

1
2 **Improving Access to Maternal and**
3 **Reproductive Health Services in Underserved**
4 **West African Communities: Evidence-Based**
5 **Strategies for Health Systems Strengthening**
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11
12 **ABSTRACT**
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Aim: To examine the improvement of access to maternal and reproductive health services in underserved West African Communities with consideration to evidence-based strategies for health systems strengthening.

Problem Statement: Minimizing child and maternal mortality is an essential goal of the Millennium declaration and a main concern for policy makers in in underserved West African Communities. One of the vital barriers to lowering maternal mortality is the low use of maternal health services made available by the public health system via it supply side lifestyles.

Significance of Study: The health and well-being of women and their families in underserved West African communities is paramount. While consideration is given to actions and strategies to advance maternal health, it is highly imperative to address health issues across the life course.

Methodology: Previous literatures, journals, books, research write-ups and other related materials on the internet regarding to how access to maternal and reproductive health services can be improved were consulted.

Discussion: This literature review was able to identify various health issues regarding maternal morbidity and mortality that should be addressed starting with adolescents and young girls and spreading through age of childbearing and beyond. Different stakeholders identified who should positively contribute in solving the problems include states, tribes, and local communities; women and families; health systems, hospitals, and birthing facilities; healthcare professionals, health systems, hospitals, and birthing facilities; employers; payors; researchers; and innovators. It was recommended that everyone should contribute via the creation of enabling environments which support the women well-being and health, encouraging healthy pregnancies, avoiding risk factors development, and ensuring access to high-quality healthcare before, during, and after pregnancy. It was also noticed that the circumstances under which women are born, work, live, grow and age significantly affect their health risks, health status and outcomes. These social determinants also contribute to ethnic and racial differences in maternal health outcomes that are tenacious and are vital to address if progress on reducing maternal morbidity and mortality and improving maternal health can be achieved in underserved West African communities.

Conclusion: In conclusion, it is imperative to assist pregnant women while embarking onto the motherhood journey in order to harmonise the different maternal health procedures, and

linking pregnant women with younger generations.

14

15 *Keywords: Health Systems Strengthening, Evidence-Based Strategies, Maternal and*
16 *Reproductive Health Services, Underserved West African Communities, Pregnancy-related*
17 *situations*

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20 **1. INTRODUCTION**

21 The reduction of child and maternal mortality in underserved West African communities is a
22 main concern for policy makers and an essential goal of the Millennium declaration. In every
23 year, more than five hundred thousand of women die due to child birth and pregnancy
24 complications while more than 10 million women suffer infection, injury or disease due to
25 pregnancy. Nonetheless, 98 per cent of a total of 514 000 maternal deaths occurred in
26 developing countries (mostly West African communities) as stated by UNFPA update on
27 maternal mortality estimates. In most of the developed countries, It is unusual for maternal
28 mortality rates to be more than 10 per 100 000 live births [1]. However, it is usual to notice
29 maternal mortality rates more than 500 per 100 000 live births in some developing countries.
30 Additionally, maternal services are vital in the prevention of morbidity and deaths among the
31 newborns [2].

