

International Journal of Current Research in Medical Sciences

ISSN: 2454-5716 P-ISJN: A4372-3064, E -ISJN: A4372-3061 www.ijcrims.com



Original Research Article

Volume 4, Issue 5 -2018

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.22192/ijcrms.2018.04.05.010

An update on Anaemia, Iron, Folic acid and Vitamin B 12 in Pregnancy and Postpartum

Obeagu Emmanuel Ifeanyi¹ and Obeagu Getrude Uzoma²

 ¹Diagnostic Laboratory Unit, Department of University Health Services, Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike, Abia State, Nigeria.
 ²Department of Nursing Science, Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki, Nigeria.
 *Corresponding author: *emmanuelobeagu@yahoo.com*

Abstract

Anaemia is a decrease in number of red blood cell (RBCs) or less than the normal quality of haemoglobin in the blood. However, it can include decreased oxygen-binding ability of each haemoglobin molecule due to deformity or lack of numerical developments as in some other types of haemoglobin deficiency. Iron deficiency anaemia is the common cause of anaemia in women affecting 5-10 of women of child bearing age (20-44 years) and among pregnant women and postpartal, the prevalence of anaemia is up to 20-40%. Anaemia in pregnancy can be defined as haemoglobin concentration below 11g/dL. Anaemia in pregnancy is a common problem in most developing countries and a major cause of mortality and morbidity especially in malaria endemic areas. Low haemoglobin levels in pregnancy may lead to preterm delivery and low birth weight and increase in the risk of maternal mortality. During pregnancy, a woman's iron requirement increase three fold to support the growth of the fetal placental unit and increased red cell mass. After it is absorbed across the maternal gut, iron is carried to the liver in the serum, iron is bound to transferrin. Transferrin has 2 iron binding sites with approximately equal affinities for iron. It is glycossylated and of interest, the glycosylation patterns change during pregnancy.

Keywords: anaemia, ferritin and total iron binding capacity in pregnancy and postpartum

ANAEMIA

Anaemia is a decrease in number of red blood cell (RBCs) or less than the normal quality of haemoglobin in the blood. However, it can include decreased oxygen-binding ability of each haemoglobin molecule due to deformity or lack of numerical developments as in some other types of haemoglobin deficiency. Because haemoglobin normally carries oxygen from the lungs to the capillaries, anaemia leads to hypoxia (Lack of oxygen) in organs since all human cells depends

on oxygen for survival, varying degrees of anaemia can have a wide range clinical consequence.

Anaemia is the most common disorder of the body. The several kinds of anaemia are produced by a variety of underlying causes. It can be classified in a variety of ways, based on the morphology of RBCS, underlying etiology mechanisms, and discernible clinical spectra, to mention a few.

TYPES OF ANAEMIA

Macrocytic Anaemia

Macrocytic type of anaemia is an anaemia (defined as blood with an insufficient concentration of haemoglobin) in which the erythrocytes are larger than their normal volume. The normal erythrocyte volume in humans is about 80 to 100 femoliters (GL =10-15). In metric terms, the size is given in equivalent cubic micrometers ($1\mu m^3 = 1L$). The condition of having erythrocytes which (on average) are too large is called macrocytosis (weng et al., 2011).

Macrocytic anaemia is not a disease in the sense of having a single pathology, but is rather a condition. As such, it is the class name of a set of pathologies that all produce somewhat the same red blood cell abnormality. In macrocytic associated with insufficient numbers of cells and often also insufficient haemoglobin content per opposite effect of larger cell size, to finally result in a total blood haemoglobin concentration that is less than normal (ie anaemia).

Normocytic Anaemia

Normocytic anaemia is a common issue that occurs in men and women typically over 85 years old. Its prevalence increases with age reaching 44 percent in men older than 85 years old (Weng et al., 2011). Normocytic anaemia is the most frequently encountered type of anaemia (Weng et al., 2011). A normocytic anaemia is defined as anaemia with an MCV of 80-100FL which is the normal range. However, the haemotocrit and haemoblobin is decreased.

