Contents

Se	ection 1: Obstetrics	
1.	Anemia in Pregnancy HU Doshi Iron Deficiency Anemia 4; Folic Acid Deficiency Anemia 13; Vitamin B ₁₂ Deficiency Anemia 14; Thalassemia Syndromes 16; Hemoglobin Variants (Sickling Syndromes) 18	3
2.	Hypertensive Disorders in Pregnancy SD Joshi Pre-eclampsia 28; Eclampsia 29; HELLP Syndrome 34	24
3.	Breech HU Doshi Etiology 38; Diagnosis 39; Management 41	38
4.	Pregnancy after Previous Cesarean Section Hemant Deshpande Terminology 48; Antenatal Management 52; Intrapartum Management 52	48
5.	Multiple Pregnancy Jaya Vijayaraghavan Etiology 58; Complications 61; Management 63	57
6.	Preterm Labor <i>HU Doshi</i> Etiology 67; Prediction 68; Prevention 69; Management 70; Premature Rupture of Membrane 75	67
7.	Post-term Pregnancy HU Doshi Etiology 80; Pathophysiology 80; Management 83	80
8.	Intrauterine Growth Restriction HU Doshi Etiology 89; Major Risk Factors for IUGR 90; Diagnosis 91; Antepartum Management 92; Fetal Well-being Assessment 92	89
9.	Recurrent Pregnancy Loss <i>PK Shah, Mansi Medhekar</i> Definition and Introduction 97; Risk Factors for RPL 97; Clinical Approach to RPL Case 100	97

	Clinical Cases in Obstetrics and Gynecology	
10.	Diabetes in Pregnancy <i>HU Doshi</i> Classification 104; Gestational Diabetes Mellitus 106; Management 107; Management of Overt Diabetes 109	104
11.	Rh Isoimmunization <i>Atul P Munshi, Sujal Munshi</i> Introduction 114; Isoimmunization 115; Management 116	114
12.	Pregnancy with Heart Disease HU Doshi Rheumatic Heart Disease, MST 123; Management 124; Peripartum Cardiomyopathy 126; Congenital Heart Diseases 126	123
13.	Antepartum Hemorrhage <i>Vijay Oza, Bipin Shah</i> Placenta Previa 130; Management 133; Placenta Accreta Spectrum Disorders 136; Accidental Hemorrhage 136; Management 138	130
14.	Pregnancy with Pyrexia HU Doshi Malaria in Pregnancy 141; Urinary Tract Infection 143; Respiratory Tract Infections 145; Viral Hepatitis in Pregnancy 148	141
15.	Newer Viral Infections in Pregnancy Jitesh Shah, Mayur Gandhi Dengue Fever 152; Zika Virus Infection 154; H1N1 Infection 156; COVID-19 158	152
16.	HIV in Pregnancy RM Saraogi Etiology 161; Clinical Manifestation 161; Antenatal Management 163; Management of Labor and Delivery 165; Postexposure Prophylaxis 166	161
17.	TORCH Infections in Pregnancy Sareena Gilvaz Toxoplasmosis 169; Rubella 171; Cytomegalovirus 173; Herpes Simplex Virus 174; Hypothyroidism 178	169
18.	Thyroid Disorders in Pregnancy <i>HU Doshi</i> Hypothyroidism 178; Congenital Hypothyroidism 179; Hyperthyroidism 179; Postpartum Thyroiditis 181	178
19.	Special Cases <i>HU Doshi</i> Polyhydramnios (Hydramnios) 182; Oligohydramnios 183; Intrauterine Fetal Death 184; Elderly Primigravida 186; Grand Multipara 187; Teenage (Adolescent) Pregnancy 188; Obesity 188	182