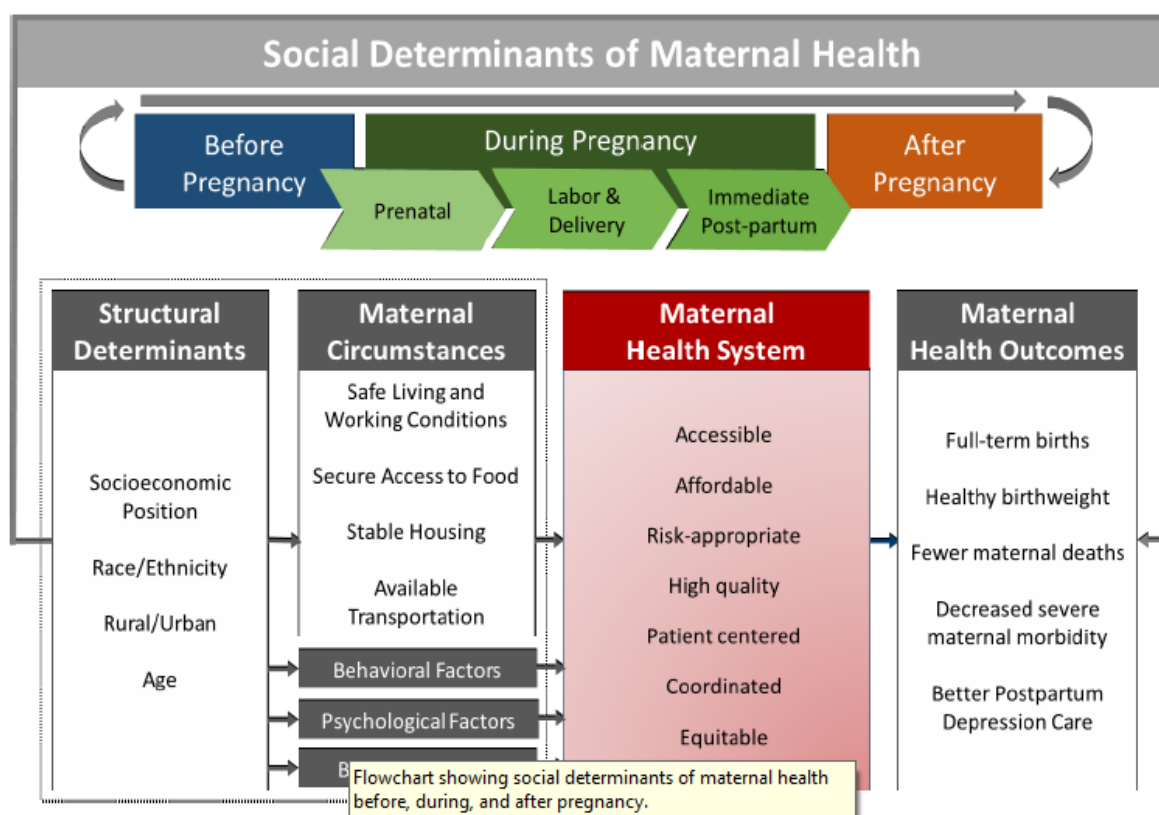
32 The death of a woman during pregnancy or within 42 days of pregnancy termination is
33 referred to as “maternal death”. This is regardless of pregnancy site and duration, from any
34 cause related to or worsened by the pregnancy management but not from incidental or
35 accidental causes. Maternal death is an excellent signal of health services utilization which
36 indicates the extent of pregnancy-related situations, near-miss happenings, other potentially
37 demoralizing consequences after birth, and the long-term social, psychological and
38 economic significances. There has been noticeable progress and positive transformations in
39 maternal health in some underserved West African communities [2]. However, in the last
40 three decades, many operations have failed to increase maternal health. This is mainly due
41 to neglected health systems. A case of Safe Motherhood Initiative which was launched in
42 1987 in Kenya by international agencies signified inability to generate a broad-based
43 improvement in public health area due to the failure to translate recommendations into local
44 practice [3].

45 Numerous studies have been presented and have been recognized maternity health
46 services access as a key indicator for lowering maternal mortality in some underserved West
47 African communities. Numerous individuals (the poor inclusive) are not utilising the services
48 which are provided for free by the government at the point of use. Instead of this, citizens
49 prefer to select private sector considering demand and supply factors [4]. Numerous studies
50 revealed private sector is a vital health care source in many underserved West African
51 communities. Both the poor and rich alike patronize private health care for different services
52 like institutional deliveries, antenatal care, hospitalization and ambulatory care. With
53 reference to this and giving preference for private providers, private providers must be
54 involved in adopting any strategy that will improve having easy access to reproductive and
55 child health services in developing countries where government health care is of poor quality
56 and inadequate [5].

57 Inadequate knowledge regarding the importance of seeking medical attention during labour
58 and pregnancy is usually believed to adversely influence decision making processes and
59 health behaviour. The choice of looking for healthcare is implanted and entangled with social
60 and cultural practices especially for women in isolated rural villages [6]. Women's
61 affordability, employment and education are the most commonly recognized factors

62 influencing antenatal care uptake. A meta-synthesis of standard studies recognized essential
 63 key issues behind women not using antenatal services in low- and middle-income countries.
 64 These include community belief systems that place pregnancy as physiologically healthy and
 65 socially risky that constraints the initial access to maternal healthcare. Uptake is also
 66 affected by physical limitations and other financial constraints surrounding patient transfer in
 67 situations of extreme poverty [7].