Microcytic Anaemia

This is genetic term for any type of anemia characterized by small red blood cells. The normal mean corpuscular volume (MCV) is 76-100FL with smaller cells <76FL described as microcytic and larger cells >100FL as macrocytic. In microcytic anaemia, the red blood cells (erythrocytes) are usually also hypochromic, meaning that the red blood cells are paler usual (Weng et al., 2011).

Iron Deficiency Anaemia

This is a common cause of anaemia in women affecting 5-10 of women of child bearing age (20-44 years) and among pregnant women and postpartal, the prevalence of anaemia is up to 20-40%. The extent of which iron deficiency affects maternal and neonatal health is uncertain. Iron deficiency affects two (2) billion people and it is estimated that 50% of pregnant in developing countries and up to 80% in South Asia have iron deficiency anaemia. In U.S, approximately 7-8 million Women and 700, 000 to toddllers have iron deficiency anaemia and 3.2 million women and 240,000 to dillers have iron deficiency anaemia (Hereberg et al., 1998). Women who conceive during or shortly after adolescence are likely to enter pregnancy with low or absent iron store and infants born to iron deficient mother also have higher prevalence of anaemia in the first 6 months of life (Preziosi et al., 1997). Maternal mortality is increased in women whose haemoglobin levels fall to below 6-7g/dL (Bothwell et al., 1979). Iron status influence both human and animal health. Iron deficiency anaemia is a case that normally occurs when iron deficiency sufficiently severe to diminish erythropoesis and cause the development of anaemia. Pregnant women are particularly at high risk for iron deficiency because of increased iron needs during pregnancy (Berymann, 2005).

Iron deficiency is commonly decreased as occurring in three stages, the first stage in iron stores without any effect on essential body iron. The second stage refers to iron deficient erythropoiesis occurs when inadequate iron is available to the erythoid marrow and tissue for normal biochemistry and function. The last and most severe case is iron deficiency anaemia which is identified by a significant reduction in haemoglobin level and decrease in mean corpuscular volume (Bothwell et al., 1979).

Symptoms of iron deficiency anaemia include weakness and fatigue. The symptoms results because of the function of the red blood cell to carry iron to exercising muscles (Waltes *et al.*, 1998), this can result to muscular dys-function that impairs muscular work performance (WHO, 2001). The assessment of iron deficiency usually refers to serum ferritin concentration and transferrin saturation.

Signs and Symptoms of Anaemia

Anaemia goes undetermined in many people and symptom can be minor or vague. The signs and symptoms can be related to the underlying cause or the anaemia itself. Most commonly, people with anaemia report feelings of weakness, or fatique, general malaria, and sometimes poor concentration. They may also report dyspnea (shortness of breath) on exertion. In very severe anaemia, the body may compensate of the blood by increasing cardiac output. The patient may have symptoms related to this such as palpitation, agina (if pre-existing heart disease is present), intermittent claudication of legs and symptoms of heart failure on examination, the sign exhibited may include pallor (pale skin, mucosal linking), but this is not a reliable sign, there may be signs of specific causes of anaemia. Restless syndrome is more common in those with iron deficiency anaemia.

CAUSES OF ANAEMIA

Iron Deficiency

Iron deficiency is a common cause of anaemia in women, affecting 5-10% of women of child bearing age (20-44 years) and among pregnancy women, the prevalence of anaemia is up to 20-40%. The extent to which iron deficiency affects maternal and neonatal health is uncertain-iron deficiency affects >2 billion people and it is estimated that 50% of pregnant women in developing countries and up to 80% in South Asia have iron deficiency anaemia. In approximately 7-8 million women and 700,000 toddlers have iron deficiency anaemia and 3-2 million women and 240,000 toddlers have iron deficiency anaemia (Hereberg, 1998, Viteri, 1998). Women who conceive during or shortly after adolescence are likely to enter pregnancy with low or absent iron stores and infant born to iron deficient mother also have a higher prevalence of anaemia in the first six (6) months of life (Preziosi et al., 1997). Maternal mortality is increased in women whose