xiv

Section 2: Gynecology

20.	Carcinoma Cervix CN Purandare	193
	Etiology 193; Premalignant Lesions of Cervix 194; Pap Smear 195; FIGO Staging 199; Management 201; Surgery 202; Radiotherapy 204	
21.	Fibroid HU Doshi Etiology 207; Clinical Features 208; Diagnosis 209; Management 210;	207
~~	Myomectomy 211	
22.	Genital Prolapse HU Doshi Classifications 215; Supports of Uterus and Vagina 217; Etiology 218; Symptoms 218; Examination 219; Treatment 220; Vault Prolapse Operations 224	215
23.	Abnormal Uterine Bleeding Alka Kriplani	226
	Definition 226; PALM-COEIN Classification 226; Clinical Evaluation 227; Investigations 228; Treatment of AUB 229	
24.	Infertility HU Doshi	235
	Definitions 235; Etiology 235; Evaluation 236; Treatment 240; Intrauterine Insemination 242; Assisted Reproductive Technology 242	
25.	Endometriosis	245
	<i>Krupa Shah, Jagruti Shah</i> Classification 245; Diagnosis 245; Symptoms 246; Physical Examination 247; Investigations 247; Invasive Testing 248; Management 248; Adenomyosis 252	
26.	Polycystic Ovarian Syndrome Shalini Gainder, Arti Tuli	254
	Introduction 254; Clinical Manifestation 254; Clinical Evaluation 255; Investigations 256; Management 256	
27.	Primary Amenorrhea Ashish Mukhopadhyay	261
	Amenorrhea 261; Evaluation 262; Management 263	
28.	Ovarian Cancer Shilpa Patel	267
	Epidemiology and Etiology 267; Screening for Ovarian Cancer 268; Diagnosis 269; Mode of Spread 270; Staging 270; Treatment of Malignant Epithelial Neoplasms 272; Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy 273	

XV

Clinical Cases in Obstetrics and Gynecology			
	 29. Gynecological Disorders in Pregnancy HU Doshi Fibroid in Pregnancy 275; Prolapse of Uterus During Pregnancy 277; Carcinoma Cervix During Pregnancy 278; Ovarian Tumour in Pregnancy 279; Retroverted Gravid Uterus 280 	275	
	 30. Leukorrhea HU Doshi Pathological Leukorrhea 283; Trichomoniasis 284; Candidial Vulvovaginitis 285; Bacterial Vaginosis 286; Cervicitis 287 	283	
	Miscellaneous Hormone Levels in Obstetrics and Gynecology 291; Normal Values in Obstetrics 291; Blood Components 293	291	
	Index	295	

Anemia in Pregnancy

HU Doshi

Anemia is the most common medical disorder encountered during pregnancy. 40–90% of pregnant women in India are suffering from anemia. As per NFHS-4 (2015–2016)¹ incidence in pregnant women on an average is 50.4%.

Anemia is defined as decrease in the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood due to decrease in amount of RBCs or hemoglobin (Hb) or both. In adult female <12 g Hb% in peripheral blood is called anemia.

Causes of Anemia during Pregnancy

- Physiological
- Nutritional: Iron deficiency folate and/or vitamin B₁₂ deficiency dimorphic
- Hemorrhagic: Acute or chronic
- Hemoglobinopathies
- Hemolytic: Congenital or acquired
- Aplastic anemia.

Physiological

Due to physiological hemodilution during pregnancy fall in Hb occurs. There is 2.5–3 times increase in plasma volume as compared to RBC mass. Maximum increase occurs in 2nd trimester. Blood volume changes during pregnancy are shown in **Figure 1.1**.

Due to this, anemia in pregnancy is considered as per center for disease control (CDC) modified WHO definition as follows:

Hb%: <11.0 g% in 1st and 3rd trimester <10.5 g% in 2nd trimester

Degrees of anemia

0		
	ICMR	WHO
Mild	10–10.9 g%	9–10.9 g%
Moderate	7–9.9 g%	7–8.9 g%
Severe	4–6.9 g%	<7 g%
Very serve	<4 g%	—
Postpartum	_	<10 g%



Fig. 1.1: Blood volume changes during pregnancy.

Nutritional Anemia

In India 90% of anemia in pregnancy are of nutritional origin. Iron deficiency is by far the most common cause of nutritional anemia.