68 Many of the maternal deaths happen at homes in majority of the rural areas among less-
 69 privileged communities and during the peripartum period which ranges between the last
 70 three months of the pregnancy and the first week after the end of the pregnancy. A peak in
 71 maternal mortality happens during the intrapartum period around the first day post-partum
 72 and childbirth [8]. On this, there is availability of sufficient data to inform global action
 73 However, most fragile and the poorest countries possess the poorest data to measure and
 74 monitor maternal health. Knowledge of the context is needed to design a health system
 75 which addresses the local situation. The deficiency of openly available data and restricted
 76 published literature constrain contextually based interventions in order to increase maternal
 77 health in many underserved West African communities. Figure 1 is the diagrammatic
 78 summary of the social determinants of maternal health before, during and after pregnancy
 79 grouped into four categories: structural determinants, maternal circumstances, maternal
 80 health system and maternal health outcomes [9].



81

82 Figure 1: Diagrammatic summary of the social determinants of maternal health before,
 83 during and after pregnancy

84 The major reasons behind maternal deaths within the health system resulted from
85 remoteness; insufficient experienced birth attendants and interruption in referral for
86 emergency obstetric care; poor or delay interventions implementation at the facility level; and
87 vertical care delivery in which single elements of care are executed without connecting with
88 the broad care. Maternal health services are determined by the multifaceted interdependent
89 functioning of the whole health system [10]. The connections between inputs, process and
90 outputs depend on confounding factors and numerous influences, and each country's
91 context is a function of many factors that affect the outputs of maternal health and the
92 service performance. The difficulty in accessing quality maternal health services, the
93 intermittent demand nature and broad range of powerful stakeholders having various
94 priorities and agendas give room for the health system to be tremendously complex.
95 Additionally, international donors may affect the situations of a country's health programmes
96 to satisfy their own agenda [11].

97 Many approaches have been recommended to decrease maternal mortality including referral
98 systems involving comprehensive and basic emergency obstetric care, antenatal care,
99 contraception and postnatal care. Recent study has shown the evidence indicating the
100 successful role and significant of family planning as a preventative approach in lowering
101 maternal mortality. Antenatal care involving provision of Misoprostol for avoidance of
102 postpartum haemorrhage at home births has proved to be cost effective interventions in
103 minimizing maternal deaths [12]. However, it is now obvious that high coverage of crucial
104 interventions in healthcare facilities does not essentially minimize maternal mortality mostly
105 as a result of under-utilized services. Universal health access is not attainable except
106 women are cared for in their own communities. Additionally, strengthening of women's
107 capabilities and capacity is needed in order to take ownership of the resolutions about their
108 care at the required time without relying on others in making decisions for them. Thus a
109 vibrant focus in achieving universal maternal healthcare access is to overcome demand side
110 barriers [13].

111 Presently, RCH services in numerous underserved West African communities are tax
112 financed and delivered by the public health system via supply-side financing methods. This
113 technique is collectively 'free' for all and the funding is for inputs with reference to recurrent
114 and capital costs. As governments are directly engaged in health services provision by
115 employing many competent staff supported with buildings and equipment, this causes a
116 massive financial investment providing small flexibility to move resources [10]. Substantial
117 allocative deficiencies result as a huge percentage of health budgets move in line with the
118 payment of salaries with small left for equipment maintenance and drugs. There is usually no
119 competition, limited option to the consumer, and services are frequently of poor human
120 quality when governments run monopolistic health care provision. Additionally, there is small
121 incentive for the government to improve staff performance or to be responsive to their
122 patients as the staff salaries are paid at month end irrespective of the delivered outputs [9].

