type 1 and type 2 errors at desired levels in the setting of sparse data and potential repeated testing [\(Wetterslev](#page-27-14) 2009). For all primary

meta-analyses performed, we used Trial Sequential Analysis in order to consider the adequacy of the power and to adjust the 95% confidence intervals if the data were sparse [\(Copenhagen](#page-25-14) Trial Unit [2016](#page-25-14); [Imberger](#page-25-15) 2015; [Mascha 2015](#page-26-18)). Preserving a type 1 error risk of 5% and a type 2 error risk of 10%, we constructed monitoring boundaries using the pooled SD for continuous data and the unweighted mean of the control event rate for categorical data, and the diversity calculated from the actual meta-analysis.

Using the assumptions described in our methods, the Trial Sequential Analyses showed that existing data are insufficient for all our outcomes to demonstrate a statistically significant result, despite our anticipated study power as per the calculated information size.

For the comparison of intravenous iron with placebo on haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up, the estimated required information size was 1068. The meta-analysis included 596 participants and was therefore underpowered given the assumptions we used. The adjusted 95% CI for haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up was −0.8 to 7.2 g/L, demonstrating the increased uncertainty present due to sparse data and no statistically significant increase in the group receiving iron.

For the comparison of intravenous iron with placebo on qualityof-life scores, the estimated required information size was 1895. The meta-analysis included 566 participants and was therefore underpowered given the assumptions we used. The adjusted 95% CI for participant-centred outcomes was −3 to 8 points, demonstrating the increased uncertainty present due to sparse data.

For the comparison of intravenous iron with placebo on ferritin concentration at the end of follow-up, the estimated required information size was 2282. The meta-analysis included 367 participants and was therefore underpowered given the assumptions we used. The adjusted 95% CI for ferritin concentration at the end of follow up was −440 to 779 μmol/L, demonstrating the increased uncertainty present due to sparse data and no statistically significant increase in the group receiving iron.

For the comparison of intravenous iron with placebo on peak oxygen consumption at the end of follow-up, the estimated required information size was 154. The meta-analysis included 32 participants and was therefore underpowered given the assumptions we used. The adjusted 95% CI for peak oxygen consumption at the end of follow up was −6 to 12 mL/kg/min, demonstrating the increased uncertainty present due to sparse data.

For the comparison of intravenous iron with placebo on mild to moderate adverse effects, the estimated required information size was 32,302. The meta-analysis included 566 participants and was therefore underpowered given the assumptions we used. The data were too sparse for adjusted confidence intervals to be meaningful.

D I S C U S S I O N

Summary of main results

This review included 11 studies that compared intravenous iron with placebo across a range of patient populations. There was

Library

considerable variability in the dosing regimen, iron preparation and duration of follow-up between studies. The dose per week of iron varied from 100 mg to 1000 mg, although multiple studies used a single-dose model (six studies), as repeated dosing (five studies) that varied between individual participants depending on the study.

Reporting of the primary outcome measures was variable, with eight studies reporting haemoglobin concentration at the end of follow-up, and three studies reporting quality of life at the end of follow-up. For the secondary outcome metrics, laboratory-centred outcome metrics were relatively widely reported, specifically ferritin concentration (seven studies), peak oxygen consumption (two studies) and mild to moderate side-effects (four studies).

Intravenous iron may cause a small but ultimately clinically unimportant increase in haemoglobin concentration, but we assessed the quality of this evidence as low. The quality of evidence for quality-of-life scores was very low, so we are uncertain about the effects of intravenous iron on this outcome metric. With respect to secondary outcomes, we judged it inappropriate to present a pooled estimate for ferritin due to the extreme statistical heterogeneity. We hypothesised that this was due to differences in starting ferritin between those participants with heart failure (the constituent subgroup studies including participants with both absolute and functional and absolute iron deficiency) and those from other populations (the constituent subgroup studies including only participants with absolute iron deficiency). We evaluated these differences in a subgroup analysis that partially confirmed this hypothesis. However, severe statistical heterogeneity persisted in the other population subgroups, suggesting that there are confounding factors that remain undetected in this analysis. Ultimately, the very low level of evidence assigned to this outcome, and our lack of confidence in a robust estimate of differences between the groups, prevents us from making concrete finding on the precise effect of intravenous iron on serum ferritin concentration. We are similarly uncertain regarding the effects of intravenous iron on peak oxygen consumption, or mild to moderate side effects, again because of the very low quality of the evidence. The incidence of bacterial infection and severe adverse effects across all included studies was zero.