Iron Deficiency Anemia

Iron is the essential element of heme pigment of the Hb. Deficiency of iron during pregnancy in our country is due to following reasons:

- Low iron intake: As iron cannot be produced in the body, it is essential to eat food that contains iron. Dietary sources rich in iron are mentioned in Table 1.1. Cooking in iron utensils is helpful.
- **Increased nutrient demand:** There is increased demand of iron during pregnancy. Each pregnancy needs approximately 1 g (1,000 mg) of extra iron as shown in **Table 1.2.**

Most of this is required in second half of pregnancy. Although iron absorption increases during pregnancy (20–30% from normal 10%) the average vegetarian diet does not contain enough iron (10 mg average) to fulfil this demand.

So, if woman has depleted iron stores, she requires 6–7 mg iron/day during second

Table 1.1: Dietary sources rich in iron.

Vegetarian	Green leafy vegetables, spinach, mustard, fenugreek
Cereals	Whole wheat, bajra, jowar
Pulses	Green peas, beans, groundnuts, lentils
Fruits	Apple, banana are medium sources
Others	Jaggery, dates
Nonvegetarian	Liver, meat (fish and egg are medium sources)

Table 1.2: Iron requirement during pregnancy.

Expansion of RBC	400–500 mg	
Fetus (80 mg/kg)	200–250 mg	
Placenta and cord	80–100 mg	
Basal losses	220–250 mg	
Total	900–1,100 mg	
	Average 1,000 mg (1 g)	

half of pregnancy, while woman with good iron stores 3–4 mg/day is sufficient. Thus iron supplement during pregnancy is must for an Indian mother.

Saving of iron due to amenorrhea during pregnancy ($25 \times 8 = 200$ mg) compensates for blood loss at delivery (150-200 mg).

Poor absorption and utilization: The Indian diet which is predominantly vegetarian contains many substances which inhibit iron absorption. The factors influencing iron absorption are mentioned in Table 1.3.

Also the bioavailability of nonheme iron (vegetarian diet) is poor and is slowly absorbed as compared to heme iron (5–10% vs 35–40%).

Poor reserve: Normal iron store in adult female is 300–500 mg. An average Indian woman enters her first pregnancy with inadequate or poor iron stores. This is due to inadequate nutrition during adolescent period because of gender bias, poverty, and less education.

In parous women repeated pregnancies at short intervals (<2 years) and prolonged lactation (without iron supplement) also leads to depletion of iron stores.

 Increased loss: The increased loss is due to high incidence of malaria and hookworm infestation. In rural areas hookworm infestation is common. This leads to average blood loss from 0.03 (*Necator americans*) to 0.2 mL (*Ankylostoma duodenale*) per parasite/day. In heavy infestation daily loss of iron can be up to 5 mg. Excessive menstrual loss (before pregnancy) and sweating are also responsible.

Table 1.3: Food factors influencing the absorptionof iron.

Inhibitors	Enhancers	
 Phytates in cereals Tannins in tea. Polyphenols in coffee Oxalates in vegetables Phosphates in egg yolk Proteins 	 Ascorbic acid— vitamin C Organic acids, such as citric acid, lactic acid Sprouted and fermented food Meat, fish 	

IRON METABOLISM

Total body iron depends upon age, sex (more in male) and body weight of the person. In an adult female it is 2.0-2.5 g (35-40 mg/kg). It is distributed in the body as shown in **Table 1.4**.

Absorption

- Exact mechanism of absorption is still not known.
- Iron is mainly absorbed from duodenum.
- Nonheme iron (vegetarian diet) is mostly in ferric (Fe⁺⁺⁺) form. It has to be reduced to ferrous (Fe⁺⁺) form for absorption.
- Due to acidic pH of the stomach and other reducing agents Fe⁺⁺⁺ is reduced to Fe⁺⁺.
- A transporter protein called divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT 1) of enterocytes transports Fe⁺⁺ iron from duodenal lumen to inside the enterocyte. With the enzyme peroxidase it is converted to ferric (Fe⁺⁺⁺) iron.
- Ferric iron can have one of the two fates: (1) Iron combines with apoferritin to form ferritin which is deposited in the intestinal cells and eventually excreted on their desquamation. (2) Iron which is not combined with apoferritin is absorbed and circulated in the plasma as ferric form combined with transferrin.
- Heme iron is in Fe⁺⁺ form so its absorption is 2-3 times more than nonheme iron. Heme iron is present in hemoglobin and myoglobin (i.e., nonveg diet).
- Absorption of heme iron is not decreased by other foods simultaneously ingested.