123 Finally, there are clear inequalities in terms of health services utilisation and access as well
124 as health outputs through socio-economic groups as supply side financing is bad in targeting
125 [7]. Therefore the task is to discover innovative ways via which government subsidies could
126 be excellently targeted towards those who do not have the capacity to pay, and to increase
127 service efficiency and equity, provide the option of providers and increase care quality and
128 responsiveness. Any financing reform in underserved West African communities should
129 handle the shortcomings of the current universal, supply-driven free-for-all and tax based
130 financing model [6]. These results are feasible if the approach promotes competition and its
131 able to involve the private sector with reference to government thinking and the patients
132 preferences. This review examines the attached risks to maternal health in underserved

133 West African communities and looks into evidence-based strategies for health systems
134 strengthening [14].

135 **2. RISKS TO MATERNAL HEALTH IN UNDERSERVED WEST AFRICAN** 136 **COMMUNITIES**

137 Numerous health situations that persist before pregnancy may lead to complications during
138 pregnancy. These situations can possibly cause death or other hostile outcomes for the
139 baby or mother. Unhealthy weight, diabetes, high blood pressure, diabetes and infectious
140 diseases calls for special treatment during pregnancy [15]. Other related risk factors such as
141 mental health conditions, substance use disorders and intimate partner violence can also
142 contribute to the negative outcomes. Some women are more possibly to have these
143 situations than others. For instance, records have shown higher pre-pregnancy obesity and
144 overweight rates in Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian and black women than non-Hispanic
145 white women. In comparison to white women, diagnosis of diabetes before pregnancy is
146 expected in Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian women. In underserved West African
147 communities, black women whose ages range between 20 and 44 years possess higher
148 hypertension prevalence more than twice that of other ethnic and racial groups.
149 Reproductive-aged women having disabilities like difficulty in vision, mobility, cognition,
150 hearing, independent living and self-care are possibly at high risks to healthy pregnancies in
151 comparison to women with no disabilities. Various identified risks to maternal health in
152 underserved West African communities include hypertension, diabetes, unhealthy weight,
153 infectious diseases, substance use and substance use disorders and mental health [12].

154 **• HIGH BLOOD PRESSURE (HYPERTENSION)**

155 About 13 percent of women between the age of 18 and 39 years had prolonged
156 hypertension. Over time, chronic hypertension had been on increase amidst pregnant
157 women resulting from increase in obesity rates and increased maternal age. Women having
158 hypertension are placed at higher risk for pregnancy difficulties such as kidney failure,
159 placental abruption (premature placenta separation from the uterus linked with abnormal
160 bleeding), cesarean delivery and superimposed preeclampsia. Infant complications can also
161 occur including fetal growth restriction and premature birth [10]. It is now recommended by
162 National guidelines that in order for pregnant women to achieve optimal control of their
163 hypertension, individuals are expected to self-monitor their blood pressure outside the
164 clinical setting and work intimately with their healthcare teams. Preeclampsia and gestational
165 hypertension (high blood pressure occurring first after 20 weeks of pregnancy) are
166 hypertensive disorders occurring basically during pregnancy. Women with these situations
167 are at higher risk of future cardiovascular disease [13].

168 **• DIABETES**

169 A disease which occurs when the blood glucose (blood sugar) is too high is called diabetes.
170 About 3% of women whose age is between 20 and 44 years were diagnosed with diabetes
171 in 2011-2016 from which the diabetes of more than half was not under control. Diabetes can
172 lead to serious complications over time such as stroke and heart disease, as well as damage
173 to kidneys, eyes and nerves. Women having diabetes before pregnancy are at higher risk for
174 pregnancy complications such as miscarriage or stillbirth, cesarean section, birth defects,
175 preeclampsia, macrosomia and preterm birth. Gestational diabetes is a kind which occurs
176 during pregnancy. In United States, about 7 percent of women who gave birth in 2018 had
177 gestational diabetes [14]. Women having gestational diabetes are also at improved risk of
178 difficulties during pregnancy and delivery including cesarean section, fetal macrosomia,
179 preeclampsia, prematurity and shoulder dystocia.

180 • **UNHEALTHY WEIGHT**

181 A screening tool used in defining weight categories is the body mass index (BMI) and is
182 based on a person's weight and height. The different weight groups are: normal weight
183 (18.5-24.9 kg/m²), underweight (<18.5 kg/m²), obese (≥ 30 kg/m²) and overweight (25- 29.9
184 kg/m²). Many West African communities are presently undergoing a decades-long obesity
185 epidemic which can be linked with numerous diseases and other health situations such as
186 type 2 diabetes, heart disease, stroke, high blood pressure, mental illness and sleep apnea.
187 Prevalence of obesity has been on the increase in the last two decades in some West
188 African communities especially for women and adolescent girls [15].