Overall completeness and applicability of evidence

Whilst the 11 included studies covered a wide range of patient populations, and met the inclusion criteria that were specified a priori, we were ultimately prevented from reaching robust conclusions as to the role of intravenous iron in the treatment of non-anaemic iron deficiency, despite biological plausibility. This was due to the often severe statistical and methodological heterogeneity evident in many of the pooled analyses. We encountered further difficulties when considering the reporting of outcome measures. Studies frequently reported outcomes in different ways, resulting in their exclusion from the meta-analysis, despite our efforts to contact the relevant study authors.

The included studies were also affected by multiple methodological differences, related to the population studied, the definition of iron deficiency used, the preparation of intravenous iron, the dose and the frequency of the study drug. Further confounding was evident on subgroup analysis, with those studies that used a functional iron deficiency definition ([Anker](#page-22-2) [2009](#page-22-2); [Charles-Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Johansson 2015;](#page-22-4) [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008;

Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017), also including participants who met diagnostic criteria for absolute iron deficiency. However, while these considerations make drawing firm conclusions from this review difficult, it does provide important insights into the differing approaches used by various study authors, and the challenges faced by clinicians when attempting to apply this evidence to the individual patient. This is a problem that has been encountered by authors of best practice guidelines previously; for example, [Muñoz](#page-26-10) [2017](#page-26-10) cited three different definitions of iron deficiency as part of their consensus statement before finally defining non-anaemic iron deficiency as a TSAT less than 20%, without any reference to ferritin, a definition not encountered in any study screened as part of this review, included or excluded. This is not to say that the authors of these guidelines were incorrect in applying this definition, but that, as shown by this review, there is currently limited evidence as to which form of iron deficiency, and which population would benefit most from receiving this treatment.

Quality of the evidence

We graded the overall quality of evidence forthe various laboratory outcomes in the review as 'low' or 'very low' [\(Summary](#page-5-1) of findings for the main [comparison](#page-5-1)). For the most part this was due to inconsistency, manifested by considerable statistical heterogeneity, and imprecision, manifested by failure to reach an appropriate sample size (as demonstrated by Trial Sequential Analysis). Differences in length of follow-up and dosing regimen contributed to the statistical heterogeneity identified in the meta-analysis. Despite apparent biological plausibility for certain outcomes, and point prevalence estimates and confidence intervals that, in and of themselves, would appear to be suggestive of an effect, the low quality of the evidence means that we are uncertain about the effect of intravenous iron on most of the outcomes presented in this review.

For participant-centred and adverse effect outcome metrics, the subjective nature of the reported outcomes and the risk of performance bias in several studies was an additional factor in the substantial downgrading of evidence, together with the inconsistency and imprecision identified above.

The factors identified above substantially reduce our confidence in the body of evidence considered as part of this review.

Potential biases in the review process

A key reviewdecision taken following the consideration ofthe study data was to alter the inclusion criteria around the definition of a non-anaemic status. This may have resulted in underreporting of the indirectness of the included studies relative to the original research question, whereby the indirectness of the included studies would have been inadequately considered.

Even with the change in the study inclusion criteria outlined above, there remain a low number of studies included in this review, and according to the specifications outlined in our original protocol we are unable to make a judgement on publication bias ([Miles 2018b\)](#page-27-17). Given the extensive involvement of pharmaceutical companies in studies examining this research question, we are unable to exclude the influence of publication bias on our review.