haemoglobin levels fall to below 6-7g/dL (Bothwell et al., 1979). Iron status influence both human and animal health. Iron deficiency anaemia is a case that normally occurs when iron deficiency is sufficiently severe to diminish erythropoiesis and cause the development of anaemia. Pregnant women are particularly at high risk for iron deficiency because of increased iron needs during pregnancy (Berymann, 2005). Iron deficiency is commonly described as occurring in three stages, the first stage of iron depletion refers to a decrease in iron stores without any effect on essential body iron. The second stage refers to iron deficient erythropoiesis. This occurs when inadequate iron is available to the erythoid marrow and tissue for normal biochemistry and function. The last and most severe case of iron deficiency anaemia which is identified by a significant reduction in haemoglobin level and dexrease in mean corpuscular volume (Bothwell et al., 1979).

Symptoms of iron deficiency anaemia include weakness and fatique. The symptoms results because of the lack of function of red blood cell to carry iron to exercising muscles (Waltes et al., 1998), this can result to muscular dysfunction that impairs muscular work performance (WHO, 2001).

Folate and Vitamin B12 Deficiency

Folate deficiency is a lack of folic acid in the body and the signs are often subtle. Folate deficiency anaemia is the medical name given for the condition (Hurther et al., 2004). Symptoms include loss of appetite and weight loss. Additional signs are weakness, sore tongue, headaches, heart palpitations, irritability and behavioural disorders (Haslam et al., 1998). In anaemia (macrocyte megaloblastic adults. anaemia) can be a sign of advanced folate deficient. If infants and children folate deficiency can slow growth rate, women with folate deficiency who become pregnant are mostly more likely to give birth to low birth weight and premature infants and infants with neural tube defects.

A deficiency of folate can occur when the body's need for folate is increased, when dietary intake of folate is inadequate, or when the body excretes more interfere with the body's ability to use folate may also increase the need for those vitamins (Pietrzit *et al.*, 1997). Some research indicates that exposure to ultraviolent light includes the use of tanning beds can lead to a folic acid deficiency (Hurther *et al.*, 2004).

Malaria

Anaemia is a major health problem in many developing countries where malaria and other infections contribute to increase maternal and prenatal mortality and morbidity (Meuris et al, 1993). Malaria has been known to alter haematological and biochemical parameters during pregnancy and is one of the causes of anaemia in pregnancy. Pregnant women are more susceptible than general population to malaria; they are more likely to become infected, suffer a recurrence, and develop severe complications and to die from the disease. Malaria contributes very significantly to maternal and fetal mortality with at least 10,000 maternal deaths per annum attributable in subsahara Africa. Regardless of symptoms, the presence of plasmodial parasites in a pregnant woman's body will have a negative impact on her own health and that of the foetus. In areas endemic for malaria, it is estimated that at least 25% of pregnant women are infected with malaria, with the highest risk for infection and morbidity in primigrivadas, adolescent and those co-infected with HIV (Desai et al., 2007). Adults who live in malaria endemic region generally have some acquired immunity to malaria infection as a result of immunoglobulin production during prior infections in childhood. This immunity diminishes significantly in pregnancy, particularly in primigravidas. A recent study of 300 women delivery in rural area showed higher rates of anaemia, the study also noted that babies born to mother with placental malaria infection were more than twice as likely to be underweight at birth (Ofori et al., 2009). In Africa, it has been estimated that malaria is responsible for 25% of severe anaemia during pregnancy, defined as haemoglobulin less than 7µg/dL (Desai et al., 2007). Both plasmodium falciparium and

plasmodium vivax can cause complications that affect the foetus. Fetal mortality is estimated at 15% for P-vivax and around 30% for P. falciparium (Centers for Disease control and prevention, 2012).