189 • **INFECTIOUS DISEASES**

190 There can be pregnancy complications in cases where infectious diseases prevail. This
191 places a woman and her infant at risk for hostile events. These can include viral infections
192 (such as rubella, influenza, human immunodeficiency virus or HIV, viral hepatitis) as well as
193 bacterial infections (such as urinary tract infections, tuberculosis, gonorrhea, listeriosis,
194 chlamydia, syphilis and other sexually transmitted infections). Prenatal care includes testing
195 and screening for numerous infectious diseases. Routine immunizations are essential in the
196 protection against infectious diseases [16]. COVID-19 is an evolving viral disease that has
197 obstructed millions of individuals across the globe. Recent evidence reveals that among the
198 reproductive-aged women between 15 and 44 years having COVID-19, pregnant women are
199 most possible be hospitalized and get admitted into an intensive care unit for mechanical
200 ventilation when compared with non-pregnant women. Information is still evolving regarding
201 COVID-19 impact on infant and maternal health outcomes [13].

202 • **SUBSTANCE USE AND SUBSTANCE USE DISORDERS**

203 About 12 percent of pregnant women were reported to be using tobacco products in the
204 previous month With reference to the 2018 National Survey on Drug Use and Health.
205 Nonetheless, approximately 10 percent of pregnant women during the same time were
206 reported using alcohol and about 5 percent were reported to be engaged in drug use which
207 includes opioids, marijuana, cocaine and others [17]. These are harmful substances to a
208 mother and her infant. Different complications resulting from substance use during
209 pregnancy may include miscarriage, ectopic pregnancy or stillbirth while other complications
210 which may injure the baby include fetal alcohol spectrum disorders, premature birth, birth
211 defects, Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS), neonatal abstinence syndrome (group of
212 symptoms affecting babies exposed to drugs, commonly opioids while in the uterus), or low
213 birth weight. Substance use disorders occurrence exists when the repeated use of alcohol
214 and/or drugs leads to significant impairment including disability, health problems, and
215 inability to meet major responsibilities at school, work and home. Substance use disorders
216 are usually underdiagnosed amidst women which occurred irrespective of socio-
217 demographic attributes causing high costs for families, individuals, and society. Between
218 1999 and 2014, national rates of opioid use disorder at delivery greater than quadrupled
219 increasing from 1.5 to 6.5 per 1,000 delivery hospitalizations [18].

220

221

222 • **MENTAL HEALTH**

223 Mental health situations are also general difficulties during pregnancy and in the postpartum
224 period. It may influence poor maternal outcomes. It has been stated that MMRCs between
225 2008 and 2017 revealed that about 10 percent of pregnancy related deaths resulted from
226 mental health situations. These situations act as principal factors in injury or death as a
227 result of overdose or suicide. Mental health situations in the postpartum period such as
228 postpartum depression, are linked with decreased breastfeeding initiation, poorer maternal
229 and infant bonding' and delayed infant development [8].

230

231 **3. EVIDENCE-BASED STRATEGIES FOR HEALTH SYSTEMS** 232 **STRENGTHENING IN UNDERSERVED WEST AFRICAN COMMUNITIES**

233

234 There is need for critical and comprehensive approach towards addressing the unacceptable
235 high rates of severe maternal morbidity and mortality having known the importance of
236 maternal health to our communities, families and nation at large. A sole attention on the
237 perinatal time would disregard upstream health factors linked with protracted conditions as
238 well as other social and environmental factors contributing to poor outcomes. The framework
239 in tackling these problems has been laid via the provision of recommendations for preventive
240 measures that encourage maxima women's health. The approaches and actions presented
241 are based on these recommendations together with consensus recommendations and
242 statements from other organizations. Specific actions that can be adopted in addressing the
243 conditions and risk factors alongside other factors that may impact maternal health are
244 outlined and stated further [11]. The opportunity for action exists in underserved West
245 African communities across the spectrum of women and families; tribes, states and local
246 communities; healthcare systems, hospitals and birthing facilities; healthcare professionals;
247 payors; employers; innovators, and researchers. Organizations, individuals and communities
248 should pick and take actions as applicable to their respective needs. The various strategies
249 include women and families; states, tribes and local communities; healthcare professionals;
250 health systems, hospitals, and birthing facilities; employers [5].