Agreements and disagreements with other studies or reviews

We are aware of two other reviews that have examined similar research questions. In [Burden](#page-25-21) 2015b, the authors focused on elite athletes alone, and assessed the effects of multiple different routes of administration of iron on exercise capacity. The authors concluded in their review that, "iron treatments improve the iron status and aerobic capacity of iron deficiency non-anaemic endurance athletes". No included studies in this review examined the effect of intravenous iron (being limited to intramuscular and oral iron alone). The authors subsequently published an RCT on the effect of intravenous iron in non-anaemic, iron-deficient elite athletes, which we included in our review ([Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a).

In [Houston](#page-25-22) 2018, the authors examined the effect of oral, intramuscular and intravenous iron on fatigue and exercise capacity in adults. Whilst the review was limited to studies conducted in a primary care setting, it identified three studies [\(Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011), that utilised intravenous iron in this setting. Whilst the pooled results of all routes of administration led the authors to conclude that in nonanaemic, iron-deficient adults in a primary care setting, "iron supplementation is associated with reduced subjective measures of fatigue but not with objective improvements in physical capacity". This is broadly consistent with our own results for quality of life and peak oxygen consumption.

A U T H O R S ' C O N C L U S I O N S

Implications for practice

Despite the recommendation for the use of intravenous iron in non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults in best practice guidelines (particularly in perioperative medicine [\(Muñoz](#page-26-10) 2017; [National](#page-26-13) Blood [Authority](#page-26-13) 2012), our review finds that the evidence underpinning these recommendations is limited. There is lowquality evidence that intravenous iron may result in a small, clinically insignificant increase in haemoglobin concentration, but the evidence for our other outcomes of interest (ferritin concentration, quality-of-life scores, exercise capacity) is of very low quality so we are unable to draw conclusions about these outcomes. Methodological heterogeneity with respect to inconsistent definitions of iron deficiency and anaemia make it

difficult to determine which patient populations are likely to benefit from this intervention, or if benefit can be expected at all.

Implications for research

This review highlights the poor quality of evidence for intravenous iron therapy in non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults across a range of laboratory and patient-centred outcome measures, and a range of different patient populations. Further good-quality data from randomised controlled trials (RCTs) are required to determine the validity of existing best practice recommendations for the routine correction of non-anaemic iron deficiency. However, prior to this occurring, it is necessary to more clearly define iron deficiency, and so determine which populations are likely to derive maximum benefit. Certainly, for patients with concomitant inflammation or medical comorbidities, the use of serum ferritin in isolation is potentially problematic, due to loss of discrimination for the detection of iron deficiency. In the context of treatment with intravenous iron, this point is important, as those patients with functional iron deficiency are less likely to respond to oral iron, and will theoretically derive increased benefit from parenteral therapy. With increased awareness of the important role of hepcidin in the pathogenesis of functional iron deficiency, it is likely that future definitions will include this, and other research tools, such as soluble transferrin receptor, as part of defining iron deficiency. Future RCTs should take note of this during planning so as to better contextualise their results in this evolving field.

A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

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* Indicates the major publication for the study

C H A R A C T E R I S T I C S O F S T U D I E S

Characteristics of included studies *[ordered by study ID]*

[Anker](#page-22-2) 2009

Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review)

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[Anker](#page-22-2) 2009 *(Continued)*

Methods RCT; parallel-group (phase III) Participants National and international standard endurance runners with iron deficiency as defined by ferritin < 30 mcg/L for women and < 40 mcg/L for men, and non-anaemic status as defined by Hb > 120 g/L for women and men Interventions Single dose of intervention (500 mg ferric carboxymaltose) or equivalent volume of placebo (0.9% sodium chloride) administered after baseline testing. End of follow-up performed at 4 weeks Outcomes Laboratory metrics (serum ferritin, serum iron, TSAT and Hb concentration), hepcidin and VO₂ max were recorded. Study funding arrangements Study was funded by the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council. No overt pharmaceutical company funding was identified. Author conflicts of interest The study authors declare no competing financial interests. Sample size 15 participants were randomised to receive the intervention (n = 7) or the control (n = 8) treatment. Notes Study was apparently not registered with a public clinical trials registry. **[Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a**

Risk of bias

Comment: no reference is made to how the characteristic appearance of the

[Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a *(Continued)*

Cochrane Library

[Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014

[Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014 *(Continued)*

Sample size 290 participants were randomised to receive the intervention (n = 144) or the control (n = 146) treatment.

