Opinion Article



Open Access, Volume - 3

Adverse effects of synergic factors at play during intestinal parasitism in pregnancy

Yamilé Aleaga¹*; María Ginori²; Yisel Hernández³; Dennis Perez⁴; Yaxsier de Armas⁵; Luis Fonte6

¹Department of Microbiology, Hospital Center of Institute of Tropical Medicine "Pedro Kourí", Havana 11400, Cuba.

Received Date : Feb 08, 2023 Accepted Date : Mar 01, 2023 Published Date : Mar 08, 2023

Archived: www.jcmimagescasereports.org

Copyright: © Luis Fonte 2023

*Corresponding Author: Luis Fonte, Department of Parasitology, Insti-

tute of Tropical Medicine "Pedro Kourí", Havana 11400, Cuba.

E-mail: luisfonte@infomed.sld.cu

Abstract

Intestinal parasitism is a widely extended public health problem, causing significant morbidity and disabilities. It is well documented that pregnancy, with its increased nutritional demands and altered immune defenses, is an especially vulnerable time to contract intestinal parasitism. By affecting the health of both mothers and their progeny, those parasite infections are a double burden for pregnant women, who often experience more severe intestinal parasitism than their non-pregnant counterpart. It should be taken into account that in this health problem concur synergistically factors related to parasites, the physiological peculiarities of the pregnant women and the socioeconomic scenario in which they live. Despite the adverse effects of intestinal parasitism on pregnancy, fetuses, and newborns, its worldwide prevalence, and the associated risk factors, among pregnant women are little known. In spite of this, with the information available today, it is possible to sustain that the prevalence of intestinal parasitism among pregnant women is greater in by low and middle income countries. As we argue in the text of this document, intestinal parasite infections constitute an underestimated public health problem among pregnant women and their offspring and, accordingly, we opine that their diagnosis, treatment, and control require more attention.

Keywords: Intestinal parasitism; Pregnant women; New born; Pregnancy immunomodulation; Helminth immunomodulation.

Introduction

Parasites infect pregnant women with relatively high frequency [1-3]. It is a consequence of two interacting physiological processes that occurs in the woman during pregnancy: the natural modulation of her immune responses and the occurrence of changes in her microbiota, both necessary for the healthy development of the fetus [1,4]. Intestinal parasitism (IP) is a widely extended public health problem, resulting in significant morbidity and disabilities. With the increasing of travel and food transport around the world, that problem is not entirely confined to traditionally endemic areas [5]. It is well documented that pregnancy, with its increased nutritional demands and altered immune defenses, is an especially vulnerable time to contract parasitic infections. In addition, several of them can occur simultaneously, increas-

ing the adverse consequences for mothers and progeny [6-7]. Despite the deleterious effects of IP on pregnancy, fetuses, and newborns, little is known about its worldwide prevalence among pregnant women, and its associated risk factors. Nevertheless, with the information available today, it is possible to sustain that IP prevalence among pregnant women is greater by low and middle income countries (LMIC) [8-9]. The effects and severity of IP on pregnancy depend on different factors in relation with the mother and its scenario, including species involved, parasitic load, coexisting infections, intervals between pregnancies, nutritional health, immunity status, accessibility of safe drinking water, climate, and socioeconomic condition. Although IP can occur at any stage of the three trimesters of pregnancy, infection during the first trimester is associated with more serious fetal and placental consequences than those that occur later. It should be mentioned that wom-

Volume 3 | Issue 2 | 2023

²Department of Teaching, Polyclinic "Plaza de la Revolución", Havana 11300, Cuba.

³Department of Vector Control, Institute of Tropical Medicine "Pedro Kourí", Havana 11400, Cuba.

⁴Department of Epidemiology, Institute of Tropical Medicine "Pedro Kourí", Havana 11400, Cuba.

⁵Department of Pathology, Hospital Center of Institute of Tropical Medicine "Pedro Kourí", Havana 11400, Cuba.

⁶Department of Parasitology, Institute of Tropical Medicine "Pedro Kourí", Havana 11400, Cuba.