	Percentage of total body iron
Hb	65–70%
Stores (ferritin, hemosiderin)	20-25%
Myoglobin + enzymes (catalase, cytochromes, peroxidase)	5–10%
Plasma iron (bound to transferrin)	0.1-0.2%

Table 1.4: Distribution of body iron.

Transport

- Fe⁺⁺⁺ is taken up by transferrin (siderophilin), an iron-binding protein present in the blood for transportation to various parts of the body.
- Transferrin receptors present in the various cells of the body including RBCs (erythropoiesis) recognize transferrin leading to the entry of complex into the cell. Iron is released intracellularly. While transferrin is released back into the circulation to carry fresh load of iron.
- Iron from the breakdown of senescent RBCs in the reticuloendothelial system (RES) is also transported by transferrin for recycling in erythropoiesis.

Storage

- Some iron is stored in the RE cells in the liver, spleen and bone marrow as ferritin (major portion) and hemosiderin.
 Fe⁺⁺⁺ + Apoferritin = Ferritin Aggregate of ferritin = Hemosiderin
- Ferritin can accommodate up to 4,500 of iron atoms. Ferritin is water-soluble while hemosiderin is not. Stores are mobilized to provide iron as and when need arises. In iron deficiency first the stores are depleted.

Excretion

 About 0.8-1.0 mg of lost iron is daily through exfoliated gastrointestinal (GI) mucosal cells, skin and in stool, urine, and sweating. In female approximately 1.0 mg/ day should be added for menstrual loss during reproductive age group.

Iron cycle is mentioned in **Figure 1.2**. As there is no physiological mechanism for



Fig. 1.2: Iron cycle.

Factors favoring	Factors reducing absorption
Iron deficiency	Iron excess
↑↑ Erythropoiesis	$\downarrow \downarrow$ Erythropoiesis
Inorganic iron	Organic iron (diet)
Ferrous iron (iron salts, heme iron)	Ferric iron (nonheme iron)
Acids: HCl, ascorbic acid, citric acid	Alkalies—antacids
Calcium citrate, calcium carbonate	Other calcium salts
Pregnancy	Infections

Table 1.5: Factors affecting iron absorption.

iron excretion, which is almost constant; iron content of the body is regulated by absorption alone. The amount of iron absorbed from the diet depends upon iron stores and requirement for erythropoiesis. Factors affecting iron absorption are mentioned in Table 1.5 (food factors affecting the absorption of iron are already mentioned in Table 1.3).

• Drugs, such as Alphadopa, Levodopa, Ciprofloxacin, and Cimetidine interfere with iron absorption.

Iron deficiency occurs in three stages

Depleted iron stores. First stage: Second stage: Decrease in serum iron and increase in total iron-binding capacity (TIBC). There is deficient erythropoiesis.

Iron deficiency anemia. Third stage:

Thus decrease in Hb represents very late stage of iron deficiency.

Erythropoiesis

RBCs are formed in the red bone marrow situated in the ends of long bones, from nucleated cells known as stem cells or hemocytoblasts.

Stem cells \rightarrow Proerythroblast \rightarrow Basophilic erythroblast (early normoblast) \rightarrow Polychromatophilic erythroblast (intermediate normoblast) \rightarrow Acidophilic erythroblast (late

normoblast) \rightarrow Reticulocyte \rightarrow Erythrocyte (RBC)

From proerythroblast to reticulocyte it takes 7 days. From reticulocyte to mature RBC it takes 2 days. Erythropoiesis is stimulated by the hormone erythropoietin secreted from the kidney. Erythropoiesis is stimulated if there is tissue anoxia or if the red cell count goes down

Clinical Features

Symptoms

- Fatigue, weakness, lassitude, impaired work capacity
- Dizziness, giddiness, headache, insomnia
- Dyspnea on exertion, palpitation
- Anorexia, dyspepsia
- Edema of ankles.