251 **• STATES, TRIBES AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES**

252 Supportive environments for women's health and tailored towards local challenges and
253 needs can be created by states, tribes and local communities. The infrastructure needed can
254 be created to involve in healthier lifestyles and to guarantee access to good quality medical
255 care [19]. There is need to provide national goals by healthy people to engage in disease
256 prevention efforts and guide health promotion. It is also imperative to state the significance
257 of physical and social environments creation that advance good health for all in underserved
258 West African communities. Usually referred to as health social determinants, the situations
259 into which people live, born, play, work, age and worship can powerfully affect their general
260 health. Examples of social determinants include public safety, resources availability to meet
261 daily needs (e.g., healthy food options), access to educational opportunities and crime
262 exposure. Physical determinants examples include built and natural environments (e.g.
263 sidewalks, green space, bike lanes), and community and housing design, and physical
264 hazards exposure. Case studies have revealed that improvement of health outcomes is
265 feasible where there is a coordinated and concerted effort relating both communities and
266 healthcare systems where their patients live [13].

267 States, tribes, and local communities can: (1) make provision for breastfeeding support at
268 the community and individual levels via the establishment of policies to encourage women's
269 abilities to breastfeed, attain their breastfeeding goals once they return to their worksites and
270 communities, and thus attain total health advantages of breastfeeding for their babies and

271 themselves, (2) create physical and social environments that encourage good health;
272 improve factors that influence wellness and health including clean water and air, safe
273 communities, access to affordable healthy food, public transportation, stable housing, parks
274 and sidewalks; and other social health determinants, and (3) Strengthen perinatal
275 regionalization and quality improvement initiatives by considering adoption of a classification
276 system for maternal care that guarantees infants and women receive risk-appropriate care in
277 all the region using national-level resources [19].

278 • **WOMEN AND FAMILIES**

279 Women can play a vital role in achieving, promoting and maintaining their wellbeing and
280 health, usually with the assistance from partners, fathers and other family members.
281 Preventive wellness and health consultations can provide women with risk factor
282 assessment, screenings, counseling, immunizations, assistance for family planning and
283 education to propagate optimal health. Women can monitor their general health, involve in
284 healthy activities, and address situations they may have such as obesity, diabetes and
285 hypertension. Numerous resources in the form of mobile applications, books, guides and
286 social media provide information regarding what is expected before, during and after
287 pregnancy alongside information on preventive care, medications, essential health behaviors
288 and potential risks. Prenatal appointments give opportunity for healthcare professionals to
289 monitor pregnancy, execute prenatal screening tests, deliberate questions and concerns that
290 women may have, including delivery plans and feeding of infant, and provision of
291 recommendations to encourage a healthy pregnancy [15].

292 It is imperative for women and families to focus on (1) promoting men's positive participation
293 as fathers and partners which include engaging men in decision-making to assist the
294 woman's health in a way that it facilitates and promotes women's options and their
295 independence in decision-making, (2) utilizing resources that give information regarding
296 occurrence of changes with a healthy pregnancy and how to identify the warning indications
297 for complications which may likely need quick medical attention, (3) improving the general
298 health which involves engaging in healthy practices and behaviors via participation in steady
299 physical activity, getting sufficient sleep, eating healthy and receiving ongoing preventive
300 care that involves dental care and immunizations, (4) attending prenatal, primary care,
301 postpartum and any suggested specialty care consultations and give health information,
302 including pregnancy complications and history, to their health care providers during all
303 medical care consultations, even after delivery period, and (5) asking questions and talking
304 to healthcare professionals regarding health concerns including any symptoms being
305 experienced, previous health complications, or concerns regarding potentially sensitive case
306 such as substance use [20].

307

308 • **HEALTHCARE PROFESSIONALS**

309 Factors contributing to women's general health and work to recognize and tackle potential
310 pregnancy risks should be understood by full range of healthcare teams and professionals.
311 Every medical interaction or appointment with health care professionals is an opportunity to
312 ascertain that care standards and women full needs are being met. Healthcare professionals
313 can ascertain that the care provided is culturally appropriate and scientifically-sound to the
314 individual and their corresponding community given the massive diversity in economy,
315 geography, ethnic and racial make-up across underserved West African communities [8].
316 Providers may be inhibited from getting a full understanding of a patient's medical risks and
317 condition via divided care across healthcare settings. There exist many opportunities across

318 providers to progress communication including via mobile applications adoption, care
319 coordination and enhanced interoperability of electronic health records. Even healthcare
320 professionals who do not often care for pregnant women play active role in minimizing
321 maternal mortality and morbidity [16]. Coordinating and engaging care amidst various set of
322 healthcare professionals such as dentists, emergency department providers, social workers,
323 primary care providers, cardiologists, psychologists and endocrinologists can be tasking, but
324 strengthens the ability to address, identify and prevent injury [7].