Notes Study registered in a public trials register (NCT 01110356)

Risk of bias

Cochrane Library

Trusted evidence. Informed decisions.

[Grote](#page-22-3) 2009 *(Continued)*

Risk of bias

[Johansson 2015](#page-22-4)

Cochrane Library

Trusted evidence. Informed decisions.

[Johansson 2015](#page-22-4) *(Continued)*

Risk of bias

[Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011

[Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011 *(Continued)*

Other bias **High risk** Comment: extensive drug company funding for study. Drug company was sponsor and custodian of data.

All outcomes **[Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008** *(Continued)*

Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017

Risk of bias

Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017 *(Continued)*

[Wong 2016](#page-22-10)

[Wong 2016](#page-22-10) *(Continued)*

[Woods 2014](#page-22-11)

ADP: adenosine diphosphate; **BFI:** Brief Fatigue Inventory; **BNP:** B-type natriuretic peptide; **CABG:** coronary artery bypass graK; **CPET:** cardiopulmonary exercise testing; **EQ-5D-5L:** Euroquol 5 dimension, 5 level quality-of-life measure; **Hb:** haemoglobin; **HRQoL:** healthrelated quality of life; **IQR:** interquartile range; **IRLS:** International Restless Legs Syndrome Rating Scale; **ITT:** intention-to-treat; **IV:** intravenous; KCCQ: Kansas City Cardiomyopathy Questionnaire; LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction; MLHFQ: Minnesota Living with Heart Failure Questionnaire; **NAID:** Non-Anaemic Iron Deficiency; **NYHA:** New York Heart Association; **PCR:** polymerase chain reaction; **QoL:** quality oflife;**PHQ-9:**PatientHealthQuestionnaire (depression);**RCT:**randomised controlled trial;**SD:** standard deviation;**SF-12:** 12 item short form survey; **tHb:** total haemoglobin; **TSAT:** transferrin saturation; **TTE:** transthoracic echocardiogram; **VO2 max:** peak oxygen consumption; **WHO:** World Health Organization; **6MWT:** 6-metre walk test;

Characteristics of excluded studies *[ordered by study ID]*

Study Reason for exclusion

Yeo [2018](#page-24-18) **Ineligible participant population (included majority anaemic participants)**

Hb: haemoglobin; **IM:** intramuscular; **IV:** intravenous;

D A T A A N D A N A L Y S E S

Analysis 1.1. Comparison 1 Intravenous iron versus placebo (population), Outcome 1 Haemoglobin concentration taken at the end of follow-up.

Analysis 1.2. Comparison 1 Intravenous iron versus placebo (population), Outcome 2 Overall quality of life measured at the end of follow-up.

Analysis 1.3. Comparison 1 Intravenous iron versus placebo (population), Outcome 3 Ferritin concentration taken at the end of follow-up.

Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review)

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Analysis 1.4. Comparison 1 Intravenous iron versus placebo (population), Outcome 4 Peak oxygen consumption taken at the end of follow-up.

Analysis 1.5. Comparison 1 Intravenous iron versus placebo (population), Outcome 5 Mild adverse effects.

Comparison 2. Intravenous iron versus placebo (time to end of follow-up)

Analysis 2.1. Comparison 2 Intravenous iron versus placebo (time to end of follow-up), Outcome 1 Haemoglobin concentration taken at the end of follow-up.