Signs

- Pallor of skin and mucous membrane. In severe anemia there is even loss of color in the palmar creases.
- There may be glossitis, stomatitis and dysphagia.
- Koilonychia (changes in nails: Initially brittleness and dryness, later there is flattening and finally concavity, i.e., spoonshaped nails).
- Tachycardia.

Effects of Anemia in Pregnancy

Mother

- Increased susceptibility to infection.
- Cardiac failure at 30–34 weeks of pregnancy if severe anemia.
- Pre-eclampsia may be related to malnutrition.
- Preterm labor (3 times greater risk).

Labor

- Uterine inertia.
- Postpartum hemorrhage—even moderate blood loss can lead to collapse.
- Cardiac failure
- Shock ٠

Puerperium

- Cardiac failure
- Puerperal sepsis
- Subinvolution
- Failing lactation
- Chronic ill health, backache.

Fetus and Neonate

- Prematurity
- Intrauterine growth restriction (IUGR) (3 times increased risk).
- Increased perinatal deaths.
- Decreased iron stores in neonate (Hb level in the fetus or neonate is not affected in anemic mother but soon infant can develop anemia due to deficient iron store).

Diagnosis

Although clinical history and examination (pallor) are suggestive, following investigations are done. Investigations are carried out for:

• **Diagnosis and degree of anemia:** Clinical estimation can be erroneous. Hb estimation is used for diagnosis. Hb below 11.0 g% suggests pathological anemia. Value of mild, moderate and severe degrees are already mentioned before. RBC count <3.2 million and packed cell volume (PCV) <30% suggest anemia.

- Type of anemia:
 - Peripheral smear (PS): To study the morphology of RBCs. It shows microcytic hypochromic picture in iron deficiency anemia. RBCs are smaller in size with central pallor. Also there is anisocytosis (variation in size) and poikilocytosis (variation in shape). PS may also help in diagnosing malarial parasites. Reticulocyte count may be slightly raised. Occasionally target cells are present.
 - Hematological indices: These are mean corpuscular volume (MCV), mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH), and mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC). Their values in iron deficiency anemia as compared to normal are mentioned in Table 1.6.
 - Specific investigations for iron deficiency include serum iron, TIBC, percentage saturation (serum iron/TIBC), serum ferritin level (Table 1.6). In fact decreased ferritin level is the first feature of iron deficiency.

	Normal values in female	Iron deficiency anemia in pregnancy
Hb	12.0–16.0 g%	<11.0 g%
RBC count	4–5 million/mm ³	<3.2 million/mm ³
PCV	32–36%	<30%
MCV	75–100 cubic micron	$<75 \ \mu^{3}$
MCH	25–33 pg	<25 pg
MCHC	30–36%	<30%
Serum iron	60–120 μg/dL	<60 µg/dL
TIBC	300–350 μg/dL	>400 µg/dL
Percentage saturation	20–45% (1/3rd average)	<16%
Serum ferritin	15–200 μg/L (ng/mL)	<12 µg/L
Transferrin receptors	2–4 mg/L	Increased
FEP	0–35 μg/dL	Increased
Stainable bone marrow	Present	Absent

Table 1.6: Hematological values.

Free erythrocyte protoporphyrin (FEP) and transferrin receptor levels are not routinely carried out. They increase early in case of iron deficiency and are more sensitive than even ferritin.

Bone marrow examination: This is not routinely done. It is only indicated in— (1) refractory anemia and (2) aplastic/ hypoplastic anemia. In iron deficiency anemia iron stores are absent. The absence of stainable iron is 'gold standard' for IDA.

- **Cause of anemia:** For diagnosing the cause, detailed history is also important, e.g., food habits, obstetric history (multipara, short intervals), gynecologic history (menorrhagia), history of malaria or worms.
 - Urine examination: Routine and microscopy (culture studies if indicated) are done for diagnosing urinary tract infection (UTI), asymptomatic bacteriuria, hematuria, etc.
 - *Stool examination:* Ova (eggs), cysts and for occult blood. Eggs of hookworm are segmented (4 blastomeres) and float in saturated solutions of common salt.
 - Serum proteins: Hypoproteinemia. Special tests may be carried out in megaloblastic and other rare anemias. Serum folate, RBC folate—megaloblastic anemia

Serum vitamin B₁₂

Serum bilirubin—hemolytic anemia. Coomb's tests—autoimmune hemolytic anemia

Sickle test—sickle cell syndromes Hb electrophoresis—hemoglobinopathies.