Citation: Yamilé Aleaga. Adverse effects of synergic factors at play during intestinal parasitism in pregnancy. J Clin Med Img Case Rep. 2023; 3(2): 1390.

en who are pregnant for the first time experience more severe consequences of IP compared to other gravid women [10-11]. Over the past few years, our understanding of how to prevent and manage IP in pregnant women has increased. In spite of it, IP remain a sanitary challenge. At least two factors have prevented more progression: (i) the low sustainability of the executed prevention and control actions, and (ii) the fact that therapeutic interventions during pregnancy can lead to unexpected complications for the health of the mother and child. As it will be shown in the following texts of this document, intestinal parasitic infections constitute an underestimated public health problem among pregnant women and, consequently, their diagnosis, treatment, and control require more attention.

Prevalence on intestinal parasitism in pregnant women As we mentioned above, the IP prevalence among pregnant women, and its associated risk factors, is relatively little known. Pregnancy affects the mother's body physical, physiological, and immunologically. It is a unique stage with different hormonal and immunological alterations. The change in immunity that occurs in pregnant women makes them susceptible to most parasitic infections [12-13]. Recent evidence suggests that the microbial alterations during pregnancy may help maintain homeostasis and aid the physiological changes that occur in pregnancy. However, these same immunological and microbial alterations can also make women more susceptible during pregnancy and the postpartum period, especially with regard to immunological and infectious diseases [14-15]. On the other hand, pregnant women are at high risk of intestinal parasite infections due to their close relationship with children, the segment of population with the higher prevalence of IP [16]. Additionally, most of those parasites are transmitted through the soil, and the practice of eating it is common among pregnant women in many communities, especially in sub-Saharan Africa [17-18]. Numerous studies on the prevalence of IP in pregnant women have been carried out in recent years, mainly in countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America [revised in 3]. However, the methodological differences in the performance of those studies (for example, in the number of fecal samples collected per participating individual and in the types of detection procedures employed in each work) have made difficult to interpret and compare their results accurately. Roughly speaking, the analysis of the available information has permitted the identification of the parasites most frequently found during pregnancy: among helminths Schistosoma mansoni, Ascaris lumbricoides, Trichuris trichiura and hookworms; and among protozoa, Plasmodium spp., Entamoeba histolytica and Blastocystis spp. [1-3]. The prevalence of IP among pregnant women in more endemic countries, generally those with tropical climate and low socioeconomic development, ranges from 24 to 70%, with approximately 10% of women having multiple parasites [5]. In Africa, more than 44 million pregnancies are complicated by maternal infection with hookworm, and 10 million pregnant women are infected with schistosomes [19].

General impacts of intestinal parasitism on pregnant women IP during pregnancy is associated with serious adverse maternal and fetal outcomes [20]. Intestinal parasites have a broad number of interrelated consequences for pregnant women and their offspring, including maternal anemia [1,21], low weight gain during pregnancy, poor fetal growth [22-23], low birth weight [23], and premature delivery [24]. The risk of infertility and spontaneous abortions are also caused by those infections [25-26]. Pregnant women and intestinal parasites- both helminths and protozoa- compete by critical molecules and energy sources such as iron, glucose, lipids, proteins, and other essential nutrients. This competition can have devastating effects on fetal growth and development [27]. Many helminths reduce appetite and compromise nutrient intake which, accompanied by helminth-induced intestinal inflammation, can limit nutrient absorption and lead to anemia [28]. In addition, hookworms, schistosomes, and T. trichiura can cause anemia by intestinal blood loss too [3]. In relation with pregnancy, hookworms should be mentioned apart. Worldwide, the prevalence of hookworms in pregnant women is high. The effects of those parasites on pregnant women and their fetus vary widely from asymptomatic to infection resulting in malnutrition, anemia, intrauterine growth retardation, and spontaneous abortion [29]. Each year, they result in 3,000 to 65,000 maternal deaths [3]. The benefits of anthelmintic treatment during pregnancy are still not entirely clear, both for the mother and the offspring. Even if there is current global control efforts based on regular mass administration of anthelmintic drugs, its sustainability appears very difficult [30-31]. Helminths modulate the immune response of their hosts in order to survive in them [32-35]. In pregnant women, helminth infections may have increased adverse effects due to the synergistic immunoregulatory effects of pregnancy and those parasites. Therefore, pregnant women with helminth infections are at greater risk of contracting infectious diseases such as malaria, measles and influenza [36]. It should be noted that most of the studies referencing the synergistic immunoregulatory effects of pregnancy and helminth infections come from LMIC with poor nutritional status. Without proper nutrition, the immune system does not mount an effective response to infection. At the same time, helminth infections are a cause of malnutrition and deterioration of the immune system. In this complex scenario, pregnant women with helminth infections may be more susceptible to other pathogens due to the synergistic effects on immune system of malnutrition, pregnancy, and helminth infections. [36-37]. As many helminths survive in the environment and have animal reservoirs, a holistic approach to their control, as invite the viewpoints of One Health, is mandatory. Intestinal protozoa can promote loss of indigenous nutrients by inducing damage to the intestinal mucosa, hindering digestion