PREGNANCY

Pregnancy is the fertilization and development of one or more offspring, known as an embryo or foetus in a woman's uterus (Weng et al., 2011). It is the common name for gestation in humans. A multiple pregnancy involves more than one embryo or foetus in a single pregnancy, such as with twins children usually occurs about 38 weeks after conception in women who have a menstrual cycle length of four weeks, this is approximately 40 weeks from the start of the last normal menstrual period (LNMP). Conception can be achieved through sexual intercourse or assisted reproductive technology. An embryo is the developing offspring during the first eight (8) weeks following conception, and subsequently the term foetus is used until birth (Weng et al., 2011). In many societies medical or legal definitions human pregnancy is somewhat arbitrarily divided into three trimester period, as a means to simplify reference to the different stages of prenatal development (Weng et al., 2011). The first trimester carries the high risk of miscarriage (natural death of embryo or foetus). During the second trimester, the development of the foetus can be more easily monitored and diagnosed. The third is marked by further growth of the foetus and the development of fetal fat stores (Weng et al., 2011). The point of fetal viability or the point in time at which fetal life outside the uterus is possible, usually coincides with the late second or early third trimesters, babies born as this early point in development are at high risk for having medical conditions and dying (AGOG, 2002).

In the united states and united Kingdom, 40% of pregnancies are unplanned, and between a quarter and half of those unplanned pregnancies were unwanted pregnancies (Jayson et al., 2011) of those unintended pregnancies that occurred in the U.S, 60% of the women used birth control to some extent during the month pregnancy occurred (Joseph *et al.*, 2011).

Development of Embryo and Foetus

After about 10 weeks of gestational age, the embryo becomes known as a foetus instead. At the beginning of the fetal stage, the risk of miscarriage decreases sharply (Lennart, 1990). When the fetal stage commences, a foetus is typically about 30mm (12 inches) in length, and the heart can be seen beating via ultrasound, the foetus can be seen making various involuntary motions at this stage (Kalverboer, 2011). During continued feta development, the early body systems and structures that were established in the embryonic stage continue to develop. Sex organ s begins to appear during the third month of gestation. The foetus continues to grow in both weight and length, although the majority of the physical growth occurs in the last weeks of pregnancy. Electrical brain activity is first defected between the 5th and 6th weeks of gestation, through this is still considered primitive neural activity rather than the beginning of conscious thought, something that develop much later in fetation, synapses begin forming at 17 weeks, and as about week 28 begin to multiply at a rapid pace which continues until 3 to 4 months after birth (Judy, 2008).

MATERNAL CHANGES

During pregnancy, the women undergoes many physiological changes, which are entirely normal, including cardiovascular, haematologic, metabolic, renal and respiratory changes that becomes very important in the event of complications. The body must change its physiological and homeostatic mechanisms in pregnancy to ensure the foetus is provided for the foetus inside a pregnant women may be viewed as an unusual successful allograft, since it genetically differs from the women (Clark et al., 1986). This increase immune tolerance in pregnancy can also cause an increased susceptibility to and severity of some infectious diseases.

Pregnancy is typical broken into three period or trimesters, each of about three months (Collins Dictionary, 2012). Obstetricians define each trimester as lasting for 14 weeks, resulting in a total duration of 42 weeks, although the average 40 weeks. While there are no hard and fast rules, these destinations are useful in describing the changes that take place over time.

First Trimester

Minute ventilation is increased by 40% in first trimester. The womb will grow to the size of a lemon by eight weeks. Many symptoms and is comfort of pregnancy appear in the first trimester (Stacey *et al.*, 2011). In the first trimester, iron requirements are partially met through the cessation of menstruation, saving 0.56mg iron per day (WHO, 2001).

Second Trimester

Week 13 to 28 of the pregnancy are called the second trimester, most women feel more energized in this period, and begin to put on weight as the symptom of morning sickness subside and eventually fade away. The uterus, the muscular organ that holds the developing foetus can expand up to 20 times its normal size during pregnancy. In the second trimester iron demand increases significantly (WHO, 2001), to a maximum of 90% at 30 weeks.