Naked eye single tube red cell osmotic fragility (NESTROF) test²—beta thalassemia trait. Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) screening,

Red cell osmotic fragility test—hereditary spherocytosis.

Causes of microcytic anemia:

- Iron deficiency anemia
- Thalassemia

- Anemia of chronic disease
- Sideroblastic anemia
- Lead poisoning
- Anemia associated with copper deficiency
- Alcohol use.

Management

General preventive measures are:

- Screening of adolescent girls in school and giving iron supplements.
- Education and motivation for taking diet rich in iron (Table 1.1).
- Change in food habits, i.e., avoiding tea or coffee for at least 2 hours after meals.
- Prevention of hookworm and malaria. For hookworm, Albendazole 400 mg stat or Mebendazole 100 mg BID for 3 days is recommended. For malarial prophylaxis weekly 2 tablets of Chloroquine (300 mg base) are given from 2nd trimester onwards in endemic areas.
- Keeping adequate interval between pregnancies (>2 years minimum) and avoiding prolonged lactation without iron supplement.
- Fortification of food by iron, i.e., 30–36 mg iron should be added per kg of wheat flour.
- Fortification of common salt by iron.
- Cooking in iron utensils is helpful.

Govt of India (Ministry of Health and Family Welfare) has recommended 100 mg of elemental iron + 0.5 mg FA/day for 100 days to every pregnant woman in our country as prophylaxis from second trimester onwards and postpartum for 6 months. Dose is to be doubled if there is mild anemia.

Treatment

Apart from treatment of the cause, iron therapy for correction of anemia as well as to replenish the iron store is essential.

Iron Therapy

 Oral iron therapy: It is indicated in all mild and moderate iron deficiency cases. It is cheap, safe and effective in most of the cases. 100–200 mg elemental iron per day is recommended. Different common iron salts with their elemental iron content is mentioned in **Table 1.7.**

- Ferrous salts are 3 times readily absorbed than ferric salts.
- Ferrous sulfate is the cheapest and well absorbed form of iron.
- Ferrous gluconate is well tolerated but it has low iron content (36 mg in 320 mg tablet).
- Ferrous fumarate is the most commonly used salt in commercial preparations.
- Ferrous ascorbate is a synthetic molecule of ascorbic acid, iron and as ascorbate makes stable chelate with iron there is no dissociation in GI tract, so there is no action of food inhibitors. Tablets containing 100 mg elemental iron is available for use.
- Carbonyl iron: Newer market preparation contain this. Carbonyl refers to manufacturing process where iron is obtained by thermal decomposition of iron pentacarbonyl which when heated to above its boiling point decomposes to give iron and carbon monoxide. Iron thus obtained has high purity (>98%), very fine spherical size (<5 μ) and uniform particle size.It is easily absorbed and less toxic than ionized forms of iron, such as iron sulfate. It has a high safety range.

Table 1.7: Oral iron preparations.

Salt	Tablet	Elemental iron
Ferrous sulfate	200 mg	60 mg (30%)
Ferrous fumarate	200 mg	66 mg (33%)
Ferrous gluconate	320 mg	36 mg (12%)
Ferrous succinate	100 mg	35 mg (35%)
-Ferric ammonium citrate	125 mg	25 mg (17–22%)
Ferrous ascorbate	_	100 mg
IPC	—	100 mg
Carbonyl iron	_	90 mg
Sodium feredetate	_	231 mg
Ferric pyrophosphate	_	30 mg

• Sodium feredetate: It contains ferric sodium EDTA. It contains iron in a unionized form. It is not astringent and does not discolor teeth. Its absorption is less affected by food inhibitors, such as phytates.

Ferric pyrophosphate: It is relatively newer iron preparation with advance microsomal technology. It leads to lower GI side effects than conventional oral iron preparation.

Faster rise of Hb is claimed by manufacturer.