and causing diarrhea and anemia [3]. Giardia lamblia infection causes restriction of iron absorption [3]. E. histolytica invasion on intestinal mucosa leads to blood loss [38]. The prevalence of blastocystosis, an entity rarely reported at the end of the last century, has increased rapidly in recent years [39-40]. Recently, the high prevalence of Blastocystis spp. infection in pregnant women and its association with iron deficiency anemia have been evidenced [41-42]. Unfortunately, the mechanisms supporting this association remain poorly understood. On the other hand, and opining from a more holistic perspective, all analysis of the anemia caused by IP should take into account that pregnant women are particularly susceptible to the development of anemia due to their exponential rise of iron requirements, necessary to support the expanding of the maternal erythrocyte component and the growth of the fetal-placental unit [43-44]. Nearly 40% of pregnant women worldwide have anemia, which is more common in low-income nations [45]. In the mother, anemia is associated with an increment of infection and hospitalization, preterm delivery, poor labor and severe hemorrhagic phenomena; in the fetus, anemia may result in growth retardation and low birth weight, among others adverse outcomes [44-48].

Conclusions

In spite of methodological and resource limitations in the performance of the corresponding studies, it has been evidenced the high prevalence of IP in pregnant women in underdeveloped countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. In those countries, intestinal parasite infections constitute an underestimated public health problem that affects pregnant women and their progeny, and accordingly, their diagnosis, treatment, and control require more attention. In this sense, it should be taken into account that in this health problem concur synergistically factors related to parasites, the physiological peculiarities of the pregnant women and the socioeconomic scenario in which they live. Looking at the problem from a more inclusive perspective, the current initiatives to improve the IP prevention and control of IP in populations at risk in those endemic areas should include actions in their communication strategies to inform, from One Health approaches, about the adverse consequences of intestinal parasitism on the wellbeing of mothers and their progeny.

Author Contributions: All authors listed have made a substantial, direct and intellectual contribution to the work, and approved it for publication.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- 1. Mahande AM, Mahande MJ. Prevalence of parasitic infections and associations with pregnancy complications and outcomes in northern Tanzania: a registry-based cross-sectional study. BMC Infect Dis. 2016; 16: 78-87.
- 2. Paranjpe S, Roopal N, Avani K, Gita N, Preeti M: Prevalence of intestinal parasites in pregnant women. Indian J Microbiol Res. 2020; 7: 350-357.
- 3. Taghipour A, Ghodsian S, Jabbari M, Olfatifar M, Abdoli A, et al. Global prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections and associated risk factors in pregnant women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Trans Roy Soc Trop Med Hyg. 2020; 115: 457-470.
- 4. Mor G, Aldo P, Alvero, AB. The unique immunological and microbial aspects of pregnancy. Nat Rev Immunol. 2017; 17: 469-482.
- 5. Mohan S, Halle-Ekaneb G, Konjec JC. Intestinal parasitic infections in pregnancy A review. Eur J of Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol. 2020; 254:59-63.
- 6. Tay SCK, Nani EA, Walana W. Parasitic infections and maternal anaemia among expectant mothers in the Dangme East District of Ghana. BMC Res Notes. 2017; 10: 3.
- 7. Amir M, Brown JA, Rager SL, Sanidad KZ, Ananthanarayanan A, et al.: Maternal microbiome and infections in pregnancy. Microorganisms. 2020; 8: 3-21.
- 8. Animaw Z, Melese A, Demelash H, Seyoum G, Abebe A. Pregnancy and childbirth. BMC. 2021; 21: 474.
- 9. Chelkeba L, Melaku T, Lemma D, Mekonnen Z. Burden of intestinal parasitic infections among pregnant women in Ethiopia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Infection; 2021; 48: 1091-1105.
- 10. Derso A, Nibret E, Munshea A. Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections and associated risk factors among pregnant women attending antenatal care center at Felege Hiwot Referral Hospital, northwest Ethiopia. BMC Infect Dis. 2016; 16: 530.
- 11. Bolka A, Gebremedhin S: Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infection and its association with anemia among pregnant women in Wondo Genet district, southern Ethiopia: a cross-sectional study. BMC Infect Dis. 2019; 19: 483.
- 12. Mor G, Cardenas I: The immune system in pregnancy: a unique complexity. Am J Reprod Immunol. 2010; 63: 425-433.
- 13. Yesuf DA, Abdissa LT, Gerbi EA, Tola EK. Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infection and associated factors among pregnant women attending antenatal care at public health facilities in Lalo Kile district, Oromia, western Ethiopia. BMC Res Notes. 2019; 12: 735.
- 14. Acurero O, Díaz A, Díaz A, Bracho M, Ferrer H, et al. Prevalencia de enteroparásitos en embarazadas de la maternidad "Dr. Armando Castillo Plaza" en Maracaibo, Venezuela. Rev Kasmera. 2008; 36: 148-58.
- 15. Fuhler GM. The immune system and microbiome in pregnancy. Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol. 2020; 44-45: 101671.
- 16. Baidoo SE, Tay SC, Abruquah HH. Intestinal helminth infection and anaemia during pregnancy: A community-based study in Ghana. African J Microbiol Res. 2010; 4: 1713-1718.