Third Trimester

Final weight gain takes place, which is the most weight gain throughout the pregnancy. The woman's abdomen will transform in shape as it drop due to the foetus turning in a downward position ready for birth. The foetus begins to move regularly, and is felt by the woman. It is also during the third trimester that maternal activity and sleep may affect fetal development due to restricted blood flow for instance, the enlarged uterus may need blood flow by compressing the lower pressured vena cava, with the left lateral positions appearing to providing better oxygenation to the infant (Stacey *et al.*, 2011).

Complications of pregnancy

Each year according to the WHO, ill-health as a result of pregnancy is experienced (sometimes permanently) by more than 20 million women around the world. Furthermore, the lives of eight million women are threatened, and more than 500,000 women are estimated to have died in 1995 as a result of causes related to pregnancy and childbirth (WHO, 2009).

The following are some example of pregnancy complications:-

- a. Pregnancy include hypertension
- b. Anaemia (Merck, 2008)
- c. Postpartum depression
- d. Postpartum psychosis

e. Thromboembolic disorders. The death in pregnant women in the U.S.

f. Pupp skin disease. This develops around the 32^{nd} week, red plagues, papules, itchiness around the belly button that spread all over the body except for the inside of hands and face.

g. Ectopic pregnancy. Importation of the embryo outside the uterus

h. Hyperemesis gravidarum, excessive nausea that is more severe than morning sickness.

ANAEMIA IN PREGNANCY

Anaemia in pregnancy can be defined as haemoglobin concentration below 11g/dL. Anaemia in pregnancy is a common problem in most developing countries and a major cause of mortality and morbidity especially in malaria endemic areas (Bertman, 2005, Obeagu et al.,2016; Obeagu, 2016; Obeagu et al.,2016, Obeagu and Obeagu, 2018). In sub-Saharan Africa, anaemia in pregnancy is highly prevalent (WHO, 1992). Low haemoglobin levels in pregnancy may lead to preterm delivery and low birth weight (Klebanoff et al., 1991, Meuris et al., 1993) and increase in the risk of maternal mortality. Due to the complex aetiology of anaemia in pregnancy in tropical Africa, the relative role of risk factors is difficult to estimate. However, it is estimated that the anaemia cases of pregnancy are related to iron deficiency (Berymann, 2005). Women are particularly at risk of iron deficiency due to blood loss during

menstruation and increased demand for iron during pregnancy (Michael *et al.*, 2008).

During pregnancy, a woman's iron requirement increase three fold to support the growth of the fetal placental unit and increased red cell mass (Michael et al., 2008). Meeting this demand requires a diet high in bioavailable iron during pregnancy, but also stored iron levels of at least 300mg before pregnancy (WHO, 2001). Unfortunately, this pre-pregnancy level of iron stores is often not reached with approximately 40% of women entering pregnancy with small body iron reserves and an unfavourable iron status. This leads to around 25% of pregnant women in Western Society having iron deficiency anaemia. Iron deficiency anaemia during pregnancy and post partum can lead to serious consequences for both mother and child (Schumann et al., 1998, Hurrell et al., 2010). It is therefore essential that iron deficiency is identified early and adequately treated before resulting in iron deficiency anaemia.

ANAEMIA IN POSTPARTUM

Anamie caused by iron deficiency in postpartum has been linked with the following consequences; fatigue and exhaustion (Warsh et al., 2013). Beyond the normal tiredness expected of a mother with a new born, are clinical symptoms of anaemia (Warsh et al., 2013). Fatigue also impact upon milk supply (Warsh et al., 2013). Breast feeding for both mother and infant depends on varieties of factors. One of the important roles of breast milk is the transfer of antibodies which help protect the infant against gastrointestinal and respiratory infection (Rimon et al., 2005). Maternal anaemia is associated with reduced level of antibodies and complement protein, and difference in the fat and calorie content at different milk maturation stage (Rimon et al., 2005).