A D D I T I O N A L T A B L E S

Table 1. Study populations and definitions of iron deficiency

Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review)

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Table 1. Study populations and definitions of iron deficiency *(Continued)*

Table 2. Iron preparations and dosing regimens

Table 3. Duration of follow-up after study drug administration

Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review)

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Table 3. Duration of follow-up after study drug administration (Continued)

Table 4. Subgroup analysis to examine heterogeneity in haemoglobin concentration meta-analysis

Table 5. Subgroup analysis to examine heterogeneity in ferritin concentration meta-analysis

A P P E N D I C E S

Appendix 1. CENTRAL search strategy

#1 MeSH descriptor: [Iron] this term only #2 MeSH descriptor: [Iron Compounds] this term only #3 MeSH descriptor: [Ferric Compounds] this term only #4 MeSH descriptor: [Ferrous Compounds] this term only #5 (iron or ferric* or ferrous) #6 #1 or #2 or #3 or #4 or #5 #7 MeSH descriptor: [Injections, Intravenous] this term only #8 (intravenous* or IV or inject*) #9 #7 or #8 #10 #6 and #9 #11 (nonanemi* or nonanaemi* "non anemi*" or "non anaemi*" or NAID or IDNA) #12 ("no anemia" or "no anaemia" or "not anemic" or "not anaemic" or "without anemia" or "without anemic" or "without anaemia" or "without anaemic") #13 MeSH descriptor: [Iron] this term only and with qualifier(s): [Deficiency - DF] #14 (iron depletion or iron deficien*) #15 MeSH descriptor: [Anemia, Iron-Deficiency] this term only and with qualifier(s): [Prevention & control - PC] #16 #11 or #12 or #13 or #14 or #15 #17#10 and #16 #18 MeSH descriptor: [Infant] explode all trees #19 MeSH descriptor: [Child] explode all trees #20 neonat* or newborn* or infant* or child* or schoolchild* #21 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees #22 pregnan* or postpartum #23 #18 or #19 or #20 or #21 or #22 #24 #17 not #23 **Appendix 2. MEDLINE Ovid search strategy** 1. Iron/ 2. Iron compounds/ or Ferric Compounds/ or Ferrous Compounds/ 3. (iron or ferric* or ferrous).ti,ab,kw,rn. 4. or/1-3 5. Injections, Intravenous/ 6. (intravenous* or IV or inject*).tw. 7. or/5-6 8. 4 and 7 9. (nonan?emi* or non an?emi* or NAID or IDNA).ab,ti. 10. ("no anemia" or "no anaemia" or "not anemic" or "not anaemic" or "without anemia" or "without anemic" or "without anaemia" or "without anaemic").ti,ab. 11. Iron/df 12. (iron depletion or iron deficien*).ti,ab,kf. 13. Anemia, Iron-Deficiency/pc 14. or/9-13 15. 8 and 14 16. randomi?ed.ab,ti. 17. randomized controlled trial.pt. 18. controlled clinical trial.pt. 19. placebo.ab. 20. clinical trials as topic.sh. 21. randomly.ab. 22. trial.ti. 23. 16 or 17 or 18 or 19 or 20 or 21 or 22 24. (animals not (humans and animals)).sh. 25. 23 not 24 26. 15 and 25 27. exp infant/ 28. exp child/ 29. (neonat*or newborn* or infant* or child* or schoolchild*).tw. **Intravenous iron therapy for non-anaemic, iron-deficient adults (Review)**

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30. exp pregnancy/ 31. (pregnan* or postpartum).ti. 32. or/28-31 33. 26 not 32