325 • **HEALTH SYSTEMS, HOSPITALS AND BIRTHING FACILITIES**

326 Health systems should make provision for comprehensive care for the complete range of
327 women's health before, during, and after pregnancy. Hospitals should provide the massive
328 majority of delivery services within these systems. About 98% of all live births happened in
329 hospital settings in 2018. Numerous underserved West African communities have lost their
330 hospital-based obstetric services over the past two decades. Women are more probable to
331 have out-of-hospital births in these areas and to deliver in hospitals in the absence of
332 obstetric units when compared with those living in rural counties that retained hospital-based
333 obstetric services [14]. Additionally, access to maternal care in the postpartum and prenatal
334 period in underserved or rural areas may be limited. This can be addressed by health and
335 hospital systems via techniques such as telemedicine and linking facilities that do not
336 provide well-organized childbirth services with those that do, and enhancing quick
337 consultation and safe transportation to the suitable level of maternal care. The designation of
338 levels of care helps in ensuring that women receive care at facilities that are best equipped
339 in addressing their needs [21].

340 • **PAYORS**

341 Health insurance coverage is a vital factor influencing health care utilization and access.
342 Payors – including the Children's Health Insurance Program, state-based Medicaid and
343 private health insurers -- can play a vital role in addressing maternal health via assisting in
344 ensuring access to and affordability of high quality preconception, prenatal, postpartum care
345 and delivery [10]. Access to and reimbursement for comprehensive care Women's
346 Preventive Services Initiative, preventive services recommended and Bright Futures
347 Guidelines for Health Supervision of Children, Infants and Adolescents can guarantee
348 children and women receive recommended services. These services may include mental
349 health support, substance use treatment and screening, breastfeeding support; preventive
350 screening (e.g., weight status, cancer, blood pressure, infectious diseases, diabetes,
351 sexually transmitted infections) and vaccinations, and screening for family violence and
352 intimate partner [17].

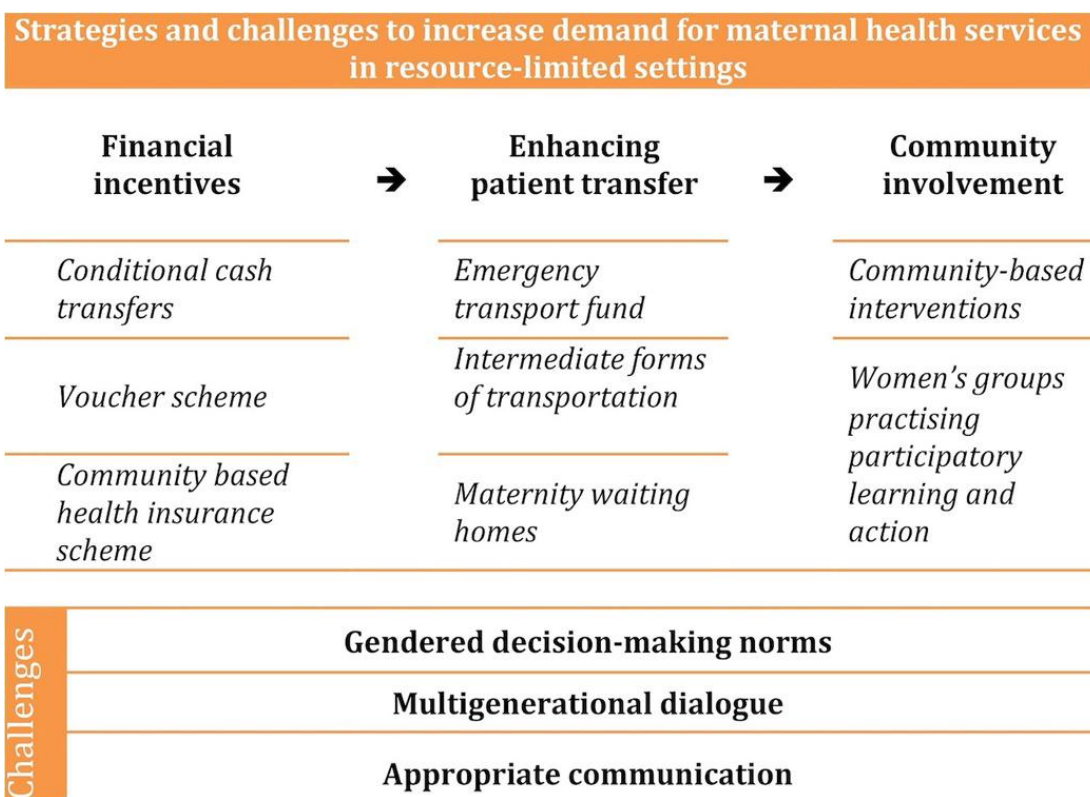
353 Assuring a broad range of healthcare professionals are engaged in a health plan's network
354 may widen women's access to complete services that address the whole spectrum of care.
355 Programs coverage such as those that can fund conveyance to appointments, or
356 technology, such as applications that ease chronic situation management and appropriate
357 and convenient communication, can lower barriers to care. Generally, while there are
358 numerous procedures that payors can consider for assisting to advance maternal health,
359 more research is required to evaluate the influence of these actions on maternal health
360 outcomes [22].