Iron Requirement

Iron absorption is regulated by the size of body iron stores (Tapiero, 2001). Virtually all of the iron derived from absorption and it increased markedly only after most of the storage iron had been used. The diets of women in developing countries do not contain sufficient bioavailable iron to meet these needs during the second and third trimester even if iron stores are adequate at the beginning of pregnancy. The size of iron stores is best measured by the serum ferritin level (1mg/L serum ferritin = 5mg storage iron in an adult) (Bothwell *et al.*, 1979) (Tapiero *et al.*, 2001). The serum ferritin concentration for women aged between 20 and 44 years in the United States is $36\mu g/L$ (Looker, 1991) (Tapiero *et al.*, 2001).

A daily supplements containing 16 to 20mg of iron is recommended during pregnancy and postpartum. Based on the results of the modelling process, it was concluded that a supplement of 16mg per day throughout pregnancy would be effective and safe for pregnant women who are in good health. When added to the iron they get from a mixed diet, these women would have all they need for pregnancy.

FERRITIN, TIBC AND IRON METABOLISM IN PREGNANCY

After it is absorbed across the maternal gut, iron is carried to the liver in the serum, iron is bound to transferrin. Transferrin has 2 iron binding sites with approximately equal affinities for iron. It is glycossylated and of interest, the glycosylation patterns change during pregnancy.

The functional consequences of these alterations in unknown (Jeschke et al., 2003), but the liver still plays an important role in iron homeostasis. How the iron stored in the liver is passed to the studied foetus has not been directly. Concentration decrease significantly during pregnancy, the process does occur, and presumably it is mediated by signals from the developing foetus. The nature of those signals is not yet known (Gambling et al., 2009). Although the release of iron from ferritin has been studied extensively, the underlying mechanism is still a matter of discussion. However, that is beyond the scope of this review. After it is released, the iron [Fe (ii)] is oxidized by ceruloplasmin to fe (iii) and this interaction is also not clear, but

presumably it occurs at the hepatocyte cell surface (Obeagu, 2018; Obeagu, 2018)

The transferrin binds to the transferrin receptor on the placental microvillar membrane surface. The binding has very high affinity (= 10-9mol/<-1). After binding is completed, the complex is incorporated into clathrin-coated vesicles and internalized. The P.H inside the vesicle is reduced, probably by an H+-AT phase. The iron is released from the transferrin. At P.H 7.4, apotransferrin (transferrin with no iron on it) has a relatively low affinity for the receptor, therefore apo-transferrin will not bind on the cell surface. At P.H 5.5, the affinity of transferring for Fe is greatly decreased, consequently, the iron is released from the protein and the protein becomes apo-transferrin.

Inside the vesicle, iron (as Fe (ii)] moves through a channel known as divalent metal transporter, (DMTI) into the cytoplasm.

The iron is released from the cell through a protein called ferroportin, fetal transferrin bind Fe as Fe (iii), and hence it must be oxidized once it is released in other for it to bind to it carrier protein. This is carried out by a protein called Zyklopen, a copper Ferroxidase from a family of Ferroxidases that are central to iron release. When a cell accumulates excess iron, it stores it in ferritin. Ferritin and transferrin are regulated in an exceedingly elegant manner. Each of the two (2) MRNAs has an iron regulatory element (IRE) at either the 5 (Ferritin) or 3 (transferrin receptor) end (Rouault et al., 2006). This is a loop of RNA to which the iron regulatory protein (IRP) binds. When iron is present, it binds to the IRP and causes its release from the IRE. This release has different effects depending on where the IRP binds. Increased iron means increase iron stores, and releasing the IRP from transferring receptor (TFR)mRNA destabilizes it so that it is degraded, whereas removing the IRP from ferritin mRNA releases it from being blocked from translation, so that ferritin protein is produced (Rouault et al., 2006).