Appendix 3. Embase Ovid search strategy

1. iron therapy/ 2. iron derivative/ 3. ferric ion/ 4. ferrous ion/ 5. (iron or ferric* or ferrous).ti,ab. 6. or/1-5 7. exp intravenous drug administration/ 8. (intravenous* or IV or inject*).tw. 9. or/7-8 10. 6 and 9 11. iron deficiency anemia/ 12. iron deficiency/pc [Prevention] 13. (nonan?emi* or non an?emi* or NAID or IDNA).ab,ti. 14. ("no anemia" or "no anaemia" or "not anemic" or "not anaemic" or "without anemia" or "without anemic" or "without anaemia" or "without anaemic").ti,ab. 15. (iron depletion or iron deficien*).ti,ab. 16. or/11-15 17. 10 and 16 18. exp Randomized Controlled Trial/ 19. exp controlled clinical trial/ 20. exp controlled study/ 21. comparative study/ 22. randomi?ed.ab,ti. 23. placebo.ab. 24. *Clinical Trial/ 25. exp major clinical study/ 26. randomly.ab. 27. (trial or study).ti. 28. 18 or 19 or 20 or 22 or 23 or 24 or 25 or 26 or 27 29. exp animal/ not (exp human/ and exp animal/) 30. 28 not 29 31. 17 and 30 32. exp infant/ 33. exp child/ 34. (neonat*or newborn* or infant* or child* or schoolchild*).tw. 35. exp pregnancy/ 36. exp postpartum hemorrhage/ 37. (pregnan* or postpartum).ti. 38. or/32-37 39. 31 not 38 **Appendix 4. Web of Science search strategy** #16 #14 Not #15 #15 TI= (mouse OR mice OR rat OR rats)

#14 #12 NOT #13 #13 TS=(pregnan* OR postpartum OR neonat* OR newborn* OR infant* OR child* OR schoolchild*) #12 #11 AND #10 #11 TS=HUMAN #10 #9 AND #8 #9 TS=((clinical OR control* OR placebo OR random OR randomised OR randomized OR randomly OR random order OR random sequence OR random allocation OR randomly allocated OR at random) SAME (trial* or group* or study or studies or placebo or controlled)) #8 #5 AND #6 AND #7 #7 TS= (intravenous* OR IV OR inject*) #6 TS=(ferrous OR ferric OR iron) #5 #1 OR #2 OR #3 OR #4

#4 TS= ("no anemia" OR "no anaemia" OR "not anemic" OR "not anaemic" OR "without anemia" OR "without anemic" OR "without anaemia" OR "without anaemic")

#3 TS=(non-anemic OR non-anaemic)

#2 TS="iron depletion"

#1 TS=("iron deficiencies" OR "iron deficiency" OR "iron deficient")

Appendix 5. ClinicalTrials.gov search strategy

Condition or disease = (non anaemic OR non anemic OR non anaemia OR non anemia OR no anemia OR no anaemia OR not anemic OR not anaemic OR without anemia OR without anemic OR without anaemia OR without anaemic) AND Other terms = iron AND (intravenous OR intravenous OR IV OR injection)

Appendix 6. WHO ICTRP search strategy

(non anaemic OR non anemic OR non anaemia OR non anemia OR no anemia OR no anaemia OR not anemic OR not anaemic OR without anemia OR without anemic OR without anaemia OR without anaemic) = condition AND iron = intervention

C O N T R I B U T I O N S O F A U T H O R S

LFM drafted the initial protocol, performed the screening, data extraction and 'Risk of bias' assessment, performed the meta-analysis and wrote the initial draft of the manuscript.

EL assisted in the revision of the protocol and performed the screening, data extraction and 'Risk of bias' assessment.

GI assisted in the revision of the protocol, performed the Trial Sequential Analysis and assisted in revision of the manuscript.

DS assisted in the revision of the protocol and in the revision of the manuscript.

D E C L A R A T I O N S O F I N T E R E S T

LFM: the institution of the author has received in-kind and unrestricted financial support for two currently running studies from Vifor Pharma Pty Ltd. The author has not personally received any honoraria or speaking fees from any company. No other conflicts of interest.

EL: the institution of the author has received in-kind support for a study from Vifor Pharma Pty Ltd ([Litton](#page-26-20) 2016). The author has not personally received any honoraria or speaking fees from any company. No other conflicts of interest.

GI: none known

DS:the institution ofthe author has received in-kind and unrestricted financial supportfortwo currently running studies from Vifor Pharma Pty Ltd. The author has not personally received any honoraria or speaking fees from any company. No other conflicts of interest.