- Micronization of iron and encapsulation with liposomes increases bioavailability.
 Ferrous bisglycinate chelate: It is a chelated form of iron, where two molecules of amino acid glycine are bound to a molecule of iron. It does not cause gastric irritation and constipation. Absorption of bisglycinate is not affected by phytates in food.
- Iron polymaltose complex (IPC): It is ferric hydroxide polymaltose complex. It is nonionic and it does not stain the teeth. There is no metallic taste and no interaction with food or other drugs. Initially claimed high therapeutic results were not found in clinical practice, so it is less used now.
- Sustained-release (SR) or time release (TR) preparations have less GI side effects but lesser iron is released in the main absorptive area, i.e., duodenum and upper jejunum and so less is absorbed.
- Gastric delivery system (GDS) contains ferrous sulfate in a gel forming polymer matrix, so the tablet floats in the stomach for 5–12 hours releasing small amount of iron to the main absorptive area (i.e., duodenum). It is claimed that 3 times more iron is absorbed with less side effects.

Iron prescription:

 More than 2 tablets/day is not favored as it increases the side effects without therapeutic benefits.

- If there is swallowing problem or intolerance use liquid preparation (less side effects but staining of teeth may be a problem).
- Iron should be taken on empty stomach with fruit juice for better absorption, i.e., 1 hour before or 2 hours after meals. Due to stomach upset it is usually taken with the meals.
- Tea, coffee avoided for 2 hours after taking iron.
- Taking vitamin C helps in absorption.
- Calcium salts (except calcium carbonate and calcium citrate) and antacids should be avoided.

Response:

- Reticulocyte count increases by 7–10 days.
- Hb% rises at 10–14 days. About 1 g%/ week rise in Hb occurs from 2nd week onwards.

Side effects of oral iron: Upper GI tract nausea, gastric discomfort, loss of appetite and eructation. Staining of teeth particularly in liquid preparation.

Lower GI tract—constipation, diarrhea, and flatulence.

Nonresponse to oral iron: Reasons can be:

- Noncompliance due to intolerance or otherwise.
- Poor absorption
- Wrong diagnosis another etiology of anemia.
- Continued loss of iron.
- **Parenteral iron therapy:** It is indicated when:
 - Intolerance to oral iron.
 - Noncompliance to oral iron.
 - Poor absorption of oral iron (malabsorption syndrome, dysentery, etc.)
 - No response to oral iron after 4 weeks in a confirmed case of iron deficiency anemia.
 - Some cases of moderate anemia (6-8 g Hb) very late in pregnancy.

Preparations:

- Iron sucrose: It is available as 20 mg/ mL in 5 mL (100 mg) or 10 mL (200 mg) ampoules.
- Ferric carboxymaltose (FCM) available as 50 mg/mL in 5 mL or 10 mL vials.

Iron sucrose:

- It is category B drug.
- Dose calculation is total iron = 2.4 × weight in kg × deficit of Hb in g. 500 mg should be added for pregnancy.
- It is safer, effective and well tolerated.
- Test dose is not recommended. However, some authorities prefer to give test dose.
- It can be given undiluted IV slowly 1 mL/min OR diluted 100 mg in/100 mL of normal saline and given IV over 15 minutes.
- Maximum 200 mg per dose is given repeated up to three times a week.
- Iron sucrose is dissociated by the reticuloendothelial (RE) system into iron and sucrose. The released iron increases Hb. 75% sucrose is excreted by kidney in 24 hours.
- It is claimed that there is rapid rise of Hb than oral iron, i.e., after 1 week and also rapid buildup of iron stores.³
- It cannot be given IM due to alkaline pH (>10) as it causes muscle damage.
- It is not stable in dextrose, so it cannot be diluted in dextrose.

Ferric carboxymaltose (FCM):

- It is newer parenteral iron where ferric hydroxide core is stabilized by carbohydrate shell so there is controlled release of iron leading to decreased oxidative stress.
- It was initially recommended only for postpartum use but now safety during pregnancy is established.
- Dose is calculated as per standard formula and single dose is given in not <15 minutes in 250 mL saline.
- Dose should not exceed 15 mg/kg body weight and if required 2 doses are given 7 days apart.