Conclusion

Anaemia is a decrease in number of red blood cell (RBCs) or less than the normal quality of haemoglobin in the blood. However, it can include decreased oxygen-binding ability of each haemoglobin molecule due to deformity or lack of numerical developments as in some other types of haemoglobin deficiency. Iron deficiency anaemia is the common cause of anaemia in women affecting 5-10 of women of child bearing age (20-44 years) and among pregnant women and postpartal, the prevalence of anaemia is up to 20-40%. Anaemia in pregnancy is a common problem in most developing countries and a major cause of mortality and morbidity especially in malaria endemic areas. Low haemoglobin levels in pregnancy may lead to preterm delivery and low birth weight and increase in the risk of maternal mortality.

References

- Berymann C (2005) Iron Defiency and anaemia in pregnancy: Modern aspects of diagnosis and therapy. *Fur. J. Obstet Gynecol Reprod. Biol.* **123**(2):3-13.
- Bothwell TH, Charltom Rw, Cook JD, Finch CA (1979) Iron metabolism in man. *Oxford Blackwell Scientific*.
- Clark DA, Chaput A., Tutton D (1986) Active suppression of host-vs-graft reaction in pregnant mice. Vii. Spontaneous abortion of allogeneic CBA/Jx DBA/z foetuses in the uterus of CAB/J mice correlates with deficient non-suppressor cell activity. J Immunol. 136(5):1668-75.
- Collins Dictionary.com. Collins English Dictionary complete "Trimester (2012)
- Desai M, Ter Kuile FO, Nosten F (2007) Epidemiology and burden of malaria in pregnancy: *Lancet Infect Dis.* **7** (2):93-104
- Gambling L, Czopek A, Anderson HS (2009) Fetal iron status regulates maternal iron metabolism during pregnancy in the rat. *Am. Journal Physiol.* **296**: 1063-70.
- Haslam N, Prober CS (1998) An audit of the investigation and treatment of folic acid deficiency. *Journal of the Royal Society of medicine*. **91**(2):72-3.

- Hereberg S, Galan P, Preziosi P, Aissa M, (2000) Consequences of iron deficiency in pregnant women. *Clin Drug Investt.* **19** (1):1-7.
- Huether S, McCance, Kathryn (2004). 20 understanding pathophysiology (3rd ed). Mosby P. 543.
- Hurrell R, Egli I, (2010). Iron bioavailability and dietary reference values. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.*
- Jayson S (2011) Unplanned pregnancies in U.S. at 40 percent" physorg.com
- Jeschke U, Wang X, Briese B, Friese K, Stahn R, (2003) Glycodelin and aminiotic fluid transferrin as inhibitors of E-selectin-mediated cell adhesion Histochem cell Biol. **119**:345-54.
- Joseph K, Hurt, M N, Guile J L., Bienstock HE, Fox EE., Wallach (2011) The Johns Hopkins manual of gynecology and obstetrics (4tg ed). Philadelphia. Wolters Kluwer Health/Lippincott Williams and Wilkins. Pg. 232.
- Judy (2008) Neuroethics defining the issues in therapy, practice and policy. *Oxford university press*. PP.142.
- Kalverboer A, Fedde, G, Albertus R (2001) Handbook of brain and Behaviour in Human Development springer. PP.1
- Klebanoff MA, Shiono PH, Selby JV, Trachtenberg AI, Graubard BT (1991) Anaemia and sportlaneous preterm birth. *Am. Jur. Obstrt Gynecol.* **164**: 59-63.
- Lennart N (1990) A child is born at eight weeks the danger of a miscarriage diminishes sharply.
- Merck (2008) Pregnancy complicated by disease" merck manual, home health handbook. Merck sharp and Dohme.
- Meuris S (1993) Gestational malaria assessment of its consequences on fetal growth. *Am. Jur. Trop. Med. Hyg* **46** (5): 603-9.
- Michael A, Mc Donald K, Horne MDb, Jeffery L, Miller M (2008) Individualized treatment for iron deficiency anaemia in adults. *Am. J. Med.* **121**(11): 943-948.
- National Academic Press Washington D.C. 45-102.
- Obeagu EI (2016) Erythrocyte enumeration and serum erythropoietin in chronic kidney disease patients: A study in Federal Medical Centre, Umuahia, Nigeria. International Journal of

Advanced Research in Biological Sciences 3(7): 163-170.