Volume 3 | Issue 2 | 2023

- 17. Poy MS, Weisstaub A, Iglesias C, Fernández S, Portela ML, et al. Diagnóstico de pica durante elembarazo y deficiencia de micronutrients en mujeres argentinas. Nutr Hosp. 2012; 27: 922-928.
- 18. Baquerizo P, Calvo P, Soriano V, Hernáiz S, Fabra M, et al. Síndrome de pica en el embarazo: revisión bibliográfica. Rev Electr PortalesMedicos.com. 2021; XVI: 876.
- 19. Ali MM, Mengesha MM, Hussen S. Intestinal Parasitic Infection Among Pregnant Women in Ethiopia: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Health Sci J. 2021; 15: s849.
- 20. Tsoka-Gwegweni JM, Ntombela NP. A double load to carry: parasites and pregnancy. Southern Afr J Infect Dis. 2014; 29: 52-55.
- 21. Getachew M, Yewhalaw D, Tafess K, Getachew Y, Zeynudin A. Anaemia and associated risk factors among pregnant women in Gilgel Gibe dam area, Southwest Ethiopia. Parasites Vectors. 2012; 5: 296.
- 22. Rodríguez-Morales AJ, Barbella RA, Case C, Arria M, Ravelo M, et al. Intestinal parasitic infections among pregnant women in Venezuela. Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol. 2006; 2006: 23125.
- 23. Espinosa AF, Radon K, Froeschl G, Rondón ÁM, Delius M: Prevalence and risk factors for intestinal parasitic infections in pregnant women residing in three districts of Bogotá, Colombia. BMC Public Health. 2018; 18: 1-5.
- 24. Blackwell AD. Helminth infection during pregnancy: insights from evolutionary ecology. Int J Womens Health. 2016; 8: 651-61.
- 25. Amuta EU, Houmsou RS, Mker SD: Knowledge and risk factors of intestinal parasitic infections among women in Makurdi, Benue State. Asian Pac J Trop Med. 2010; 3: 993-996.
- 26. Ayanaw G, Munshea A, Nibret E: Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections and associated risk factors among pregnant women attending prenatal care in the northwestern Ethiopia. BioMed Res Int. 2021; 2021: 1-12.
- 27. Malatyalı, Sankur F, Akın MN, Ertabaklar H, Ertug S. Subtype Distribution of Blastocystis in
- 28. Pregnant women and analysis of possible risk factors. Turkiye Parazitol Derg. 2020; 44: 221-225.
- 29. Sappenfield E, Jamieson DJ, Kourtis AP: Pregnancy and susceptibility to infectious diseases. Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol. 2013; 2013: 752852.
- 30. Alli J, Okonko I, Kolade A, Nwanze JC, Dada VK, et al. Prevalence of intestinal nematode infection among pregnant women attending antenatal clinic at the University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria. Adv Appl Sci Res. 2011; 2: 1-13.
- 31. Mpairwe H, Tweyongyere R, Elliott A: Pregnancy and helminth infections. Parasite Immunol. 2014; 36: 328-37.
- 32. Haldemana MS, Nolanc MS, habid KRN. Human hookworm infection: Is effective control possible? A review of hookworm control efforts and future directions. Acta Trop. 2020; 201: 105214.
- 33. Turner JD, Jackson JA, Faulkner H, Turner JD, Jackson JD, et al. Intensity of intestinal infection with multiple worm 340 species is related to regulatory cytokine output and immune hyporesponsiveness. J Infect Dis. 2008; 197: 1204-12.
- 34. Harris N, Loke P. Recent advances in type-2- cell-mediated immu-