361 • **EMPLOYERS**

362 Employers play vital role in the establishment of expectations and norms around the support
363 of working mothers such as workplace policies and paid family leave. The postpartum period

364 is a critical period for women to bond with their new infant(s), gain strength after birth and
 365 firmly create breastfeeding practices. Prioritization of parental leave has been placed on high
 366 consideration by lawmakers in some developed nations [23-24]. Family and Medical Leave
 367 Act (FMLA) was signed into law in 1993 to make provision for certain employees up to 12
 368 weeks of unpaid leave including after the birth or adoption of a child. This is applicable to
 369 public agencies (local, state, or federal government agencies), private-sector employers with
 370 50 or more employees; and private and public elementary and secondary schools. More
 371 than half of the workforce is being covered by FMLA. However, some authorized women
 372 may not be able to take this unpaid leave for financial reasons. Act signed into law in 2019
 373 provides Federal civilian employees with up to 12 weeks of paid parental leave to enable
 374 them care for a new child whether through adoption, birth, or foster care which began in
 375 October 2020 [25]. Figure 2 shows the conceptual framework for approaches to tackle
 376 demand-side barriers to maternal healthcare access and their shortcomings. The procedure
 377 involves movement from financial incentives to enhancing patient transfer for onward
 378 movement into community involvement.

379



380

381 Figure 2: Conceptual framework for tactics in overcoming demand-side barriers to maternal
 382 healthcare access and their shortcomings

383

384

385 **4. CONCLUSION**

386

387 The health and well-being of women and their families in underserved West African
388 communities is paramount and to future generations. While consideration is given to actions
389 and strategies to advance maternal health, it is highly imperative to address health issues
390 across the life course -- starting with adolescents and young girls and spreading through age
391 of childbearing and beyond, while involving different stakeholders including states, tribes,
392 and local communities; women and families; health systems, hospitals, and birthing facilities;
393 healthcare professionals, health systems, hospitals, and birthing facilities; employers;
394 payors; researchers; and innovators. Everyone can contribute via the creation of enabling
395 environments which support the women well-being and health, encouraging healthy
396 pregnancies, avoiding risk factors development, and ensuring access to high-quality
397 healthcare before, during, and after pregnancy. The circumstances under which women are
398 born, work, live, grow and age significantly affect their health risks, health status and
399 outcomes. These social determinants also contribute to ethnic and racial differences in
400 maternal health outcomes that are tenacious and are vital to address if progress on reducing
401 maternal morbidity and mortality and improving maternal health can be achieved in
402 underserved West African communities. There can be joint work to better understand these
403 differences and to recognize and execute prevention approaches to achieve health equity. In
404 conclusion, it is imperative to assist pregnant women while embarking onto the motherhood
405 journey in order to harmonise the different maternal health procedures, and linking pregnant
406 women with younger generations.

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