- Obeagu EI, Ezimah ACU, Obeagu GU (2016) Erythropoietin in the Anaemias of Pregnancy: A Review. Int J Curr Res Chem Pharm Sci 3(3): 10-18.
- Obeagu EI, Okoroiwu II, Ezimah ACU (2016) Evaluation of serum erythropoietin levels in chronic kidney disease patients in Federal Medical centre, Umuahia, Nigeria. International Journal of Current Research in Biology and Medicine 1(4): 15-21.
- Obeagu Emmanuel Ifeanyi. (2018). A Review on Pregnancy and Haematology. Int. J. Curr. Res. Biol. Med. 3(5): 26-28.
- Obeagu, E.I. (2018). A Review on Nutritional Anaemia. Int. J. Adv. Multidiscip. Res. 5(4): 11-15.
- Obeagu, E.I., Obeagu, G.U.(2018). A Review on Erythropietin in Pregnancy. J Gynecol Women's Health. 8(3): 555740.
- Ofori MF, Ansah E, Agyepony I (2009) Pregnancy associated malaria in a rural community of Ghana. *Ghana med. Jur.* **43**:13-18.
- Preziosi P, Prual A, Galan P. Daouda H, Boureima H, Herberg S (1997) Effect of iron supplementation on the iron status of pregnant women. Consequences for newborns. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 66: 1178-1182.
- Rouault TA, (2006). The role of iron regulatory proteins in mammala iron haemeostasis and disease. *Nat. chem. Biol.* **2**: 406-14
- Schumann K, Elsenhans B, Maurer (1998) Iron supplementation. J. Trace flem med Biol. 12(3): 129-40.
- Stacey T, Thompson JM, Mitchell EA, Ekeroma AJ, Zuccollo JM, MCCowan LM (2011).
 "Association between maternal sleep practices and risk of late stillbirth a case- control study BMJ. *Clinical research ed.* 342: d3403
- Tapiero H, Gate L, Tew KD (2001) Jul. Biomed Pharmacother. **55** (6): 324-32.
- The American college of obstericians and gynecologists (2002) AGOG Practice Bullentin clinical Management Guidelines for Obstetrician gynecologists: perital care at the threshold of viability obstet gynecol **100**(3): 617-24.

- Viteri FE, Howson CP (1998) Prevention of iron deficiency. Prevention of micronutrient Deficiencies: tools for policy makers and public Health Workers.
- Warsh S, Byrnes J (2013) Emerging causes of iron deficiency anaemia refractory to oral iron supplemtation. World K Gastrointest. Pharmacol ther. 4(3):49-53.
- Weng CH, Chen JB, Wang J, Wu CC, TUYlin TH (2011)." Surgically Gureble No-iron Deficiency Microcytic Anaemia. Castleman's Disease Onkologie **34**(8-9): 456-8
- World Health organization (1992) The prevalence of anaemia in women: a tabulation of available information", Division of family health, maternal health and safe motherhood programme division of health protection and promotion Nutrition programme: WHO, 2nd ed. Geneva, Switzerland.
- World Health Organization (2001) Iron deficiency anaemia. Assessment, prevention and control. A guide for programme managers, 114.pn DS, Miller KG, (2008). Nutritinal counseling for vetarians during pregnancy and lactations midwifery womens health. **53**(1): 37-44.
- World Health Organization, (2009). "Reproductive Health and Research publications: making pregnancy safer".



How to cite this article:

Obeagu Emmanuel Ifeanyi and Obeagu Getrude Uzoma. (2018). An update on Anaemia, Iron, Folic acid and Vitamin B 12 in Pregnancy and Postpartum. Int. J. Curr. Res. Med. Sci. 4(5): 62-70.

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.22192/ijcrms.2018.04.05.010