- nity: insights from helminth infection. Immunity. 2017; 47: 1024-36.
- 35. Maizels RM. Regulation of Immunity and allergy by helminth parasites. Allergy. 2020; 75: 524-34.
- 36. Fonte L, Acosta A, Sarmiento ME, Ginori M, García G, et al. COV-ID-19 lethality in Sub-Saharan Africa and helminth immune modulation. Front Immunol. 2020; 11: 574910.
- 37. Abdoli A, Pirestani M. Are pregnant women with chronic helminth infections more susceptible to congenital infections? Front Immunol. 2014; 5: 53.
- 38. Hughes S, Kelly P. Interactions of malnutrition and immune impairment, with specific reference to immunity against parasites. Parasite Immunol. 2006; 28: 577-588.
- 39. Kantor M, Abrantes A, Estevez A, Schiller A, Torrent J, et al. Entamoeba Histolytica: Updates in Clinical Manifestation, Pathogenesis, and Vaccine Development. Can J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2018: 4601420.
- 40. Deng Y, Zhang S, Ning C, Zhou Y, Teng X, et al. Molecular epidemiology and risk factors of Blastocystis sp. infections among general populations in Yunnan province, Southwestern China. Risk Manag Healthc Policy. 2020; 13: 1791-1801.
- 41. Fonte L, Aleaga Y, Hernandez Y, de los Ángeles M, García G, Calderon EJ, et al. Blastocystosis And Iron Deficiency Anemia in Pregnant Women. A Call to Deep in A Little-Known Association. J Gynecol Reprod Med. 2021; 5: 200-204.
- 42. El Deeb HK, Salah-Eldin H, Khodeer S. Blastocystis hominis as a contributing risk factor for development of iron deficiency anemia in pregnant women. Parasitol Res. 2012; 110:2167-2174.
- 43. Aleaga Y, Domenech I, De Armas Y, Núñez F, Fonte L. Asociación entre blastocistosis y anemia por déficit de hierro en mujeres embarazadas en el municipio La Lisa, La Habana, Cuba. Rev Cub Obstet Ginecol. 2019; 45: e482.
- 44. Zavaleta N, Caulfield LE, Garcia T. Changes in iron status during pregnancy in Peruvian women receiving prenatal iron and folic acid supplements with or without zinc. Am J Clin Nutr. 2000; 71: 956-961.
- 45. Parisi F, Berti C, Mandò C, Martinelli A, Mazzali C, et al. Effects of different regimens of iron
- prophylaxis on maternal iron status and pregnancy outcome: a randomized control trial. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med. 2017; 15: 1787-1792.
- 46. Stevens GA, Finucane M, De-Regil LM, Paciorek CJ, Flaxman SR, et al. Global, regional, and national trends in haemoglobin concentration and prevalence of total and severe anaemia in children and pregnant and non-pregnant women for 1995-2011: a systematic analysis of population-representative data. Lancet Glob Health. 2013; 1: 16-25.
- 47. Anlaakuu P, Anto F. Anaemia in pregnancy and associated factors: a cross sectional study of antenatal attendants at the Sunyani Municipal Hospital, Ghana. BMC Res Notes. 2017; 10: 402.
- 48. Daru J, Zamora J, Fernandez-Félix BM, Vogel J, Oladapo OT, et al. Risk of maternal mortality in women with severe anaemia during pregnancy and post-partum: a multilevel analysis. Lancet Glob Health. 2018; 6: 548-554.

Volume 3 | Issue 2 | 2023 4

49. Zhang Q, Lu XM, Zhang M, Yang CY, Lv SY, et al. Adverse effects of iron deficiency anemia on pregnancy outcome and offspring development and intervention of three iron supplements. Sci Rep. 2021; 11: 1-11.

Volume 3 | Issue 2 | 2023 5