S O U R C E S O F S U P P O R T

Internal sources

• Centre for Integrated Critical Care, University of Melbourne, Australia.

External sources

• No sources of support supplied

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROTOCOL AND REVIEW

The original review protocol [\(Miles 2018b](#page-27-17)), specified that only those studies that included participants judged to be non-anaemic as per World Health Organization criteria ([WHO 2001\)](#page-27-0), would be included in the review. Where a non-gendered definition of non-anaemia was used (haemoglobin (Hb) > 120 g/L), these studies would also be considered for inclusion. After initial full-text extraction, it became apparent that multiple studies used alternative criteria to determine if a patient was anaemic, or did not consider haemoglobin concentration at all when including patients in the study, considering iron status alone.Were we to have proceeded with the a priori defined criteria as specified in the protocol, it would have limited our review to 10studies, two in which non-anaemic status was consistent with WHO criteria ([Charles-](#page-22-6)[Edwards](#page-22-6) 2019; [Krayenbuehl](#page-22-7) 2011), two others where the study authors agreed to extract data for non-anaemic participants ([Johansson](#page-22-4) [2015](#page-22-4); [Wong 2016\)](#page-22-10), four that used non-WHO definitions of non-anaemic states [\(Burden](#page-22-5) 2015a; [Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014; [Grote](#page-22-3) 2009; [Woods 2014](#page-22-11)), and two that included a non-WHO compliant, non-anaemic subgroup from which we could extract data ([Anker](#page-22-2) 2009; [Okonko](#page-22-8) 2008). We elected to include an additional study for whom the mean Hb of the control and intervention groups was > 120 g/L (Van [Veldhuisen](#page-22-9) 2017), but which may have included participants with anaemia at the lower margins of the confidence intervals for Hb distribution. We could have potentially cited this as evidence of indirectness in our review when considering our original research question. However, given the already low- or very low-quality evidence, and the systemic and wide-ranging nature of the problem, we elected not to.

Included studies did not provide effective discrimination between absolute and functional iron deficiency [\(Table](#page-45-2) 1), meaning that we could not effectively apply the a priori criteria we planned to use to differentiate between absolute and functional iron deficiency. As a result of this, we were unable to perform the planned subgroup analysis based on type of iron deficiency.

The study protocol made a priorireference to performing a subgroup analysis based on "time to end of follow-up", where we would analyse short-, medium- and long-term time periods. Instead, in this review, we performed this analysis using less than 10 weeks, and equal to or more than 10 weeks as the discriminator. This was due to a lack of consensus within the literature as to the time course forrepletion of iron stored in non-anaemic iron deficiency after a dose of intravenous iron, and the relatively small number of included studies. We selected 10 weeks as the study that we used in the protocol to determine study power for the primary outcome metric ([Favrat](#page-22-1) 2014), suggested that haemoglobin concentration probably plateaued at more than eight weeks after this initial dose. A more nuanced evaluation should be possible as more evidence comes to light, potentially as part of an update to this review.

The sole study that dealt with a perioperative population concerned participants with cardiac surgery [\(Johansson 2015\)](#page-22-4). We classified this study as pertaining to 'heart failure' as opposed to 'other pathology'.

We were unable to undertake the sensitivity analysis that we specified a priori as no study demonstrated low risk of bias across the five domains, a relatively small number of studies were ultimately included, and the overall quality of evidence for the outcomes of interest were rated as low or very low.

Following expert advice, we translated the standardised mean difference of quality-of-life scores into the mean difference of the Piper Fatigue Index, the quality-of-life metric used for the most participants included in the analysis.

I N D E X T E R M S

Medical Subject Headings (MeSH)

*Iron Deficiencies; Hemoglobins [*metabolism]; Infusions, Intravenous; Iron [*therapeutic use]; Quality of Life; Randomized Controlled Trials as Topic

MeSH check words

Humans